Citizenship Education in China: Comparing eighth grade students' civic attitudes and civic engagement in Shanghai and Hong Kong

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ABSTRACT

This is a comparative study of eighth grade students' citizenship education in Hong Kong and Shanghai, China. Paper-based surveys are administered in public schools in both cities and analyzed to examine students' citizenship perception, civic value, civic attitudes towards three special social issues: legal justice, domestic migration and environmental protection, and their civic engagement. Individual and school factors are used in regression analysis to understand the relationship between these factors and students' civic attitudes and engagement. Both Shanghai and Hong Kong students think positively towards legal justice, domestic migration and environment protection, and Shanghai students' attitudes are more favorable than their Hong Kong counterpart with statistically significant differences. Citizenship perception and civic value are the strongest predictors of students' civic attitudes, while classroom climate and participation in extracurricular activities have mixed. The study addresses the social aspects of citizenship education and provides implication for both policy making and research on citizenship education. It fills an important gap in the citizenship education research on Asia Pacific area and also provides important lessons to understand the role and outcome of school education on formation of young people's civic understanding, beliefs and engagement.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Setting the Stage

Citizenship education is a key concern for policy makers, researchers and practitioners alike. In China, some form of citizenship education is carried out throughout the education system of primary and secondary schooling and even to higher education in the Mainland. However, citizenship education in China faces a two-facet challenge in the 21st century (Chen and Reid, 2002). First, the content of citizenship education in schools has lagged behind the overall development of Chinese society and thus cannot keep up with the demands of the times. Secondly, there are high expectations that citizenship education will nurture young people to become competent and responsible citizens for the future while the outcomes of citizenship education has not been satisfactory; students often feel less engaged and motivated in citizenship education classes compared to other disciplinary subjects.

Previous studies on citizenship education, especially Chinese citizenship education that try to address the challenges listed above, have several limitations that make the current study necessary and meaningful. First, studies on citizenship education in China have largely been historical and descriptive in the sense that many earlier studies have focused on the historical development of "citizens" and societal context changes for "citizenship education" in China (Li *et al.*, 2004). They have also focused on the current policy evolution related to citizenship education (Li, 1990), and on the curriculum reform of citizenship education (e.g., Wang and Zhan, 2004). These studies have been both necessary and very valuable for our general understanding of citizenship education in

China, as understanding this concept requires very different assumptions and knowledge from the traditional citizenship education in the West. These studies have particularly provided a good contextual background to help us understand the situation and changes in citizenship education in China.

The problem with the current knowledge is that there remains a discrepancy between "what citizenship education is expected to do" and "what citizenship education has done." This discrepancy prompts concerns about future reform in China: Should we examine what students think about citizenship and citizenship education to maximize the outcome of citizenship education, i.e., nurture competent future citizens?

Another feature of previous studies is that the majority of them have focused on university students as the target population, including some of the comparative studies between Mainland China and Hong Kong (e.g., Cheung and Kwok, 1998; Fairbrother, 2003). Yet, this feature points to another gap in the literature in that the crucial stage of development is during adolescence in middle school and high school, but these stages of adolescence have been given less attention. According to Lerner *et al.* (2000) and Torney-Purta *et al.* (2007), adolescent development is associated with six positive outcomes: 1) competence in the academic, social and vocational areas; 2) confidence or a positive self-identity; 3) connections to the community, family, and peers; 4) character and moral integrity; 5) caring; and 6) contribution to society. Relevant to the civic attitudes are the competence, connections and determination to contribute to society. Furthermore, in a comparative study of Hong Kong and Mainland students' socialization patterns and critical thinking disposition, Fairbrother (2003) has also found that secondary school experiences have a significant impact on students' attitudes towards the

nation. Thus, further studies are needed to focus on teenagers and their development related to civic and citizenship education.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the most direct target groups of citizenship education for students in the aspect of their civic attitudes and civic engagement. To do so, this study compares students in two cities: Shanghai and Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (SAR). The rationale is that through the examination of students' civic attitudes, an intermediate outcome of citizenship education, researchers and practitioners alike can better understand the civic attitudes held by students, as well as how related components in citizenship are conceptualized, weighted, and evaluated. Civic engagement, on the other hand, is a more direct measure of the outcome of citizenship education, so its relationship with civic attitudes will also be examined to better understand the various components of citizenship education.

In particular, students' attitudes towards several critical social issues are examined. These social issues are defined as potential problems or sources of debate as revealed by frequent or intense appeals in the mass media, but no concrete solutions are yet proposed. They include issues about legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. Ultimately, understanding and addressing these issues influences social cohesion and the development of a nation as a whole. Inclusion of these issues in the current study addresses the two challenges identified earlier by 1) fulfilling the demand of time given to citizenship education content, and 2) sufficiently crediting citizenship education with the capacity to educate young people about how to act like a conscientious citizen in society. Factors associated with civic attitudes and civic engagement are also examined.

Factors related to school are given special attention since recommendations can be made regarding to the classroom and school factors because of their strong and positive association with attitudes. Ultimately studying these factors will help facilitate the improvement of pedagogy for citizenship education in schools and classrooms.

Research Questions

This study contains five research questions, some of which include sub-questions related to three social issues. The research questions of this comparative study are:

Research question 1: According to a paper-based survey, how do Hong Kong and Shanghai students' perceptions of citizenship, civic value, and their attitudes towards the following three social issues (hereafter, civic attitudes), and their civic engagement look like, respectively?

a. Issue one: legal justice

b. Issue two: domestic migration

c. Issue three: environment protection

Research question 2: Which factors are associated with students' civic attitudes and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Research question 3: Which factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement and how do these factors relate to students' civic engagement?

Research question 4: Which factors are associated with students' specific engagement in relation to the three social issues? How do these factors relate to students' specific engagement?

Research question 5: How are Hong Kong and Shanghai students' patterns of responses to the previous four questions similar or different from each other?

The social issues in this study cover the three most important areas that China faces on its path to national development. As far as the factors are considered, eight factors are examined in the analyses of research questions 2, 3, and 4 including both direct and indirect factors related to citizenship education. The four indirect factors are students' education from parents, whether a student is a class council member or not, the amount of time a student spends watching news weekly, and the amount of time a student spends discussing news weekly. The four direct factors are students' perceptions of citizenship, civic value, perceived classroom climate, and participation in extra-curricular activities.

<div align="center">Definition of Key Terms</div>

The following five terms are essential to understand this study, so I provide a brief definition of each of them. More detailed discussion about their inter-relationships can be found in the section on the conceptual framework guiding this study.

- *Civic and citizenship education*: I use the sense of "Macro-citizenship education" (Li *et al.* 2004) to refer to the all-encompassing civic, moral, political, ideological, and life education in China, together with what Cogan, Morris and Print (2002) refer to the broad sense of civic education, "the formation through the process of schooling of the knowledge, skills, values and dispositions of citizens." The type of civic and citizenship education I examine in Mainland China and Hong Kong refers to arrangements and efforts made by schools, through both formal classroom instruction and non-formal activities. This type of education empowers students with knowledge, attitudes, and skills to become competent future citizens through training, understanding, analyzing, and dealing with political, social, legal, and environment issues.

- *Social issues*: In this study, social issues refer to phenomena in the forms of potential problems or sources of debate that appear frequently or intensely in the mass media and are constantly deliberated and debated in society. In other words, there are multiple responses to these issues, and there are no right or wrong solutions. The three social issues included in the study are "legal justices" "domestic migrations" and "environment protection." The wording of these issues fits an eighth-grader level of comprehension.

- *Civic attitudes*: The definition of attitudes in this study follows Eagly and Chaiken (1993): "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor." I apply and broaden this definition to civic attitudes, noting that civic attitudes refer to individually held beliefs, evaluations, and judgments about diverse issues, events, and groups as they relate to civic education. Attitudes are relatively stable, but they can also fluctuate as a result of social context changes and/or individual experiences. They are considered important and vital for knowledge and skills.

- *Civic engagement*: As related to civic attitudes, engagement refers to the behavior part of the tripartite model of attitudes. In my study, I examine two kinds of civic engagement through a paper-based survey given to students. "Overall intended engagement" refers to students' behavior intension of how willing they are to promote civic and citizenship education in the future, while "specific actual engagement" refers to the frequency of students' participation in activities that are related to the social issues discussed above.

- *Classroom climate*: Originally developed from the second IEA Civic Study (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) as a method to assess the interaction between students and teachers in class, this measurement has proven to be a very useful indicator of various outcomes of citizenship education. An open climate classroom allows for the presentation of supportive evidence, comments, and the expression of differing points of view. Interactive endeavors and reflective dialogues take place in an open classroom climate between students and teachers as well as between peers.

Organization of the Dissertation

My dissertation has seven chapters that discuss the study from its design to the analysis results. The introduction chapter (Chapter one) provides an overview of the whole dissertation. In this chapter, I set the stage to identity the needs of this study and state the purpose of the study. Key terms such as civic attitudes, civic engagement, open classroom climate are defined in this chapter. In addition, a brief outline of the significance of this study is also included, but is discussed in more detail in the concluding chapter.

Chapter two constructs a conceptual framework for the study after a synthesis and critique of the current literature on civics and citizenship education, pedagogy and assessment of citizenship education, and political psychology and attitudes research. The conceptual framework illustrates the dynamic relationship of individual and contextual factors with civic attitudes and civic engagement. The construct of civic attitudes constitutes three sub-scales: attitudes towards legal justice, attitudes towards domestic migration, and attitudes towards environment protection.

The individual factors include both students' own demography and their family backgrounds. The contextual factors include socialization with family, teachers, and peers. According to their relevance to citizenship education, individual factors can also be considered as direct factors (i.e., directly influenced by school citizenship education) and indirect factors (i.e., corollary or indirectly influenced by school citizenship education).

Chapter three operationalizes the research by providing a rationale for using a quantitative strategy for data collection and data analysis. In this chapter, the features, assumptions, advantages, and shortcomings of the survey strategy are discussed including the construction of a paper-based survey. I also discuss the research design of my study in this chapter, including the comparative strategy, sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. In addition, ethical consideration for my research is also presented.

Chapter four and Chapter five report findings from two cities in China where I conducted the fieldwork. Chapter four reports the analyses of the surveys that were collected from four schools in Shanghai, and Chapter five reports the results from three schools in Hong Kong. Descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis were performed, and the results are presented in tables with discussions. The results answer the first four research questions and illustrate the current situation of citizenship education in Shanghai and Hong Kong.

Chapter six answers the fifth research question through a careful comparison of Hong Kong's and Shanghai's citizenship education in terms of both contextual differences of reforms related to citizenship education and survey result analyses of the student surveys. Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) were performed and statistically

significant differences were found, albeit moderate, between Hong Kong students' and Shanghai students' citizenship perceptions, civic values, civic attitudes and behaviors. The various associations of direct and indirect factors with students' civic attitudes and civic engagement are also discussed in this comparison chapter.

The conclusion chapter (Chapter seven) presents a more detailed review of the significance and limitations of this study based on the results of the data analyses. The policy implications for improving the pedagogical practices of citizenship education are presenting including some tentative suggestions based on the results. Finally, research implications on citizenship education, especially the original efforts of incorporating psychological models are discussed and future directions for multidisciplinary research are suggested.

