TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CITIZENSHIP AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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This study examines citizenship education policy and practice as they are perceived by teachers in three different societies — the United States, England, and Hong Kong. Through a secondary analysis of the teacher data in Civics Education Study (CIVED), conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), it identifies similarities and differences in teachers' beliefs and perceptions of citizenship, citizenship education, their professional preparation for their work as civic teachers, and their teaching practices. Six research questions have guided this investigation which was grounded on the literature of models of citizenship and of global vs. national cultural factors affecting education systems. The findings reveal strong consensus among teachers in the three countries suggesting that civics education matters a great deal for students' political development and for their countries. Teachers, also, in the three countries, do not demonstrate a great deal of differentiation among the citizenship models and categories prescribed in the literature. For the teaching practices, the study presents that indirect teacher-centered methods dominate civics education classrooms, and that political socialization in the form of knowledge transmission is the most emphasized objective in these countries' schools. The study concludes with recommendations to education policy-makers to consider teachers' suggestion of the need to improve the quality of civics materials and sufficient training. The study, also, suggests diversifying the data of the future IEA studies in civics by incorporating qualitative and quantitative data that aim to explain the process of teaching and learning, and the educational outcomes as well. Finally, it recommends that cross-national studies need to consider and theorize as much about similarities and common features among various educational systems as they currently do for the differences among these systems. Also, it suggests a need to develop a more inclusive theoretical framework of citizenship.

DEDICATION

To my dad Abdullwahab, my father, my first teacher, and my closest friend whom I totally believe that he enjoys my success more than what I do,

To my mom Hayat, the mother with all its meanings of unconditional love and unlimited support, To my beloved wife Morouj, whose continues supports and sacrifices have been a fuel for our success,

And to my beautiful Linah, Deemah, and Sarah; the future I believe in.

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1. THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Citizenship education has again become a focus of educational research around the world with increasing implementation of citizenship education programs in formal schooling. Different reasons have contributed to this development including the fall of communism, re-emergence of old states in Europe as well as in Asia, and globalization and global economy forces. In addition, many democratic societies, as a result of this global change, have perceived a decline in social capital and a growth of social disorder, new waves of immigration and an increasing decline of political participation (Cogan *et al.*, 2002). Thus, citizenship education, as a global phenomenon, is implemented in different societies as a way either to preserve the nationalistic loyalty and empower patriotic attitudes, or to prepare students to live in the globalization age.

This study aims to examine citizenship education policy and practice as they are perceived by teachers in three different societies — the United States, England, and Hong Kong. A secondary analysis of the teachers' survey in Civics Education Study (CIVED), conducted by The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), will reveal the similarities and differences in teachers' beliefs and perceptions of citizenship, citizenship education, their professional preparation for their work as civic teachers, and their teaching practices in different contexts.

In this introductory chapter, I present a rationale for this study, followed by a statement of problem. Then, I list the research questions, and end with a discussion of the research limitations.

1.2. RATIONAL FOR THE STUDY

Research interest in citizenship education has been taking place in the academic arena since the late 1950s under the name of political socialization (Almond & Verba, 1989; Merelman, 1972; Niemi & Sobieszek, 1977). In her summarization of political socialization research in the 1960s and 70s, Torney-Purta (2000) observes that research at that time was substantively concentrated in the United States and the United Kingdom, and was conducted primarily by political scientists, psychologists and some sociologists. For political scientists, the purpose of this research was to trace partisanship from generation to generation, assess the sources of diffused support for national political systems and understand the roots of student protest. Some psychologists were concerned about political learning and the development of political attitudes in early childhood. For sociologists who were not involved a lot in this field thirty years ago, their research aims to study students' attitudes toward authority, the nation or economics, to assess the effectiveness of particular models of citizenship education, and to compare differences among subgroups in one particular society (Torney-Purta, 2000).

In the 1990s and for different reasons, citizenship education has become a global phenomenon with its implementation in school curriculum in different parts of the world that have not experienced this subject before (Rauner, 1998). Moreover, educational researchers have contributed increasingly to the field by assessing students' political knowledge and attitudes in national and international tests (Niemi & Junn, 1998; Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001), or by conducting qualitative case studies about the status of civic education in a particular society (Banks, 2004; Cogan et al., 2002; Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999b). In addition, some studies combined the two methods like the work of Hahn (1998).

However, two important issues have been overlooked in most of these studies: the role of teachers as deliverers of this subject to future citizens , and the global nature of introducing civic

education into curriculum in different parts of the world (Arnot *et al.*, 2000; Ichilov, 2003). It was constantly observed, as in the mentioned references, that teachers' perceptions and attitudes were not usually considered in much of the citizenship education research, while much of the concentrations were given to students and learning. The focus usually was concentrated in most of the research on students learning and eventual outcomes, and little on teachers and teaching process. One the other hand, the evolving implementation of civics has been taking place globally, which means that even though local cultures and national interests have been greatly influencing the definition of citizenship and the design of citizenship education, the global flourishing of this subject might suggest that global cultural dynamics should have also influenced this introduction and implementation. Thus, there is a need for a study that investigates teachers' perceptions on citizenship and citizenship education, and at the same time considers the similarities and differences among different groups of teachers.

Therefore, this study's primary focus is on teachers' perception on citizenship and citizenship education, and it is based on a secondary analysis of part of international dataset that has been collected from teachers in 28 countries. The focus of this study is limited to teachers in three selected countries: Hong Kong, England, and the United States. Out of the 28 participating countries, the selection of these three was based on the researcher's assumption that the comparative analysis should be conducted among groups that share many similar features, but simultaneously each one has its own distinguished characteristics. These three societies have some common features in terms of the roots of their educational systems, and their economic status. However, they are different, to varying degrees, in regard to the structure of their educational systems, their political cultures, and their implementation of citizenship education (The detailed discussion of these similarities and differences is presented in chapter three).

Thus, in addition to addressing teachers' perceptions of and practices in teaching citizenship education in these three countries, this investigation of similarities and differences among them might contribute to the discussion of global vs. national or local influences over education and educational practices.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This project is a comparative study of teachers' responses to different questions regarding citizenship and citizenship education across three countries. It is based on a secondary analysis of the IEA *Civic Education Study's (CIVED)* data which have been of pre-designed and collected before this study. Though it shares with IEA's project a general interest in civic education, this study's purpose and focus are not similar to that of IEA's. And this difference in focus and purpose has imposed some limitations on the study which are not controllable by a secondary analyst. This section presents the statement of the problem, the research questions, definitions of common terms, and discusses the limitation of doing a secondary analysis of the IEA data for the study's purpose.

1.3.1. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine empirically the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England and Hong Kong. This will be achieved by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems.

1.3.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

There are six research questions, which this investigation answered:

- 1. Who teaches civics in the United States, England, and Hong Kong in terms of gender, qualification, years of experience, and professional training?
- 2. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree in their perceptions of "good citizenship"? What kind of knowledge, skills, and behaviors will be required to be a good citizen?
- 3. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?
- 4. How different is the type of citizenship education taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?
- 5. What kinds of activities and teaching strategies do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong employ and utilize in their civics classes?
- 6. From teachers' perspectives in the United States, England, and Hong Kong, what is essentially needed to improve citizenship education?

The description of the data collection and analysis will be detailed in Chapter 3..

1.3.3. DEFINITIONS

It is important at this early stage to provide general definition of terms that are going to be used a lot in this study, which includes citizenship, and citizenship education.

For the citizenship, it has been perceived as "a basis for community, a source of personal identity, and a model of social organization" (Law, 2004)

In regard to citizenship education, which is equally substituted with civic education and civics in this study, refers to an intended education program (a body of knowledge, understanding, skills, and attitudes) that concerns with the young people's understanding of

society, particularly with influencing what students learn and understand about social world (Kerr, 1999b). And it aims to transmit social norm, or/and encourage political participation. The comprehensive or inclusive citizenship education refers to a model where different aspects of citizenship, patriotic, participatory and critical, are integrated.

1.3.4. LIMITATIONS

In answering the research questions, this study is based on a secondary analysis of the IEA's data collected for the CIVED project. Doing secondary analysis for data that was designed and collected by other researchers should be considered as a limitation, particularly if the conceptual background is different. Although sociologists have conducted many studies by doing secondary analysis of IEA data (Baker & LeTendre, 2005; Ichilov, 2003; Post & Pong, 2000), the IEA studies generally, and the CIVED in particular, have not been importantly influenced by sociological paradigms and research agenda, like this study. Rather, it draws primarily on different competing paradigms from psychology and political science (Baker & LeTendre, 2000). However, considering the large scale of the IEA studies and diverse information about schools, curriculum and students' backgrounds from different resources should encourage the utilization of this data with recognition of the above-mentioned limitation.

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to citizenship education research and practices in many ways:

• First, for educational research, by focusing on teachers' perceptions and teaching practices, it addresses an important actor in the process political socialization in our schools, which was not the focus of much of the research on schools' role in political socialization.

- Second, by comparing similarities and differences among teachers in different nations, this study will contribute to the discussion of global vs. national or local influences on education and educational practices.
- Third, for sociological and political research in citizenship, it would also show how this concept has been conceived and delivered in different parts of the world, which might have some indication about the development of global citizenship and stateless citizens.
- Finally, this study would also contribute to lively policy debates in the U.S. and other parts of the world about the efficiency and effectiveness of educational policy borrowing and importing by showing the similarities and differences in the implementation of a particular subject in different societies.

In this next chapter, I am going to review the relative theoretical and empirical studies, followed by a methodology chapter where I describe the research design and data analysis.

2. THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine empirically the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England and Hong Kong. This will be achieved by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems. Two distinct lines of literature contributed to the formation and conceptualization of this study: models of citizenship and citizenship education, and the impact of cultural factors on teaching. In this chapter, the discussion of citizenship and citizenship education models will follow this introduction with critical review of selected previous studies that surveyed teachers' opinions about citizenship and citizenship education. Then, the relevance of literatures on cultural factors to this study will be discussed with presentation of the two dominant perspectives; *national culture* perspective and *global cultural dynamics*. The major assumptions and strengths of these approaches and selected empirical examinations will be reviewed. Lastly, I will discuss the implication of the literatures reviewed in this chapter on this study and its research questions.

2.2. PART I: CITIZENSHIP MODELS

Although schools are generally perceived to have a political role in a society, either as an agent of political transmission or as a motivator of transformation, the way through which schools do their job has been a debatable issue. Teachers generally, and civics educators in particular, have been assumed as influential agents within school systems (Bar-Tal & Harel, 2002). However, little theoretical and conceptual frameworks have examined directly the role of teachers in the schools' context of influencing the students' political attitudes and perceptions, and few studies cover building models that illustrate how teachers do influence and change their students in regard to political issues.

However, educationists and political theorists have identified different models of citizenship education that vary according to their theoretical orientation and their sociological paradigm preferences. It could be argued, by the way, that these models of citizenship education also serve to identify the political role teachers play, if it is taken into consideration that teachers usually are the school staff who do interact directly with students in classroom settings. Moreover, through these interactions, their model of citizenship education would be implemented. Further, in many contexts, teachers are involved in framing and writing civics curriculum that adopt one or more of the citizenship education models. In fact, some researchers (Anderson *et al.*, 1997; Leung & Print, 2002) who have investigated the role of teachers and their perceptions about political issues, have utilized some of these models as a base for their theoretical framework.

In this section, however, I develop an analytical framework that attempts to illustrate the two important dimensions of research on citizenship education. I tried to identify the different assumptions underlying different models of citizenship education, and based on that, I constructed a diagram that illustrates the interrelationship between these models. I will describe the two dimensions of research on citizenship education: sociological paradigm origin, and national-global dimension Then, I will bestow various models associated with each dimension and their distinguished characteristics. The variety of these models and their concentrations should help us understand the complexity of the role of teachers as political agents in schools. In addition, it will help to acknowledge the contributions and limitations of empirical studies done in this area, which will be reviewed in the last section.

2.2.1. DIMENSIONS OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION RESEARCH

Educational researchers and political scientists identified different theoretical frameworks and models of citizenship education. Hahn (1998), for example, in her cross-national study, presents two models of research: political socialization and cognitive developmental model. Barr and his colleagues (1977) in their analysis of social studies curriculum typify three models of citizenship education: transmission, citizenship education as social science, and reflective model. Gifford (2004), in his survey of trends in citizenship education in the UK, identifies two models: national and post-national citizenship education. Finally, Benavot (1996) recognizes, in his cross-national and longitudinal study of the effect of schools in forming political identity in different contexts, two distinct theoretical frameworks about the impact of education on democracy: modernization theory and institutionalization theory.

However, by examining these different categories and the differentiations discussed in previous research, some replication and overlapping between the different models could be identified. Therefore, I have tried to identify some commonalities between some models that I categorize into groups, each one centers on a particular focus and concern. Two dimensions, as a result, have been recognized that have fundamental importance in forming different models of citizenship education. The first dimension is a sociological paradigm dimension; that different grand sociological theories assume different roles of schooling in a society, and consequently, different models of citizenship education have been developed to describe the processes schools should employ to carry out their missions. The second dimension is the focus of citizenship education lessons and activities; that it should be either global post-national or national communitarian oriented. With recognition of these different dimensions, researchers can develop more comprehensive and inclusive theoretical frameworks that should elevate our understanding of the political role of teachers as instructors and implementers of these different models of citizenship education. Graph 1 summarizes these different dimensions and subsequent models. However, the rest of this chapter will discuss these dimensions and the models associated with each one.

2.2.1.1. Sociological Paradigm Origin Dimension

As discussed in sociology of education literatures (Davies, 1995; deMarrais & LeCompte, 1999; Ginsburg, 1998; Tyack, 1976), different sociological paradigms hold a variety of assumptions about the political role of schools, ranging from transmitting political values and knowledge to the students to raising their awareness about existent inequalities and contradictions embodied in the societal structure. Some of the citizenship education models presented in the literature have been based on these sociological paradigms. For example, citizenship education as political socialization has its root in functionalist paradigm, and reflective inquiry model was based on some interpretivist assumptions, while critical theory contributes to the emancipatory project of citizenship education.

Political Socialization Model

During the 1960s and 70s, the focus of this dominant model (Merelman, 1972) is on "the process by which political orientation become established and internalized in childhood and adolescence" (p.156). The first research published in this tradition is the work of Hyman (1959), which was a review and interpretation of early studies conducted in different disciplines such as political psychology, public opinion and electoral behaviors aiming to create a base for a new field that he named "political socialization" (Niemi & Sobieszek, 1977). The framework of this review was impressed by the Freudian analysis of political life, whose main concentration is on

children's attitudes toward political authority. Consequentially, this theoretical framework has influenced greatly studies on political socialization until the late 1970s (Dudley & Gitelson, 2002), when interest in this model declined due to factors explained below.

Different political agents were examined in political socialization model to assess their impacts on children's political attitudes, including family, school, media and the larger community. Regarding school, it was argued that its main responsibility is to prepare future citizens by inculcating students with a set of values, beliefs, skills and knowledge essential to the development of good citizens. "Good citizenship," in this model, implies three main characteristics (Barr *et al.*, 1977):

- Knowledge about the structure and function of government.
- Respect to the law and regulations.
- Engagement in conventional form of political participation.

It was assumed that by equipping children with essential knowledge and skills, more informed citizens will participate in society, which will lead essentially to more political development (Meyer, 1977). To examine the effects of schooling in this models, several studies, reported in (Merelman, 1972; Niemi & Sobieszek, 1977) utilize a variety of surveys and tests to measure children's attitudes and knowledge. However, these studies usually came out with fairly contradicting findings about the effect of school. This uncertainty in the findings about the role of schools and the limitation of this approach led researchers and theorists to reexamine the validity of the assumptions and research procedures utilized in political socialization model.

For the theoretical part, on one hand, this model was criticized for its presumption of the passive roles of teachers and students, where the former are perceived utterly as transmitters and conveyers and the latter as recipients without possibility for intervention from the part of

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individuals (Hahn, 1998). This determinant approach also neglects the effects of different historical and cultural backgrounds that might affect the way schools work. In addition, the assumption that children will maintain what they learn in schools to their adulthood, as well as the assumption that more educated citizens will lead to more political development have been taken for granted with no attempt to empirically measure their validity (Merelman, 1972; Meyer, 1975). These assumptions limit the research focus to the study of children's attitudes instead of examining directly the effects of education on early adulthood by looking at high school students.

On the other hand, methodologically, the heavy reliance of political socialization model on surveying children's attitudes is considered the main reason why it has conflicting results (Niemi & Sobieszek, 1977). Children's response to survey questions in most cases are vulnerable to random selection of answers or the search for politically right responses. In addition, this model is criticized for assessing school factors' and actors' affects on students' attitudes as a complete package. Instead, it was suggested to study the effect of different school factors, like teachers, curriculum, the school's climate, separately to discern different political attitudes including political trust and participation (Niemi & Junn, 1998). However, this tradition witnessed an early death in the early 1980s due to the limitations described above and to evolving interests in developing different models of citizenship education.

Reflective Inquiry Model

Influenced by interpretivist paradigm, this approach relies heavily on training students on some political skills and practices. Through the exploration and discussion of significant issues and problems in a society, reflective inquiry models develop students' skills on what has generally been called decision-making and value analysis techniques. The concentration on decision-making stems from the particular view of "good citizenship" inherited in this model. "Good citizen" is seen as a decision-maker whose participation is essential to the sustenance and stability of a democratic system (Giroux, 1980). In this model, promoting the process of social construction of reality, rather than imposing predetermined skills and knowledge, is the major classroom activity of civics teachers.

"Students," in this model according to Barr (1977), "are encouraged to explore their own values and either define problems within the context of their experience or to relate social problems to the day-to-day texture of their lives" (p.64). The most important technique in accomplishing this goal rests on the utilization of the problem-solving method as the principal pedagogical technique. Teachers, in this model, are not simply the source of knowledge and skills, and students are not simply the addressees of teachers' instruction. Rather, both are participants in a continuous negotiation and discussion that aims to develop their abilities as active critical citizens.

Although this model provides more roles that are active for both students and teachers, it does not yet provide convincing explanations about the link between having critical citizens and the stability and sustainability of democratic society.

Emancipatory (Critical) Citizenship Education

Adopting critical theory paradigm (Giroux, 1980), this model aims to "stimulate students' passions, imaginations and intellects so they will be moving to challenge the social, political, and economic forces that weigh so heavily upon their lives" (p.357). Instead of inculcating them with values and skills, or elevating their problem-solving skills through negotiation and discussion, this model proposes that students should be taught to speak and act on different societal possibilities and ways of living (Ginsburg, 2001). Giroux (1980) identifies several pedagogical

assumptions and practices that should characterize emancipatory citizenship education, which can be briefly summarized in:

- Advancing open and democratic nature of classroom, where students are encouraged to think freely and critically and participate in the learning process.
- Teaching students about social inequalities and contradictions and encouraging them to challenge and change them.

However, I would argue that this model of citizenship education is composed of two parts; the first one, which is first developed in reflective inquiry model, emphasizing the democratic classroom nature. The second aims to recruit agents of a particular political ideology that contradicts the mainstream and common beliefs about the nature of societal relations and the idea evolutionary change. I think this is an impossible mission for institutions established, managed and financially supported by the state. For this reason, this model seems more idealistic and utopian to be implemented, and for the same reason, less empirical studies and implementation reports were available to assess its validity and applicability.

2.2.1.2. National-Global Dimension

This dimension concerns the geographical focus of citizenship education curriculum content, which asks if it should concentrate its curriculum on local knowledge and practical skills to help students participate in their national political system, should it add to it, or cover more regional and global issues that prepare students for their roles as post-national and global citizens.

Nationalistic Citizenship Education

This model of citizenship education is considered part of a national project that uses political membership of the state as the basis for social integration (Gifford, 2004). The root of this approach is found in communitarianism,

> which "is not a post-modernist theory of radical group difference but is anchored in a conception of the community that is the hegemonic community officially recognized by the state. [Therefore], forms of political participation and community involvement expected by active citizens are simply expressive of the notion of the state" (p.149).

For this nationalistic model, the foci of citizenship education should reflect the nationstate's political sovereignty, legitimacy and focus on citizens' rights and responsibilities. However, it was argued that this overemphasizing of local knowledge and active nationalistic citizens imply to some extent that (Gifford, 2004) "citizenship can no longer be taken for granted but must be generated. This ... clearly reflects a context of late modernity characterized by political disengagement, diversity, and individualism" (p.147). Nevertheless, the nationalistic model of citizenship education is essentially influenced and shaped in light of the political system in which it exists. That in democratic polities, the concentration would be on citizens' rights, responsibilities and the skills needed for active political participation, while in traditional monarchies, more focus would be on patriotic practices and religious or traditional values.

Post-National Citizenship Education

Globalization, with all its controversial meanings and issues (Stromquist & Monkman, 2000), has challenged the conception of nationality and nation-state, and consequently proposes a wider framework for citizenship education. The challenge of globalization to the nationalistic perspective (Law, 2004) is viewed in two ways:

"first, part of the nation-state's power is transferred downward to nongovernmental institutions (such as private companies) and upward to regional institutions (such as European Union), or to transnational or supranational agencies. Second, globalization creates new economic, social and cultural arenas that transcend national borders to reach regional or global levels" (p.5).

With these challenges recognized, educators are forced to develop a new model of citizenship education that addresses the enlarging communities in which students are living and prepare them for participation in and recognition of global issues and concerns. It is argued that citizenship education should acknowledge individuals' multiple layers of identity, as members of their local community, national society, and simultaneously, participants of various regional and global institutions. In contrast to communitarian perspective of citizenship, Delanty (2000) proposes "civic cosmopolitanism" that reconfigures citizenship education in a multilevel polity; subnational, national and transnational.

However, it is important to understand these models of citizenship education are not exclusive even within one dimension or among dimension. There could be in the actual curriculum elements from different models, and across dimension, though some models are much closer to other model than other and more associated with global or nationalistic model. Figure 2.1 illustrates the hypothetical relationship between models as understood from the literatures.

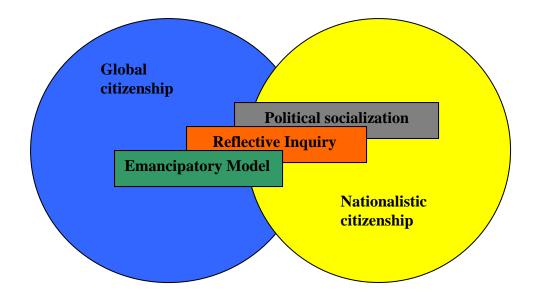


Figure 2-1 Models of Citizenship

This illustration displays that there is some overlapping generally between nationalistic citizenship and global citizenship. In addition, each of the sociological paradigms models has some association with global and nationalistic models, but to different degree. While political socialization seems to have more nationalistic dimension, emancipatory model tend to be more global. Nevertheless, the reflective inquiry model appears applicable to different dimensions, and its components might contribute to different models.

2.2.2. EMPIRICAL STUDIES:

Five studies on teachers' perceptions on political issues and citizenship education will be reviewed. They were conducted in different contexts, United States, England, Israel and Hong Kong, and employing different methodological techniques.