Significance of the Study

This is the first comparative study to examine Chinese adolescents' civic attitudes and civic engagement related to concrete social issues. It will add to the literature on international understanding of citizenship education, especially citizenship education in the Asia Pacific Region. While schooling clearly influences young people's civic attitudes and civic engagement, the secondary stage has been less studied. My dissertation work will fill the gap in this area, as I focus on secondary students in their adolescence, a crucial stage when their worldviews, attitudes and value beliefs start to take shape. Secondly, I will give some recommendations on the pedagogy of citizenship education, not only formal education but also participation in extra-curricular activities that will help nurture and influence students' civic attitudes as a result of their personal development.

The question following may be asked: Why is it is important to understand that attitudes have an influence for the pedagogy of citizenship education? The obvious answer may be that attitudes can be logically and operationally considered as problem-solving attempts or individuals' attempts to make an effort to solve problems confronting them in their social world. (Krech, 1946). Therefore, formulation, growth, and change in the attitudes can be regarded as special cases of problem-solving behavior. Attitudes are not just influenced by the learning process but are the very essence that constitutes learning, A functional analysis of attitudes shows that attitudes are both a means of solving problems and attempting to solve solution problems. Thus, the rationale for and significance of studying students' attitudes and their relationship to improving citizenship education pedagogy is that through the understanding of attitudinal functions in citizenship education, not only can teachers better understand the factors that influence students' attitude formation and results, but it also helps teachers adjust their teaching methods to facilitate attitude growth and ameliorate any resistance to attitudinal changes.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter is a review, summary, and critique of the relevant literature on citizenship, citizenship education, and political psychology as related to students' civic attitudes, and engagement. It is divided into five major sections. In the first section, I present the evolution of citizenship and citizenship education and clarify some of the contested definitions of citizenship education, civic education, and moral education. The second section includes different approaches and models to understand and implement citizenship education from both theoretical and methodological foundations. Following the approaches is an assessment of citizenship education, which comprises the third section. Utilizing a comparative perspective, I cite studies conducted on citizenship education assessments in some English-speaking countries such as the U.S., England, and East Asian countries with a primary focus on China. The fourth section discusses political psychology, a newly developed interdisciplinary field and its relationship with citizenship and citizenship education. Definitions and operations of attitude research are discussed in this section. The concluding section is the development of a conceptual framework of citizenship education and students' civic attitudes and civic engagement, which were used to guide the fieldwork of this study.

Evolution of Citizenship and Citizenship Education

Citizenship and the nation state

The historical roots of citizenship date back to ancient Greece in Plato's *Republic* and Aristotle's *Polis*, in which philosophers reflected on citizenry, the political

community, and the well being of human beings. For example, Aristotle pointed out in

Nicomachean Ethics, "The goal of politics… is devoted to the character of the citizens to

make them good and disposed to perform noble actions." (Morgan 2001, p.202) These

classic origins inspired modern thoughts of liberalism, industrialism, and nationalism that

emerged from the Enlightenment and can be witnessed during the French and American

revolutions when a new citizenship ideal of liberal democracy started to take shape.

Heater (2004), points out that rather than relying on the virtuous civic conduct by a small

number of elite people, new citizenship is bestowed with "democratic rights and owing

loyalty to the nation state" (p.65).

The perspective through which a citizen moves to citizenship cannot be captured

using a static definition, although the relationship between an individual and nation state

has always been a central theme of citizenship. Citizenship, whether "thin" or "thick"

(Bubeck 1995), includes political status and participation in a community. Historians of

education such as Heater (1990, 2004) and Riesenberg (1992) have sketched the

development of citizenship and analyzed various forms of citizenship such as Western

liberalism, communitarianism, and republicanism. Other political theorists such as Van

Gunsteren (1998) and Faulk (2000) offer their critique of the civic ideal of liberalism and

the establishment of new theories such as neo-republicanism and postmodern citizenship.

The boundary of citizenship remained unchallenged for a long time until the emergence

of globalization and the establishment of transnational institutions.

The relationship between citizenship and a nation state has been discussed by

various scholars. Janowitz (1983) describes citizenship as the political relationship

between an individual and the state. Citizenship as a national identity clearly states that

an individual's place is in the political community (Heater,1992). The normative political

theory on citizenship and nation is summarized in a comprehensive review by Callan

(2004). Van Gunsteren (1998) also notes that the nation state is the collective form of

"the public realm" (p.25) in his analysis of neo-republican citizenship and nationalism,

together with other notions like patriotism and civic responsibilities, creating a bond of

emotion through the vehicle of citizenship. As Green (1997) states, appropriate and

conducive reconstruction of citizenship culture and nationhood is challenging to the

deepening of democracy and the strengthening of social solidarity.

Definition and components of citizenship

A more current understanding of citizenship goes beyond the boundary of nation

states. The ensuing discussion on modern citizenship is largely derived from T.H.

Marshall's (1950) definition of citizenship as three "elements": civil, political, and

social:

> *The civil element is composed of the rights necessary for individual freedom – liberty of the person, freedom of speech, thought and faith, the right to own property and to conclude valid contracts, and the right to justice… By the political element I mean the right to participate in the exercise of political power as a member of a body invested with political authority or as an elector of the members of such a body… By the social element I mean the whole range from the right to a modicum of economic welfare and security to the right to share of the full in the social heritage and to live the life of a civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society.* (Marshall, 1950, pp.10-11)

The broad notion of citizenship and its contested meanings make it difficult to

define, though it is commonly acknowledged that citizenship cannot be conceptualized

within any single dimension. A working definition prescribes citizenship as "a set of

characteristics of the citizen…including educational, political, socio-cultural and

economic dimensions at local, national, and international levels" (Cogan and Derricott, 2000, p.14). These characteristics, in turn, become the patterns of citizenship, which transform the meaning and configuration of citizenship from ideological, cultural, political and social, perspectives (Ichilov, 1998). Moreover, the scholarly debates on the paradoxical nature of citizenship (Castles, 1998), the multiple "positionalities" of citizenship (Mouffe 1993, 2000), and multiple streams of citizenships (Heater 1990), are results of the changing social and cultural construction and the outer limit of traditional citizenship (Vogel and Moran, 1991; Soysal, 1994; Lee and Fouts, 2005).

The Marshallian legacy of citizenship, especially social citizenship based on his argument of social rights, inspires more critique of the components of citizenship. Turner (2001) analyzes the relationship between these elements as follows:

> *Citizenship is a set of rights and obligations that give individuals a formal legal identity…through a set of social institutions such as the jury system, parliament and welfare state… [it] regulates access to the scarce resources of society and hence its allocation function is the basis of a profound conflict [and debate] in modern societies over citizenship membership criteria… [moreover], the idea of a political community serves as the basis of citizenship and when individuals become citizens they not only acquire an identity but also [participate in the community]* (pp.208-210)

In addition, he points out the deficiency of the Marshallian framework in the latter part of the twentieth century as well as in the new millennium due to the complicated stratification in society caused by economic class, cultural status, and citizenship entitlement and hence calls for new frameworks in ethnically diverse societies.

Although different scholars hold divergent opinions as to what the most important components of citizenship are, several elements are commonly agreed on by scholars from different countries and across disciplines: 1) membership in a community and identification with the community; 2) socialization, if not active participation in (to) the

community; 3) rights and privileges of being a citizen; 4) fulfillment of obligations and

responsibilities; and increasingly 5) understanding and reflections of the changing

meaning and value of citizenship in a global era. Table 2.1 compares the components of

citizenship education from the two sources mentioned above.

Table 2.1: Key components of citizenship

Cogan and Derricott (2000)	Osborne (2001)
A sense of identity	Sense of identity and non-chauvinist patriotism
Rights and entitlements	Awareness of one's rights and respect of others' rights
Responsibilities, obligations and duties	Commitment to carry out obligations as citizens
Acceptance of basic societal value	Internalization of dominant social values
Active participation in public affairs	Political literacy
	Broad knowledge and command of basic skills
	Capacity for reflection

Competing notions related to citizenship education

Citizenship education or education for citizenship is not a stand-alone component in

education; rather, it is connected and more often than not, used interchangeably with

other terms. In this section, I define some of these terms and illustrate their

commonalities and uniqueness. These important terms include civic education,

democratic education, political education, and moral education.

Civic education has the most overlap with citizenship education and is usually used

together with citizenship education. In some countries like Australia, civics and

citizenship education (CCE) are combined in the secondary school curriculum. Both are

broad notions and include traditional as well as a novice understanding of civic education

(e.g., Pascoe, 1996; Print, 1996). Civic education not only includes the study of

traditional knowledge of government, constitutions, laws, and rights, but also teaches

crucial skills, attitudes, and values that will enable learners to become effective citizens.

In a multi-nation study of civic education in the Asia-Pacific region, Cogan, Morris and

Print (2002) define civic education according to its broadest notion, " the formation

through the process of schooling of the knowledge, skills, values and dispositions of

citizens." (p.4)[1] Their definition is chosen because it emphasizes the importance of

schooling in civic education, in that it is conceived as a means to implement effective

practices to enhance young people's civic consciousness. [2]

Janowitz (1983) argues that civic consciousness is irreplaceable in collective

problem solving in a democratic society, and citizenship should also support the

dynamics of a democratic political structure. Therefore, democratic education is

inherently associated with citizenship education, and more crucially, the lack of a

comprehensive theory of democracy (Ichilov 1998) makes democratic education a

spotlight for scholarly debate and exploration. The discussion on democratic education

can be traced to Deweyan philosophy which seeks to optimize individual's social

experiences in a communal context and to realize the common good through sympathetic

identification and cooperation (Hall and Ames, 1999). Although it is not the main focus

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[1] Cogan, Morris and Print (2002) summarize various definitions of civic education in the introduction chapter of their study. They provide a plethora of references internationally on this topic, but to name a few, see Heater (1990), Osborne (1982, 2001), Butts (1989), Center for Civic Education (1994), Patrick (1996), Liu (1999, 2002), and Otsu (1999).

[2] See Janowitz (1983) for a good discussion of "civic consciousness" in relation to national and international responsibilities and obligations.

of this literature review, there are several good references for further reading on democratic education (Apple, 1993; Benavot, 1996; Parker 1996; Gutmann 1987; Engle and Ochoa 1988; Vanderbeg, 2000; Criddle, Vidovich and O'Neill, 2004).

Amy Gutmann (2002) continues her deliberation on democratic education from her 1987 milestone book and defends the ideal of democratic education against civic minimalism. As a defender of democratic education, she argues that parents should be able to control children's education at an almost comprehensive level whereas government-imposed requirements should be minimum. She maintains that the core of democratic education is the treatment of people with freedom and equality, although there is no unified, "one-size-fits-all" system for democratic education. The crucial link between citizenship education and democratic education, as pointed out in Gutmann (2002), is that civic education should cultivate the deliberative skills and virtues to realize democratic citizenship. Schooling, especially public schooling, is therefore mandated to carry out this task and to contribute to the creation and maintenance of a democratic society.

The third notion in relation to citizenship education is political education. As discussed in the section on the citizen and the nation state above, the political nature of traditional citizenship makes it necessary to discuss citizenship education together with political education. In England, for example, the political component can be seen throughout the development of citizenship from Marshall's (1950) political element to the political literacy proposed by the Crick Report (1998). In addition, the "issue-based approach," a method that shifts the emphasis of citizenship education from knowledge content to skills, was first put forward in the national Programme for Political Education

(Lister, 1991). Generally, when narrowly defined, political education can be understood as a branch within citizenship education. This is not to de-emphasize the importance of political education; on the contrary, political literacy is perhaps the most challenging part of citizenship education (Davies and Hogarth, 2004).

Similar to the trends of citizenship education development, political education is also experiencing significant changes, including a larger audience in the newly democratized societies, a broader definition including new global trends and a more active learning process (Ichilov, 1998). As Leung and Lau (1998) point out, citizenship education in Hong Kong should cultivate students' political awareness such as individual freedom and social change. Their book *Political Education in a Hong Kong Setting* is a detailed illustration of political education theory and practice in an Asian context. More political education in the West can also be found in other such as Brennan (1981), Porter (1984), Hahn (1998) and Demaine (2004).

Finally, because of their simple notion of educating youngsters to be good persons, moral education, character education, and personal education have also become closely related to citizenship education, especially in the Asian context (e.g., Bull, 2006; Otsu, 2002; Pitiyanuwat and Sujiwa, 2002). The origins of moral education can be found in Durkenheim (1961) and Kohlberg (1981), whose cognitive developmental theory of moralization has inspired more psychological research on the day-to-day moral issues in schools and communities. The elements of moral education, proposed by Durkenheim (1961) such as autonomy and attachment to social groups are also important elements in citizenship education. Moral education is also closely related with democratic education

(e.g., Veugelers & de Kat, 2003), with citizenship and ethical experiences (Narvaez, Endicott and Bock, 2003).

Moral education, however, has assumed a more critical role in China, given the fact that moral education (*deyu*) encompasses different aspects of citizenship education and political education (Li, Zhong, Bin, Zhang, 2004). Li Maosen (1990) argue that the relationship between moral education and citizenship education can be summarized as "politicized morality and moralized politics." Given my special interest in Chinese citizenship education, I give more attention to moral education at the implementation level when I review some of the empirical literature.

Approaches and Pedagogy of Citizenship Education

In the paragraphs above, I highlighted four terms that are quite often used interchangeably with citizenship education. Not only is each of them related to citizenship education, but they are also related to one another. This phenomenon also reflects the complexity and multiple dimensions of the construction of citizenship and citizenship education (Cogan and Derricott, 2000). These notions are representative but not comprehensive in sketching out a full picture of citizenship education. As Ichilov (1998, p.269) points out, there are more forms of education such as education for critical thinking, multi-cultural education, peace education, human rights education, environment education, developmental education, and global education, all of which enrich the content of citizenship education. Thus, it is natural to further review citizenship education literature using different approaches and perspectives.

The diversity of citizenship components is also reflected in the constitution of citizenship education. The following section discusses three components of citizenship

education: 1) knowledge and understanding, 2) attitudes and values, and 3) skills and
behaviors.

Knowledge and understanding

Content knowledge from various disciplines in school curriculum, especially at the
secondary level, makes up the knowledge base of citizenship education. Traditional
disciplines relate to civic knowledge including history, political science, geography, law,
economics and sociology. Although each discipline contributes to citizenship education
in its own way, knowledge of citizenship can also be conveyed in an integrated way, such
as courses on Citizenship in England, Studies of Society and Environment in Australia,
and social studies in some states in the U.S.

Kerr (1999, 2002, 2003) reviews secondary citizenship curriculum in several
countries including Europe, Asia, and North American according to each area's
terminology and approaches. He categorizes the differences according to two criteria:
whether the curriculum is statutory or non-statutory, and whether the organization is
integrated or subject-specific. The research looks into the context and depth of the
curriculum, but much remains to be examined regarding which approach is more
effective, integrated or specific.

The knowledge base of citizenship education reflects well the components of
citizenship education including identification, rights and responsibilities, and shared
values. For example, the Crick report (1998, p.44) lists twelve items of knowledge and
understanding for citizenship curriculum in England and the term "rights" appears three

times, and two times it is bound with "responsibilities." [3] There are also significant

differences between the East, i.e., Asian countries and the West in terms of knowledge

building for citizenship. Taiwan, for example, after enduring competing identities in

society (Rigger, 1999), has witnessed a more differentiated localized and flexible

understanding of citizenship (Liu, 2002). Its citizenship curriculum now emphasizes

somewhat different knowledge such as life, ethics, morality, and health (Doong, 2007).

One criticism facing those who advocate for a strong knowledge basis in citizenship

education is that it often involves a trade off such as neglecting knowledge about

behaviors that enact citizenship. Curriculum documents often give less attention to

attitudes and skills (e.g., CCE, 1994). Arthur and Davidson (2002) explore the

relationship between curriculum, social literacy, and experiential learning in order to

advance active citizenship beyond knowledge acquisition. Since knowledge building is

necessary and irreplaceable in citizenship education, more efforts should be spent on the

balance between the development of knowledge and the two remaining elements of this

tripartite: attitudes and skills.

Attitudes and values

Attitudes are settled ways of thinking and feeling and can be cultivated through

different approaches to citizenship education. Two missions regarding attitudes towards

the nation state in citizenship education need to be fulfilled: the cognitive mission that

prepares critical thinking and responsible citizens, and the affective mission of instilling

the sense of national identity, love and loyalty to the nation state and patriotism (Leung,

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[3] The three items are: 1) legal and moral rights and responsibilities of individuals and communities, 2) rights and responsibilities of citizens as consumers, employees, employers and family and community members, and 3) human rights charters and issues.

2003). Attitudes are more than a psychological term in citizenship education, as the teaching of attitudes often involves a manifestation of knowledge and skills. Banks (2002) points out that in order to function effectively in a multicultural society, citizens not only need knowledge and skills in deliberation and action, but they also need democratic attitudes and values towards diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural groups.

Values, on the other hand, reflect the importance and preciousness of certain beliefs and often serve ass guiding principles such as self-transcendence and self-enhancement in life (Schwartz, 1994). Constructs such as personal and social value systems, worldviews, and ideology are often interconnected. [4] In civic and citizenship education, attitudes and values are sometimes used together to refer to certain beliefs and ideologies. However, these two items are different and unique in their own way. Values usually include beliefs of both rights and responsibilities within citizenship, such as justice, equality, freedom, and diversity (Butts, 1989) and are considered more stable and consistent than (positive) attitudes; more importantly, values also play a significant role in the formation of social capital and civil society (Putnam, 1995). Values education, therefore, has garnered great interest among researchers for its role in the transmission of certain values through schools, especially in the Asia-Pacific region (Montgomery, 1997; Print, 2000; Cogan and Morris, 2001; Cummings, Tatto and Hawkins, 2001).

Similar to the teaching of attitudes, values education as a broad form of citizenship education also faces a dilemma of the manner in which values should be transmitted or, at least, presented in classrooms. There is constant debate between a value-explicit approach and a value-neutral one in education (Kerr, 2003) and, in part, this debate has

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[4] For a review of values and related constructs, see Rohan (2000).

its roots in the "public" and "private" dimension of citizenship and hence, "thick" and "thin" citizenship education (McLaughlin, 1992). Le Metais (1997, cited in Kerr, 2003) categorizes countries into three kinds of values education: 1) countries with minimal reference to values in education such as England and the U.S.A which usually share a belief and commitment to pluralism and devolved authority; 2) countries with national values expressed in general terms like Australia and New Zealand with differentiated responsibilities of values education at federal and local level; and 3) countries with highly centralized systems and express national values in detail, including Singapore and Japan. However, values education is captured in more than these three ways, as it has to be cultivated over the long term and is often associated with the learning process and outcomes. In additional to national values, there are also universal values, or cosmopolitan values, as well as social and cultural values, all of which diversify the content of values education. Apart from the questions of *what* values should be taught, research also focuses on *for whom* and *how* values are taught (Cummings *et al.*, 2001; Cogan *et al.*, 2002).

Skills and behaviors

　　Lastly, effective citizenship education cannot operate solely from a skill component, since the outcome must be competent, critical, democratic citizens with a strong knowledge basis and unbiased attitudes. Like the knowledge and attitude components, skills of good citizens also reflect a variety of global trends and demands on individuals; Cogan and Derricott (2000, p.132) define a set of characteristics of good citizens which include some key skills: ability to work with others in a cooperative way; the ability to understand, accept, appreciate, and tolerate cultural differences; the ability

to be sensitive towards and defend human rights; and the ability to participate in politics

at local, national, and international levels. These skills are the manifestation of

knowledge and attitudes, and more importantly, the realization of several civic ideals

such as deliberation (e.g., Mendelberg, 2002), trust (e.g., Newton, 2001; Mishler and

Rose, 2002), and participation (e.g., Hahn, 1998)

A big challenge of skill cultivation in citizenship education is the difficulty of

implementation since it is more time consuming and requires a student-centered

pedagogy. Teachers not only need to give up their centrality and authority in the

classroom to help more students obtain the skills, they themselves also serve as exemplar

models in the social and political context to illustrate the relationship between citizenship

and skills (Myers, 2007). Moreover, the acquisition of skills may well occur outside

classrooms and schools, as service learning, or community involvement has often been

considered good methods for skill development for young people (Stukas, Clary and

Synder, 1999; Butts, 1989; Gross and Dynneson, 1991).

Another challenge lies in the area of assessment of civic skills. The assessment of

skills can be expensive and ineffective, but the most fundamental problem is the lack of

consensus on assessment criteria. Usually a combination of summative and formative

assessment is used and the method relies on both formal tests as well as informal

evaluations by teachers, especially classroom teachers. Harris (2002) studied students'

performance in small group discussions on public issues in the classroom and developed

a set of seven criteria for assessing students' "public talk ability" including organization

of information, consideration of alternatives, disciplinary content and process, elaborated

communication, problem connecting ability, and audience reaching ability beyond

schools. He argued that these standards have content validity in that they depict how citizens deal with public issues in a democratic society. This kind of study certainly needs more research given that various aspects of civic skills need to be evaluated, and suggestions on improving pedagogy need to be given to educators, researchers, and policy-makers. Although difficult, the area of assessment of civic skills has attracted attention from researchers, as reflected in the assessment projects conducted at both the national and international levels (Kerr, 2003; Torney-Purta, Schwille and Amadeo, 1999).