In their study of teachers' perspectives on citizenship education (Anderson et al., 1997), the purpose was to explore the way social studies teachers conceptualize citizenship education and the models they associate with. Different qualitative and quantitative research methodologies were implemented in this project in four stages. The results of the study show that teachers were not committed to one model of citizenship education. Rather, they expressed interest in a set of elements belonging to various citizenship models. In the national sample, teachers held elements of four perspectives: critical thinking, legalism, cultural pluralism and assimilations.

The second study by Leung & Print (2002) was conducted in Hong Kong. Its main purpose was to explore teachers' perception of nationalistic education and the possible differentiation between pro-China schools' teachers and non-pro-China schools' teachers. The study was guided by a framework that typifies nationalistic education in Asian countries broken down into five types: cosmopolitan nationalism, civic nationalism, cultural nationalism, anticolonial nationalism and totalitarian nationalism. The study found strong teacher support for cosmopolitan (91.3%), civic (89.8%) and cultural (90.4%) nationalism, while anti-colonial nationalism was moderate (69%), and very low for totalitarian nationalism (6.3%). In addition, it shows strong correlations between the first three models (.644) and (.420). These results are compatible with the pluralistic nature of Hong Kong society. However, it would be argued that the theoretical framework in this study shows some kind of replication and overlapping between different models of nationalistic education.

Ichilov (2003) conducted a study in Israeli context aimed to find the differences between civics teachers' qualifications, perceptions on citizenship education, and on school climate in different school systems in Israel. Her investigation was guided by the perception that teachers' performance was influenced greatly and dependent on both their qualifications and their perceptions of central social issues. To conduct this study, the author analyzes the data collected for the IEA study of civic education in 28 countries. The independent variable in analyzing the data was the type of school. The results, however, do not show great differences between teachers' professional qualifications in the different schools. Overall, teachers seem highly

qualified in their fields. In addition, there is no particular difference in terms of perceptions of their school climate and classroom activities. They expressed their support for "open" classrooms and encouragement of student participation and contribution to the learning process. Nevertheless, great differences exist regarding perceptions of citizenship education and political issues between teachers in Arab schools and their counterparts in Hebrew schools. Arab teachers show little support of patriotism and national symbols. In addition, they attach less importance on issues related to conduct of army, immigration, global anti-Semitism and Zionist historical narratives. In contrast, teachers in Hebrew schools, both religious and public, show greater support in the opposite direction. In regards to their perceptions of the ability of students to make decisions about school life and to express their opinions about political issues without teacher supervision, teachers in both Arab and religious Hebrew schools were more conservative than their colleagues in public state schools were. From all these findings, Ichilov expresses concerns about the applicability of having national civics curriculum that aims to contribute to shaping a uniform national identity, with these considerable differences among teachers in Arab and Hebrew schools.

In England, Leighton (2004) conducted a qualitative study to inspect how English secondary schools are approaching the introduction of citizenship education. He selected four schools varies in their implementation of social studies curriculum and in their students' background, in which interviews with senior staff responsible for monitoring of citizenship curriculum were executed. From his observation, Leighton's study shows that not all English schools have yet implemented the introduction of citizenship education, and generally most of the teachers in these schools have no previous training in the field of citizenship education which is reflected in their evaluation of the importance of this subject. Teachers attitudes toward this

subject are varying very much; those working in schools that have a long tradition of teaching social science subject express more confidence and support for the implementation of civics, while others perceive this as a threat to their own subject because they feel unconfident delivering this new subject without training and previous experience in relative subject.

In European context, Arnot, Araujo, Deliyanni-Kouimtzis, Ivinson, & Tome (2000), have conducted a comparative qualitative study in four countries: Greece, Spain, Portugal, and the United Kingdom. The purpose of the study was to assess The possible impact of national-cultural traditions on teachers' values on citizenship, gender relation, and the goals of education. Participants were selective sample of student teachers (14 Greek, 40 British, 9 Spanish, and 10 Portuguese). The main finding of this study is that there are great differences in focus of citizenship in the different contexts due to the political agenda of the state and the political experience of its people. For example, the discourse of critical citizenship appears much clearer in countries that have experienced dictatorship and totalitarian regimes, while in stable democratic nations, like the United Kingdom, student teachers seem more skeptical than critical citizen. The authors relate this distinct cultures and political and historical experiences among nations, as well as to the differentiated execution of civic curriculum

2.3. PART II: CULTURAL FACTORS' EFFECTS ON TEACHING.

In conducting comparative study in education, two contradicting theoretical frameworks have been utilized to interpret the finding of such a study; *national culture* perspective and *global cultural dynamics* (LeTendre *et al.*, 2001).

The first one emphasizes the uniqueness and stable nature of national cultures and their great influence on education systems and policy choices in different nations. From this perspective, teacher preparation, curriculum design, instructional practices, and school

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organization and administration are the products or at least, greatly influenced and shaped by different aspects of national cultures and traditions (Anderson-Levitt, 2004; Stigler & Hiebert, 1998). The school's main role from this perspective is either to transmit these national cultures from generation to generation, or to reproduce the societal conflict among groups in the society, according to different theories on the nature of society. Conducting comparative analysis acrossnations aims, from this perspective, to highlight the differences and distinctions between different practices of formal schooling caused by these national cultures.

On the other hand, neo-institutionalist theory from sociology (Meyer, 1977) and the traditional anthropological understanding of culture (Spindler, 1997) contributed greatly to the *global cultural dynamics* approach. Global culture theorists tend to regard local, regional and national cultures as products of a constant process of interactions and changes "both over time and across place" (LeTendre et al., 2001) with global culture dominantly influenced by the West. Anthropologically speaking, culture is too expansive to be merely national. Rather, it is constantly shaped and developed with the borrowing and exchanging of ideas across nations. As noted by Spindler (1997):

"There are, however, virtually no cultural systems left in the world that have not experienced massive input from the outside, particularly from the West.... Nearly all tribal societies and peasant villages are being affected profoundly by the modernization. One of the most important aspects of modernization is the development of *school* that will, hopefully, prepare young people to take their places in a very different kind of world than the one their parents grew up in" (p. 301).

Global culture perspective is also based on the institutionalist perspective of schooling (McEneaney & Meyer, 2000), where education systems are perceived as expanded institutions that aim to create a huge common base of knowledge and culture among members of a society. Moreover, they do this in "sweeping and surprisingly universal models of society; models [that]

tend to conform to visions of society more than to current realities, and to visions that are now worldwide in character" (p. 193).

As opposed to the national cultures approach aimed at explaining variation, global culture theorists seek to explain isomorphism or standardization of social phenomena, like formal schooling, often as it occurs at the global level (Baker & LeTendre, 2005). Institution, as a character of education systems, "is more process than entity, more cognitive than physical, powerful in its control of human behavior through the production of shared meaning in all realms of human existence" (p. 9). Much of the rules that govern schooling and the ideology behind them are produced at the global level, and although every school is influenced by local and national factors, the overall picture is universal. Modern education is a product of world culture that was evolved out of Western ideals of rationality and purposeful action (McEneaney & Meyer, 2000). This culture historically tends to bureaucratize, marketize, individuate and homogenize the institutions of the world. The distinction between world culture and national culture is vague and problematic.

Considering the global nature of formal schooling, teaching, as the main practice within this institution, is fundamentally standardized around the world. "Teaching is a tapestry," institutionalists contend (Baker & LeTendre, 2005), "with many commonalities, but a few striking differences." They add that:

"Teachers' work in schools is increasingly similar around the world, which in fact has created an independent 'global culture of teaching.' At the same time, the cultural role of teacher was highly developed in many nations before the modern age" (p. 14).

Considering these competing theoretical frameworks, the study of math instruction in middle schools in the United States, Japan and Germany (LeTendre et al., 2001) finds that not just the organizational structures of the school have become homogenized across the world. It

extends this view to contend that even teaching practices are universal; and that teachers more or less everywhere follow similar "scripts" centered on whole-class instruction and seatwork. However, LeTendre and his colleagues do not deny the effect of national cultures and local traditions. They assert that global culture forces are more affective on the core working conditions of the teachers, while cultural beliefs and national traditions have more impact on non-core behaviors of teaching practice, like teacher-student relationships. Thus, the continuous standardization of teacher work across the world, they speculate, should be flourishing and expanding.

2.4. SUBSTANTIVE IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEWED FOR THIS STUDY

Nevertheless, having different models of citizenship education suggests that teacher perception of political world and preferences of citizenship education are of great importance. Teachers' perceptions and preferences affect what they teach and how they teach, which will affect students' political attitudes and preferences. Therefore, I would argue that it is not sufficient to analyze and conduct different possible models of citizenship education to understand how schools affect students' political belief and behaviors. Rather, we need to investigate what teachers think about their roles and what are their preferences and perceptions of political issues they teach in classrooms. In addition, because the idea of citizenship education has become increasingly a global phenomenon, it is worthy to examine to what extent teachers' perceptions and beliefs are shaped by local cultures and the dynamics of global culture and institutional forces. This study, therefore, will try to curry out this investigation, by looking at teachers perception on citizenship and citizenship education in different countries, and explore the commonalities and differences among them in different nations.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine empirically the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England, and Hong Kong. This will be achieved by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems based on a secondary analysis of teachers' responses collected as part of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement's (IEA) Civic Education (CIVED) project. Of the 28 countries that participated in this project, this study focuses on teachers in three selected countries: Hong Kong, England, and the United States. Thus, this chapter presents the methodological issues concerning the structure of this study. First, it will illustrate the research design, followed by a description of the principle elements of the IEA's CIVED project, including the project's purpose, instrument development, sampling, and data collection procedures. This chapter will also include a discussion of the selected countries and their structural similarities and differences. Lastly, this chapter will include a discussion of the plan for data analysis, incorporating the variables, research questions, and questionnaire items with description of the statistical tests and analysis to be performed.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study is an empirical investigation of the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England, and Hong Kong. This investigation is to be achieved by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems. Thus, this is a

comparative study applying a descriptive approach as an overall research strategy. As noted by Gay and Airasian (2003), typical descriptive studies are concerned with the assessment of opinions, perspectives, practices, and procedures; in this study this is achieved in the comparative framework.

3.3. IEA'S CIVED PROJECT

The IEA was founded in 1959 for the purpose of conducting comparative studies focusing on educational policies and practices in various educational systems around the world. Its members have increased over the last 46 years to include 54 member countries. Its Secretariat is located in Amsterdam in the Netherlands. The regular cycle of research projects encompasses learning in basic school subjects as well as studies of particular interest to IEA member countries, such as civics education, which has been under focus twice: once in the 1970s (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1975), and the second in the late 1990s.

The second IEA CIVED project was approved by the IEA General Assembly in 1994 as a two-phased study. An International Steering Committee to guide the research and an International Coordinating Center to coordinate its day-to-day operations were appointed. The international oversight and coordination of this study have been funded by agencies and organizations in Germany and the United States, IEA organization, and contributions from participating countries. National research coordinators were appointed in each participating country; their wok, including data collection, has been funded by governments and foundations within each country (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004).

The primary goal of this study is "to identify and examine in a comparative framework the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens in democracies and societies aspiring to democracy" (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999a). Twenty-eight countries, listed in Figure 3-1, accepted IEA's invitation, which was sent to all 51 members, to participate in the test and survey designed for this study. Approximately two-thirds of the participating countries (including the three selected for the current study) collaborated in the research from the beginning, while the remaining third joined the study after 1998.

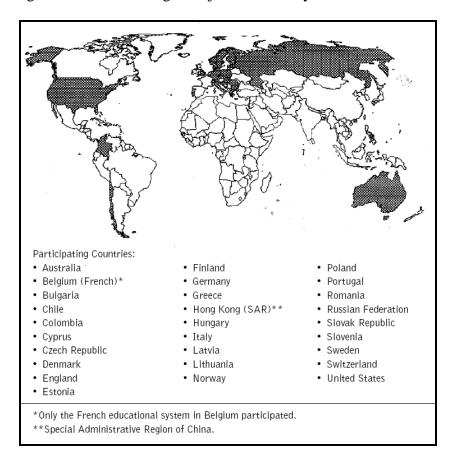


Figure 3-1 List of participating countries in IEA's CIVED (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004)

The data collected during Phase 1 of the study consisted of extensive documentary evidence and expert interviews describing the status of citizenship education in 24 countries. These data focused on the social and political ecology in which citizenship education is embedded and took the form of qualitative national case studies that present diverse interpretations and points of view about how young people should be prepared for political life. The materials gathered during this phase aimed to guide the design of the Phase 2 test and survey. The main product of this phase is an edited book consisting of the 24 case studies published by IEA in 1999 (Torney-Purta et al., 1999b). Information collected in Phase 1 was used in a consensus process conducted by the international steering committee (ISC) with the national research coordinators (NRCs) to sharpen the focus of the empirical study of Phase 2.

Phase 2 focuses on the actual views and knowledge of young people, their teachers, and their schools' administrators regarding issues related to civics education. The comparative empirical study consisted of three parts (Torney-Purta et al., 2001):

- Test of civics knowledge and survey of civics-related concepts and attitudes for a nationally representative sample of 14-year-old students;
- Survey instrument of civics-related concepts, attitudes, and teaching experiences of teachers; and
- Survey instrument of civics-related concepts, attitudes, and school context for principals and school heads.

However, because the focus of this dissertation is on teacher responses, I will limit the description of sampling procedures and instrumentation to this part.

3.3.1. POPULATION AND SAMPLING

As presented above, the major target of CIVED is the student; all the sample procedures and the development of instruments centered on the students. The selection of teachers and principals were based on the random selection of students first. These procedures were described in detail in CIVED's *Technical Report* (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004); below is a summary of the sampling procedures for schools and teachers.

Selecting the school participants was based on a two-stage stratified cluster design for sampling that was employed in each country in consultation with IEA sampling experts. In the

first stage, schools were sampled using a probability proportional to size. In the second stage, the sample consisted of one intact classroom per school from the target grade. The chosen class was not to be tracked by ability and was, where possible, to be in a civics-related subject (for example, history or social studies).

After selecting the schools to participate in CIVED, drawing a sample of teachers comparable across countries in a loosely bound curricular field such as civics education became a particular challenge. The Phase 1 case study data revealed that in some countries civics education is affiliated with history, while in other countries it is taught by teachers certified to teach native languages or may actually be integrated into native language instruction. For some countries, civics education is lodged in the domain of religious instruction, while for others it has been developed as a specific school subject called social studies that draws teachers from multiple social science disciplinary backgrounds. In some instances, civics education is constructed as an encompassing cross-curricular concern of the whole school (Torney-Purta et al., 1999a). In this last case, teachers from all disciplinary backgrounds are seen as obligated to teach in the field.

To ensure a comparable sample across countries, a subject allocation grid was composed listing the topics from which items for the cognitive part of the student questionnaire were drawn. NRCs were asked to identify which teachers, teaching which subjects, were primarily responsible for covering these topics in their countries. Then, each sampled school was asked to administer the teacher questionnaire to three such teachers. Schools were to choose their teachers according to the following parameters:

1. Three teachers of civics education-related subjects teaching the tested class of students.

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2. If three such teachers could not be selected, then other teachers of civics educationrelated subjects of a parallel, previous, or subsequent grade within the school.

Almost all countries selected participants using the second condition. Selected teachers who declined to participate were not substituted. Because this selection of teachers was based on the random selection of students, the *Technical Report* (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004) calls attention to the fact that the sampled teachers do not necessarily represent all teachers from civics-related subjects in a country because the selection procedure was based on participating students. Therefore, it is safer to say that this sample is representative of the teachers of the representative sample of students used in this study.

Table 3-1 Number of participants in each sample

	Hong Kong	England	United States
Number of participants	440	343	116

However, for the United States, England, and Hong Kong, the countries selected for this dissertation, the number of participating teachers varied considerably across the countries, particularly in the case of the United States, as shown in Table 3-1. The small number of participants in the United States was only in the teachers sample, while the school heads' and students' samples are comparable with samples in other countries. Unfortunately, no explanation was provided for the small number of American teachers participating in the study. The researcher has checked the *Technical Report* and all IEA publications related to this study; however, no reference to this issue is made in any of these documents. After contacting professor Torney-Purta, Chair of the ISC of this project, she said that no substitution was sought for any teacher selected who declined the invitation to participate in the study, as stated in the first report published by IEA in 2001 (Torney-Purta et al., 2001). Without any further explanation for the

small number of American participants in the teacher part of CIVED, it has been concluded that they seem somewhat less interested in this study or that no sufficient follow-up was conducted for this population.

The reason for avoiding substitution of selected teachers who declined to participate stems from the intention of the designers to link teacher and student data. The teacher data produced in this project consisted of two forms:

- Basic teacher data, where the unit of analysis is a teacher, and
- Linkage data, where teachers' responses were weighted based on the number of students they teach.

The second form was used in the official report published by IEA (Torney-Purta et al., 2001), while this study is based on the analysis of the first dataset. Both datasets, in addition to student data and school data, were published in SPSS files for each participating country. These files, as well as important documents such as the *Technical Report* and codebooks, have recently become available for free through the IEA website (http://www.iea.nl/cived_datasets.html).

3.3.2. INSTRUMENTATION

The development of short survey instruments for teachers began in March 1998 and covered the same content domains as the student instrument as well as questions about the school context and instruction. The contents of these instruments were primarily drawn from the following sources:

- An iterative process of review of Phase 1 documents submitted by countries;
- References to the research and theoretical literature;
- Extensive item writing;
- Review by experts internationally and within participating countries; and

• Item choice by participating countries (Torney-Purta et al., 2001).

These instruments were piloted in the same countries and at the same time as the student instruments. The final version of this survey consists of four parts: education and work experience; views on civics education; the teaching of subjects, activities, and lessons; and finally instruction (see Appendix A).

For this dissertation, items with open-ended answers (items 6, 7, and 8 in part one) were excluded from the analysis because they are not available in the international dataset obtained from the IEA or in the national dataset, in case of the United States, obtained from the United States Department of Education. The *Technical Report* (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004) mentions that administrators encountered some difficulty in coding this information. In addition, the current study excludes items 2, 3, and 9 of part one because they do not provide important information for the purpose of this study. Section G of part 3 is excluded as well due to what seems to be the repetition of some items, resulting in difficult analysis of the data for the IEA.

3.3.3. QUALITY CONTROL

Each participating country, according to the *Technical Report* (Schulz & Sibberns, 2004), was responsible for data collection. Manuals for field operations, school coordinators, and test administrators together with tracking forms were adapted by the IEA Data Processing Center. Data collection at the schools followed strict guidelines for test administration to safeguard comparability across countries. Full confidentiality of responses was guaranteed. Data entry was conducted by the National Research Centers.

3.4. SELECTION OF U.S., ENGLAND, AND HONG KONG

As mentioned above, 28 countries participated in the IEA CIVED project, but for the current study, only three countries were selected: Hong Kong, England, and the United States. In

addition to the researcher's familiarity of literature on citizenship education in these countries, these three countries share some commonalities in terms of certain development indicators and education roots, while each one of them maintains some distinguishing characteristics in terms of the structure of the educational system, the political culture, and the implementation of citizenship education. These similarities and differences make the comparison of their teachers' perceptions on citizenship and citizenship education more interesting and may be informative to the discussion of the competing influence of global and national cultures on educational systems. This section highlights the main similarities among these countries and discusses some of their distinctive differences, particularly those related to the implementation of citizenship education.

3.4.1. COMMONALITIES AMONG THE SELECTED COUNTRIES

Looking at these three countries from the angle of their status in the world economy, development indicators, such as education, literacy rates, and unemployment rates, reveal that they are very close and similar in these matters as shown in Table 3-2. In terms of Human Development Index^a, these three countries have a high rank; they also have comparable GDPs per capita and similar expenditures on education. Although, Hong Kong might be a little behind in some of these indicators, it might be the closest Asian country, except for Japan, to the United States and England. In addition to these current indicators, historically both the United States and Hong Kong were colonized by England, resulting in some cultural influence on both educational systems (On, 1999). In fact, the British colonization of Hong Kong ended only recently, in 1997, when Hong Kong returned to mainland China on the basis of "one country, two systems."

^a This a composite index that reflects three basic dimensions: 1) life expectancy at birth; 2) adult literacy combined with gross primary, secondary, and tertiary enrollment ratio; and 3) standard of living. The index ranges from 0-1 and is conducted by the United Nation Development program. The data presented here are for the year 1998 (Torney-Purta et al., 1999b)

Despite these similar features and some historical commonalities, these countries also have distinguished characteristics in many ways, which will be discussed next.

Indicators	Hong Kong	England	The United States
Human Development Index	0.87 High	0.92 High	0.93 High
GDP per capita (in USD 1999)	22,711	23,615	33,748
Adult literacy rate (%) (1998)	92.9%	99%	99%
Public education expenditure (% of GNP)	4%	5%	5%

Table 3-2 Commonalities among the United States, England, and Hong Kong

3.4.2. DIFFERENCES AMONG SELECTED COUNTRIES

It is obvious that significant differences exist among any set of countries and educational systems around the world, but here the focus will be on structural differences among these countries related to their educational systems and implementation of citizenship education, which seems relative to the focus of this study. The structure of educational systems, in terms of centralism and decentralism, is thought to affect the autonomy of the schools and their principals and teachers. In addition, the way citizenship education has been introduced and implemented in schools, in combination with the general assumption of the role of schools in society, might influence the way the teachers and other school actors perceive this particular subject. The discussion of these issues is organized in the following subsections for each country followed by an overall summary.

3.4.2.1. Hong Kong

Until July 1997, when it returned to mainland China, Hong Kong had been a British colony for approximately one and half centuries. During this long period of colonial history,

Hong Kong's educational system, at least until 1980, worked to delocalize school curricula by "suppressing people's concerns and their local political identities" (Law, 2004), which was a result of a general de-politicization strategy on the part of the colonial government and a corresponding apoliticization attitude on the part of the people. However, this political scenario was about to change when the colonial government and China declared in 1984 a period of transition to culminate in the 1997 return of Hong Kong to China sovereignty in a premise of "one country and two systems" (Leung & Print, 2002). Other factors affecting the change included the June 4, 1989, incident and the increase of the number of elected seats in the Legislative Council from 12 to 20 in 1995 (On, 1999).

These political changes had their effects on the educational system, which was entirely governed by the central colonial authorities and schools' curricula. According to On (1999), between the late 1980s and 1993, four curricula and policy changes took place:

- A new subject, called Government and Public Affairs, was introduced. Its syllabus concentrates on the central concept of liberal western democracies and the study of the political process in mainland China.
- In 1991, another new subject, Liberal Studies, was introduced that consisted of six models. Students have to choose two of them for their examination. One of these models focuses on China's politics and Hong Kong's colonial transition.
- The Education Department began publishing the annual *Civic Education Bulletin* and the *Civic Education Newsletter*.
- The central government launched a "Civic Education Action Plan" for the implementation of civics education in schools, which was adopted by most of the secondary and primary schools in Hong Kong by 1995.

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In 1996, one year before its return to China, the Hong Kong government published the "Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools"—the first official document to mention nationalism and patriotism (On, 1999). This curriculum framework also emphasized human rights education, nationalistic education, global education, and education for critical thinking. Schools were expected to implement this program using a school-based approach (Leung & Print, 2002).