Approaches and Models of Citizenship Education

Different approaches of citizenship education

The interdisciplinary nature of citizenship and citizenship education can be found in research on citizenship from a variety of non-education fields such as political science (e.g., Clark, 1996; McDough and Feinberg, 2003), sociology (e.g., Rotberg, 2001; Torres and Antikainen, 2003), development studies (e.g., Molyneux and Razavi, 2002; Mohanty and Tandon, 2006), history (e.g., Heater, 1990; Boulding 1988), anthropology (e.g., Benei, 2005; Levinson and Stevick, 2007), psychology (e.g., Levinson, 1999; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001), feminist critique (e.g., Arnot and Dillabough, 2000; Lister, 2003), and multiculturalism (e.g., Kymlicka, 19995; Kymlicka and Norman, 2000). In the second section of this paper, I mainly draw on the framework from two books, *Social Science Perspectives on Citizenship Education* (Gross and Dynneson, 1991) and *The Civic Mission in Educational Reform* (Butts, 1989) and analyze how different disciplinary knowledge can influence citizenship education. I am particularly interested in *to what level* they can influence citizenship education and in *which*

component(s) of citizenship education the influence exists. The findings are summarized at the end of this section for further critique and consideration.

Butts (1989) paraphrases the eight approaches to citizenship education proposed by Newmann (1977) in his report on the National Task Force on Citizenship Education. These approaches are summarized as below:

1) Disciplines such as history, civics, and government

2) Law-related education ranging from the Constitution to civil and criminal justice systems

3) Social problems and public issues focusing on problems of democracy in American society

4) Critical thinking and decision making which attempts to help students develop cognitive skills such as inference and judgment

5) Value clarification that aims to develop autonomy of students by understanding values and attitudes

6) Moral development based on Kohlberg's (1981) cognitive theory

7) Student participation and community involvement that encourages student involvement and promotes service learning

8) Institutional school reform in order to improve the hidden curriculum and create a more democratic school environment

These approaches are similar, though with a narrower focus, to those proposed by Dynneson and Gross (1985), with one particular approach that they call global interdependence citizenship. These approaches are summarized and categorized into the "educational perspective" in their edited volume *Social Science Perspectives on*

Citizenship Education (1991). In the book, scholars from ten social science disciplines discuss the concepts and issues pertaining to citizenship education and thus they have developed a set of recommendations for the improvement of citizenship education. The ten perspectives included in this volume are educational, political, historical, economic, geographical, cultural, social psychological, anthropological, philosophical, and international perspectives.

Models of citizenship education

The two examples above illustrate the diversity in approaches to citizenship education. It is also useful to present three models of citizenship education from related literature: multiple citizenship from Heater (1990, 1992, 2004), multi-dimensional citizenship from Cogan and Derricott (2000) and the six-stage citizenship development of Dynneson and Gross (1985)

Multiple citizenship. Heater (1990, p.326) raises a question: "Can he [a citizen] have multiple status, participate in the several strata of institutions and exercise rights and perform obligations at the different levels?" Beyond a relationship between an individual and a state, this new model of "multiple citizenship" takes into account two important themes: 1) the overlapping and compatibility of rights and responsibilities in the different roles assumed by individuals at different times and places, and 2) the relationship of an individual to a range of sub- and supra-national institutions, including ethnic communities, regional unions, the natural environment, and even the planet itself.

Fouts and Lee (2005, p.43) summarize three characteristics of "multiple citizenship":

1) Two or more forms of citizenship status held concurrently by an individual

2) Incompatible rights and responsibilities may challenge the allegiance of the

    individual

3) World or global citizenship can be a component of these multiple citizenships.

    Lastly, "multiple citizenship" is related to various disciplines including political science, public affairs, sociology, legal studies, development studies, multicultural studies, peace studies, human rights education, moral education, and world education. Each of these discipline perspectives create challenges for teachers in areas such as curriculum organization. As Heater (2004) concludes in his reflection, multiple citizenship education "is that we have multiple identities and loyalties from the close relationship of family to the distant one of the whole of human kind…[it will] build on similar ideas expounded by educationists…to the end of constructing a truly comprehensive and coherent citizenship education for generations to come."

    Multidimensional citizenship. Heater's (2004) consciousness of history, which connects the past to the future, together with his expanded geometrical concern in his "multiple citizenship" model, provides a foundation for scholars (Cogan and Derricott, 1998, 2000; Kubow, Grossman and Ninomiya, 2000) to examine and analyze the multi-dimensionality of citizenship education. He also proposes a model that includes the temporal and spatial dimension, in addition to the conventional personal and social dimension of citizenship.

    Multidimensional citizenship is not a new notion. Ichilov (1990) has proposed a ten-item, multi-dimensional model of citizenship while depicting dimensions and role patterns of citizenship and democracy. As she reiterates in a later chapter entitled "Patterns of Citizenship," this multidimensional model includes "participatory objectives,

such as the expression of consent and dissent, conventional and unconventional

participatory means; the motivational orientations for participation, [whether] it's

external/obligatory or internal/voluntary, as well as other behavioral and attitudinal

dimension" (Ichilov, 1998, p.23)

Kubow *et al.* (2000, pp.134-139) take a different stand as their model is derived

from a large-scale international study of experts in response to global trends and

citizenship characteristics of the twenty-first century. These four dimensions comprise

the three components of citizenship education, knowledge, attitudes and skills, and

depicts the characteristics of effective citizens for the twenty-first century. A summary of

the dimensions is as follows:

1) *Personal dimension*: the development of a personal capacity for and commitment

   to a civic ethic characterized by responsible habits of mind, heart, and action.

2) *Social dimension*: capacity to live and work together for civic purposes. It is a

   necessarily urgent call for educational programs to connect students to and engage

   them in their communities. It encompasses a wide variety of engagements and

   activities in civil societies.

3) *Spatial dimension*: multiple and overlapping communities that an individual is

   involved in: local, regional, national and even global communities. This is very

   similar to what Heater proposed in his "multiple citizenship."

4) *Temporal dimension*: locates challenges of citizenship in the past, present, and

   future and encourages a vision for the future as well as for the current reality.

   Students are encouraged to connect to both the past and the future when talking

   about contemporary issues in classrooms.

This model illustrates the commonalities of citizenship education worldwide and creates a broad framework for future researchers to pursue studies featuring specific contexts and/or a sub-theme under these dimensions. It is worthwhile to note, however, that these four dimensions are not isolated but interwoven and they should be addressed simultaneously at the implementation levels for citizenship educators.

Six stages of citizenship development. In comparison to the former two, the developmental approach of citizenship education focuses only on individuals; nonetheless it has implications and cross-validation for researchers who examine the temporal and spatial dimensions of citizenship because these stages consist of social and cultural processes that contribute to children's acquisition of citizenship perceptions, values, and behaviors. It focuses on the relational development of children through both formal and informal settings. These six stages are:

1) *Biological citizenship*: infant dependency and maternal shaping

2) *Family citizenship*: expanding kinship influences

3) *Formative social citizenship*: initiation of non-biological dependency

4) *Stratified social citizenship*: development of social categories and group membership behaviors

5) *Chronological age group citizenship*: horizontal social relationships within and between social groups

6) *Complex social citizenship*: a search for accommodation and adulthood identification

Dynneson and Gross (1991, pp.19-20)

This model reminds people of the importance of non-school influences as citizenship can be influenced by early socialization in families and extended relatives. Each stage marks a transitional point for children on their way to developing into full citizens. One shortcoming, as the authors indicate, is that this model is unique to the social conditions of American society, so any application without taking into consideration the local context and proper modification must be avoided.

Assessment of Citizenship Education: International Perspectives

In this section, I review empirical literature on civic and citizenship education in schools. Empirical literature sheds light on how schools are currently promoting civic knowledge, attitudes, and involvement, and guides our thinking about and implementation of civic or citizenship education for the future. For example, while some schools are preparing young people for a global future, they are also called upon to build a unifying national identity that can be accessed when conditions demand patriotism and loyalty. Therefore, programs in such schools are organized with a strong "national education" component, ranging from courses labelled civic education to approaches where civic-related material is embedded in history, and political education courses, or spread through the social studies curriculum. Niemi and Junn (1998) point out that in the United States, schools and civic curriculum are major positive influences on students' knowledge about politics and the nation state. This is particularly critical to national survival when national sovereignty is threatened. However, the content of citizenship education does not merely include a national education component; other concerns such as social, environment, and cultural elements are of great importance to the cultivation of citizens as well. In this section I review the current literature on school citizenship

education in several countries including 1) countries with liberal democracy traditions such as the United States, England and Australia; 2) in Asian countries with different sets of societal values like Japan and China; and 3) large-scale international studies with cross-national perspectives.

Citizenship education in Western countries

In the United States, citizenship education evolved from the establishment of nationhood from the European colonial powers and has progressed from pluralism and modernization from the 19th century to the early 20th century. In 1921, the National Council of Social Studies (NCSS) was established which gave rise to social studies as a school subject that included civics and other related fields of social sciences. The content of citizenship education has experienced significant changes [5] since then due to significant national changes. The curriculum has also become more diversified because of the decentralized educational system. However, public school civic education attracted more attention only after the 1960s. According to the National Center for Learning and Citizenship (NCLC), there is a growing need for schools to produce citizens who know about civil issues such as how a bill becomes a law, but students also need to develop a set of values about why citizenship is important and a set of civic skills that gives students a sense of efficacy and a commitment to be active, principled citizens. (Kurtz, Rosenthal and Zukin 2003)

A series of programs and projects have been carried out to assess the outcome of citizenship education in the United States. For example, the National Assessment of

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[5] See Butts (1989, pp. 188-197, pp. 205-215) for a review of documents and the gathering momentum of civic education.

Educational Progress (NAEP) assessed changes in political knowledge and attitudes of three age groups: nine-year-olds, thirteen-year-olds, and seventeen-year-olds between 1969 and 1976 (Butts, 1989). The 1969 NAEP reported more decline in scores in citizenship and social studies than in reading, writing and science, although the latter have also decreased greatly. These scores improved in the 1980s during the 1982 NAEP, showing some improvements among teenagers in knowledge, although their attitudes remained constant throughout the decade. More recently, the Education Commission of the States (ECS) explored the strategies and outcomes of citizenship education in 10 high schools in a study report (Miller, 2004). The report describes 10 high schools in nine school districts across the country where students are given many opportunities to develop citizenship skills. The schools differ in the kinds of civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions fostered by their programs, but it concluded with a look at promising citizenship education strategies and a summary of policy implications for states, local governments, districts, and schools.

One key finding of these assessment projects is that, although these schools have been very proactive in nurturing active citizenship, principals and teachers admitted that most of their assessments of students' civic skills and dispositions are informal and non-conclusive. Educators can easily gauge students' knowledge of history, civics, economics, and other social studies subject areas through paper-and-pencil tests, performance in these tests do not imply active citizenship after graduation. These assessments also reveal that more concentration on civic values is more necessary than improvement in knowledge, which, unfortunately, is usually considered an easier measurable indicator of citizenship education outcomes. Hence, Miller (2004)

recommends that schools should emphasize the *processes* of citizenship education rather than outcomes. The argument here is that by encouraging teachers to share best practices and by creating opportunities for more student involvement in decision making in the classroom and school, young people can see the explicit connections between strategies and outcomes and, hence, internalize the knowledge and values of being active citizens. Several successful projects such as "Kids Vote USA" (Simon, Merrill, Alozie, 1998) and "Project 540" (Battistoni, 2004; Longo, Drury and Battistoni, 2006) can be used as lessons reflecting good practices. Both are national level programs that have proven to be successful in raising students' awareness about voting as well as heightened their concern about social issues within and beyond schools. Project 540, as its name indicates, a turn of a revolution and a half, illustrates one way in which schools can fulfil their civic mission by providing opportunities that shape young people's lifelong citizenship.

In England and Wales, citizenship education has experienced a boost since the publication of the Crick Report (*Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools Report*) in 1998, in which the advisory group called for making citizenship education an explicit part of the curriculum. Citizenship education became a subject in the national curriculum (Key stage 3 and 4, an equivalent of 12-16 year olds) in 2001 and in the same year, the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) was commissioned to undertake a longitudinal study of citizenship education over eight years, beginning with a cohort of young people who entered secondary school until 2009.

The *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* aims to "Assess the short term and long term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of

pupils" (NFER, n.d.). In addition to the annual report on longitudinal studies, the

Department for Education and Skills also implemented a cross-sectional survey as a

supplement to reveal the full picture of the situation of citizenship education (e.g.,

Ireland, Kerr, Lopes, Nelson and Cleaver, 2005) Schools employed diverse approaches in

the delivery of citizenship education. The report identifies four kinds of schools in terms

of citizenship education approaches, minimalist, focused, implicit, and progressing

schools (p.15), [6]and from 2003 to 2005, the schools investigated have witnessed an

overall increased focus on citizenship curriculum, with less minimalist schools and more

focused ones.

While achievements such as increased familiarity with key documents and

confidence in teaching among teachers and school leaders have been made, several

challenges have also been put forward. With the teachers, pressure for time and

assessment is often felt, and for students, there is a gap between the schools' offerings of

citizenship-related activities and their relatively low participation rate. Thus, there is

some skepticism about political engagement as well as a limitation of students' own

voices in the discussions about these activities. At the classroom level, the atmosphere

and student participation in decision making is also challenged, with students' voices and

decision making limited to a minority of students. This finding echoes the findings in

Selwyn's (2003) survey with a large group of British youth and indicates that providing a

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[6] A school being minimal means it is at an early stage of development, with a limited range of delivery approaches and few extracurricular activities offered; in comparison, being focused means concentrating on citizenship education in the curriculum, with few opportunities for active citizenship in the school and wider community. In terms of active citizenship in schools and the wider community, an implicit school is one not yet focusing on citizenship education in the curriculum, but with a range of active citizenship opportunities whereas a progressing one is developing citizenship education in the curriculum, school and wider community; the most advanced type of provision. (Ireland *et al.*, 2005, p.15)

democratic classroom atmosphere does matter. The reports conclude by trying to find

potential solutions to advance citizenship education, as well as other related programs

such as *Every Child Matters* (Every Child Matters, 2003) and a civil renewal action plan

(Brannan, John and Stoker, 2007). Such potential can lay a strong curriculum base for

citizenship education and for students to develop the fundamental knowledge, skills, and

understanding that underpin citizenship as an active practice in and beyond school.

Citizenship education in Australia has also undergone some reform in response to

the profound changes in social, demographic, and cultural conditions. Since the Civics

Expert Group (1994) identified a "civic deficit," civics and citizenship education has

been re-emphasized in the curriculum, and the government has invested large amounts of

money in civics education programs such as *Discovering Democracy*. In the curriculum,

an assessment framework has also been designed to set out principles of civics education

evaluation. For instance, five criteria of assessment are identified in the Western

Australia Curriculum Framework (1998, cited in Cairns and Gardner, 2003): validity,

positive contribution to learning, explicit clarification, equity, and comprehensiveness.

For more than two decades, the school had control over curriculum changes but, in recent

years, there has been a strong swing back to central control of the curriculum, as directed

by the education authorities in Victoria.

In terms of evaluation and assessment of the series of reform, several studies can

be found. The Erebus Study (2003) evaluated the implementation of the *Discovering

Democracy* program since it was launched in 1997, and Prior's (1999) case study

investigated the connection between the models of citizenship depicted in curriculum

documents including the perception of teachers, students, and parents. These two studies

have a common finding: teaching civics and citizenship education requires a firm link

between students' own experiences, both from themselves as well as from their parents,

and the social and historical content depicted in the curriculum. Moreover, Prior (1999)

points out that social studies teachers cannot be the "owners" of civics education

programs but have to take into consideration experiences of students and parents when

developing civics education programs.

At a higher level, the national assessment for Civics and Citizenship Education first

occurred in 2004 and the second round took place in October 2007. This national

assessment sampled 10,712 students in years 6 from 318 schools, and 9,536 students in

year 10 from 249 schools. As part of the ongoing program of the national goal for

schooling in the twenty-first century to be "active and informed citizens with an

understanding and appreciation of Australia's system of government and civic life," the

assessment contains 60 minutes of questions including multiple choice, short answers,

and extended answers. It is interesting to note that the Ministerial Council on Education,

Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) makes clear distinctions between

"civics" and "citizenship," so assessment instruments have been constructed to

distinguish between these two areas. The two key performance measures are based on

"Knowledge & Understanding of Civic Institutions & Processes," and "Citizenship: and

Dispositions & Skills for Participation" (MCEETYA, 2006).

MCEETYA released the 2004 National Assessment Report and the findings

indicate that, on average, students scored lower than expected as assessed by experts who

participated in proficiency setting exercises and who marked the open-ended responses.

Although a small portion (8% of year 6, and 5% of year 10) of students scored higher

than expected and reached a high level of civics and citizenship proficiency, there has not been proof yet whether this small number of high achievers results from good teaching practices. One recommendation worth mentioning is that strategies as to how individuals can influence institutions for the benefit of society needs to be further strengthened in teaching, as this is an area that students seem to have the greatest difficulty in understanding.

A common theme of these national assessments and small-scale case studies of evaluations of civics and citizenship education is that a school or classroom-focused program of civic and citizenship education can foster the knowledge development of students, although discrepancies exist between perceptions from different groups. More time needs to be devoted to student self-evaluations and their thinking outside themselves to reflect where they come from as citizens, where they are going, and how they are going to get there. An unsolved problem that remains is how students as young citizens can develop more coherent and positive attitudes towards public life to contribute to a more integrated and constructive future for society.

In addition to students' knowledge, perceptions, and skills, research has also been conducted on the civic learning of teachers who are also important stakeholders in the process of citizenship education. At a seminar entitled "Civic Learning for Teachers: Capstone for Educational Reform" held at Stanford University in 1984, scholars proposed various initiatives to improve civic learning for both teachers and administers from various disciplines of social science. In particular, "revitalization and reform" was a major recommendation that leads to more inter-campus seminars, pilot programs, and collaborative research (Jones, 1985, pp.166-169). More recent studies have looked at

teachers, including pre-service student teachers, and their influence on citizenship and citizenship education. (Kubow, 2002; Paige and Cogan, 2002; Ma, 2002; Grossman, 2004; Lee and Fouts 2005, DeJaeghere, 2002, under review, Myers, 2007). These studies have focused on how teachers' own experiences as citizens and their involvement in pubic life which formed their opinions about civics and citizenship, development of their ideas of being good citizens and having good citizenship education, and most importantly, how they actually implement different pedagogies to teach citizenship education to students.

An important study that combines multiple perspectives of teachers and students was conducted by Hahn (1998) who provides cross-national evidence on the relationship between civic education, particularly classroom climate and pedagogy, and political attitudes as well as behaviors. As Hahn (1998) points out, the cultural context in which learning occurs also shapes students' attitudes and behaviors; therefore, more research needs to focus on the environment of civic education and the link between cognitive, affective, and participatory learning. Following Hahn's (1998) comparative studies, I now describe some international empirical studies that look into the dynamics between citizenship education, schooling, and society.

International studies

Research on citizenship education has received increased international attention since the 1990s. Cogan and Derricott's (2000) international comparative study of citizenship education for the twenty-first century involved nine countries (England, Germany, Greece, Hungary, the Netherlands, Canada, Japan, Thailand and the United States). The key objective was to understand how the respective educational systems of

the participating countries respond to the challenges confronting young people and how

citizenship education is carried out in school. Case studies are based on policy

statements, official documents, curricula, and studies conducted on the subject. A multi-

dimensional model of citizenship has been developed from this Delphi study and is

described in the second section of this paper.

The five European countries sampled in the study face many common problems

as well as some distinct and unique national ones. In terms of the curriculum in three of

the countries (England, Hungary and the Netherlands) there were important national

measures taken in the 1980s and 1990s that have established clear directions for how

citizenship education in these countries should develop. In two Asian countries (Thailand

and Japan), citizenship education is not given a high priority, although both governments

acknowledged that education for citizenship is the basic instrument for human

development. While there is a move to expose young people to more global issues and

perspectives, especially in Japan, school citizenship programs (including teachers'

attitudes and approved textbooks) are still highly focused on national identity, culture,

family, and religious orientations. There are also other comparative studies on various

aspects of citizenship education from a range of countries and authors, such as Osler and

Vincent (2002), and Meyer and Boyd (2001), and in Asia-Pacific countries in particular,

Cummings *et al.* (2002), Karsten *et al.* (2002) and Cogan *et al.* (2002).

By far, the most extensive study on citizenship education in recent years is the

second IEA Civic Education Study (Torney-Purta *et al*, 2001). It aimed to identify and

examine in a comparative framework the ways in which young people are prepared to

undertake their role as citizens in democracies. It measures fourteen-year-old and

eighteen-year-old students' civic knowledge, skills, and attitudes across the following

three domains: 1) democracy-defining characteristics, institutions; 2) citizenship, national

identity and international relations; and 3) social cohesion and diversity.

The second IEA Civics Study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to

illuminate civic knowledge as well as civic skills of more than 90,000 adolescent young

people in 28 countries, after completing an extensive 24-country case study of national

policy and curriculum of civic education. To elaborate, Phase I involved the collection of

information from a wide ranges of sources in order to establish the national context for

civic or citizenship education in schools (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 1999); Phase II involved a

large-scale survey of students, schools, and teachers, the report of which is summarized

in Torney-Purta *et al.*, (2001). In this large cross-national study, an Octagon model was

presented to visualize the information collected in both the qualitative and quantitative

phases. The model illuminates the everyday lives of young people in homes, and with

peers at school to serve as a "nested" context for young people's thinking and actions in

social and political environments. The public discourse and practices of the society have

an impact on students through their contact with family (parents, siblings and sometimes

extended family), school (teachers, implemented curriculum, and participation

opportunities), peer groups (both in and out of class), and neighbors (including people in

out-of-school youth organizations). Influence from the broader society includes

institutions, processes and values in domains such as politics, economics, education, and

religion. It also includes the country's position internationally, including the symbols or

narratives that are important at the national or local level, and the social stratification

system, including ethnic and gender-group opportunities. The IEA model is derived from

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model and the situated cognition theory of Lave and Wenger (1991).