3.4.2.2. England

England, at the heart of Britain, is "the mature democracy, which prides itself on its parliamentary form of government developed over centuries and on its deep-rooted civil and political liberties" (Figueroa, 2004). It has been a diverse society for quite a long time, although it has recognized the multiculturalism of its nation only in the second half of the 20th century (Wilkins, 2001). Regarding the introduction of a modern educational system, England launched a national educational system in the late 1830s, which subsequently further developed into universal primary education by 1870. In 1902, local education authorities were established with semi-independence from the central educational system. However, it was not until the Education Reform Act of 1988 that a national curriculum was created and implemented in all schools in England (Figueroa, 2004), which seemed to signal a withdrawal of local control of education in favor of the central government.

Through its long history of the modern educational system, no great tradition of explicit teaching of citizenship education existed in English schools. "The avoidance of any overt official government direction to schools concerning political socialization and citizenship education," as claimed by Kerr (1999b), "can almost be seen as a national trait." As a result, schools were viewed as institutions that equip students with critical reasoning and attempt to shape their behaviors, rather than serve nationalistic ends.

Recently, however, concern over national identity and citizenship has increased in England. The rapid economic and social changes that began in the late 1970s and the increasing number of immigrants and refugees arguably contributed to the increasing concern and resulted in a call for the reconsideration of the role of schools in political literacy. This concern was reflected in local educational authorities' emphasis on the personal and social development of students in early 1980s, including support for political education and the development of multicultural anti-racism education (Kerr, 1999b). The Education Reform Act of 1988, which introduced guidelines for the national curriculum, implicitly mentioned the role of schools in preparing future citizens and proposed *Education for Citizenship* as one of the five cross-curriculum themes (Hahn, 1998).

The 1990s have witnessed further development in the introduction of civics education as a school subject. In 1997 an advisory group formed by the Qualification and Curriculum Authorities, the central government agency responsible for promoting and implementing the national curriculum, recommended that teaching citizenship and democracy be part of the national curriculum; they also offered guidelines for this new curricular, which emphasized responsibilities over rights and stressed the importance of involvement in community and voluntary services (Kerr, 1999a). These recommendations were followed with an extensive review of the national curriculum, which involved public consultation. The revised curriculum approved by the government in 2001 made citizenship education a compulsory subject within the national curriculum for all schools in England (Leighton, 2004). At the same time, the Department of Education issued statutory programs of study for secondary schools that prescribe the knowledge and understanding to be included in the new subject about matters such as rights and responsibilities, justice systems, and diversity of identification. In addition, it introduced

three sets of skills: research skills, participation and responsible actions, and problem solving and critical thinking (Figueroa, 2004). However, research on educators' perceptions of the introduction of this subject shows continued debate on the effectiveness of this policy (Kerr, 1999b; Osler & Starkey, 2001; Wilkins, 2001, 2003).

3.4.2.3. The United States

In this old democracy, the political roles of public schools have been historically and strongly acknowledged in the United States. From the early days of the country, Thomas Jefferson wrote of the need to educate citizens for democracy (deMarrais & LeCompte, 1999). The educational system in this country is absolutely decentralized in that states and local districts are primarily responsible for schooling. Consequently, a variety exists in curricular policy among the 50 states and the 15,000 school districts. In addition, no official textbook exists for civics or any other subject in this system. About half of the states have a textbook adoption policy, but once a state committee has adopted several books, it is left to local districts or even schools to choose which textbooks to buy (Hahn, 1999a). However, a broader national interest in developing more effective civics curriculum has become evident in the last 20 years.

Because of demographical changes in the American population, the revolution of technology, and a declining participation in formal political activities, greater emphasis has been given to civics in recent years. For example, civics education was included in the congressional project in the 1990s to develop voluntary national standards in ten curriculum subjects (Hahn, 1999a). In addition, in 1994 the National Council for Social Studies developed *Curriculum Standard for Social Studies*, which pays great attention to civics education curriculum (Niemi & Junn, 1998). More recently, in 1998 the American Political Association launched a task force on

civics education that has been working on developing curriculum standards and teaching materials for this particular subject (Hahn, 1999b).

However, these national efforts to establish a universal standard in civics in such a decentralized system resulted in common features in civics classrooms. According to Hahn (1999a), in her paper to IEA regarding the Phase 1 report based on data from textbook analysis and students and teachers focus groups from different states, the topics and themes in civics classroom demonstrate few differences across states. However, this does not imply that the amount of time, the classroom climate and openness to free discussion, and social participation are similar from one school to another.

3.4.3. SUMMARY

This review of similarities and differences among the selected countries in some aspects aims to rationalize the selection of them as the focus of this study. It illustrates that some similarities exist among the three countries in terms of their economic status; they all ranked high in human development indicators and are very close in terms of their expenditures on education and literacy rates.

On the other hand, the United States and England are examples of old democracies in the world, while Hong Kong has just broken off from a long colonization period and is in a somewhat unique political system with China under the "one country and two systems" policy. Regarding the structure of educational systems, in contrast to the American decentralized system, Hong Kong has a centralized one while England seems to be in the midst of a transition to centralization. Finally, and more relative to the focus of this study, the introduction and implementation of citizenship education among the three countries share some similarities as well as differences. While civics is a tradition in the United States, it has only gradually been

introduced in the other two countries. However, each of the three systems has witnessed a greater emphasis on this issue since the late 1980s.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

This section will describe the procedures of data analysis and statistical tests that have been performed. It will also present a matrix that connects research questions with the questionnaire items.

3.5.1. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND TESTS

As mentioned earlier, the data that have been collected for this project were screened and published in SPSS files by country on the IEA website. Before publishing the data on the website, the researcher obtained a copy from the IEA Secretariat in CD format containing the data for all countries as well as a copy of the United States data from the United States Department of Education. Comparing the American datasets from both sources determined that they were identical.

An SPSS data file was created that merged the teacher data from the three selected countries. SPSS is the only statistical package utilized in the data analysis for this study. All analyses were conducted by comparing the responses of teachers in the three groups (countries). Because of the comparative nature of the study, there is great concern about differences within and among groups, how significant these differences are, and the statistical versus practical significance. For this reason, Standard Deviation, one-way ANOVA, Post Hoc, and Eta Squared tests are reported in this study. In most cases, as the questionnaire items permit, the following statistical analyses were performed and reported:

- Number of respondents (N).
- The Mean: to report the average of teachers' responses in each group.

- Standard Deviation (SD): to report the variation within each group.
- One-way ANOVA: performed on all variables that have reported means. The research does not report the result in the text. Instead, it is indicated in the result of the following two tests. However, ANOVA tables for all applicable variables are presented in Appendix B.
- Post Hoc: as a comparison test to determine between which groups statistical significance exists (Huck, 2004). The results are summarized in footnotes presented at the end of each table where means have been tested. The actual tables for this test are in Appendix B.
- Eta Squared: as the measure of association used to address the practical significance observed among teachers in all three nations attributable to differences in national means (Huck, 2004). These scores were reported in percentages, as in similar studies (Ichilov, 2003; LeTendre et al., 2001) to facilitate interpretation.

In certain cases, when reporting means and other preceding tests did not suit the questionnaire item, frequency distributions in percentages are reported instead for each group.

3.5.2. INTERCONNECTING RESEARCH QUESTIONS WITH QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

The following six research questions guided the investigation of the dissertation's topic:

1- Who teaches civics in the United States, England, and Hong Kong in terms of gender, qualification, years of experience, and professional training?

This question aims to explore the demographic and professional background of the teachers participating in this study. The questionnaire asked about their gender (part 1, number 10), specialization (number 7), professional in-service training in civics-related subjects (number 8), and teaching experience both in teaching in general and in teaching civics (numbers 4 and 5).

2- To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree in their perceptions of "good citizenship"? What kind of knowledge, skills, and behaviors will be required to be a good citizen?

This question includes 14 statements about what "good citizens" should do or know from different perspectives of citizenship (part 2, section F), ranging from patriotic to critical citizenship. Responses to each statement were scored as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

3- To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?

Teachers were asked to rate four statements about how civics should be taught (part 2, section A), six statements about what is worth learning in civics (section B), and four statements about the importance of teaching civics (section C). Each statement was scored as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree. In addition, they were presented with a list of 20 topics and were asked to rate the level of importance for their inclusion in civics curriculum (part 3, section H, question a). Each topic was scored as follows: 1 = not important, 2 = of little importance, 3 = important, 4 = very important.

4- How different is the type of citizenship education taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?

For this question, teachers were asked to rate seven statements about what their students are currently taught in their schools (part 2, section E). Each topic was scored as follows: 1 = not important, 2 = of little importance, 3 = important, 4 = very important.

5- What kinds of activities and teaching strategies do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong employ and utilize in their civics classes?

For this question, teachers were asked to report how often they utilize 10 different instructional activities (part 4, section I). Each item was scored as follows: 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = very often. In addition, they were asked to select from a list two assessment activities they primarily utilized in assessing their students (part 4, section K).

6- From teachers' perspectives in the United States, England, and Hong Kong, what is essentially needed to improve citizenship education?

For this question, teachers were presented with a list of different expected factors that might improve citizenship education and were asked to select three items which they think are the most important (part 4, section J).

Table 3.1 summarizes the materials presented in this section. The first column displays the research questions, the second explains the variables under investigation in each particular question, the third presents the corresponding question item number, and the fourth is for the analysis procedures used for each question.

Research Questions	Variables	Item on the Instrument	Analysis
1-Who teaches civics in the United States, England, and Hong Kong in terms of gender, qualification, years of experience, and professional training?	Gender Specialization Teaching experience In-service training	Part 1, #10 Part 1 # 7 Part 1, #4, 5 Part 1, #8	Means, frequency distribution, and SD across countries
2-To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree in their perceptions of "good citizenship"? What kind of knowledge, skills and behaviors will be required to be a good citizen?	Defining "good citizenship" and its characteristics	Part 2, section F.	Means and SD for each country. One way ANOVA for overall variation.
3- To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or	Attitudes about Civics as a discrete subject;	Part 2, section A;	Means and SD for each country. One way ANOVA for
disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?	Expected outcomes; Importance of sub- topics	sections B, C; Part 3 section H.	overall variation.
4-How different is the type of citizenship education taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?	Civics curriculum in their schools	Part 2, section E	Means and SD for each country. One way ANOVA for overall variation.
5-What kinds of activities and teaching strategies do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong employ and	Instructional methods	Part 4, section I	Means and SD for each country. One way ANOVA for overall variation.
utilize in their civics classes?	Assessment methods	Part 4, section K	Descriptive statistics (frequency distribution, means, and SD) for each item.
6-From teachers' perspectives in the United States, England, and Hong Kong, what is essentially needed to improve citizenship education?	Suggestions about improving citizenship education	Part 4, section J	Descriptive statistics (frequency distribution, means, and SD) for each item.

 Table 3-3: Research question, variables, and analysis.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This study is designed to examine empirically the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England, and Hong Kong by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems. Six research questions were set to guide the investigation of this issue:

- 1. Who teaches civics in the United States, England, and Hong Kong in terms of gender, qualification, years of experience, and professional training?
- 2. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree in their perceptions of "good citizenship"? What kind of knowledge, skills, and behaviors will be required to be a good citizen?
- 3. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?
- 4. How different is the type of citizenship education taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?
- 5. What kinds of activities and teaching strategies do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong employ and utilize in their civics classes?
- 6. From teachers' perspectives in the United States, England, and Hong Kong, what is essentially needed to improve citizenship education?

The data collected from civics teachers as part of CIVED, a project conducted by IEA, were analyzed to provide answers to these research questions. This chapter, therefore, is

subdivided into six parts corresponding to the six research questions. For each part the summary of the statistical analysis is displayed in tables, followed by interpretation of this analysis. Each part also ends with a summary of the main findings and, when needed, a connection with findings in other parts will be discussed. However, a summary of the main findings and discussion will be held until chapter five.

4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF CIVICS TEACHERS

In the first section of IEA's questionnaire for teachers, teachers were presented with questions about demographic information in both open-ended and close-ended formats. The teachers' responses to the open-ended questions are not available in the international dataset due to difficulty in coding their answers as reported it the project's technical report. However, because of the international nature of the questionnaire, some of the commonly asked questions were neglected, such as questions about race and ethnicity. Therefore, this part presents the available demographic information of civics teachers, including gender, specialization, years of experience, and in-service training.

4.2.1. **Gender**

In regard to citizenship education teachers in the three selected countries, Table 4-1 displays the percentages of males and females in this population. While in England and Hong Kong the population relatively equally consisted of both genders (50.9 percent in England and 57 percent in Hong Kong were females), the percentage of male teachers in the United States is much higher than the percentage of females (65.2 percent and 34.8 percent respectively).

Table 4-1 Gender of Civics Teachers

	EN	НК	US
FEMALE	50.9%	57.8%	34.8%
MALE	49.1%	42.2%	65.2%

4.2.2. YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

As shown in Table 4-2, the average years of experience of citizenship education teachers varied across the selected countries. In England, for example, civics is taught by teachers who have average of 17 years of teaching altogether and 14 years of teaching subjects related to citizenship education; in Hong Kong, however, the average experience is 12 and 8 years, and in the United States 15 and 11 years, respectively. Despite this difference in the average number of years of experience across these countries, this information indicates that generally teachers in these countries assigned to teach civics or a related subject when they have accumulated three to four years of teaching experience.

Table 4-2 Means of Teaching Experience

Years of	E	EN		HK		US	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Teaching altogether	17	10	12	7	15	11	
Teaching civics	14	9	8	6	11	10	

4.2.3. SPECIALIZATION

Both in England and the United States, most civics teachers specialized in civics education or in related subjects (88.3 percent and 84 percent, respectively). However, the reverse is true in Hong Kong, where only 11 percent of the civics teachers hold a degree in a civics-related discipline, while the rest (89 percent) have degrees in other subjects.

Table 4-3 Civics Teachers' Specialization

Degree in civics-related discipline	EN	НК	US
NO	11.7%	89.0%	15.3%
YES	88.3%	11.0%	84.7%

This might indicate the importance of civics as a school subject in Hong Kong, where it was assigned to teachers who did not specialize in social studies. This point will be elaborated upon in the final chapter.

4.2.4. IN-SERVICE TRAINING

In regard to in-service professional development programs in disciplines related to civics education, 75 percent of civics teachers in the United States, as shown in Table 4-4, reported that they received such training, while in Hong Kong only about 25 percent of civics teachers had. In England, about half of the participants had participated in training activities.

In-service Training	EN	НК	US
NO	52.5%	70.9%	25.2%
YES	47.5%	29.1%	74.8%

Table 4-4 In-service Training for Civics Teachers

The analysis of the available demographic information of the participants in the three countries reveals the following general trends about civics teachers in the selected countries:

- Civics teachers in the United States: about two-thirds of civics teachers are males, most of them specialize in disciplines related to civics, and most of them also participated in some kind of professional development activities in subjects related to civics.
- Civics teachers in England: equally divided in terms of gender, most of them have degrees in areas related to civics, and approximately half participated in in-service training programs.

- Civics teachers in Hong Kong: more than a half are males, most of them did not specialized in civics, and most have not participated in professional training in subjects related to civics.
- Across the countries, teaching civics is assigned to teachers who have accumulated three to four years of teaching experience.

4.3. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON CITIZENSHIP

In IEA's teacher questionnaire, teachers were presented with 14 statements about what "good citizens" should do or know (part 2, section F). These statements were drawn from a review of literature on citizenship and case studies on citizenship education conducted in the first phase of IEA's study (Torney-Purta et al., 1999b). These statements range from patriotic to critical citizenship. Responses to each statement were scored as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree. To facilitate the analysis, these statements were categorized into three categories: patriotic citizenship, participatory citizenship, and critical citizenship.

Table 4-5 presents teachers' responses to statements about characteristics of patriotic citizenship, which focus on attitudes about obeying the law, being respectful and loyal to one's government, and being willing to serve in the national armed forces. In addition, they include one statement about knowing national history. Across the three selected countries, teachers generally agree with statements that indicate general good manners, either in terms of practices, like obeying the law and working hard, or knowledge, like knowing about the country's history.

However, this agreement falters when it comes to explicit patriotic attitudes like "being loyal and patriotic" and "willing to serve in the military." English teachers disagree about the importance of being patriotic (2.36) and serving in the military (2.02). Hong Kong's teachers

weakly supported the second statement (2.60), while American teachers tend to agree with all patriotic characteristics in explaining what good citizenship means. Eta squared, as a measure of overall variation among the three groups, is notably larger for these two variables.

Good Citizenship	Country	Ν	Mean	SD	Eta squared
	НК	437	3.55 ^a	.498	
Obeying the law	EN	338	3.39 ^{bc}	.567	2.1%
	US	115	3.55 ^a	.550	
	НК	435	3.25 °	.578	
Working hard	EN	337	3.32 °	.639	2.4%
	US	115	3.54 ^{ab}	.535	
	НК	429	2.60 ^{ac}	.671	
Willing to serve in the military	EN	334	2.02 ^{bc}	.727	20.5%
	US	112	3.03 ^{ab}	.703	
	НК	429	2.78 ^{ac}	.597	
Respect for government	EN	332	2.53 ^{bc}	.684	7%
	US	114	3.05 ^{a b}	.577	
	НК	429	3.00 ^{a c}	.574	
Being patriotic and loyal	EN	328	2.36 ^{bc}	.737	22.1%
	US	113	3.25 ^{a b}	.634	
	НК	436	3.39 °	.558	
Knowing about history	EN	341	3.36 °	.610	2.3%
	US	115	3.63 ^{ab}	.484	

Table 4-5 Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions on Patriotic Citizenship

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

In regard to participatory characteristics of citizenship, the questionnaire presents teachers with a statement about political participation in terms of voting in elections, participating in partisanship, and following political issues by reading and through discussions in addition to a statement about community service. In the three countries, as Table 4-6 reveals, teachers generally agree with most of these statements as attributes of good citizenship. The only exception is their position on partisanship. In this matter, on average, England's and Hong

Kong's teachers disagree about the importance of partisanship as an attribute of good citizenship (means are 1.99 and 2.02 respectively), while, on average, American teachers are neutral (mean 2.59). Except for this statement (eta squared = 11.2 percent), no practical significance exists among groups regarding these attributes. However, with such large number of participants caution should be taken for the Type I error.

GOOD CITIZENSHIP	Country	Ν	Mean	SD	Eta squared
	HK	436	3.04 °	.492	
Voting in every election	EN	340	3.02 °	.712	6.9%
	US	115	3.51 ^{ab}	.568	
	HK	437	3.27 ^{ac}	.505	
Participating in activities to help people in the community	EN	341	3.43 ^b	.514	2.8%
people in the community	US	114	3.47 ^b	.502	
Reading about and following	HK	435	3.13 ^{ac}	.559	
political issues in newspapers and	EN	338	3.31 ^{bc}	.583	4.2%
other media	US	115	3.46 ^{ab}	.535	
	HK	428	2.83 ^{ac}	.524	
Engaging in political discussions	EN	338	3.06 ^{bc}	.581	7.2%
	US	114	3.24 ^{ab}	.537	
	HK	433	2.02 °	.476	
Joining a political party	EN	338	1.99 ^c	.584	11.2%
	US	114	2.59 ^{ab}	.714	

Table 4-6 Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions on Participatory Citizenship

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

Teachers were also presented with statements about critical citizenship, like ignoring laws that violate human rights and peacefully protesting against them. As presented in Table 4-7, teachers in Hong Kong, England, and the United States generally agree with participating in activities promoting human rights (2.99, 3.04, and 3.27 respectively), but their agreement varied on protesting and ignoring the law. England's and Hong Kong's teachers conservatively agree with peacefully protesting against unjust laws regarding ignoring laws that violate human rights,

while American teachers showed slightly greater support for such action (mean = 3.14, compared to Hong Kong's 2.81 and England's 2.87). However, on average, teachers in the three countries are generally neutral about ignoring laws that violate human rights.

GOOD CITIZENSHIP	Country	Ν	Mean	SD	Eta squared
Participating in peaceful protest against laws believed to be unjust	НК	428	2.81 °	.591	-
	EN	338	2.87 °	.638	2.9%
	US	115	3.14 ^{ab}	.544	
	НК	431	2.99 °	.515	
Participating in activities promoting human rights	EN	334	3.04 ^c	.665	2.3%
numun rignes	US	113	3.27 ^{ab}	.613	
Ignoring laws that violate human rights	НК	400	2.45 ^a	.780	
	EN	324	2.65 ^{bc}	.770	2%
	US	109	2.36 ^a	.908	

Table 4-7 Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions on Critical Citizenship

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

However, eta squared, as the overall difference among teachers, in this category is very little (no more than 3 percent in any variable), compared to the overall differences in some attributes in previous categories.

Before moving to the next section, three points should be emphasized about teachers' perceptions of different types of citizenship:

• First, statistically usually significant differences exist among the different nations' means in most of the variables in the three categories, as presented by the summary of post hoc tests presented in the footer of each table. However, statistical significance does not necessarily indicate practical significance, particularly when taking into consideration the responding scale where close to or over 3 indicates agreement and about or below 2 presents disagreement.

- Second, considering the practical significance between these means, eta squared, as a measure of association between the independent and dependent variables, indicates a small total variation observed among teachers in all three nations attributable to differences in national means. For the 14 variables, only two have somewhat high eta squared (willing to serve in the military at 20.5 percent and being loyal and patriotic to one's country at 2.36 percent).
- Third, considering the scale of IEA's questionnaire, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), we can suggest that means over 2.5 tend to indicate agreement with the statement to some extent. Based on this idea, the data show that in the three selected countries teachers' responses indicate agreement with most of statements in the three categories to the varied extent. The notable exceptions are English teachers' means on two patriotic attitudes (willing to serve in the military at 2.02 and being loyal and patriotic to one's country at 2.36 percent) and teachers' means in the three countries regarding the attribute of "joining a political party" (Hong Kong at 2.02, England at 1.99, and the United States at 2.59).

4.4. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF CIVICS AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

Building upon the previous section's analysis of teachers' perceptions of good citizenship, this section will present an analysis of their perceptions of citizenship education and how it should be taught. Three items in the teacher questionnaire refer to this issue:

- How much does civics education matter? (Part 2: Section C)
- How should civics education be taught? (Part 2: Section A)

• What is worth learning in civics education? (Part 2: Section B)

The analysis of teachers' responses to these questions will address the third research question: "To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?"

In regards to the importance of civics education, teachers were presented with statements evaluating the importance of civics at both the individual and societal level. The question also included statements about the role of schools in political development and the interest of educational authority in civics education. Responses to each statement were scored as follows: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

How much does civics matter?	Country	N	Mean	SD	Eta squared
Civics makes a difference in students' political and civic development.	НК	437	3.11 °	.423	
pontical and civic development.	EN	335	3.05 °	.528	3.8%
	US	115	3.36 ^{ab}	.499	
Civics matters a great deal for our country	НК	438	3.32 ^a	.539	
country	EN	334	2.99 ^{bc}	.646	8.1%
	US	115	3.43 ^a	.547	
School is irrelevant to the development of students' political attitudes	НК	438	1.90 ^{ac}	.620	
or students political attitudes	EN	339	1.72 ^b	.667	2.9%
	US	114	1.61 ^b	.686	
Education authorities pay little attention to civics	НК	435	2.71 ^c	.641	
	EN	332	2.73 °	.592	2.6%
	US	114	2.40^{ab}	.737	

Table 4-8 Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance of Civics

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

As Table 4-8 illustrates, teachers in the three countries generally recognize the importance of civics education at the individual and societal levels. Consistent with this

agreement, they disagree with the statement indicating the irrelevance of schools in the development of students' political attitudes and opinions. Regarding the official support for civics education from education authorities, American teachers (mean = 2.40) tend to disagree with the negative statement, while Hong Kong's and England's teachers are more likely to agree with this statement (means = 2.71 and 2.73 respectively). It is also notable that no high practical significance exists among the countries' means, which is evident from the eta squared scores (the highest being 8.1 percent regarding the importance of civics at the societal level).

In addition, teachers were asked about how civics education should be taught in schools. As the application of teaching civics is different between and within countries, teachers were presented with four statements, ranging from offering civics as specific subject to being regarded as an extracurricular activity. For each statement, teachers reported their agreement of disagreement on the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

Civics education should be taught	Country	Ν	Mean	SD	Eta squared
As specific subject	HK	437	2.88 ^a	.765	
	EN	325	2.24 ^{bc}	.895	13.6%
	US	113	2.99 ^a	.762	
	НК	434	3.04 ^a	.660	
Integrated into social studies	EN	331	3.25 ^b	.682	2.1%
subjects	US	114	3.21	.746	
	НК	431	2.82 ^c	.704	
Integrated into all subjects	EN	326	2.94	.772	
	US	114	3.04 ^b	.763	1.1%
As an extracurricular activity	НК	431	2.57 ^{ac}	.780	
	EN	318	1.80 ^b	.848	17.3%
	US	115	1.90 ^b	.892	

Table 4-9 Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions about the way civics should be taught

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

Table 4-9 shows that teachers in the three selected countries have high means for the integration of civics material into social studies subjects like history, geography, languages, ethics, and law, preferring this method over the separation of civics into a specific subject. While the means from participants in the United States and Hong Kong indicate that they tend to support having civics as a specific subject, these participants are not appeal to the integration of some of its elements into other subjects. In addition, particularly in England and the United States, teachers responded that civics should not be treated as an extracurricular activity. It should be mentioned that no practical significance exists among teachers in the selected countries as indicated by the eta squared.

By elaborating more on the importance of civics education and the possibility of teaching civics in schools, teachers were asked about what they think of the relationship between civics education and societal values and conflicts. They were presented with six statements about the sources and the possibility of teaching civics in their schools. Responses to each statement were scored as follows: 1 =strongly disagree, 2 =disagree, 3 =agree, and 4 =strongly agree.

Across countries, as Table 4-10 shows, teachers seem unsure about the existence of broad societal consensus in what should be taught in civics classrooms, although American and English teachers disagree with the contradicting claim about the impossibility of teaching what should be taught in civics in their schools. In addition, teachers in the United States disagree that societal conflict would challenge establishing agreement on what should be taught in civics. However, Hong Kong's teachers tend to agree with these previously mentioned statements, which might indicate their recognition of such conflict in their society that civics could not be taught as it should be. Consistent with this, Hong Kong's teachers favor the idea of developing civics

curriculum by negotiating its contents with their students, while teachers in the United States, disagree, preferring to follow the curriculum standards.

What is worth learning in civics?	Country	N	Mean	SD	Eta squared
	НК	439	2.40 ^c	.607	
Broad consensus in our society about	EN	332	2.39 ^c	.652	10%
what civics is	US	113	2.58 ^{ab}	.651	
	HK	439	2.68 ^{ac}	.548	
Teachers should teach according to curriculum standards	EN	328	2.46 ^{bc}	.720	8.3%
currentum sumunus	US	111	3.05 ^{ab}	.475	
	HK	439	2.99 ^{ac}	.519	
Teachers should negotiate with students about what to be taught in civics	EN	334	2.37 ^{bc}	.689	26.1%
about what to be taught in civies	US	114	2.06 ^{ab}	.656	
	HK	437	2.75 ^{ac}	.639	
Rapid changes in modern societies make it difficult to know what to teach in civics	EN	334	2.71 ^{bc}	.682	4.5%
it unifear to know what to teach in civies	US	112	2.31 ^{ab}	.630	
	НК	430	2.82 ^{ac}	.561	
Important ideas in civics can't be taught at schools	EN	335	1.92 ^b	.614	38.5%
	US	111	1.83 ^b	.586	
	НК	437	2.82 ^{bc}	.561	
Because of conflict in society, there is no agreement on what civics is	EN	334	2.39 ^{ac}	.652	19.4%
	US	113	1.97 ^{ab}	.604	

Table 4-10 Statistics of Teachers' Perceptions on what is worth learning in civics

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

However, two important points should be mentioned about teachers' responses to these

questions:

- English teachers express uncertainty in these issues in that most of their means are around the mid point (2.5), except for the last two statements.
- Eta squared percentages, in the last column, indicate some substantial overall differences between countries in regard to certain statements, particularly about the existence of a

societal conflict undermining what should be taught in civics as well as negotiating curriculum contents with students.

4.5. CIVICS CURRICULUM

In the IEA teacher questionnaire, teachers were asked three questions about their observations and evaluations of the civics curriculum in their schools:

- What is emphasized in civics education at your school? (Part 2: Section D)
- What do students learn in your school? (Part 2: Section E)
- What topics are included in your schools' civics curriculum? (Part 3: Section H)

The analysis of teachers' responses to these questions will answer the fourth research question: "How different is the type of citizenship education taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?"

For the first question about curriculum in the survey, teachers were asked to share their perceptions on the broad objectives of civics instruction. They were presented with four goals—knowledge transmission, critical thinking, political participation, and development of values—and asked to choose which one is currently emphasized in their schools and which one they would like to be emphasized. The question was presented in a forced choice format, with only one possible choice for the "is" and "should" columns respectively. Many teachers eventually were unable to make single choice of which objective is and which should be most emphasized. As a result, the number of missing cases in quite high.

Table 4-11 reveals that, in Hong Kong and the United States, transmission of knowledge about society is the most emphasized objective in schools (49.4 percent and 54.5 percent respectively), while this transmission was second to development of values in England. In regard to what should be emphasized, the variation among countries becomes much more lucid; developing critical thinking is marked number one in England (36.6 percent), which was second in Hong Kong and the United States (41.5 percent and 28.3 percent respectively). American teachers prioritized encouraging student participation as the broad objective of civics instruction (39.6 percent), while Hong Kong's teachers preferred the development of values (44.4 percent), even though it is currently the second most emphasized objective of civics instructions in their schools (28.7 percent).

In general, these responses show that political socialization, either in the form of transmitting knowledge or developing values, is the most emphasized objective in these countries' schools and it still the preferred objective for Hong Kong's teachers. However, according to American and English teachers, other objectives should be emphasized, like encouraging participation and independent thinking respectively. Caution should be exercised with this generalization due to the fact that the high percentages in these variables are, in most cases, still below 50 percent as well as to the significant number of missing cases.

	N (missing)	Knowledge about society		Independent thinking		Student participation		Development of values	
		Is	Should be	Is	Should be	Is	Should be	Is	Should be
HK	99 (341)	49.4%	8.1%	10.4%	41.5%	11.6%	5.9%	28.7%	44.4%
EN	111 (232)	36.4%	11.1%	14.9%	36.6%	9.1%	17.0%	39.6%	35.3%
US	35 (81)	54.5%	13.2%	23.6%	28.3%	16.4%	39.6%	5.5%	18.9%

Table 4-11 Teachers' Perceptions of Broad Objectives of Civics Instruction

Teachers were then asked what their students learn in school in relation to civics. They were presented with seven statements that reflect different possible outcomes of the civics instruction, ranging from classroom skills (working in groups with other students) to preparation for civil duties (voting in national and local elections) to multicultural and cross-cultural issues (understanding people with different ideas). For each statement, teachers were asked to rate their agreement with the statement on a scale of 1 to 4 where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

As Table 4-12 reveals, civics education in the three countries offers students an opportunity to work in groups and cooperate together, but it does not contribute principally to the development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills. This weak contribution to students' critical thinking, from teachers' perspectives, is consistent with their reports of the most emphasized broad objective of civics shown in table 4-11 above. In Hong Kong, in particular, learning to work in groups with other students seems to be the main and only contribution civics makes to student learning (2.95). However, in England, civics advances students' acknowledgement of the importance of protecting the environment (3.11) and their appreciation of different ideas and points of view held by other people (3.31). It also seems to increase students' knowledge about other countries and current affairs (3.05). At the same time, English teachers disagree with statements about the role of civics in advancing students' loyalty and patriotism (2.06) or in motivating them to become active citizens in terms of voting in national and local elections (2.50). American teachers, in contrast, agree that civics teaches students the importance of voting (3.03), but they do not agree to a similar degree about its contribution to students' patriotism and loyalty (2.68) or to their knowledge about the world (2.75).

It does, however, seem contradictory that American teachers agree with the last statement about the contribution of civics to students' awareness of the importance of voting in national and local elections considering their recommendation to shift the emphasis of civics to encourage student participation. Withstanding the generality of the statement regarding "student participation," it could be interpreted that voting in national and local elections is not, from the American teachers' perspective, essentially the most important part of student participation that civics should inspire. Although civics curriculum teaches students about the importance of voting, the emphasis of civics should be in encouraging students to participate in other kinds of social and community activities.

In our school students learn to	Country	Ν	Mean	S.D.	Eta Squared
Cooperate in groups with other	HK	437	2.95 ^{ac}	.428	
students	EN	342	3.39 ^{bc}	.530	16.1%
	US	114	3.21 ^{ab}	.488	
Contribute to solving problems	НК	433	2.34 ^{ac}	.607	
in the community	EN	340	2.76 ^b	.658	8.9%
	US	113	2.67 ^b	.687	
Act to protect the environment	НК	435	2.73 ^a	.569	
Act to protect the environment	EN	342	3.11 ^{bc}	.492	10.4%
	US	114	2.80 ^a	.551	
Understand people who have	НК	434	2.65 ^{ac}	.550	
different ideas	EN	342	3.31 ^{bc}	.546	24.2%
	US	114	3.09 ^{ab}	.573	
Be concerned about what	НК	434	2.33 ^{ac}	.655	
happens in other countries	EN	342	3.05 ^{bc}	.589	22.8%
	US	114	2.75 ^{ab}	.588	
Be patriotic and loyal citizens of	НК	432	2.20 ^{ac}	.622	
their country	EN	337	2.06 ^{bc}	.643	8.0%
	US	111	2.68 ^{ab}	.741	
Understand the importance of	HK	432	2.74 ^{ac}	.604	
voting in national and local elections	EN	340	2.50 ^{bc}	.785	6.0%
	US	114	3.03 ^{ab}	.556	

Table 4-12 Statistics of Teachers' observations of what students learn in their schools

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.

c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

Nonetheless, by looking at the eta squared, the highest overall significant difference among the three countries seems to be associated with the statements about the role of civics in promoting the understanding of different perspectives and advancing knowledge about other countries (24.2 percent and 22.8 percent respectively). No considerable variation among countries exists for the remainder of the statements. However, it is important to note that the variation within each country as indicated by the standard deviation is constantly higher than the variation among countries.

In order to elaborate more on the contents of civics curriculum, teachers were asked about what they teach in civics classes. They were presented with 20 subtopics, which can be categorized into six groups: national issues, global issues, multicultural issues, human rights, the media, and economic issues. For each topic, teachers were asked to evaluate its importance on a scale of 1 to 4 where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree. The means of teachers' evaluations are summarized in table 4-13.

In general, American teachers assigned a high degree of importance to most topics in the list (means usually over 3), and the highest degrees were given to citizens' rights and obligations (3.73), human and citizen rights (3.76), and understanding of the political structure and national constitutions (3.50) and other national issues and topics. The least important topics, yet still with high means, were international organizations (2.95) and topics related to trade and unions (2.82). Similar to the Americans' are the responses of England's teachers, who gave the highest degree of importance to issues of human rights (average around 3.49), the issue of cultural differences and minorities (3.48), and environmental issues (3.38). Although for most of the subtopics English teachers assigned important degrees, the trade and union issues and civic virtues seem to be the least important subjects (2.81 and 2.73 respectively).

Categories	Topics		НК	EN	US	Eta squared
	National constitution and political inst	itutions	2.65 ^{ac}	2.97 ^{bc}	3.50 ^{ab}	14.2%
National Issues	Civic virtues		3.52 ^{ac}	2.73 ^{bc}	3.35 ^{ab}	25.6%
	Election and electoral system		2.96 °	3.04 ^c	3.33 ^{ab}	3.1%
	The judicial system		3.06 °	3.15 °	3.48 ^{ab}	4.1%
	Important events in national history		2.97 ^{ac}	3.14 ^{bc}	3.46 ^{ab}	4.8%
		Average	3.03	3.01	3.42	
	Environmental issues		3.19 ^a	3.38 ^b	3.26	2.1%
	Migration of people		2.27 ^{ac}	2.80 ^{bc}	3.02 ^{ab}	14.9%
Global Issues	International problems and relations		2.52 ^{ac}	3.08 ^{bc}	3.35 ^{ab}	19.7%
	International organizations		2.25 ^{ac}	2.97 ^b	2.95 ^b	22.3%
		Average	2.55	3.06	3.14	
	Cultural differences and minorities		2.51 ^{ac}	3.48 ^b	3.41 ^b	31.3%
Diversity and Multi-	Different political systems		2.59 ^{ac}	3.08 ^{bc}	3.32 ^{ab}	14.4%
cultural Issues	Different conceptions of democracy		2.94 °	3.05 °	3.33 ^{ab}	3.4%
		Average	2.68	3.20	3.35	
	Media		3.14 ^{ac}	3.28 ^b	3.43 ^b	2.4%
Media	Danger of propaganda and manipulati	on	2.80 ^{ac}	3.38 ^{bc}	3.58 ^{ab}	17.4%
		Average	2.97	3.33	3.51	
	Equal opportunities		2.93 ^{ac}	3.47 ^b	3.43 ^b	15.1%
H	Human and civil rights		3.30 ^{ac}	3.50 ^{bc}	3.67 ^{ab}	4.7%
Human Rights	Citizens' rights and obligations		3.47 ^c	3.49 ^c	3.73 ^{ab}	1.9%
		Average	3,23	3.49	3.61	
	Trade/labor union		2.17 ^{ac}	2.81 ^b	2.82 ^b	17.9%
Foonomic Issues	Economic issues		2.63 ^{ac}	3.03 ^{bc}	3.33 ^{ab}	12.6%
Economic Issues	Social welfare		2.71 ^{ac}	3.17 ^b	3.22 ^b	13.4%
		Average	2.50	3.00	3.12	

Table 4-13 Statistics of teachers' evaluations of the importance of civics topics

a. Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.
b. Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05.
c. Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

More notably, in Hong Kong, teachers assigned a relatively low degree of importance to many of the subtopics, particularly topics related to global issues (except for environmental topics) and economic issues in general. Although, similar to American and English teachers, they gave the highest degree of importance to the topic of citizens' rights and obligations (3.47), they did not agree to a similar degree on the importance of the broader issue of human rights (3.30).

In general, Table 4-13 reveals that, out of the 20 subtopics that might be taught in civics classes, the topic of citizens' rights and obligation is presumed to be the most important topic to be taught in civics classes in the three countries, while the topic of trade and labor unions is the least important one. By examining the averages for each section, the table also shows that Hong Kong's teachers consistently assigned low scores of importance to most of the topics as compared to teachers in the other two nations; this might correlate to their minimal academic background and limited opportunities for training as the demographic information in the first part demonstrates.

However, the high evaluation of the importance of civics subtopics does not necessarily indicate that these subtopics have been taught in the classrooms. There are factors that might influence the topics to be taught in civics classrooms other than their perceived importance by teachers. In IEA's teacher questionnaire, teachers were presented with these topics along with another question about how many opportunities they have to teach these topics; they responded based on the following scale: 1 = not at all, 2 = little, 3 = considerable, and 4 = very much.

As table 4-15 reveals, generally in the three selected countries, not much opportunity exists to teach most of these subtopics, regardless of their importance, even for topics related to human rights and citizens' rights and obligations, which were rated as highly important by teachers. For example, in the United States and England, the study of important events in national history seems to be the most dominant topic in civics classes, while most of the global issues (except for environmental topics) have little opportunity to be taught in civics classes.

Categories	Topics	HK	EN	US	Eta squared
	National constitution and political institutions	1.85 ^{ac}	2.09 ^{bc}	2.62 ab	13.8%
National Issues	Civic virtues	2.69 ^{ac}	1.98 ^{bc}	2.45 ^{ab}	19.7%
National Issues	Election and electoral system	2.30 ^a	2.05 ^{bc}	2.33 ^a	3.7%
	The judicial system	2.15 ^{ac}	1.96 ^{bc}	2.43 ^{ab}	4.4%
Important events in national history Environmental issues		2.52 ^{ac}	3.05 ^b	2.92 ^b	11%
	Environmental issues	2.69	2.79°	2.54 ^a	1.3%
Clabel Issues	Migration of people	2.09 ^{ac}	2.29 ^b	2.31 ^b	2%
Global Issues	International problems and relations	1.76 ^{ac}	2.34 ^{bc}	2.05 ^{ab}	12.8%
	International organizations	1.68 ^{ac}	2.19 ^{bc}	1.93 ^{ab}	11.2%
Diversity and Multi- cultural Issues	Cultural differences and minorities	1.84 ^{ac}	2.70 ^b	2.79 ^b	27.6%
	Different political systems	1.72 ^{ac}	2.22 ^b	2.22 ^b	11.1%
	Different conceptions of democracy	1.88 ^{ac}	2.07 ^b	2.25 ^b	3.6%
Media	Media	2.39 ^a	2.63 ^{bc}	2.42 ^a	2.7%
Media	Danger of propaganda and manipulation	2.07 ^a	$2.57^{\rm bc}$	2.24 ^a	8.8%
	Equal opportunities	2.27 ^{ac}	2.70 ^b	2.54 ^b	7.7%
Human Rights	Human and civil rights	2.38 ^a	2.52 ^b	2.53	1%
	Citizen's rights and obligations	2.63 ª	2.44 ^{bc}	2.64 ª	2.2%
	Trade/labor unions	1.52 ac	2.06 ^{bc}	1.87 ^{ab}	12.4%
Economic Issues	Economic issues	2.26	2.35	2.27	4%
	Social welfare	2.25 ª	2.37 ^{bc}	2.11 ^a	1.5%

Table 4-15 Statistics of teachers reporting on the opportunities to teach civics topics

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05. c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

4.6. INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES AND ASSESSMENT METHODS

The fifth research question of this study focuses on similarities and differences in instructional activities during civics classes and assessment methods among the three selected countries—the United States, England, and Hong Kong—as reported by teachers. The data gathered in part 4 of IEA's teacher questionnaire dealt directly with this issue. In Section I, teachers were presented with ten different instructional activities ranging from activities prepared and organized by the teachers, to others that centered on the student, to community activities that take place outside the school. For each item, respondents were asked to report how frequently these activities are employed in their classes according to the following scale: 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = very often.

As shown in Table 4-14, similarities as well as variations exist among teachers in the three countries. For example, having question-and-answer sessions and getting students to work on drill sheets are the main instructional activities most frequently utilized by Hong Kong's teachers (means = 3.70 and 3.43 respectively). They also often manage open discussions on topics selected by the teacher (2.94); sometimes these topics might include controversial issues. However, Hong Kong's teachers do not employ other activities in which students are primarily the designers and implementers, such as role-play and simulations (2.50) and community services (2.41), although they tend to assign students to complete a project outside the school (2.70). On the other hand, American and English teachers do not use drill sheets often (2.51 and 2.78), but they often have question-and-answer sessions (3.12 and 2.93) and open discussions on pre-selected issues. These issues might include more controversial issues in the United States (2.90) than in England (2.70). However, teachers in both countries have little use of community services and projects done by students outside the school (the United States 1.89 and 2.60,

England 2.06 and 2.40 respectively). Moreover, studying the textbook as an instructional activity seems to be utilized more in Hong Kong and the United States (2.81 and 3.00) than in England (2.43).

This analysis indicates that in these three countries teachers tend to use interactive instructional activities more frequently, which are designed and prepared by teachers and invite students' engagement, such as question-and-answer sessions and open discussions on issues selected by teachers. It might also indicate a kind of open classroom environment in that these teacher-led discussions tend to be on controversial issues. On the other hand, the data show that teachers in the three countries are less interested in activities carried out primarily by their students, such as simulation and community services. Instructional activities entirely or mostly performed by teachers, such as lecturing while students take notes or preparing drill sheets to be completed by students, represent the differences among the countries. Hong Kong's teachers are more interested in these last activities compared to English teachers in the first case and American teachers in the second.

These evident similarities among the three countries are revealed by the small observed percentages of eta squared across most of the variables (less than 10 percent in seven out of ten variables). It is also evident in the observed standard deviation that variations among teachers in utilizing different instructional activities within one country are much more obvious and larger than variations among teachers in the three countries as illustrated by eta squared, although eta squared scores are not comparable with standard deviations scores. But this does not challenge the observation that variation within each nation is very large. Also, it is important to mention that eta squared above (0.1379) or (14%) should indicate large variation across nations.

Table 4-14 Statistics of the use of instructional practices for civics teachers

Instructional		HK			EN			US		Eta
Activities	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	Ν	Mean	SD	Squar ed
eacher asks questions and students answer	428	3.70 ^{ac}	.544	337	2.93 ^{bc}	.705	99	3.12 ^{ab}	.689	25.6%
Teacher lectures and students take notes	428	2.58 ^a	1.029	338	1.88 ^{bc}	.772	99	2.46 ^a	.825	12%
Studying textbooks	429	2.81 ^a	1.056	338	2.43 ^{bc}	.869	98	3.00 ^a	.799	4.7%
Working on drill sheets	430	3.43 ^{ac}	.735	338	2.78 ^{bc}	.759	99	2.51 ^{ab}	.813	19.2%
The teacher chooses the issues to be discussed	429	3.04	.730	339	3.09	.760	98	3.15	.679	0.3%
Working in groups and preparing presentations	429	2.94 ^a	.749	337	2.48 ^{bc}	.748	99	2.76 ^a	.784	7.5%
Role-plays and simulation	429	2.50 ^a	.793	338	2.28 ^b	.715	99	2.29	.811	1.9%
Discussing controversial issues in class	429	2.98 ^a	.697	338	2.71 ^b	.729	99	2.90	.735	2.9%
Working on projects outside the school	428	2.70 ^a	.737	339	2.40 ^b	.760	99	2.60	.741	3.5%
Participating in events and activities in the community	430	2.41 ^{ac}	.820	337	2.06 ^b	.731	99	1.89 ^b	.713	6.3%

a Significantly different than the mean for England, p < .05.

b Significantly different than the mean for Hong Kong, p < .05. c Significantly different than the mean for the United States, p < .05.

The second part of the fifth research question relates to the similarities and differences among teachers in the three selected countries in regard to their assessment of student learning in civics classes. In Section K of Part 4 of the questionnaire, teachers were presented with four assessment methods as well as an option of "no specific assessment." They were asked to check the two items they primarily use. Data on the teachers' responses are presented in Table 4-15.