The main findings of the IEA study is summarized in Torney-Purta *et al.* (2001), Steiner-Khamsi *et al.* (2002), and Kerr (2003a). Furthermore, the voluminous data generated from these international studies have inspired more secondary analyses. For example, Schagen (2002) used multilevel modeling to explore "the relationships between pupil knowledge and attitudes and a range of background factors at the pupil, teacher and school levels" (p.257). He also noted that "pupils in schools which were more likely to state they had higher levels of racial or religious intolerance tended to have lower civic knowledge scores [and] those in schools which said that citizenship should be integrated into all subjects tended to have higher civic knowledge scores." Another interesting finding is that pupils whose "teachers [who] were more positive about citizenship tended to have higher scores on 'social movement' citizenship, as well as in school participation." Finally, Schagen reports a "potentially interesting area," which may warrant further investigation. There has been a misalignment of responses when pupils, teachers and administrators were asked the same questions: "Pupils gave more negative responses than teachers, who were more negative than schools, about what was going on in the school." This discrepancy indicates that there are gaps between policy and practice at various levels.

Citizenship education in the East

As it stands, the conceptualization of citizenship education in the West is genuinely at variance with other conceptions of citizenship elsewhere. There is a strong focus on education for democracy and democratic education in Western conceptions of

citizenship education. In East Asia, however, the emphasis appears to be on education for identity and nation building. The East Asian conception of education has a long history rooted in the Confucian tradition. Education was highly valued throughout Chinese Imperial history, with a long tradition of imperial civil service examinations (*keju*) from the Han Dynasty, which were based on Confucian classics. This education served two functions, "self cultivation" and recruiting of "men of talent"" to administer the affairs of the state (Peterson, Hayhoe, and Lu, 2001). Moral education, thus, has a long history in East Asian and Chinese intellectual traditions. In this context, Cummings *et al.* (2001) argues that the West tends to emphasize education for democracy and civic values, while Asia emphasizes ""good' citizenship, moral education, and the range of values associated with these aspects of civics.

Like the West, since the 1990s, there has been a resurgence of interest in civics and democratic citizenship in recent years in Asia. This interest comes in the form of chapters in books and special issues of journal articles. A landmark piece is *Citizenship Education in Asia and the Pacific: Concepts and Issues*, edited by four academics at the Hong Kong Institute of Education in 2004. Its dust cover states that the book "combines conceptual debates with case studies on the questions of whether the notion of an Asian Citizenship can be established, and if so, what its research agenda should be." The volume explores various conceptions of citizenship and citizenship education in the Asia Pacific region taking into account context, tradition, knowledge and values. In particular, it is worth mentioning the characteristics of Asian conceptualization of citizenship: harmony, spirituality and individuality (Lee, 2004). This conceptualization has important implications both for the theory and practice of citizenship. As Shil (1996, cited in Lee,

2004) points out, a civil society can be both pluralistic and unitary, and therefore individuality assumes its own significance for Asia, to develop autonomous, rational, and responsible individuals through civic and citizenship education.

Another important collection on civic education in Asia is Cogan *et al.'s* (2002) case studies of the historical development as well as the current implementation of civic education across six societies: Australia, Hong Kong, Japan, Thailand, Taiwan, and the United States. Thanks to the collaborative efforts of an international team of researchers over a three-year period, the investigation covers a range of important dimensions. These selected cases represent different schools in various education systems, and within each school, multiple perspectives from the principal, teachers, and students have been compared and contrasted to help us understand the dynamics of implementing civic education. The contributors not only offered clarification and unique analyses for each of the individual societies, but also examined civic values in relation to globalization. These perspectives are important since globalization and multiculturalism are identified as two driving forces with great implications for civic education and new challenges are presented such as the debate between universal and differentiated citizenship, and between fixed and flexible citizenship. These descriptions remind researchers to acknowledge the international dimension of this book and to continue to reflect on and re-conceptualize civic education beyond the nation state.

In modern China, for example, citizenship education together with liberal arts education, life skills education, and health education are considered to be the four most important kinds of education. According to James Yen, they solve the four crucial problems in China: under-education, poverty, weakness, and self-centeredness (Fang,

2001). A competent citizen, according to Yen, possesses four Cs: Competence, Creativity, Commitment, and Character. The diversity of philosophical and intellectual development of Chinese cultural creates a unique environment for the debate on culture and democracy (e.g., Shi, 2000). Shi (2000) points out the similarity in terms of percentage of population holding favourable attitudes for democratic behaviour between China and some other society that are compatible with democracy, but he also cautions against optimism as these attitudes occur more at the grassroots rather than elite levels. In my opinion, although I do not fully agree with what Hall and Ames (1999) have argued about the unsuitability of rights-based liberalism for the Chinese situation, their cautions against the three fallacies, the single perspective fallacy, the misguided comparison fallacy and the good principle fallacy, should be taken into consideration when studying citizenship education in Asia, especially China.

Finally, I reviewed several major past studies that focused particularly on the Chinese contexts and compared critically different opinions and ideas among people in different regions in China. Fairbrother's (2003) book on university students' attitudes about patriotism is a very good example and sets a good foundation for similar research in this field. Other comparative work can be seen in Law (2004), and Hughes and Stone (1999) both of which provide good references for the context of Hong Kong SAR and Taiwan. There is also theoretical work such as the historical evolution of citizenship education in China (e.g., Chen and Reid, 2003), on the curriculum of moral education at the junior high level (Zhan and Ning 2004) and on the socio-cultural background of contemporary civic moral education (Qi and Wang 2004). Lee and Ho (2005) point out that since 1978, moral education gradually evolved independently from politics and

transformed into a depoliticized moral education after 1993. "Moral education began to emerge as a single focus in the citizenship curriculum" (Lee and Ho 2005, p.420) which resulted from the liberalization of the citizenship education curriculum to focus more on individual growth rather than political socialization. Lastly, Zhu and Liu's (2004) paper on moral education teacher training describes two approaches (through subject-based education and through extra-curricular activities) of moral education and different training methods for moral education for teachers (pre-service training for specialist teachers of moral education and in-service training for classroom teachers). In a comprehensive manner, Zhu and Liu (2004) offer 10 suggestions to the challenges of implementing moral education in Mainland China, since this is the only society that requires moral education from primary school until the university level.[7] A detailed and more thorough description of China is presented separately in a different chapter.

Most of the current studies, especially those on the Chinese context, have examined the link between students and teachers. In particular, they have examined 1) whether what teachers consider to be important characteristics of good citizens is similar to what students think; 2) how students perceive teachers' pedagogical efforts to teach civic education in the classroom; and 3) most importantly, how students have achieved, if any, the desired goals set for civic and moral education in secondary schools. What I propose in my own research is a study that takes into account various factors that might affect students' civic attitudes and measure these factors and their relationship with

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[7] There are, however, very few, or no empirical studies on the role of classroom teachers in Mainland China and the descriptions in Zhu and Liu's (2004) paper offer limited examples of empirical studies on moral education teachers rather than a systematic synthesis. This paper stimulates my interest to further pursue the role of classroom teacher, though I do not fully focus on this issue in the current study.

students' attitudes towards society across different settings, such as school, family, and

community. (i.e., in relation to CCP's 2001 *Action Plan for Civic Morality*, which defines

moral as public morality, family virtue, and professional ethics). From an empirical

perspective, this study looks at what kinds of attitudes students hold towards social issues

and how they can be measured. To gain a better understanding of the operation of

attitudes, nature, and measurements, I present a brief review of the relevant literature of

political psychology and attitudes research in the next section of this chapter.

Political Psychology and Citizenship Education

In this section, I briefly review the literature from political psychology, a newly

emerging field that focuses on political attitudes and behaviors from a psychological

perspective. In particular, I discuss political socialization, attitude formation, and the

linkage with citizenship education.

Political psychology and cultural studies

At a very broad level, political psychology applies what is known about personal

psychology, developmental psychology, and social psychology to the study of politics. It

includes research in a variety of topics, but is usually clustered in these areas: politicians

and elite politics, mass political behaviors, inter-group relations, political movement and

political change, political structure and organizational development, and international

relations.[8] Traditionally, political psychology is connected to cultural anthropology, in

addition to psychology and political science. Although it has been argued that this legacy

connection to cultural anthropology is diminishing (Renshon, 2002), more practitioners

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[8] This categorization is based on Deutsch and Kinnvall (2002) and the general organization of
Sears, Huddy and Jervis (Eds) *Oxford Handbook of Political Psychology*

like historians, sociologists, communication researchers, educators, and lawyers have entered the field (Sears, Huddy, and Jervis, 2003).

Menroe (2002) proposes a theoretical perspective not only as a replacement for rational choice, but also as an underlying framework for political psychology. In her framework, perception identity, and relationships are key concepts; perspective emphasizes people's sense of self and its relation to others to foster a variety of interactions of political choice, political action, thinking, and feelings about politics, which are all the essence of human politics. Menroe (2002) argues that by resting on such a paradigm as perspective, political psychology has a firm foundation of its own rather than being a branch subject of political science and psychology. She believes that the paradigm can "provide clues about how cultural factors… may shape social representations in consistent and predictable ways for certain groups of people, or perhaps tell us if there are certain ways in which all people perceive reality" (p.404). Menroe's "perspective" is refreshing and ambitious, as she points out that the relation and interaction of self to others not only affects and alters the thinking and actions of the self, but also of others, and perhaps even to a larger environment like a group, a community, and society. A possible direction of her paradigm shift could be the incorporation of more outbound social and political thoughts and actions, and the mechanism in which these thoughts and actions occur. Therefore, a closer examination of applying political psychology to other fields is necessary before looking at the field of education in particular. Two fields of cultural studies and were chosen and given some elaboration in the following paragraphs.

Cultural studies, especially those using comparative methods, has a close link to

political psychology. Cross-cultural psychology has been an important sub-field in

psychology with contributions from scholars such as Triandis. The extension of cultural

studies to political psychology is a relatively new direction, however. For example, as

Renshon (2000) points out, the capacity to develop democracy through social capital

cannot ignore the development of leadership capital, which is grounded in the culture and

psychology of any given society. In an era of globalization today, the pressure on strategy

development of leadership capital reflects the ever-increasing cultural diversity as well as

conflict. Therefore, it is also necessary to place political psychology in a cultural

background to analyze the complex relationships that arise and to provide the conceptual

means for effecting lasting social change. The relevance of culture on the study of

political psychology was summarized by Ross (1997) when he addressed the tension

between culture-specific analysis and the universal human dynamics of political

psychology. These relevancies include: 1) framing the context, 2) linking individual and

cultural identities, 3) defining the boundaries between groups and organizing actions

within and between them, 4) providing a framework for interpreting the actions and

motives of others, and *5)* offering resources for political organization and mobilization

(p.322). Moreover, Renshon and Duckitt's (2000) comprehensive volume covers a

variety of regions including Latin America, Eastern Europe, Asia, and Africa.

Cross-cultural political psychology in Asia, especially East Asia is of particular

interest to me. In a special issue of cultural and cross-cultural dimensions of political

psychology in the *Journal of Political Psychology*, Moghaddam and Crystal (1997) and

Feldman (1997) examined socio-cultural patterns based on political psychology in two

Asian countries, Iran and Japan. Moghaddam and Crystal's (1997) comparative study of

Iranian and Japanese women as cultural minorities illuminates the psychological factor of cultural change and calls for more attention to micro-level cultural changes, which are sometimes overlooked as trivial details of daily life. Feldman's (1997) study of Japanese nationalism illustrates that while universal political psychological theories are feasible and desirable, more caution should be applied when adopting a "Western" model into Japanese society and the more it is applied, the more rework is necessary.