In Hong Kong as well as England, more that two-thirds of the teachers used oral participation as the primary method (73.2 percent and 66.8 percent respectively), while only 27 percent of American teachers used it. More than half of the American teachers (53.3 percent) reported the utilization of written essays as the main assessment method, which was the second most common selection of Hong Kong's and England's teachers (26.1 percent and 37.4 percent). The important difference, however, is in the use of multiple choice tests. While it is the second most common assessment tool utilized by American teachers (42.9 percent), relatively small percentages of teachers in Hong Kong and England were interested in this method (15.2 percent and 3.9 percent respectively).

Assessment Methods	НК	EN	US
WRITTEN COMPOSITIONS OR ESSAYS	26.1%	37.4%	53.3%
MULTIPLE CHOICE TESTS	15.2%	3.9%	42.9%
ORAL ASSESSMENTS	12.8%	38.0%	14.3%
ORAL PARTICIPATION	73.2%	66.8%	27.6%
NO SPECIFIC ASSESSMENT	9.6%	12.0%	.9%

Table 4-15 Use of different assessment methods by teachers

Nonetheless, the analysis of these responses indicates that English teachers might have experienced some confusion responding to this part of the questionnaire with two items devoted to oral assessment with no clearly defined difference between them. This leads me to ignore the 38 percent reported for the oral assessment, assuming it to be repetition of the next item "oral participation." It is also noteworthy that the variation within the American sample is evidently larger than in the other samples, which might be speculatively attributed to the decentralism of the educational system, leaving school districts and teachers with more options for assessment.

4.7. IMPROVING CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

The final research question of this study focuses on ways to improve citizenship education in the three selected countries from teachers' perspectives. For this purpose, respondents to IEA's teacher questionnaire were presented with ten suggestions and proposals in Section J of Part 4 that might help improve the practice of teaching civics. Teachers were asked to select the three most important items from their points of view.

	НК	EN	US
More materials and textbooks	23.2%	25.1%	12.5%
Better materials and textbooks	53.6%	39.7%	38.4%
Additional training in teaching methods	40.3%	32.1%	21.4%
Additional training in subject matter	50.2%	48.1%	17.0%
More cooperation between teachers in different subject areas	22.7%	31.8%	33.0%
More instructional time allocated to civics	40.0%	24.2%	33.9%
More cooperation with external experts	16.6%	34.4%	19.6%
More opportunities for special projects	8.5%	26.8%	26.8%
More resources for extracurricular activities	21.3%	17.2%	29.5%
More autonomy for school decisions	16.1%	15.2%	11.6%

Table 4-16 Needed improvements in civics as reported by teachers

As Table 4-16 reveals, in Hong Kong, a majority of teachers recommended improving the civics materials and textbooks (53.6 percent) and acquiring more training both in subject matter (50.2 percent) and in teaching methods (40.3 percent). In addition, about 40 percent of them supported the idea of allocating much more of the school time to civics, while 21.3 percent

supported having more resources for extracurricular activities related to civics. This concern about the quality of civics materials and textbooks and about the need for more training in this relatively new subject was shared by civics teachers in England as well (39.7 percent and 48.1 percent). They also supported proposals for more cooperation in teaching civics, either within the school with other teachers (31.8 percent) or with external help from external experts (34.4 percent).

Although American teachers shared similar concerns about improving the quality of textbooks (38.4 percent), they were not very interested in more training in teaching methods (21.4 percent) or subject matter (17 percent). However, they suggested an increase of allocated time to civics (33.9 percent) and supported the idea of cooperation within the school with other teachers (30.0 percent). It is worth noting the greater variations within the American sample as compared to the other two samples, which could be hypothetically attributed to the differentiated application of civics in American classrooms due to the decentralism of the educational system.

Overall, teachers' recommendations in the three selected countries concentrated on improving the quality of civics materials and textbooks, which can be interpreted as broadening their foci to include other topics teachers presume to be important, encouraging more critical thinking from students rather than transmitting knowledge, and promoting potential political participation. This concern about the quality of the materials taught in civics was intensified by teachers across the three countries and was clearly the first priority from their perspective. In addition, particularly in areas where civics programs have been recently implemented, civics teachers think that just having good materials is not sufficient; training programs need to be developed and implemented as well. This recommendation received much support in a country like Hong Kong, where many of the civics teachers have no background or sufficient training in areas related to civics.

5. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Throughout the previous chapters, particularly the last one, this study has attempted to examine empirically the status of teaching citizenship education in the United States, England, and Hong Kong by comparing teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, their professional preparation and training, and their instructional practices in these three educational systems. Using teachers' data collected by IEA as part of its CIVED project, six research questions guided this investigation:

- 1. Who teaches civics in the United States, England, and Hong Kong in terms of gender, qualification, years of experience, and professional training?
- 2. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree in their perceptions of "good citizenship"? What kind of knowledge, skills, and behaviors will be required to be a good citizen?
- 3. To what degree do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong agree or disagree on their perceptions of the importance of teaching citizenship education as a school subject?
- 4. How different is the type of citizenship education is taught in the United States, England, and Hong Kong from teachers' observations?
- 5. What kinds of activities and teaching strategies do teachers in the United States, England, and Hong Kong employ and utilize in their civics classes?
- 6. From teachers' perspective in the United States, England, and Hong Kong, what is essentially needed to improve citizenship education?

In this chapter, the summary of the findings of this study will be presented in general statements according to research questions, followed by a discussion of important discussion points in the

findings, including teachers' perceptions on inclusive citizenship models, their evaluation of the importance of civics, and a discussion of the meaning of commonalities and variations among teachers in the three countries. The last section will present the researcher's recommendations for policy-makers, future IEA project designers, and future research in the area.

5.1. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This research looked at several issues related to the practice of teaching civics in three selected countries. A summary of the findings presented as they appeared in Chapter 4 follow:

- The findings reveal that the percentage of male civics teachers in the American sample is much larger than in the other two countries. In addition, teaching civics in the three countries tends to be assigned to teachers who have accumulated three to four years of experience; most of them in England and the United States have credentials in specializations related to civics. In terms of professional in-service training, American teachers have participated in such activities more than teachers in England or Hong Kong.
- 2. Teachers in the three countries generally agree on most of the attributes of good citizenship listed in the teacher questionnaire. A lack of consensus was evident in the importance of partisanship. English teachers disagreed with the importance of serving in the military and being patriotic, but Hong Kong's teachers responded similarly only regarding the first statement. Teachers in Hong Kong and the United States generally agreed on the importance of the three models of citizenship, while English teachers were more conservative regarding patriotic citizenship.
- 3. Strong consensus exists among teachers in the three countries that civics education matters a great deal in students' political development and for their countries. In addition,

they supported a proposition to integrate civics instruction into social studies subjects, which seemed to be the preferred method of teaching civics as reported by teachers in the three countries. However, teachers in Hong Kong and the United States agreed to some extent on designating civics as a specific subject, while English teachers disagreed with this statement. Regardless of its importance, teachers across countries were skeptical about the societal consensus regarding what should be taught in civics.

- 4. Political socialization in the form of knowledge transmission is the most emphasized objective in these countries' schools. By contrast, teachers felt that other objectives should be emphasized, such as independent thinking. However, American teachers emphasized the importance of encouraging participation, while Hong Kong's teachers felt that civics should emphasize the development of values. In addition, teachers generally felt that, although civics education in the three countries offers students an opportunity to work in groups and cooperate with each other, it does not contribute principally to the development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills. This weak contribution to students' critical thinking, from teachers' perspectives, is consistent with their reports of the most emphasized broad objective of civics. For the content of the civics curriculum, out of the 20 subtopics that might be taught in civics classes, the topic of citizens' rights and obligation was presumed to be the most important topic, while the topic of trade and labor unions was the least important one. However, teachers reported not much opportunity to teach what they thought to be important. National history, according to the respondents, seemed to be the dominant topic in civics classrooms.
- 5. The findings also reveal that, in the three countries, teacher-centered methods dominate civics education classrooms according to the teachers' responses. They reported a lack of

interest in activities to be carried out primarily by their students. However, the data showed the existence of some kind of open classroom environment where teacher-led discussions tend to be on controversial issues. Instructional activities performed entirely or mostly by teachers, such as lecturing while students take notes or preparing drill sheets to be completed by students, indicated differences among the countries. The issue of assessment also reflected the utilization of teacher-centered methods in the form of oral assessments in England and Hong Kong and written assessments in the form of essays or multiple choice tests in the United States.

6. Finally, regarding their recommendations to improve citizenship education, teachers concentrated on improving the quality of civics materials and textbooks, which can be interpreted in broadening their foci to include other topics teachers presumed important, such as encouraging more critical thinking from students rather than transmitting knowledge and promoting potential political participation. This concern about the quality of civics materials intensified across the three countries and was clearly the first priority from the teachers' perspectives. In addition, particularly in areas where civics programs have been recently implemented, civics teachers felt that just having good materials is not sufficient; developing and implementing training programs in the subject area are also needed. This recommendation received much support in countries like Hong Kong, where many of the civics teachers have no background or sufficient training in areas related to civics.

These findings reveal about the status of citizenship education in these countries from teachers' perspectives. In the United States, where civics has been a school subject for a long time, teachers are more interesting in integrated model of civics education that takes different

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aspects of good citizenship into consideration regardless of their theoretical association. This subject matters a great deal for their students and receive enough attention from educational authority. Even though, civics is taught as specific subject in most districts, teachers support the idea of more integration of some civics topics into other social studies subjects. Similar to England and Hong Kong, national issues, particularly national history, are the dominant subject in civics instruction, while American teachers are more interested in diversifying the foci to include more global and human rights issues. It might be attributed to the nature of focus of civics instructions; teacher-centered method is prevailing over most of the instructional activities employed by teachers.

The practice of teaching civics in England is very similar to the United States in terms of instructional activities and the focus of the curriculum, but we can find some differences regarding teachers' perception regarding the concept of citizenship education and the way civics should be taught. Civics education should not promote explicitly patriotic attitudes and loyalty to the government from English teachers' perspective. Rather, it should teach good manners in terms of respecting the social order norms and encourage student for more societal and political participation. They are, similar to American teachers, reflecting more comprehensive understanding of citizenship but are not advocate for explicit patriotic attitude promotion. Also, they still demonstrate some resistance to the introduction of civics as separate subject. As an alternative to that, English teachers prefer the integration of diversified civics' topics into other social studies subjects.

Although they share similar experience of recent introduction of civics as school subject with the English teachers, and similar teaching practices with teachers the other two countries, Hong Kong teachers expressed different opinions regarding some civics issues

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comparing to English teachers. They tend to be more nationalistic in their choices and perspectives, as they have greater support to the patriotic promotion role of civics education. Also, they prefer focusing on the nationalistic issues in their civics classes, which they support to have as a separate subject.

5.2. DISCUSSION

In this section, the discussion will focus on some of the research findings and their relation to, support of, or contradiction of previous research findings.

5.2.1. INCLUSIVE MODEL OF CITIZENSHIP

The first issue is the inclusive and selective perception of citizenship this study reveals. As shown in the details discussed in Part 3 of Chapter 4, teachers in the three countries did not show great a deal of differentiation among the citizenship models and categories prescribed in the literature and implemented in the analysis. They agreed on many items and disagreed on some, but it is very difficult to identify trends in their answers. For example, English teachers tend to disagree that serving in the military and being patriotic are signs of good citizenship, yet this could not be interpreted as support or subscription to critical citizenship because they only minimally agreed with statement about ignoring laws that violated human rights. The same could be said about American and Hong Kong teachers. Teachers' responses did not demonstrate that they tend to distinguish theoretically between different models of citizenship. Instead, they seemed more selective of what they think is good citizenship.

This interpretation, however, is not consistent with the exclusive traditional theorization of models of citizenship (Barr et al., 1977) that has been adopted by different researchers and theorists (Ginsburg *et al.*, 1995; Giroux, 1980; Westheimer & Kahne, 2003). On the other hand, these research findings confirm what previous researchers found about American teachers and

their uncommitted position to one particular model of citizenship. Anderson and his colleagues (1997), in their study about teachers' conceptualization of citizenship based on large national data, found that teachers were not committed to one model of citizenship; rather, they expressed interest in different elements belonging to various models. In fact, their findings are strongly supported by the findings of the current study, in which the means of American teachers' responses to different items belonging to diverse models were usually high (above 3). These findings suggest a reconsideration of the validity of this categorization of citizenship and the possible need to develop a more inclusive or comprehensive model (Banks, 2004).

5.2.2. THE IMPORTANCE OF CIVICS

In their review of case studies reported to IEA in Phase 1 of the CIVED project, Torney-Purta and her colleagues (1999a) concluded that civics is a low-status subject and curricular aim in most of the countries participating in Phase 1. They supported their conclusion with data collected from focus groups consisting of teachers and principals in many of the participating countries. However, the data presented in the current study show something different. A strong consensus among teachers in the three countries suggests that civics education matters a great deal to students' political development and for their countries. This assertion is true even in countries whose education systems traditionally did not expect schools to promote national allegiance, such as England (Kerr, 1999b), or in countries like Hong Kong, whose education system has been depoliticized for a significant period of time (Law, 2004).

However, this importance of civics in the teachers' views does not contradict their crossnational support to integrate civics curriculum into other social studies subjects. Teachers sometimes think, as reported in England (Leighton, 2004; Wilkins, 2003), that the integration of civics topics into other subjects helps shift from basic knowledge acquisition to a more interactive learning experience. Shifting the focus of civics from knowledge transmission to critical thinking was a general goal expressed by teachers in this study.

It is important, however, to note that participants in this study have evasive stake in civics as they are the teachers of this subject. Thus, the consideration of their strong support to the importance of civics education should not overlook this dimension that might have influence, to some extent, their responses.

5.2.3. COMMONALITIES AND DIFFERENCES AMONG TEACHERS

The explicit objective of the current study was to examine similarities and differences among teachers in the three selected countries. However, the question now becomes one of are they more similar or more dissimilar in teaching civics? In other words, what do the findings of this study add to the discussion between the neo-institutionalism theory (Meyer, 1977) and the national culture theory (Anderson-Levitt, 2004)?

First of all, the findings of this study do not offer evidence to support the national culture theory, which assumes the existence of a national script that greatly influences different aspects of educational structures and practices (Stigler & Hiebert, 1998). Four reasons warrant this conclusion:

- First, the statistical significance—illustrated in the results of post hoc tests presented at the end of each table—does not necessarily indicate a practical significance, which was the incentive to implement a more advanced measure of association (eta squared).
- Second, the consideration of the practical significance between these means, eta squared, as a measure of association between the independent and dependent variables, indicates

(in most of the variables) a small total variation observed among teachers in all three nations, attributable to differences in the national means.

- Third, considering that the scale of IEA's questionnaire ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), we can suggest that means over 2.5 tend to indicate agreement with the statement to some extent. Based on this, the data demonstrate that in the three selected countries teachers' responses indicate agreement with most of the statements in the three categories to some extent.
- Even with post hoc tests that show significant differences among countries' means in most of the variables and a relatively high eta squared in some variables, the standard deviation scores, presenting the variation within each group, are constantly larger than the eta squared scores, which depict the variation among different groups. Thus, if the statistical analyses used in this study illuminate significant differences among countries, it also reduces the existence of a commonality within one country.

However, the study also shows that differences among the countries exist that can be correlated with some national factors and conditions. For example, the analysis reveals that English teachers did not agree that serving in the military or being loyal and patriotic to one's government were signs of good citizenship. They also did not support the proposition of teaching civics as a specific subject. These positions are consistent with what has been consistently reported previously (Figueroa, 2004; Hahn, 1998; Kerr, 1999b; Leighton, 2004; Osler & Starkey, 2001) that no great tradition of explicit teaching of civics exists in English schools and that schools in England have long been viewed as institutions responsible for developing critical reasoning rather than shaping nationalistic goals. Therefore, teachers' reservations on certain items could be interpreted in this national context.

Another example is Hong Kong's teachers' evaluation of the importance of topics of civics education presented in Table 4-13. The analysis reveals that they are more strongly interested in national issues than global issues. This finding is supported by the findings of other research into the political culture in Hong Kong (Cogan et al., 2002; Law, 2004; Leung & Print, 2002; On, 1999), which reported evolving public interest in more nationalistic-oriented civics instruction in the country at the time when Hong Kong returned to mainland China.

Moreover, the similarities among countries in relation to the practice of teaching citizenship education could not be attributed to merely the English influence on the other two countries through colonization. The historical examination of the role of schools and the introduction of civics into school curriculum, summarized in Chapter 3, reveals that these countries have diverse experience in relation to these factors regardless of their sharing of English or Anglo-Saxon culture through origin or colonization. In fact, the historical analysis might suggest other historical and global trend. It could be argued that the changing role of American and Hong Kong's education by the end of British colony might suggest more politicization of school role as nations gain independence and retain their political identity.

However, neo-institutionalism or the global culture dynamic theory does not deny national or local effects of this size (LeTendre et al., 2001). Rather, it calls attention to institutional similarities that exist as a result of adopting the model of the modern educational system. As a result, these institutional similarities affect the educational practices and choices to become much more comparable throughout the world. Coincidently, these institutional similarities do not close the door on national accommodations and adaptations to ideals transmitted via the global dynamic. The findings of this study, nonetheless, suggest support for this global culture dynamic proposition. Many similarities among the three countries exemplify the current focus of civics (knowledge transmission) and teacher-centered instructional and assessment methods. We can also find evidence of national accommodations in the selected alternatives and activities within these common categories.

5.3. **RECOMMENDATIONS**

This section will present the recommendations of the researcher, divided into three groups, based on the findings of this study.

5.3.1. FOR POLICY-MAKERS

Considering the limitation of this study, and its primary focus on the practice of citizenship education from the teachers' perspectives in the three selected countries, the finings suggest some policy questions that need to be addressed and evaluated by education policy makers in these countries:

- 1. Is there a need to develop training and professional development programs for teachers, particularly with the introduction or modification of school subject such as civics?
- 2. Is there a need to offer teachers more opportunities to be involved in designing a civics curriculum, which might be accomplished by delegating the development of a curriculum or a part of it to local educational authorities? and
- 3. Is there a need to improve the quality of materials and textbooks used in civics instruction, which should facilitate the adoption of national standards and guidelines?

5.3.2. FOR FUTURE IEA PROJECT DESIGNERS

As a secondary analyst of CIVED data, I want to suggest three points for consideration when designing future civics education studies.

- 1- More attention should be given to examining the processes of teaching and learning rather than focusing only on the outcomes. Thus, I suggest the diversification of data to include the video recording of civics classes in some countries similar to what has been done for the TIMSS project in the United States, Japan, and Germany.
- 2- Adding more items to the demographic part of the teacher questionnaire might help in interpreting the variations among participants within a country. For this matter, I suggest adding an item for race/ethnicity and the location of the school (inner-city, urban, rural).
- 3- The future studies should, also, address the role of students in civics classroom and how and to what extent they engage in their learning.

5.3.3. FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- 1- The examination of the similarities and differences between the teachers' and students' perceptions of citizenship could be facilitated by comparing teachers' and students' responses to items that have been used in both the student and teacher questionnaire of the CIVED project. This study might inform the research about how citizenship is understood across-generation, and how influential are teachers in transmitting their perceptions to their students.
- 2- The development of more comprehensive theoretical framework for the concept of citizenship and citizenship education is suggested. As discussed above, the conceptual categorization of citizenship models that exists in the literature is not consistent with findings of empirical investigations. Thus, there is a need to develop a more inclusive framework of citizenship that would inform the design of a civics curriculum and textbooks.

3- Cross-national studies need to consider and theorize as much about similarities and common features among various educational systems as they currently do for the differences among these systems. More work on understanding the similarities among diverse educational practices would have important implications on issues related to education planning, policy borrowing and exportations, and the role of international organizations in designing and developing education policy.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: IEA Teacher Questionnaire

F.4 TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE (STANDARD POPULATION ONLY)

Part 1: Work Experience and Education

1. What [civic-related subject(s)] do you teach this school year?

2.	Do you teach in the tested class?
	No 1
	Yes 2
[If	yes, what subject]
3.	Are you the home room/class teacher of the tested class?
	No 1
	Yes 2
4.	For how many years, including the present year, have you been teaching
	altogether?
	years.
5.	For how many years, including the present year, have you been teaching
	[civic education or a civic education-related subject]?
	years.
6.	What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?
	[A] 1
	[B] 2
	[C]
	[D] 4
	[E]
7.	Do you hold a degree from an academic/teacher education institution in a
7.	discipline related to civic education?
	No I
	Yes 2
	If yes, please name
	discipline/s: level of the degree/s:
	1 1
	2 2
	3 3
	4 4
	5 5

8. Have you participated in in-service professional development activities or training in a discipline related to civic education?

No		1
Yes	\square	2

If yes, what was/were the name/s of the course/s:

1		
2		
4		
5		
9.	How old are	you?
	Under 25	1
	25-29	2
	30–39	3
	40-49	4
	50-59	5
	60 or more	6
10.	Are you fema	ile or male?
	Female	
	Male	2

Part 2: Views on Civic Education

With the statements in this section we would like to inquire about your views on civic education in the curriculum of schools.

strongly

disagree

1

disagree

2

agree

3

strongly

agree

4

Section A: How should civic education be taught?

Please rate the statements below on the following scale:

Civic education ...

- A1 should be taught as a specific subject
- A2 should be taught integrated into subjects related to human and social sciences, like history, geography, languages, religion, ethics, law
- A3 should be integrated into all subjects taught at school
- A4 should be an extra-curricular activity

Section B: What is worth learning in civic education?

Please rate the statements below on the following scale:

		strongly disagree 1	disagree 2	agree 3	strongly agree 4
B1	There is broad consensus in our society as to what is worth learning in civic education				
B2	Teachers should negotiate with students what is to be studied in civic education				
B3	Teachers should teach according to curriculum standards/requirements in the area of civic education				
B4	What is important in civic education cannot be taught in school				
B5	Because of conflicts and different opinions in society there cannot be agreement on what should be taught in civic education				
B6	Changes have been so rapid in recent years that teachers often do not know what to teach in civic education				

Section C: How much does civic education matter?

Please rate the statements below on the following scale:

		strongly disagree 1	disagree 2	agree 3	strongly agree 4
C1	Teaching civic education makes a difference for students' political and civic development				
C2	Teaching civic education at school matters a great deal for our country				
C3	Schools are irrelevant for the development of students' attitudes and opinions about matters of citizenship				
C4	Education authorities pay little attention to civic education				

Section D: What is emphasised in civic education at your school?

Tick only one box for each column!

When I look at civic education in my school, I believe most emphasis...

	is placed on	should be placed on
knowledge about society	1	1
student independent (critical) thinking	2	2
student participation in community and political activities	3	3
development of values	4	4

Section E: What do students learn in your school?

Please rate the statements below on the following scale:

		strongly disagree 1	disagree 2	agree 3	strongly agree 4
E1	In our school students learn to understand people who have different [ideas/points of view]				
E2	In our school students learn to co-operate [work together] in groups with other students				
E3	In our school students learn to contribute to solve problems in the community [society]				
E4	In our school students learn to be patriotic and loyal [committed] citizens of their country				

What do students learn in your school (continued)

		strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
		1	2	3	4
E5	In our school students learn how to act to protect the environment				
E6	In our school students learn to be concerned about what happens in other countries				
E7	In our school students learn about the importance of voting in national and local elections				

Section F: What should students learn to become good citizens?

Please rate the items below on the following scale:

To become a good adult citizen students should learn to recognise the importance of ...

		strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
		1	2	3	4
F1	obeying the law				
F2	voting on every election				
F3	joining a political party				
F4	working hard				
F5	participating in a peaceful protest against a law believed to be injust				
F6	knowing about the country's history				
F7	being willing to serve in the military to defend the country				
F8	reading about [following] political issues in the newspaper, on the radio or on TV				
F9	participating in activities to help people in the community [society]				
F10	showing respect for government representatives [leaders, officials]				
F11	taking part in activities promoting human rights				
F12	engaging in political discussion				
F13	being patriotic and loyal [devoted] to the country				
F14	ignoring [disregarding] a law that violated human rights				

Part 3: The Teaching of [Civic Education-related] Subjects, Activities, and Lessons

Section G:How do you plan for civic education? When you prepare for civic education-related activities, from what sources do you draw?

Please rate the importance of each source on the following scale:

		not important 1	less important 2	important 3	very important 4
G1	Official curricula or curricular guidelines or frameworks				
G2	Official requirements (standards) in the area of civic education				
G3	Your own ideas of what is important to know in civic education				
G4	Original sources (such as constitutions, human rights declarations)				
G5	[Approved] Textbooks				
G6	Materials published by commercial companies, public institutes, or private foundations				
G7	Self-produced materials				
G8	Media (newspapers, magazines, television)				

The following table contains a list of 20 topics. Please rate them by checking the appropriate boxes in the table according to	the table	according t	o									
	(a) H c thi	(a) How important do you think this topic is for civic education?	t do you 1 r civic edu	think ication?	(b) H dc to	(b) How confident (well equipped) do you feel to deal with this topic?	ent (well e to deal wi	quipped) th this	(c) How students 1 grade [xx	(c) How much opportunity students up to & including grade [xx] have to learn thi	(c) How much opportunity do students up to & including grade [xx] have to learn this topic?	o opic?
	not mportant	not of little i important importance	important	very important	not at all	Little confident	confident	very confident	not at all	little co	little considerable	very much
List of Topics	1	2	ę	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
H1 National Constitution and State/ political institutions												
H2 Citizens' rights and obligations												
H3 Different conceptions of democracy												
H4 [Different/Comparative] political systems												
H5 Election and electoral systems												
H6 The judicial system												
H7 Human and civil rights												
H9 International organisations												
H10 International problems and relations												
H11 Migrations of people												
H12 Economic issues												
H13 Social Welfare												
H14 Trade/Labour Unions												
H15 Equal opportunities for women and men												
H16 Cultural differences and minorities												
H17 Environmental issues												
H18 Civic virtues												
H19 Dangers of propaganda and manipulation												
H20 Media												

Section H: What topics do you teach?

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PART 4: INSTRUCTION

The following list presents activities that can be used in [civic related education].

Section I: How often are the following activities used in your classes?

Please indicate how frequently the following activities are used in your classes:

		never 1	sometimes 2	often 3	very often 4
11	The teacher chooses the issues to be discussed in class				
12	Students work on projects that involve gathering information outside of school				
13	Students study textbooks				
I4	Students work on drill sheets or work sheets				
15	Students work in groups on different topics and prepare presentations				
16	Students participate in role play and simulations				
17	The teacher asks questions and the students answer				
18	The teacher lectures [presents the subject] and the students take notes				
19	The teacher includes discussion on controversial issues in class				
I10	Students participate in events or activities in the community (society)				

Section J: In your view, what needs to be improved about civic education in your school?

Select the three most important items listed below by checking the three appropriate boxes. We need...

J1	more materials and textbooks	
J2	better materials and textbooks	
J3	additional training in teaching methods	
J4	additional training in subject matter knowledge	
J5	more co-operation between teachers in different subject areas	
J6	more instructional time allocated to civic education	
J7	more co-operation with external experts	
J8	more opportunities for special projects	
J9	more resources for extra-curricular activities	
J10	more autonomy for school decisions	

Section K: How do you assess students?

Please check appropriate box. Tick two boxes only!

When I assess students in civic-related education, I primarily rely on...

K1	written compositions or essays	
K2	multiple-choice tests	
K3	oral assessments	
K4	oral participation	
K5	other forms of assessment: please specify:	
K6	no specific assessment	

Appendix B: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tables

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
OBEYING THE LAW *	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.457	2	2.729
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		250.907	887	.283
	Total		256.364	889	
WORKING HARD *	Between Groups	(Combined)	7.722	2	3.861
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		315.149	884	.357
	Total		322.870	886	
WILLING TO SERVE IN	Between Groups	(Combined)	109.188	2	54.594
MILITAR * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		423.651	872	.486
	Total		532.839	874	
RESPECT FOR	Between Groups	(Combined)	25.938	2	12.969
GOVERNMENT * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		344.900	872	.396
COUNTRY ID	Total		370.839	874	
BEING PATRIOTIC AND	Between Groups	(Combined)	102.899	2	51.449
LOYAL * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		363.608	867	.419
	Total		466.507	869	
KNOWING ABOUT	Between Groups	(Combined)	6.902	2	3.451
HISTORY * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		288.560	889	.325
	Total		295.462	891	

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Patriotic Citizenship

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Patriotic Citizenship

			F	Sig.
OBEYING THE LAW * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	9.646	.000
WORKING HARD * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	10.830	.000
WILLING TO SERVE IN MILITAR * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	112.371	.000
RESPECT FOR GOVERNMENT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	32.790	.000
BEING PATRIOTIC AND LOYAL * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	122.677	.000
KNOWING ABOUT HISTORY * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	10.631	.000

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
OBEYING THE LAW	HK	HK	Difference (Fo)	ota. Enoi	oig.
		EN	.162*	.039	.000
		US	.001	.056	1.000
	EN	НК	162*	.039	.000
		EN			
		US	160*	.057	.016
	US	НК	001	.056	1.000
		EN	.160*	.057	.016
		US			
WORKING HARD	HK	HK			
		EN	072	.043	.288
		US	291*	.063	.000
	EN	HK	.072	.043	.288
		EN			
		US	219*	.064	.002
	US	HK	.291*	.063	.000
		EN	.219*	.064	.002
		US			
WILLING TO	HK	HK			
SERVE IN MILITAR		EN	.583*	.051	.000
		US	425*	.074	.000
	EN	HK	583*	.051	.000
		EN			
		US	-1.009*	.076	.000
	US	HK	.425*	.074	.000
		EN	1.009*	.076	.000
		US			
RESPECT FOR	HK	HK			
GOVERNMENT		EN	.246*	.046	.000
		US	276*	.066	.000
	EN	HK	246*	.046	.000
		EN			
		US	523*	.068	.000
	US	НК	.276*	.066	.000
		EN	.523*	.068	.000
		US			
BEING PATRIOTIC	HK	HK			
AND LOYAL		EN	.638*	.047	.000
		US	250*	.068	.001

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
BEING PATRIOTIC	EN	НК	638*	.047	.000
AND LOYAL		EN			
		US	888*	.071	.000
	US	НК	.250*	.068	.001
		EN	.888*	.071	.000
		US			
KNOWING ABOUT	HK	HK			
HISTORY		EN	.025	.041	1.000
		US	249*	.060	.000
	EN	HK	025	.041	1.000
		EN			
		US	274*	.061	.000
	US	HK	.249*	.060	.000
		EN	.274*	.061	.000
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
OBEYING THE LAW	HK	HK		
		EN	.07	.25
		US	13	.14
	EN	HK	25	07
		EN		
		US	30	02
	US	HK	14	.13
		EN	.02	.30
		US		
WORKING HARD	HK	HK		
		EN	18	.03
		US	44	14
	EN	HK	03	.18
		EN		
		US	37	06
	US	HK	.14	.44
		EN	.06	.37
		US		
WILLING TO SERVE IN MILITAR	HK	HK		
SERVE IN WILLIAR		EN	.46	.71
		US	60	25
	EN	HK	71	46
		EN		
		US	-1.19	83
	US	HK	.25	.60
		EN	.83	1.19
		US		
RESPECT FOR GOVERNMENT	HK	HK		
GOVERNIVIENT		EN	.14	.36
		US	44	12
	EN	HK	36	14
		EN		
		US	69	36
	US	HK	.12	.44
		EN	.36	.69
		US		
BEING PATRIOTIC	HK	HK		
AND LOYAL		EN	.52	.75
		US	41	09

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
BEING PATRIOTIC	EN	HK	75	52
AND LOYAL		EN		
		US	-1.06	72
	US	HK	.09	.41
		EN	.72	1.06
		US		
KNOWING ABOUT	HK	HK		
HISTORY		EN	07	.12
		US	39	11
	EN	HK	12	.07
		EN		
		US	42	13
	US	НК	.11	.39
		EN	.13	.42
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
VOTING ON EVERY ELECTION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	23.092	2	11.546
	Within Groups		313.799	888	.353
	Total		336.891	890	
PARTICIP. IN ACTIVITIES *	Between Groups	(Combined)	6.528	2	3.264
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		229.235	889	.258
	Total		235.762	891	
READING ABOUT POLITICS *	Between Groups	(Combined)	12.458	2	6.229
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		282.487	885	.319
	Total		294.945	887	
ENGAGING IN POLIT.	Between Groups	(Combined)	19.726	2	9.863
DISCUSSN * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		263.506	877	.300
	Total		283.232	879	
JOINING A POLITICAL PARTY	Between Groups	(Combined)	34.062	2	17.031
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		270.401	882	.307
	Total		304.463	884	

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Participatory Citizenship

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Participatory Citizenship

			F	Sig.
VOTING ON EVERY ELECTION	Between Groups	(Combined)	32.673	.000
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
PARTICIP. IN ACTIVITIES *	Between Groups	(Combined)	12.658	.000
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups			
	Total			
READING ABOUT POLITICS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	19.515	.000
	Within Groups			
	Total			
ENGAGING IN POLIT.	Between Groups	(Combined)	32.825	.000
DISCUSSN * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups	(/		
	Total			
JOINING A POLITICAL PARTY	Between Groups	(Combined)	55.552	.000
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			

			Mean Difference		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
VOTING ON EVERY ELECTION	HK	EN	.018	.043	1.000
		US	472*	.062	.000
	EN	HK	018	.043	1.000
		US	490*	.064	.000
	US	HK	.472*	.062	.000
		EN	.490*	.064	.000
PARTICIP. IN ACTIVITIES	HK	EN	159*	.037	.000
		US	199*	.053	.001
	EN	HK	.159*	.037	.000
		US	040	.055	1.000
	US	HK	.199*	.053	.001
		EN	.040	.055	1.000
READING ABOUT POLITICS	HK	EN	180*	.041	.000
		US	330*	.059	.000
	EN	HK	.180*	.041	.000
		US	150*	.061	.042
	US	HK	.330*	.059	.000
		EN	.150*	.061	.042
ENGAGING IN POLIT.	HK	EN	235*	.040	.000
DISCUSSN		US	410*	.058	.000
	EN	HK	.235*	.040	.000
		US	175*	.059	.010
	US	HK	.410*	.058	.000
		EN	.175*	.059	.010
JOINING A POLITICAL PARTY	HK	EN	.033	.040	1.000
		US	569*	.058	.000
	EN	HK	033	.040	1.000
		US	603*	.060	.000
	US	HK	.569*	.058	.000
		EN	.603*	.060	.000

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
VOTING ON EVERY ELECTION	HK	EN	09	.12
		US	62	32
	EN	HK	12	.09
		US	64	34
	US	HK	.32	.62
		EN	.34	.64
PARTICIP. IN ACTIVITIES	HK	EN	25	07
		US	33	07
	EN	HK	.07	.25
		US	17	.09
	US	HK	.07	.33
		EN	09	.17
READING ABOUT POLITICS	HK	EN	28	08
		US	47	19
	EN	HK	.08	.28
		US	30	.00
	US	HK	.19	.47
		EN	.00	.30
ENGAGING IN POLIT.	HK	EN	33	14
DISCUSSN		US	55	27
	EN	HK	.14	.33
		US	32	03
	US	HK	.27	.55
		EN	.03	.32
JOINING A POLITICAL PARTY	HK	EN	06	.13
		US	71	43
	EN	HK	13	.06
		US	75	46
	US	HK	.43	.71
		EN	.46	.75

Bonferroni

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
PEACEFUL PROTEST *	Between Groups	(Combined)	9.685	2	4.842
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		319.830	878	.364
	Total		329.514	880	
PROMOTING HUMAN RIGHTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	6.990	2	3.495
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		303.365	875	.347
	Total		310.355	877	
IGNORING LAW VIOLATED HR * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	10.530	2	5.265
	Within Groups		523.533	830	.631
	Total		534.062	832	

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Critical Citizenship

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Critical Citizenship

			F	Sig.
PEACEFUL PROTEST *	Between Groups	(Combined)	13.293	.000
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups			
	Total			
PROMOTING HUMAN RIGHTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	10.081	.000
	Within Groups			
	Total			
IGNORING LAW VIOLATED	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.347	.000
HR * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to Critical Citizenship

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
PEACEFUL PROTEST	HK	EN	054	.044	.663
		US	326*	.063	.000
	EN	HK	.054	.044	.663
		US	272*	.065	.000
	US	HK	.326*	.063	.000
		EN	.272*	.065	.000
PROMOTING HUMAN RIGHTS	HK	EN	056	.043	.581
		US	279*	.062	.000
	EN	HK	.056	.043	.581
		US	224*	.064	.002
	US	HK	.279*	.062	.000
		EN	.224*	.064	.002
IGNORING LAW VIOLATED	HK	EN	204*	.059	.002
HR		US	.090	.086	.889
	EN	HK	.204*	.059	.002
		US	.293*	.088	.003
	US	HK	090	.086	.889
		EN	293*	.088	.003

Bonferroni

			95% Confidence Interval		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
PEACEFUL PROTEST	HK	EN	16	.05	
		US	48	17	
	EN	HK	05	.16	
		US	43	12	
	US	HK	.17	.48	
		EN	.12	.43	
PROMOTING HUMAN RIGHTS	HK	EN	16	.05	
		US	43	13	
	EN	HK	05	.16	
		US	38	07	
	US	HK	.13	.43	
		EN	.07	.38	
IGNORING LAW VIOLATED	HK	EN	35	06	
HR		US	12	.30	
	EN	HK	.06	.35	
		US	.08	.50	
	US	HK	30	.12	
		EN	50	08	

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	(Combined)	3.594	2	1.797
CIVIC/BROAD CONSENSUS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		349.542	881	.397
COUNTRY ID	Total		353.136	883	
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	(Combined)	29.517	2	14.759
CIVIC/CURRICULUM STANDARDS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		325.613	875	.372
	Total		355.130	877	
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	(Combined)	114.400	2	57.200
CIVIC/NEGOTIATE WITH STUDENTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		324.707	884	.367
	Total		439.107	886	
WORTH LEARNING/RAPID	Between Groups	(Combined)	17.595	2	8.797
CHANGES IN RECENT Y * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		376.704	880	.428
COUNTRY ID	Total		394.299	882	
WORTH LEARNING/ CAN'T BE	Between Groups	(Combined)	186.766	2	93.383
TAUGHT IN SCHOO * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		298.941	873	.342
COUNTRY ID	Total		485.708	875	
WORTH LEARNING/ NO	Between Groups	(Combined)	77.014	2	38.507
AGREEMENT * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		319.895	881	.363
	Total		396.908	883	

			F	Sig.
WORTH LEARNING CIVIC/BROAD CONSENSUS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	4.529	.011
WORTH LEARNING CIVIC/CURRICULUM STANDARDS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	39.660	.000
WORTH LEARNING CIVIC/NEGOTIATE WITH STUDENTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	155.725	.000
WORTH LEARNING/RAPID CHANGES IN RECENT Y * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	20.551	.000
WORTH LEARNING/ CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	272.707	.000
WORTH LEARNING/ NO AGREEMENT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	106.049	.000

			Moon		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	HK			
MATTER/MAKES A DIFFERENCE		EN	.054	.034	.357
DITTERENCE		US	249*	.050	.000
	EN	НК	054	.034	.357
		EN			
		US	303*	.051	.000
	US	HK	.249*	.050	.000
		EN	.303*	.051	.000
		US			
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	HK			
MATTER/MATTERS A GREAT DEAL		EN	.326*	.042	.000
A OREAT DEAL		US	109	.061	.226
	EN	НК	326*	.042	.000
		EN			
		US	435*	.063	.000
	US	НК	.109	.061	.226
		EN	.435*	.063	.000
		US			
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	НК			
MATTER/SCHOOLS		EN	.184*	.047	.000
INNELLVAINT		US	.299*	.068	.000
	EN	НК	184*	.047	.000
		EN			
		US	.115	.070	.307
	US	НК	299*	.068	.000
		EN	115	.070	.307
		US			
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	НК			
MATTER/LITTLE ATTENTION		EN	020	.046	1.000
ATTENTION		US	.302*	.067	.000
	EN	НК	.020	.046	1.000
		EN			
		US	.322*	.069	.000
	US	НК	302*	.067	.000
		EN	322*	.069	.000
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CIVIC EDUC. MATTER/MAKES A DIFFERENCE	НК	НК		
		EN	03	.14
		US	37	13
	EN	НК	14	.03
		EN		
		US	43	18
	US	НК	.13	.37
		EN	.18	.43
		US		
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	НК		
MATTER/MATTERS A GREAT DEAL		EN	.22	.43
A OREAT DEAL		US	26	.04
	EN	НК	43	22
		EN		
		US	59	28
	US	НК	04	.26
		EN	.28	.59
		US		
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	НК		
MATTER/SCHOOLS IRRELEVANT		EN	.07	.30
		US	.14	.46
	EN	HK	30	07
		EN		
		US	05	.28
	US	НК	46	14
		EN	28	.05
		US		
CIVIC EDUC.	HK	HK		
MATTER/LITTLE ATTENTION		EN	13	.09
		US	.14	.46
	EN	НК	09	.13
		EN		
		US	.16	.49
	US	HK	46	14
		EN	49	16
		US		

Bonferroni

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
CIV ED TAUGHT/AS	Between Groups	(Combined)	91.508	2	45.754
SPECIFIC SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		579.319	872	.664
COONTRI ID	Total		670.827	874	
CIV ED	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.821	2	4.411
TAUGHT/INTEGRATED INTO SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		404.967	876	.462
ш —	Total		413.788	878	
CIV ED TAUGHT/INTEGR.	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.287	2	2.643
INTO ALL SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups Total		472.996	868	.545
	Total		478.282	870	
CIV ED	Between Groups	(Combined)	121.141	2	60.570
TAUGHT/EXTRA- CURRICULAR ACTIV. * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		580.193	861	.674
	Total		701.333	863	

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to the Way Civics should be Taught

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to the Way Civics should be Taught

			F	Sig.
CIV ED TAUGHT/AS SPECIFIC SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	68.870	.000
CIV ED TAUGHT/INTEGRATED INTO SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	9.541	.000
CIV ED TAUGHT/INTEGR. INTO ALL SUBJECT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	4.851	.008
CIV ED TAUGHI/EXTRA- CURRICULAR ACTIV. * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	89.886	.000

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to the Way Civics should be Taught

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
CIV ED TAUGHT/AS	HK	HK			
SPECIFIC SUBJECT		EN	.643*	.060	.000
		US	108	.086	.631
	EN	НК	643*	.060	.000
		EN			
		US	751*	.089	.000
	US	HK	.108	.086	.631
		EN	.751*	.089	.000
		US			
CIV ED	HK	HK			
TAUGHT/INTEGRATED		EN	209*	.050	.000
		US	171	.072	.051
	EN	HK	.209*	.050	.000
		EN			
		US	.037	.074	1.000
	US	HK	.171	.072	.051
		EN	037	.074	1.000
		US			
CIV ED	HK	HK			
TAUGHT/INTEGR.INTO ALL SUBJECT		EN	120	.054	.080
/122 0020201		US	214*	.078	.018
	EN	HK	.120	.054	.080
		EN			
		US	093	.080	.736
	US	HK	.214*	.078	.018
		EN	.093	.080	.736
		US			
CIV ED	HK	HK			
TAUGHT/EXTRA- CURRICULAR ACTIV.		EN	.773*	.061	.000
		US	.673*	.086	.000
	EN	HK	773*	.061	.000
		EN			
		US	100	.089	.789
	US	HK	673*	.086	.000
		EN	.100	.089	.789
		US			

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to the Way Civics should be Taught

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CIV ED TAUGHT/AS	HK	HK		
SPECIFIC SUBJECT		EN	.50	.79
		US	31	.10
	EN	HK	79	50
		EN		
		US	96	54
	US	HK	10	.31
		EN	.54	.96
		US		
CIV ED	HK	HK		
TAUGHT/INTEGRATED INTO SUBJECT		EN	33	09
		US	34	.00
	EN	HK	.09	.33
		EN		
		US	14	.21
	US	HK	.00	.34
		EN	21	.14
		US		
CIV ED	HK	HK		
TAUGHT/INTEGR.INTO ALL SUBJECT		EN	25	.01
ALL CODULOT		US	40	03
	EN	HK	01	.25
		EN		
		US	29	.10
	US	HK	.03	.40
		EN	10	.29
		US		
CIV ED	HK	HK		
TAUGHT/EXTRA- CURRICULAR ACTIV.		EN	.63	.92
		US	.47	.88
	EN	НК	92	63
		EN		
		US	31	.11
	US	HK	88	47
		EN	11	.31
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	3.594	2	1.797	4.529	.011
CIVIC/BROAD CONSENSUS	Within Groups	349.542	881	.397		
CONSENSOS	Total	353.136	883			
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	29.517	2	14.759	39.660	.000
CIVIC/CURRICULUM STANDARDS	Within Groups	325.613	875	.372		
	Total	355.130	877			
WORTH LEARNING	Between Groups	114.400	2	57.200	155.725	.000
CIVIC/NEGOTIATE WITH STUDENTS	Within Groups	324.707	884	.367		
STODENTS	Total	400 407	000			
		439.107	886			
WORTH	Between Groups	17.595	2	8.797	20.551	.000
LEARNING/RAPID CHANGES IN RECENT Y	Within Groups	376.704	880	.428		
CHANGES IN RECENT T	Total	394.299	882			
WORTH LEARNING/	Between Groups	186.766	2	93.383	272.707	.000
CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO	Within Groups	298.941	873	.342		
30100	Total	485.708	875			
WORTH LEARNING/ NO	Between Groups	77.014	2	38.507	106.049	.000
AGREEMENT	Within Groups	319.895	881	.363		
	Total	396.908	883			

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to What Worth Learning in Civics