In his concluding remarks, Feldman (1997) points out the prosperity of literature on culture, society, and politics in Japan not only through the translated work of scholars from North America and Europe, but also of Japanese scholars themselves. In comparison, the Chinese literature on political psychology is at a more pre-mature stage than the Japanese counterparts. Qiu (1996) summarizes the development of political psychology in Mainland China. Scholars have been mostly translating English literature into Chinese, and from the 1990s, they have conducted only limited regional surveys on the political literacy of Chinese adults, as well as the change of the collective political mentality of China in response to the economic reform and opening-up. However, Qiu's (1996) synthesis lacks original publications of Chinese scholars in terms of theoretical development in political psychology. On the other hand, political psychology in Taiwan has witnessed more development, as Shih (1998) has published a comprehensive volume (in Chinese) on the education, development, and education political psychology in the West as well as in Taiwan. In particular, he summarizes both Western and Chinese (Taiwanese) literature on the Chinese revolution and political movement from a psychological perspective and points to the future direction of political psychology, as it can be utilized in the policy making of cross-strait relationships between Taiwan and

Mainland China. Shil (1998, p.15) also developed a five-component model that features

the process of political thinking in the cross-strait relationship. [9]

Political socialization and attitudes

Political psychology influences citizenship education through channels of

cultivation of attitudes and values, as well as critical thinking and problem-solving skills,

as mentioned above along with the components of citizenship education. Moreover,

Ichilov (2003) suggests that political psychology can also offer insights for understanding

the development of citizenship in situations of multiple political allegiances, cultural

diversity, and in situations of incongruence and conflict among one's own allegiances

and identities. With these dynamics, political socialization (i.e., the process through

which an individual acquires particular political orientations and their political beliefs

and values) mediates political psychology and citizenship education.

Take the study of values as an example. The prevalence of values makes it

necessary to infer political judgments; however, challenges also exist. As Kuklinski

(2001) points out, the first challenge lies in the conflict between multiple values held by

people simultaneously, and second, the link between sets of values and the translated

judgments, and, finally, in policy preference and policy making. A crucial point worth

mentioning here is that in political psychology, such links can be tested using

experimental surveys, in which certain notions are made salient so that people are more

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[9] This model will not be used for the current study that looks at students and education on citizenship, so I only list the five components for reference: 1) subjectivity and identification including nationality, sovereignty, revolution, and reform; 2) political thoughts and attitudes including those towards dynasties, kinship, and civil war; 3) personality and collective national characteristics including authoritarianism, post-colonialism, and post-modern thinking; 4) cognition and emotion in dealing with risks and guilt; and 5) judgments and actions such as expectations, stratification, and interpretation.

likely to make a choice between the conflicting values and judgment. However, in education settings, the use of natural experiments is less common so it is becomes more difficult to decipher the "black box" that conceals the connection of schooling and successful citizenship education, supposedly the process and outcome of good political socialization and development of values and judgments.

Torney-Purta (1990) applies the notion of schemata, a psychological cue that people use to organize current knowledge and establish a framework for future thinking and acting, to provide a link between research on socialization and psychological development of young people, thus suggesting implications for citizenship education. She reviews literature on schemata, and highlights the importance of student-elaborated learning. During this process, the classroom is viewed as an important agent of students' cognitive restructuring and problem solving. In such a setting, not only teachers but also students become active constructors of meaning and knowledge. Such a constructivist approach has potential that is yet to be realized in the classroom teaching of citizenship education.

A relevant question that needs to be addressed in the Chinese context in terms of psychological development and citizenship cultivation is the complex relationship between political knowledge development and morality growth. These parallel sets of paths set an interesting agenda to look into citizenship education in China: Is political knowledge and understanding complementing or contradicting morality? Translating this question into a practical level, the focus becomes how the practice of citizenship education can help students become morally sound, socially responsible, and politically

informed. Using psychological theories and methods not only sheds light on improving such a process, but it also helps assess the outcome.

Research on attitudes

Research on attitudes constitutes an important branch of social and political psychology. Comprehensive reviews on this topic include the definition and measurement of attitudes, attitudinal structures and components, the relationship between attitudes and behaviors, and applications of attitudes in various fields of social science (e.g., Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Albarraci *et al.* 2005; Fazio and Petty, 2008).

The definition of "attitude" varies among different scholars. For example, Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p.1) define it as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor." Here, the word "tendency" reflects the temporal characteristics of attitudes, i.e., its relative stability and its internal state. A synonym of this tendency is found as latent, and attitude is defined as a hypothetical mediating variable between a stimulus and a response (Fiske and Taylor, 2007). The traditional definition of attitude prescribes three classes of such mediation to stimuli: the cognitive, the affective, and behavioral. Scholars such as Breckler (1984) also provide convergent and discriminant validity for this tripartite model (e.g., McGuire, 1969). It should be noted, however, that the tripartite model of attitude structure is not unchallenged; competitive and alternative definitions have also been proposed to the notion of attitude, among which attitudes defined as uni-dimensional evaluation of objects and attitudes as associative networks, which are representations in memory, have received support from a number of scholars (See, for example, Tesser and Shaeffer, 1990 for a review).

The categorization and structure of attitudes is also of interest to researchers,. For example, de Liver *et al.* (2007a) studied the relationship between ambivalent attitudes and univalent attitudes and found the co-existence of both positive and negative associations in ambivalent attitudes. Moreover, the experience of conflict is reflected in the pattern of strong positive and negative associations that are linked to these ambivalent attitudes. As far as methodological issues are concerned, scholars also argue for different manifestations of attitudes, whether they are explicit (usually measured by self-reports or observations) or implicit (measured by response time or other forms of test such as the Implicit Association Test). Studies on the latter are abundant, and several comprehensive reviews and/or meta-analyses have stimulated more heated scholarly debate over the rigor and validity of such measurements (e.g., Greenwald *et al.*, 2007; Gawronski *et al.*, 2007). A word of caution is the complexity and the feasibility of test for such an integrative model, in that these models require more empirical evidence to support their validity. However, it should be noted that the focus of my project is not on the differentiation between explicit and implicit attitudes but rather on the structure and features of explicit attitudes and possible manipulation and/or remedies to change attitudes surrounding educational and policy action purposes.

One of major foci in the current study is the attitudes and value. Apart from the behavioral tendency, attitudes also serve other functions such as a knowledge function, social function, and value function (Fiske and Taylor, 2007). Of these, the value function is the central concern of this paper. The construct of value refers to a favored or preferred end state, usually characterized by positive evaluations. On the other hand, as attitudes are more often than not value-laden, past work on consequences of conflicting values

(e.g., Tetlock, 1986) shows that the contradiction results in more complexity of the belief structure as well as polarization of attitudes. Findings such as these have implications for education and policy making, as these internalized values are important to self-concepts as well as to social and normative influences. Moreover, the value-expressive function of attitudes, as argued by Katz (1960), fits well with evaluative representation of the definition of attitudes. The value function of attitudes will be of particular interest to the objects that are likely to raise controversies that occur more often than we think. Such controversies include genetically modified food (de Liver *et al.*, 2007b), and capital punishment (Haddock and Zanna, 1998). In this study, as far as the function of attitudes is concerned, questions are raised in the concept of critical social issues include those that examine attitudes as value expression. In the last section of this chapter, I present a conceptual framework for the examination of students' civic attitudes.

Conceptual Framework: Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement

The literature on citizenship and citizenship education has a long evolving history dating back to ancient Greece. Along with theoretical development in disciplines such as political science, philosophy, and sociology, citizenship has also assumed more empirical meaning and social importance for the development of modern society. Several lessons can be drawn from the literature including 1) some universal and/or cosmopolitan values characterize citizenship from a normative perspective; 2) that certain premises need to be met for democracy to prosper and for civil society to be created; 3) the development of citizenship is an interactive process that requires active citizens as well as a civic culture that provides a medium for citizens to inform, interact with, and influence society; 4) citizenship and citizenship education are highly contextualized and contested because of

the geographical, ethnic, and cultural differences and the divergence and convergence

that co-exist; and 5) the inter-disciplinary nature of citizenship education adds excitement

as well as complexity for researchers and practitioners alike.

There are, however, caveats and niches that remain to be explored to enrich the

current literature. Citizenship and citizenship education have been considered in a

dichotomized manner: they are either highly idealized or highly problematized. For

example, citizenship seen as inclusive and exclusive rights has always attracted heated

debate, since citizenship can be, and is often viewed as either a source of or a solution to

the problem of denying certain rights to particular groups of people. The situation is,

nonetheless, never so simple as the source/solution since citizenship fluctuates and varies

according to personal, social, spatial, and temporal factors in a society.

In particular, I reviewed four important topics related to citizenship education, and

in the following paragraphs, I present a conceptual framework capturing students' civic

attitudes and engagement and the associated factors. The central concern of these factors

is whether the direct factors (i.e., school-based citizenship education) really contribute to

the formation of democratic civic attitudes, and to the enhancement of civic engagement.

If so, how should educators, researchers, policy makers and students make it happen?

Civic attitudes, reflecting students' views, opinions, beliefs, and feeling about

society and a nation, involve a multi-dimensional array of constructs that reflects the

multidimensional nature of citizenship and citizenship education. The relevant

components of civic attitudes show students' knowledge and attention to society, the

extent to which they know about and care about social issues and current events.

Attitudes and engagement are not stand-alone components; they are mutually enhancing

and can be affected by a variety of the factors that are included in different systems. This

part of the conceptual framework is derived from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) eco-systems

of the human environment. Table 2.2 provides an overview of these factors and their

located systems.

Table 2.2: Factors and systems of human environment

Systems	Factors	Descriptions
Micro-system (inter-individual)	Indirect and direct	Demography
		Roles in school
		Citizenship perception
		Civic value
Meso-system (Intimate context)	Indirect	Family background
		Attention and discussion of news
Exo-system (Wider context)	Indirect and direct	Classroom atmosphere
		Extra-curricular activities

My study begins by looking at how citizenship education is defined and

implemented in schools and, in particular, examining attitude and engagement of students

in relation to the three social issues. Similar studies have been carried out in other

countries, but knowledge of Chinese society increases our international understanding of

citizenship education in schools and offers some alternative perspectives.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the components of students' civic attitudes and the various

factors that may influence the formation of the attitudes. In the center is the main

component of this study: civic attitudes, and the three sub-components relating to the

three social issues. As indicated in table 2.2, the eight factors that are hypothesized to be

associated with civic attitudes are categorized into direct and indirect factors. While both

direct and indirect factors spread across the three systems, they are distinguished according to their relationship with school citizenship education. Direct factors are those that are related, or result from citizenship education, such as civic value and citizenship perception. Indirect factors such as their role in school, parental education have shown relationship with students' civic education, although they are not a direct product of school education. So are students' attention to and discussion of news and events. As far as students' civic engagements are concerned, they are not only influenced by those same factors that influence civic attitudes, but also the attitudes themselves. The relationships between attitudes and engagement is also influenced by the direct and indirect factors. This conceptual framework is tested with empirical data presented in Chapter Four and Five.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the theoretical and empirical literature on citizenship and citizenship education. Although citizenship is developed from a political notion, the complexity of citizenship education is explained through its relationship with various notions such as democratic education and moral education, and through different disciplinary perspectives and practical approaches at the school level and classroom level. The latter part of this paper discussed some empirical literature, mainly citizenship education programs and their assessments in different countries and compared and contrasted various results caused by different societal, cultural, and personal influences. I also briefly reviewed the structures of attitudes and the value-expressive functions of attitudes. In the last section, I presented a conceptual framework for my empirical study.