			Mean		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
WORTH LEARNING CIVIC/BROAD CONSENSUS	НК	НК			
		EN	.015	.046	1.000
CONCENCED		US	183*	.066	.018
	EN	НК	015	.046	1.000
		EN			
		US	199*	.069	.012
	US	HK	.183*	.066	.018
		EN	.199*	.069	.012
		US			
WORTH LEARNING	HK	HK			
CIVIC/CURRICULUM STANDARDS		EN	.221*	.045	.000
01/11/0/11/00		US	364*	.065	.000
	EN	НК	221*	.045	.000
		EN			
		US	585*	.067	.000
	US	HK	.364*	.065	.000
		EN	.585*	.067	.000
		US			
WORTH LEARNING	НК	HK			
CIVIC/NEGOTIATE WITH STUDENTS		EN	.612*	.044	.000
01002.110		US	.925*	.064	.000
	EN	HK	612*	.044	.000
		EN			
		US	.313*	.066	.000
	US	HK	925*	.064	.000
		EN	313*	.066	.000
		US			
WORTH	HK	HK			
LEARNING/RAPID CHANGES IN RECENT Y		EN	.041	.048	1.000
		US	.438*	.069	.000
	EN	HK	041	.048	1.000
		EN			
		US	.397*	.071	.000
	US	HK	438*	.069	.000
		EN	397*	.071	.000
		US			
WORTH LEARNING/	НК	HK			
CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO		EN	.899*	.043	.000
		US	.992*	.062	.000

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
WORTH LEARNING/	EN	HK	899*	.043	.000
CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO		EN			
001100		US	.094	.064	.434
	US	HK	992*	.062	.000
		EN	094	.064	.434
		US			
WORTH LEARNING/ NO	HK	HK			
AGREEMENT		EN	.425*	.044	.000
		US	.843*	.064	.000
	EN	HK	425*	.044	.000
		EN			
		US	.419*	.066	.000
	US	HK	843*	.064	.000
		EN	419*	.066	.000
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
WORTH LEARNING	HK	НК		
CIVIC/BROAD CONSENSUS		EN	09	.13
CONSENSUS		US	34	02
	EN	НК	13	.09
		EN		
		US	36	03
	US	НК	.02	.34
		EN	.03	.36
		US		
WORTH LEARNING	НК	НК		
CIVIC/CURRICULUM STANDARDS		EN	.11	.33
STANDARDS		US	52	21
	EN	НК	33	11
		EN		
		US	75	42
	US	НК	.21	.52
		EN	.42	.75
		US		
WORTH LEARNING	НК	НК		
CIVIC/NEGOTIATE WITH STUDENTS		EN	.51	.72
STODENTS		US	.77	1.08
	EN	НК	72	51
		EN		
		US	.16	.47
	US	НК	-1.08	77
		EN	47	16
		US		
WORTH	НК	НК		
LEARNING/RAPID CHANGES IN RECENT Y		EN	07	.16
CHANGES IN RECENT 1		US	.27	.60
	EN	НК	16	.07
		EN		
		US	.23	.57
	US	НК	60	27
		EN	57	23
		US		
WORTH LEARNING/	НК	НК		
CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO		EN	.80	1.00
50100		US	.84	1.14

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
WORTH LEARNING/	EN	HK	-1.00	80
CAN'T BE TAUGHT IN SCHOO		EN		
001100		US	06	.25
	US	HK	-1.14	84
		EN	25	.06
		US		
WORTH LEARNING/ NO	НК	HK		
AGREEMENT		EN	.32	.53
		US	.69	1.00
	EN	HK	53	32
		EN		
		US	.26	.58
	US	HK	-1.00	69
		EN	58	26
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	86.212	2	43.106
LEARN/UNDERSTAND		(Combined)		-	
PEOPLE * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		269.411	887	.304
	Total		355.624	889	
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/CO-OPERATE IN	Between Groups	(Combined)	38.840	2	19.420
GROUPS * *COUNTRY	Within Groups		202.447	890	.227
	Total		241.288	892	
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	35.237	2	17.618
LEARN/CONTRIBUTE TO	Within Groups		358.718	883	.406
SOLVE PR * *COUNTRY ID*	Total				
			393,955	885	
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	31.755	2	15.877
LEARN/TO BE PATRIOTIC * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		366.017	877	.417
COONTREE	Total		397.772	879	
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	29.735	2	14.867
LEARN/PROTECT ENVIRONMENT *	Within Groups		257.358	888	.290
COUNTRY ID	Total		287.093	890	
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	101.027	2	50.513
LEARN/CONCERNED	Within Groups	. ,	342.817	887	.386
ABOUT COUNTR * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		443.844	889	
WHAT STDNTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	25.783	2	12.892
LEARN/IMPORTANCE OF	Within Groups		401.360	883	.455
VOTING * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		427.143	885	

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to What Students Learn

			F	Sig.
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/UNDERSTAND PEOPLE * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	141.921	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/CO-OPERATE IN GROUPS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	85.375	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/CONTRIBUTE TO SOLVE PR * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	43.369	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/TO BE PATRIOTIC * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	38.043	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/PROTECT ENVIRONMENT * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	51.299	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/CONCERNED ABOUT COUNTR * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	130.698	.000
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/IMPORTANCE OF VOTING * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	28.362	.000

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to What Students Learn

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK	Difference (F0)	Std. Entr	olg.
LEARN/UNDERSTAND		EN	663*	.040	.000
PEOPLE		US	438*	.058	.000
	EN	HK	.663*	.040	.000
		EN			
		US	.225*	.060	.001
	US	НК	.438*	.058	.000
		EN	225*	.060	.001
		US			
WHAT STDNTS	НК	НК			
LEARN/CO-OPERATE IN GROUPS		EN	447*	.034	.000
		US	263*	.050	.000
	EN	НК	.447*	.034	.000
		EN			
		US	.184*	.052	.001
	US	НК	.263*	.050	.000
		EN	184*	.052	.001
		US			
WHAT STDNTS	НК	НК			
LEARN/CONTRIBUTE TO SOLVE PR		EN	416*	.046	.000
SOLVETIK		US	333*	.067	.000
	EN	HK	.416*	.046	.000
		EN			
		US	.083	.069	.687
	US	HK	.333*	.067	.000
		EN	083	.069	.687
		US			
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK			
LEARN/TO BE PATRIOTIC		EN	.140*	.047	.009
		US	477*	.069	.000
	EN	HK	140*	.047	.009
		EN			
		US	616*	.071	.000
	US	HK	.477*	.069	.000
		EN	.616*	.071	.000
		US			
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/PROTECT	HK	HK			
ENVIRONMENT		EN	388*	.039	.000
		US	072	.057	.616

Donordant Variable			Mean	Otal Error	Cia
Dependent Variable WHAT STDNTS	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID* HK	Difference (I-J) .388*	Std. Error	Sig.
LEARN/PROTECT	EN		.388	.039	.000
ENVIRONMENT		EN			
		US	.316*	.058	.000
	US	HK	.072	.057	.616
		EN	316*	.058	.000
		US			
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK			
LEARN/CONCERNED ABOUT COUNTR		EN	723*	.045	.000
		US	427*	.065	.000
	EN	НК	.723*	.045	.000
		EN			
		US	.295*	.067	.000
	US	НК	.427*	.065	.000
		EN	295*	.067	.000
		US			
WHAT STDNTS	HK	нк			
LEARN/IMPORTANCE OF VOTING		EN	.235*	.049	.000
VOTING		US	288*	.071	.000
	EN	НК	235*	.049	.000
		EN			
		US	523*	.073	.000
	US	НК	.288*	.071	.000
		EN	.523*	.073	.000
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK		
LEARN/UNDERSTAND PEOPLE		EN	76	57
		US	58	30
	EN	HK	.57	.76
		EN		
		US	.08	.37
	US	HK	.30	.58
		EN	37	08
		US		
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK		
LEARN/CO-OPERATE IN GROUPS		EN	53	36
		US	38	14
	EN	HK	.36	.53
		EN		
		US	.06	.31
	US	HK	.14	.38
		EN	31	06
		US		
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK		
LEARN/CONTRIBUTE TO SOLVE PR		EN	53	31
		US	49	17
	EN	HK	.31	.53
		EN		
		US	08	.25
	US	HK	.17	.49
		EN	25	.08
		US		
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/TO BE PATRIOTIC	HK	HK		
LEARINTO DE PATRIUTIC		EN	.03	.25
		US	64	31
	EN	HK	25	03
		EN		
		US	79	45
	US	HK	.31	.64
		EN	.45	.79
		US		
WHAT STDNTS	HK	HK		
LEARN/PROTECT ENVIRONMENT		EN	48	29
		US	21	.06

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
WHAT STDNTS	EN	НК	.29	.48
LEARN/PROTECT ENVIRONMENT		EN		
ENVIRONMENT		US	.18	.46
	US	НК	06	.21
		EN	46	18
		US		
WHAT STDNTS LEARN/CONCERNED ABOUT COUNTR	HK	НК		
		EN	83	61
		US	58	27
	EN	НК	.61	.83
		EN		
		US	.13	.46
	US	НК	.27	.58
		EN	46	13
		US		
WHAT STDNTS	HK	НК		
LEARN/IMPORTANCE OF VOTING		EN	.12	.35
VOTING		US	46	12
	EN	НК	35	12
		EN		
		US	70	35
	US	НК	.12	.46
		EN	.35	.70
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	62.941	2	31.470
MPORTANT/NATIONAL CONSTITUTION *	Within Groups		380.574	863	.441
COUNTRY ID*	Total		443.515	865	
HOW IMPORTANT/CIVIC	Between Groups	(Combined)	120.213	2	60.106
/IRTUES * *COUNTRY D*	Within Groups		349.692	860	.407
	Total		469.905	862	
IOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	10.689	2	5.345
MPORTANT/ELECTION *	Within Groups		334.275	866	.386
	Total				
			344.964	868	
	Between Groups	(Combined)	13.882	2	6.941
UDICAL SYSTEM * COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		325.159	867	.375
	Total		339.040	869	
	Between Groups	(Combined)	20.596	2	10.298
MPORTANT/EVENTS IN IISTORY * *COUNTRY	Within Groups		406.403	866	.469
)*	Total		426.999	868	
IOW IMPORTANT/	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.516	2	4.258
IEDIA * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		351.175	864	.400
	Total		359.691	866	
	Between Groups	(Combined)	196.712	2	98.356
MPORTANT/CULTURAL	Within Groups		431.246	862	.500
COUNTRY ID*	Total		627.958	864	
	Between Groups	(Combined)	68.258	2	34.129
MPORTANT/DIFFERENT POLITICAL SYSTEMS *	Within Groups		405.682	864	.470
COUNTRY ID*	Total		473.940	866	
IOW MPORTANT/	Between Groups	(Combined)	12.085	2	6.042
ONCEPTIONS OF	Within Groups		341.253	867	.394
EMOCRACY *	Total		353.338	869	
IOW MPORTANT/	Between Groups	(Combined)	7.348	2	3.674
NVIRONMENTAL	Within Groups		348.248	868	.401
SSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		355.596	870	
IOW MPORTANT/MIGRATION	Between Groups	(Combined)	75.806	2	37.903
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups Total		432.120 507.926	858 860	.504
1014		(Combined)			42.00
IOW MPORTANT/TRADE/	Between Groups Within Groups	(Combined)	87.765	2 859	43.882
ABOR UNIONS *	Total		403.693 491.458	859 861	.470
COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	52.995	2	26.498
MPORTANT/ECONOMIC	Within Groups	(Somolied)	366.662	859	.427
SSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		419.658	861	.421

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	89.262	2	44.631
IMPORTANT/	Within Groups	(combined)	364.038	860	.423
INTERNATIONAL	Total		453.300	862	.420
PROBLEMS * *COUNTRY		(Oamhin a d)			55 750
HOW IMPORTANT/INTERNAT.	Between Groups	(Combined)	111.516	2	55.758
ORGANISATIONS *	Within Groups		388.627	862	.451
COUNTRY ID	Total		500.143	864	
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	88.941	2	44.470
IMPORTANT/DANGERS OF PROPAGANDA *	Within Groups		421.539	865	.487
COUNTRY ID	Total		510.479	867	
HOW IMPORTANT/EQUAL	Between Groups	(Combined)	60.952	2	30.476
OPPORTUNITIES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		343.528	864	.398
	Total		404.480	866	
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	14.833	2	7.416
IMPORTANT/HUMAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS *	Within Groups		298.534	866	.345
COUNTRY ID	Total		313.367	868	
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.521	2	2.760
IMPORTANT/CITIZENS RIGHTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		290.451	869	.334
RIGHTS COUNTRILD	Total		295.971	871	
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	48.024	2	24.012
IMPORTANT/SOCIAL WELFARE * *COUNTRY	Within Groups		310.419	861	.361
ID*	Total		358.443	863	

			F	Sig.
HOW IMPORTANT/NATIONAL CONSTITUTION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	71.363	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/CIVIC VIRTUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	147.820	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/ELECTION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	13.847	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/THE JUDICAL SYSTEM * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	18.507	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/EVENTS IN HISTORY * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	21.944	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/ MEDIA * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	10.476	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/CULTURAL DIFFERENCES * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	196.600	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/DIFFERENT POLITICAL SYSTEMS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	72.686	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/ CONCEPTIONS OF DEMOCRACY *	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	15.351	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/ ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	9.158	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/MIGRATION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	75.258	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/TRADE/ LABOR UNIONS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	93.375	.000
HOW IMPORTANT/ECONOMIC ISSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups Total	(Combined)	62.078	.000

			F	Sig.
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	105.436	.000
IMPORTANT/ INTERNATIONAL	Within Groups			
PROBLEMS * *COUNTRY	Total			
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	123.675	.000
IMPORTANT/INTERNAT. ORGANISATIONS *	Within Groups			
COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	91.253	.000
IMPORTANT/DANGERS OF PROPAGANDA *	Within Groups			
COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW IMPORTANT/EQUAL	Between Groups	(Combined)	76.649	.000
OPPORTUNITIES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	21.514	.000
IMPORTANT/HUMAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS *	Within Groups			
COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.259	.000
IMPORTANT/CITIZENS RIGHTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
HOW	Between Groups	(Combined)	66.601	.000
IMPORTANT/SOCIAL WELFARE * *COUNTRY	Within Groups			
ID*	Total			

Den en de stà (seinhie			Mean	Obd. Error	0.1-
Dependent Variable HOW	(I) *COUNTRY ID* HK	(J) *COUNTRY ID* HK	Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IMPORTANT/NATIONAL		EN	210*	049	.000
CONSTITUTION		US	318* 850*	.048 .074	.000
	EN	HK	.318*	.074	.000
	LN	EN	.510	.040	.000
		US	532*	.076	.000
	US	НК	.850*	.076	.000
		EN	.532*	.076	.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/CIVIC	НК	НК			
VIRTUES		EN	.791*	.047	.000
		US	.174*	.071	.045
	EN	НК	791*	.047	.000
		EN			
		US	617*	.073	.000
	US	НК	174*	.071	.045
		EN	.617*	.073	.000
		US			
HOW	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/ELECTION		EN	078	.045	.249
		US	367*	.070	.000
	EN	НК	.078	.045	.249
		EN			
		US	289*	.071	.000
	US	НК	.367*	.070	.000
		EN	.289*	.071	.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/THE	HK	HK			
JUDICAL SYSTEM		EN	086	.044	.156
		US	417*	.069	.000
	EN	HK	.086	.044	.156
		EN			
		US	330*	.070	.000
	US	НК	.417*	.069	.000
		EN	.330*	.070	.000
		US			
	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/EVENTS IN HISTORY		EN	170*	.050	.002
		US	492*	.077	.000

			Mean		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW IMPORTANT/EVENTS IN HISTORY	EN	HK	.170*	.050	.002
		EN			
		US	321*	.079	.000
	US	НК	.492*	.077	.000
		EN	.321*	.079	.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/	HK	НК			
MEDIA		EN	142*	.046	.007
		US	296*	.072	.000
	EN	нк	.142*	.046	.007
		EN			
		US	154	.073	.110
	US	НК	.296*	.072	.000
		EN	.154	.073	.110
		US			
HOW	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/CULTURAL		EN	969*	.051	.000
DIFFERENCES		US	895*	.079	.000
	EN	НК	.969*	.051	.000
		EN			
		US	.074	.081	1.000
	US	НК	.895*	.079	.000
		EN	074	.081	1.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/DIFFERENT POLITICAL SYSTEMS	НК	НК			
		EN	490*	.050	.000
		US	728*	.077	.000
	EN	HK	.490*	.050	.000
	2.1	EN		.000	
		US	237*	.079	.008
	US	НК	.728*	.077	.000
		EN	.237*	.079	.008
			.231	.075	.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/ CONCEPTIONS OF DEMOCRACY	HK	НК			
		EN	108	.045	.054
		US	385*	.070	.000
	EN	HK	.108	.045	.054
		EN			
		US	277*	.072	.000

Bonferroni

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			Maan		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW	US	HK	.385*	.070	.000
IMPORTANT/ CONCEPTIONS OF		EN	.277*	.072	.000
DEMOCRACY		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/	HK	HK	10.00		
ENVIRONMENTAL		EN	196*	.046	.000
ISSUES		US	070	.071	.972
	EN	HK	.196*	.046	.000
		EN			
		US	.126	.073	.248
	US	HK	.070	.071	.972
		EN	126	.073	.248
		US			
HOW	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/MIGRATION		EN	529*	.052	.000
		US	749*	.079	.000
	EN	HK	.529*	.052	.000
		EN			
		US	220*	.082	.021
	US	НК	.749*	.079	.000
		EN	.220*	.082	.021
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/TRADE/ LABOR UNIONS	HK	НК			
		EN	635*	.050	.000
		US	649*	.078	.000
	EN	НК	.635*	.050	.000
		EN			
		US	013	.080	1.000
	US	НК	.649*	.078	.000
		EN	.013	.080	1.000
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/ECONOMIC ISSUES	НК	НК			
		EN	397*	.048	.000
		US	693*	.040	.000
	EN	HK	.397*	.048	.000
	2.11	EN	.551	.040	.000
		US	297*	.075	.000
		03	231	.010	.000

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW	US	НК	.693*	.073	.000
IMPORTANT/ECONOMIC ISSUES		EN	.297*	.075	.000
		US			
HOW	НК	НК			
IMPORTANT/ INTERNATIONAL		EN	563*	.047	.000
PROBLEMS		US	833*	.073	.000
	EN	HK	.563*	.047	.000
		EN			
		US	270*	.075	.001
	US	HK	.833*	.073	.000
		EN	.270*	.075	.001
		US			
HOW	HK	HK			
IMPORTANT/INTERNAT. ORGANISATIONS		EN	722*	.049	.000
		US	703*	.076	.000
	EN	HK	.722*	.049	.000
		EN			
		US	.019	.077	1.000
	US	HK	.703*	.076	.000
		EN	019	.077	1.000
		US			
HOW	HK	HK			
IMPORTANT/DANGERS OF PROPAGANDA		EN	585*	.051	.000
		US	784*	.078	.000
	EN	HK	.585*	.051	.000
		EN			
		US	199*	.080	.039
	US	HK	.784*	.078	.000
		EN	.199*	.080	.039
		US			
HOW IMPORTANT/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES	HK	HK			
OPPORTUNITIES		EN	539*	.046	.000
		US	496*	.071	.000
	EN	HK	.539*	.046	.000
		EN			
		US	.043	.072	1.000
	US	HK	.496*	.071	.000
		EN	043	.072	1.000
		US			

			Mean		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW IMPORTANT/HUMAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS	HK	НК			
		EN	200*	.043	.000
		US	376*	.066	.000
	EN	HK	.200*	.043	.000
		EN			
		US	176*	.067	.027
	US	НК	.376*	.066	.000
		EN	.176*	.067	.027
		US			
HOW	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/CITIZENS RIGHTS		EN	014	.042	1.000
RIGHTS		US	256*	.064	.000
	EN	НК	.014	.042	1.000
		EN			
		US	242*	.066	.001
	US	НК	.256*	.064	.000
		EN	.242*	.066	.001
		US			
HOW	HK	НК			
IMPORTANT/SOCIAL WELFARE		EN	460*	.044	.000
WELFARE		US	508*	.068	.000
	EN	НК	.460*	.044	.000
		EN			
		US	048	.069	1.000
	US	НК	.508*	.068	.000
		EN	.048	.069	1.000
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/NATIONAL CONSTITUTION		EN	43	20
		US	-1.03	67
	EN	НК	.20	.43
		EN		
		US	71	35
	US	HK	.67	1.03
		EN	.35	.71
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/CIVIC VIRTUES	HK	HK		
VIRTUES		EN	.68	.90
		US	.00	.35
	EN	HK	90	68
		EN		
		US	79	44
	US	HK	35	.00
		EN	.44	.79
		US		
	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/ELECTION		EN	19	.03
		US	53	20
	EN	HK	03	.19
		EN		
		US	46	12
	US	HK	.20	.53
		EN	.12	.46
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/THE JUDICAL SYSTEM	HK	HK		
JUDICAL STSTEM		EN	19	.02
		US	58	25
	EN	HK	02	.19
		EN		
		US	50	16
	US	НК	.25	.58
		EN	.16	.50
		US		
HOW	HK	НК		
IMPORTANT/EVENTS IN HISTORY		EN	29	05
		US	68	31

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to the Importance of Civics Topic

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW	EN	HK	.05	.29
IMPORTANT/EVENTS IN HISTORY		EN		
		US	51	13
	US	HK	.31	.68
		EN	.13	.51
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/	HK	HK		
MEDIA		EN	25	03
		US	47	12
	EN	HK	.03	.25
		EN		
		US	33	.02
	US	HK	.12	.47
		EN	02	.33
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/CULTURAL	HK	HK		
DIFFERENCES		EN	-1.09	85
		US	-1.09	71
	EN	HK	.85	1.09
		EN		
		US	12	.27
	US	HK	.71	1.09
		EN	27	.12
		US		
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/DIFFERENT POLITICAL SYSTEMS		EN	61	37
r olinio le orioremo		US	91	54
	EN	HK	.37	.61
		EN		
		US	43	05
	US	HK	.54	.91
		EN	.05	.43
		US		
HOW	НК	НК		
IMPORTANT/ CONCEPTIONS OF		EN	22	.00
DEMOCRACY		US	55	22
	EN	НК	.00	.22
		EN		
		US	45	10

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to the Importance of Civics Topic

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW	US	НК	.22	.55
IMPORTANT/ CONCEPTIONS OF		EN	.10	.45
DEMOCRACY		US		
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/ ENVIRONMENTAL		EN	31	09
ISSUES		US	24	.10
	EN	НК	.09	.31
		EN		
		US	05	.30
	US	НК	10	.24
		EN	30	.05
		US		
HOW	HK	НК		
IMPORTANT/MIGRATION		EN	65	40
		US	94	56
	EN	НК	.40	.65
		EN		
		US	42	02
	US	НК	.56	.94
		EN	.02	.42
		US		
HOW	HK	НК		
IMPORTANT/TRADE/ LABOR UNIONS		EN	75	52
LABOR UNIONS		US	84	46
	EN	НК	.52	.75
		EN		
		US	20	.18
	US	НК	.46	.84
		EN	18	.20
		US		
HOW	НК	НК		
IMPORTANT/ECONOMIC ISSUES		EN	51	28
00000		US	87	52
	EN	НК	.28	.51
		EN		
		US	48	12

Post Hoc Test for Variables Related to the Importance of Civics Topic

Bonferroni

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			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW	US	HK	.52	.87
IMPORTANT/ECONOMIC		EN	.12	.48
		US		
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/ INTERNATIONAL		EN	68	45
PROBLEMS		US	-1.01	66
	EN	HK	.45	.68
		EN		
		US	45	09
	US	HK	.66	1.01
		EN	.09	.45
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/INTERNAT.	HK	HK		
ORGANISATIONS		EN	84	61
		US	88	52
	EN	HK	.61	.84
		EN		
		US	17	.20
	US	HK	.52	.88
		EN	20	.17
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/DANGERS	HK	HK		
OF PROPAGANDA		EN	71	46
		US	97	60
	EN	HK	.46	.71
		EN		
		US	39	01
	US	HK	.60	.97
		EN	.01	.39
		US		
HOW IMPORTANT/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES	нк	HK		10
		EN	65	43
		US	67	33
	EN	HK	.43	.65
		EN	40	
		US	13	.22
	US	HK	.33	.67
		EN	22	.13
		US		

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW	HK	НК		
IMPORTANT/HUMAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS		EN	30	10
OME RIGHTS		US	53	22
	EN	НК	.10	.30
		EN		
		US	34	01
	US	НК	.22	.53
		EN	.01	.34
		US		
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/CITIZENS RIGHTS		EN	11	.09
N.O.M.O		US	41	10
	EN	HK	09	.11
		EN		
		US	40	08
	US	НК	.10	.41
		EN	.08	.40
		US		
HOW	HK	HK		
IMPORTANT/SOCIAL WELFARE		EN	56	36
		US	67	35
	EN	HK	.36	.56
		EN		
		US	21	.12
	US	HK	.35	.67
		EN	12	.21
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

OPPODE DEFENSION OF	2	(O 1) B	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
OPPORTUNITY/NATIONAL CONSTITUTION * *COUNTRY	Between Groups	(Combined)	49.209	2	24.605
ID*	Within Groups		307.175	856	.359
	Total		356.384	858	
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/CIVIC	Between Groups	(Combined)	94.209	2	47.104
VIRTUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		384.180	846	.454
	Total		478.389	848	
OPPORTUNITY/ELECTION *	Between Groups	(Combined)	13.441	2	6.720
COUNTRY ID	Within Groups		347.415	850	.409
	Total		360.856	852	
OPPORTUNITY/THE JUDICAL	Between Groups	(Combined)	18.077	2	9.038
SYSTEM * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		391.182	855	.458
	Total		409.259	857	
OPPORTUNITY/EVENTS IN	Between Groups	(Combined)	54.170	2	27.085
HISTORY * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		436.460	854	.511
	Total		490.630	856	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	5,389	2	2.695
OPPORTUNITY/	Within Groups	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	412.928	855	.483
ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUE * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		418.317	857	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.841	2	4.421
OPPORTUNITY/MIGRATION *	Within Groups	(comonica)	438.317	852	.514
COUNTRY ID*	Total		447.158	854	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	61.869	2	30.934
OPPORTUNITY/INTERN.	Within Groups	(Comonied)	419.752	851	.493
PROBLEMS * *COUNTRY ID*	Total		419.752	853	.495
OPPORTUNITY/INTERNAT.	Between Groups	(Combined)	481.021	2	23.971
ORGANISATIONS *	Within Groups	(Combined)	379.758	852	.446
COUNTRY ID	Total		427.701	854	.440
HOW MICH		(Cambinad)	168.411	2	84.206
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/CULTURAL	Between Groups	(Combined)		-	
DIFFERENCE * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		442.737	853	.519
OPPOPTI DITTLE DOLUTION	Total	(C) 1 : 15	611.148	855	22.42
OPPORTUNITY/POLITICAL SYSTEMS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	54.934	2	27.467
	Within Groups		441.215	854	.517
	Total		496.149	856	
OPPORTUNITY/CONCEPTIONS OF DEMOCRACY * *COUNTRY	Between Groups	(Combined)	14.058	2	7.029
ID*	Within Groups		381.900	855	.447
	Total		395.958	857	
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/ MEDIA * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	11.562	2	5.781
MEDIA · COUNTRI ID·	Within Groups		417.269	849	.491
	Total		428.831	851	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	47.139	2	23.570
OPPORTUNITY/DANGERS OF PROPAGAN * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		487.738	853	.572
	Total		534.877	855	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	35.626	2	17.813
OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES * *COUNTRY	Within Groups		425.677	854	.498
ID*	Total		461.302	856	

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIL RIGHTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	4.579	2	2.290
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		435.252	852	.511
	Total		439.832	854	
OPPORTUNITY/CITIZENS RIGHTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.064	2	4.032
	Within Groups		350.731	860	.408
	Total		358.795	862	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	54.479	2	27.239
OPPORTUNITY/TRADE/ LABOUR UNIONS *	Within Groups		384.537	851	.452
COUNTRY ID	Total		439.016	853	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	1.436	2	.718
OPPORTUNITY/ECONOMIC ISSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		394.699	852	.463
ISSUES COUNTRY ID	Total		396.136	854	
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.778	2	2.889
OPPORTUNITY/SOCIAL WELFARE * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups		384.336	851	.452
WEEFINE COUNTRY ID	Total		390.114	853	

			F	Sig.
OPPORTUNITY/NATIONAL CONSTITUTION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups Within Groups	(Combined)	68.566	.000
HOW MUCH	Total Between Groups	(Combined)	103.729	.000
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIC VIRTUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups	(Comoned)	103.729	.000
	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/ELECTION * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	16.443	.000
coontrain in	Within Groups			
	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/THE JUDICAL SYSTEM * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	19.755	.000
SISIEM · COUNTRI ID.	Within Groups			
	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/EVENTS IN HISTORY * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	52.996	.000
	Within Groups Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.579	.004
OPPORTUNITY/	Within Groups	(compared)	5.575	
ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUE * *COUNTRY ID*	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.593	.000
OPPORTUNITY/MIGRATION * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/INTERN.	Between Groups	(Combined)	62.716	.000
PROBLEMS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
OBODTI DITVOTEDNAT	Total	(Combined)	53,780	.000
OPPORTUNITY/INTERNAT. ORGANISATIONS *	Between Groups Within Groups	(Combined)	55.780	.000
COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	162.235	.000
OPPORTUNITY/CULTURAL DIFFERENCE * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
DITERENCE COUNTRIED	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/POLITICAL SYSTEMS * *COUNTRY ID*	Between Groups	(Combined)	53.164	.000
SISTEMS * COUNTRI ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/CONCEPTIONS OF DEMOCRACY * *COUNTRY	Between Groups	(Combined)	15.737	.000
ID*	Within Groups			
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/	Total Between Groups	(Combined)	11.762	.000
MEDIA * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups	(comonied)	11.702	.000
	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	41.221	.000
OPPORTUNITY/DANGERS OF PROPAGAN * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
interneting and a solution in the	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	35.736	.000
OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES * *COUNTRY	Within Groups			
ID*	Total			

			F	Sig.
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIL RIGHTS	Between Groups	(Combined)	4.482	.012
* *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
OPPORTUNITY/CITIZENS	Between Groups	(Combined)	9.887	.000
RIGHTS * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	60.282	.000
OPPORTUNITY/TRADE/ LABOUR UNIONS *	Within Groups			
COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	1.550	.213
OPPORTUNITY/ECONOMIC ISSUES * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
ISSUES COUNTRY ID	Total			
HOW MUCH	Between Groups	(Combined)	6.397	.002
OPPORTUNITY/SOCIAL WELFARE * *COUNTRY ID*	Within Groups			
while countries	Total			

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
OPPORTUNITY/NATIONAL	HK	EN	241*	.044	.000
CONSTITUTION		US	773*	.067	.000
	EN	HK	.241*	.044	.000
		US	532*	.069	.000
	US	HK	.773*	.067	.000
		EN	.532*	.069	.000
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	.713*	.050	.000
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIC VIRTUES		US	.238*	.076	.005
1211020	EN	HK	713*	.050	.000
		US	475*	.078	.000
	US	HK	238*	.076	.005
		EN	.475*	.078	.000
OPPORTUNITY/ELECTION	HK	EN	.252*	.047	.000
		US	026	.072	1.000
	EN	HK	252*	.047	.000
		US	279*	.074	.001
	US	HK	.026	.072	1.000
		EN	.279*	.074	.001
OPPORTUNITY/THE JUDICAL SYSTEM	HK	EN	.190*	.049	.000
SISTEM		US	278*	.076	.001
	EN	HK	190*	.049	.000
		US	469*	.078	.000
	US	HK	.278*	.076	.001
	1772	EN	.469*	.078	.000
OPPORTUNITY/EVENTS IN HISTORY	HK	EN	527*	.052	.000
	EN	US HK	393*	.080	.000
	EIN	US	.134	.032	
	US	нк	.134	.085	.316
	03	EN	134	.080	.316
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	134	.083	.120
OPPORTUNITY/	11X	US	.152	.078	.120
ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUE	EN	HK	.105	.078	.120
	Lav	US	.256*	.080	.004
	US	HK	152	.078	.158
	00	EN	256*	.080	.004
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	199*	.053	.000
OPPORTUNITY/MIGRATION		US	218*	.081	.021
-	EN	HK	.199*	.053	.000
		US	019	.083	1.000
	US	HK	.218*	.081	.021
		EN	.019	.083	1.000
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	576*	.051	.000
OPPORTUNITY/INTERN.		US	287*	.079	.001

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW MUCH	EN	HK	.576*	.051	.000
OPPORTUNITY/INTERN. PROBLEMS		US	.289*	.081	.001
TODLENIS	US	HK	.287*	.079	.001
		EN			
			289*	.081	.001
OPPORTUNITY/INTERNAT.	HK	EN	507*	.049	.000
ORGANISATIONS		US	245*	.075	.003
	EN	HK	.507*	.049	.000
		US	.262*	.077	.002
	US	HK	.245*	.075	.003
		EN	262*	.077	.002
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	865*	.053	.000
OPPORTUNITY/CULTURAL DIFFERENCE		US	955*	.081	.000
	EN	HK	.865*	.053	.000
		US	090	.083	.841
	US	HK	.955*	.081	.000
		EN	.090	.083	.841
OPPORTUNITY/POLITICAL SYSTEMS	HK	EN	508*	.053	.000
5151EWI5		US	501*	.081	.000
	EN	HK	.508*	.053	.000
		US	.007	.083	1.000
	US	HK	.501*	.081	.000
		EN	007	.083	1.000
OPPORTUNITY/CONCEPTIONS OF DEMOCRACY	HK	EN	193*	.049	.000
OF DEMOCRACI		US	372*	.075	.000
	EN	HK	.193*	.049	.000
		US	179	.077	.062
	US	HK	.372*	.075	.000
		EN	.179	.077	.062
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/ MEDIA	HK	EN	245*	.051	.000
		US	036	.079	1.000
	EN	HK	.245*	.051	.000
		US	.209*	.081	.030
	US	HK	.036	.079	1.000
		EN	209*	.081	.030
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/DANGERS OF	HK	EN	501*	.055	.000
PROPAGAN		US	164	.085	.161
	EN	HK	.501*	.055	.000
		US	.336*	.087	.000
	US	HK	.164	.085	.161
		EN	336*	.087	.000
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL	HK	EN	433*	.052	.000
OPPORTUNITIES	T3.7	US	268*	.079	.002
	EN	HK	.433*	.052	.000
		US	.165	.081	.131

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW MUCH	US	HK	.268*	.079	.002
OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES		EN	165	.081	.131
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIL RIGHTS	HK	EN	145*	.052	.017
		US	152	.081	.181
	EN	HK	.145*	.052	.017
		US	007	.083	1.000
	US	HK	.152	.081	.181
		EN	.007	.083	1.000
OPPORTUNITY/CITIZENS	HK	EN	.197*	.047	.000
RIGHTS		US	009	.071	1.000
	EN	HK	197*	.047	.000
		US	205*	.073	.016
	US	HK	.009	.071	1.000
		EN	.205*	.073	.016
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/TRADE/ LABOUR UNIONS	HK	EN	536*	.049	.000
		US	341*	.076	.000
	EN	HK	.536*	.049	.000
		US	.195*	.078	.037
	US	HK	.341*	.076	.000
		EN	195*	.078	.037
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	085	.050	.264
OPPORTUNITY/ECONOMIC ISSUES		US	006	.077	1.000
135013	EN	HK	.085	.050	.264
		US	.079	.079	.938
	US	HK	.006	.077	1.000
		EN	079	.079	.938
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	121*	.049	.042
OPPORTUNITY/SOCIAL WELFARE		US	.135	.076	.224
WEEFAILE	EN	HK	.121*	.049	.042
		US	.256*	.078	.003
	US	HK	135	.076	.224
		EN	256*	.078	.003

			95% Confid	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
OPPORTUNITY/NATIONAL	HK	EN	35	14
CONSTITUTION		US	93	61
	EN	HK	.14	.35
		US	70	37
	US	HK	.61	.93
		EN	.37	.70
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/CIVIC	HK	EN	.59	.83
VIRTUES		US	.06	.42
	EN	HK	83	59
		US	66	29
	US	HK	42	06
		EN	.29	.66
OPPORTUNITY/ELECTION	HK	EN	.14	.36
		US	20	.15
	EN	HK	36	14
	US	US HK	46	10
	05	EN	13	
OPPORTUNITY/THE JUDICAL SYSTEM	НК	EN	.10	.46
	TIK .	US	46	10
	EN	HK	40	07
	Lav	US	66	28
	US	HK	.10	.40
		EN	.28	.60
OPPORTUNITY/EVENTS IN	HK	EN	65	40
HISTORY		US	59	20
	EN	HK	.40	.6:
		US	06	.33
	US	HK	.20	.59
		EN	33	.00
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	23	.02
OPPORTUNITY/ ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUE		US	04	.34
EIVIRONNEIVINE ISSOE	EN	HK	02	.23
		US	.06	.45
	US	HK	34	.04
		EN	45	00
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	32	07
OPPORTUNITY/MIGRATION		US	41	02
	EN	HK	.07	.32
		US	22	.18
	US	HK	.02	.41
		EN	18	.22
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/INTERN.	HK	EN	70	43
PROBLEMS		US	48	10

			95% Confid	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW MUCH	EN	HK	.45	.70
OPPORTUNITY/INTERN. PROBLEMS		US	.09	.48
	US	HK	.10	.48
		EN	40	00
			48	09
OPPORTUNITY/INTERNAT.	HK	EN	62	39
ORGANISATIONS		US	42	06
	EN	HK	.39	.62
		US	.08	.45
	US	HK	.06	.42
		EN	45	08
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	99	74
OPPORTUNITY/CULTURAL DIFFERENCE		US	-1.15	76
Difference	EN	HK	.74	.99
		US	29	.11
	US	HK	.76	1.15
		EN	11	.29
OPPORTUNITY/POLITICAL	HK	EN	63	38
SYSTEMS		US	69	31
	EN	HK	.38	.63
		US	19	.21
	US	HK	.31	.69
		EN	21	.19
OPPORTUNITY/CONCEPTIONS	HK	EN	31	08
OF DEMOCRACY		US	55	19
	EN	HK	.08	.31
		US	36	.01
	US	HK	.19	.55
		EN	01	.36
HOW MUCH OPPORTUNITY/	HK	EN	37	12
MEDIA		US	23	.15
	EN	HK	.12	.37
		US	.01	.40
	US	HK	15	.23
		EN	40	01
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	63	37
OPPORTUNITY/DANGERS OF		US	37	.04
PROPAGAN	EN	HK	.37	.63
		US	.13	.55
	US	HK	04	.37
		EN	55	13
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	56	15
OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL		US	46	08
OPPORTUNITIES	EN	HK	.31	.56
	4-cc 1			
		US	03	.36

Bonferroni

			95% Confid	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW MUCH	US	HK	.08	.46
OPPORTUNITY/EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES		EN	36	.03
OPPORTUNITY/CIVIL RIGHTS	HK	EN	27	02
		US	35	.04
	EN	HK	.02	.27
		US	21	.19
	US	HK	04	.35
		EN	19	.21
OPPORTUNITY/CITIZENS RIGHTS	HK	EN	.08	.31
		US	18	.16
	EN	HK	31	08
		US	38	03
	US	HK	16	.18
		EN	.03	.38
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	65	42
OPPORTUNITY/TRADE/ LABOUR UNIONS		US	52	16
Eliboon ontons	EN	HK	.42	.65
		US	.01	.38
	US	HK	.16	.52
		EN	38	01
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	20	.03
OPPORTUNITY/ECONOMIC ISSUES		US	19	.18
135025	EN	HK	03	.20
		US	11	.27
	US	HK	18	.19
		EN	27	.11
HOW MUCH	HK	EN	24	.00
OPPORTUNITY/SOCIAL WELFARE		US	05	.32
WELFARE	EN	HK	.00	.24
		US	.07	.44
	US	HK	32	.05
		EN	44	07

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	Between Groups	1.260	2	.630	1.162	.313
CHOOSES ISSUES	Within Groups	468.010	863	.542		
	Total	469.270	865			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	Between Groups	17.490	2	8.745	15.691	.000
ON PROJECTS	Within Groups	480.990	863	.557		
	Total	498.480	865			
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS	Between Groups	39.474	2	19.737	21.435	.000
STUDY TEXTBOOKS	Within Groups	793.732	862	.921		
	Total	833.207	864			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	Between Groups	116.917	2	58.458	102.941	.000
ON DRILL SHEETS	Within Groups	490.650	864	.568		
	Total	607.566	866			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK IN GROUPS	Between Groups	39.743	2	19.872	35.049	.000
	Within Groups	488.731	862	.567		
	Total	528.474	864			
HOW OFTEN/STD	Between Groups	9.809	2	4.905	8.364	.000
PARTICIPATE IN ROLE PLAYS	Within Groups	506.049	863	.586		
FLATS	Total	515.858	865			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	Between Groups	116.785	2	58.392	147.781	.000
ASKS QUESTIONS	Within Groups	340.205	861	.395		
	Total	456.990	863			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	Between Groups	98.036	2	49.018	58.736	.000
LECTURES	Within Groups	719.379	862	.835		
	Total	817.415	864			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	Between Groups	13.273	2	6.637	13.019	.000
INCLUDES DISCUSSIONS	Within Groups	439.920	863	.510		
	Total	453.193	865			
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS	Between Groups	35.009	2	17.505	29.185	.000
PARTICIPATE IN EVENTS	Within Groups	517.611	863	.600		
	Total	552.620	865			

ANOVA Table for Variables Related to Instructional Activities

Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	НК			
CHOOSES ISSUES		EN	055	.054	.919
		US	113	.082	.508
	EN	HK	.055	.054	.919
		EN			
		US	059	.084	1.000
	US	HK	.113	.082	.508
		EN	.059	.084	1.000
		US			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	HK			
ON PROJECTS		EN	.303*	.054	.000
		US	.103	.083	.654
	EN	НК	303*	.054	.000
		EN			
		US	201	.085	.057
	US	HK	103	.083	.654
		EN	.201	.085	.057
		US			
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS	HK	HK			
STUDY TEXTBOOKS		EN	.387*	.070	.000
		US	186	.107	.249
	EN	HK	387*	.070	.000
		EN			
		US	574*	.110	.000
	US	HK	.186	.107	.249
		EN	.574*	.110	.000
		US			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	НК			
ON DRILL SHEETS		EN	.654*	.055	.000
		US	.928*	.084	.000
	EN	HK	654*	.055	.000
		EN			
		US	.273*	.086	.005
	US	НК	928*	.084	.000
		EN	273*	.086	.005
		US			
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	HK			
IN GROUPS		EN	.459*	.055	.000
		US	.182	.084	.092

			Mean		
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	EN	НК	459*	.055	.000
IN GROUPS		EN			
		US	277*	.086	.004
	US	НК	182	.084	.092
		EN	.277*	.086	.004
		US			
HOW OFTEN/STD	HK	НК			
PARTICIPATE IN ROLE PLAYS		EN	.215*	.056	.000
FLATS		US	.204	.085	.052
	EN	НК	215*	.056	.000
		EN			
		US	012	.088	1.000
	US	НК	204	.085	.052
		EN	.012	.088	1.000
		US			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	НК			
ASKS QUESTIONS		EN	.770*	.046	.000
		US	.575*	.070	.000
	EN	НК	770*	.046	.000
		EN			
		US	195*	.072	.020
	US	НК	575*	.070	.000
		EN	.195*	.072	.020
		US			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	НК			
LECTURES		EN	.708*	.066	.000
		US	.119	.102	.724
	EN	НК	708*	.066	.000
		EN			
		US	589*	.104	.000
	US	НК	119	.102	.724
		EN	.589*	.104	.000
		US			
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	НК	НК			
INCLUDES DISCUSSIONS		EN	.264*	.052	.000
		US	.078	.080	.988
	EN	НК	264*	.052	.000
		EN			
		US	186	.082	.069

Dependent Variable HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	(I) *COUNTRY ID* US	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Mean Difference (I-J) 078	Std. Error	Sig. .988
INCLUDES DISCUSSIONS	05	EN	076	.080 .082	.960
		US	.100	.002	.003
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS	НК	НК			
PARTICIPATE IN EVENTS		EN	.349*	.056	.000
		US	.523*	.086	.000
	EN	НК	349*	.056	.000
		EN			
		US	.173	.089	.151
	US	НК	523*	.086	.000
		EN	173	.089	.151
		US			

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	HK		
CHOOSES ISSUES		EN	18	.07
		US	31	.08
	EN	НК	07	.18
		EN		
		US	26	.14
	US	HK	08	.31
		EN	14	.26
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	HK		
ON PROJECTS		EN	.17	.43
		US	10	.30
	EN	HK	43	17
		EN		
		US	41	.00
	US	HK	30	.10
		EN	.00	.41
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS	HK	HK		
STUDY TEXTBOOKS		EN	.22	.55
		US	44	.07
	EN	HK	55	22
		EN		
		US	84	31
	US	HK	07	.44
		EN	.31	.84
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	НК		
ON DRILL SHEETS		EN	.52	.79
		US	.73	1.13
	EN	НК	79	52
		EN		
		US	.07	.48
	US	НК	-1.13	73
		EN	48	07
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	HK	НК		
IN GROUPS		EN	.33	.59
		US	02	.38

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW OFTEN/STD WORK	EN	HK	59	33
IN GROUPS		EN		
		US	48	07
	US	НК	38	.02
		EN	.07	.48
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STD	HK	HK		
PARTICIPATE IN ROLE PLAYS		EN	.08	.35
12/10		US	.00	.41
	EN	HK	35	08
		EN		
		US	22	.20
	US	HK	41	.00
		EN	20	.22
		US		
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER ASKS QUESTIONS	HK	HK		
		EN	.66	.88
		US	.41	.74
	EN	НК	88	66
		EN		
		US	37	02
	US	НК	74	41
		EN	.02	.37
		US		
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	НК		
LECTURES		EN	.55	.87
		US	12	.36
	EN	НК	87	55
		EN		
		US	84	34
	US	НК	36	.12
		EN	.34	.84
		US		
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	HK	НК		
INCLUDES DISCUSSIONS		EN	.14	.39
		US	11	.27
	EN	НК	39	14
		EN		
		US	38	.01

Bonferroni

			95% Confide	ence Interval
Dependent Variable	(I) *COUNTRY ID*	(J) *COUNTRY ID*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HOW OFTEN/TEACHER	US	HK	27	.11
INCLUDES DISCUSSIONS		EN	01	.38
		US		
HOW OFTEN/STUDENTS PARTICIPATE IN EVENTS	НК	НК		
		EN	.21	.48
		US	.32	.73
	EN	НК	48	21
		EN		
		US	04	.39
	US	НК	73	32
		EN	39	.04
		US		

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

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