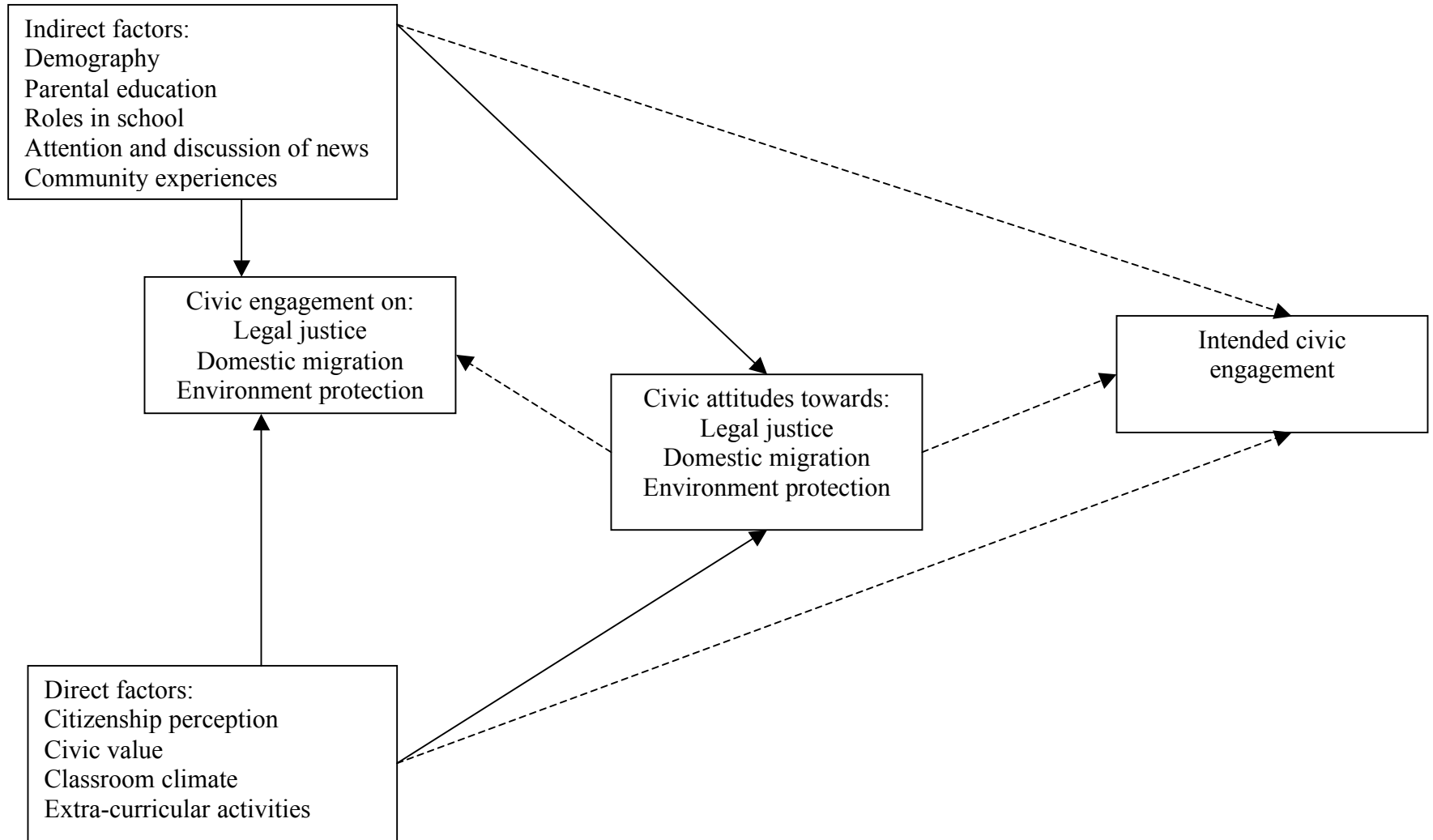Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement

Figure 2.1: A conceptual framework: Civic attitudes, civic engagement, and their associated factors

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Paradigms for Educational Research

Educational research in my study refers to applied work in school settings, which distinguishes education from other social science disciplines. Some features such as sample size fluctuation and high rate of attrition in this real-world setting, make the research conditions less than ideal and the research process difficult and time consuming. The human side of educational research can also remarkably affect research, both in a positive and negative way. This statement is at the beginning of the methodology chapter to emphasize the uniqueness of educational research and to establish the groundwork for future examination of assumptions, reliability, and validity issues.

Other features, however, make educational research appealing. Successful educational research includes a good balance of theory development with practices and effectiveness. It can achieve a number of goals that appeal to academic researchers, school personnel, and the general public (Maruyama and Deno, 1992) because of the plurality of education research, in which a multitude of activities can take place simultaneously. Moreover, the nature of educational research may include any disciplined inquiry, which "may draw on the methodologies of other social science disciplines… or its methods and techniques may originate from an eclectic view…and utilized by educational policy-makers, educational managers and classroom practitioners." (Economic and Social Research Council, 1991, cited in Bassey, 2007)

Understanding the nature of educational research enables researchers to better utilize the paradigms of research design and match problems with appropriate approaches. The most common designs for social science research follow a two-paradigm

(quantitative and qualitative, in Denscombe, 2003, p.131) or a three-paradigm

(quantitative, qualitative, mixed, in Creswell, 2002, p.18) pattern. To give a brief

definition, researchers utilizing a *qualitative* approach are primarily based on a

constructivist perspective, or participatory perspective, or both and qualitative research is

usually characterized by describing, exploring, and trying to understand. Research

usually begins with less structure and the stand as it proceeds; on the other hand,

quantitative research is characterized by numbers, measures, and hypotheses to be

validated and, therefore, is often carefully planned and structured. Accordingly,

researchers utilizing this approach base their knowledge and claims on a positivistic

perspective (Creswell, 2002, Krathwohl, 1993). For mixed methods, Creswell (2002,

p.18) states that researchers of this approach make their claims on pragmatic grounds.

The criteria for differentiating the paradigms are diverse, but they can be the unit of

analysis (Denscombe, 2003), the type of data collected, the perspective from which

researchers make their claims (Creswell, 2002), the method of data analyses, and so on.

In addition, there are classifications of research paradigm other than the quantitative-

qualitative dichotomy. For example, Knight (2002) suggests a differentiation between

face-to-face inquiry and at-distance inquiry. The major distinction between these two

methods is that researchers in the former have "the choice of improvising ways to patch

up defects in research design that only becomes apparent when the investigation is under

way (p.80)," whereas the in the latter situation, improvising is seldom an option.

Therefore, it should be noted that the paradigms for research, distinctive as they may be,

are not mutually exclusive. As a matter of fact, they can be even considered as a

continuum in which different purposes of description, explanation, and validation are

fulfilled using different approaches (Krathwohl, 1993, p.35).

So far, I have illustrated the nature of educational research and have briefly defined

the unique paradigms of educational research. Quantitative and qualitative approaches are

not clear-cut classifications, although they are usually considered to be the major

paradigms. Each approach has its own advantages and shortcomings, and the criteria for

the choices also vary according to the perspective and experiences of the researcher. It

also varies according to the audience. However, as Creswell (2002, p.21) argues, a match

between the research problem and the approach employed should be the primary concern

of a researcher when it comes to research design. In the next section, the purpose of my

study and the justification for my method selection is presented.

Selection and Rationale of Quantitative Methods

Rationale of quantitative methods

As indicated in the previous section, the selection of research methods should

reflect the study's purpose to find the best match between the problem and the inquiry

approach. A restatement of the research questions is provided:

Research question 1: According to a paper-based survey, how do Hong Kong and

Shanghai students' perceptions of citizenship, civic value, and their attitudes towards the

following three social issues (hereafter, civic attitudes), and their civic engagement look

like, respectively?

a. Issue one: legal justice

b. Issue two: domestic migration

c. Issue three: environment protection

Research question 2: Which factors are associated with students' civic attitudes and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Research question 3: Which factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement and how do these factors relate to students' civic engagement?

Research question 4: Which factors are associated with students' specific engagement in relation to the three social issues? How do these factors relate to students' specific engagement?

Research question 5: How are Hong Kong and Shanghai students' patterns of responses to the previous four questions similar or different from each other?

In this study, I am interested in the similarities and differences of civic attitudes and civic engagement of eighth-grade students in China, particularly concerning civic attitudes that reflects their thinking and feelings about some unresolved social issues. Following this descriptive purpose of my study is an explanatory effort to capture several factors that contribute to differences among youngsters. These factors cover a wide range, from individual to contextual factors, and contain both direct and indirect factors related to citizenship education. Moreover, I am aware that there may be more factors that have not been included in the pre-structured instruments, and these factors vividly depict some of the results of the development of attitudes from formal schooling and informal activities. The methodology employed in this study maximizes the advantages of answering questions but also acknowledges its disadvantage.

For a comprehensive perspective, it is necessary to provide a brief review of the advantages and caveats of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Borland (2001) summarizes the features of quantitative and qualitative research strategies and raises four

philosophical questions to consider when choosing a research strategy: 1) the definition of truth, 2) the scope of content studied, 3) the role of the researcher, and 4) the expected accomplishment of the research. A quantitative strategy enables researchers to find truth that is orderly, lawful and most importantly, predictable from models and hypotheses. On the other hand, truth sought with qualitative strategies is usually bounded by temporal and spatial contexts, and is presented in a relative way. A quantitative strategy usually involves a large sample and its subjects, human or non-human, are clearly defined as variables. Therefore, a quantitative strategy has great strength in data analyses because the results are presented with a certain degree of certainty and specificity. This confidence in a large sample further allows for generalization, as the research setting is controlled and the sampling is somewhat representative. Quantitative strategy also produces powerful findings, given the large content scope and carefully designed research conditions.

Qualitative strategies, on the other hand, produce a holistic picture of the research, usually in small numbers, giving careful descriptions of the subjects' distinctive features. Qualitative studies are not limited by pre-determined hypotheses and can yield concepts, theories, and hypotheses for future studies. In comparison, the content scope of a qualitative research strategy is smaller and more complex than quantitative research; therefore, it has limited generalization capability. Moreover, in quantitative research, researchers are the planners of the study and they perform the study in such a way to attempt to eliminate biases that could create problems for the data analyses. In contrast,

in qualitative research, researchers can be considered not only as the planners, but also the instruments of the research process.

Because of the prescriptive role of the researcher in this study, a quantitative method is a better fit than a qualitative method. Therefore, the selection of quantitatively oriented methods is based on two rationales: objectivity, and confidence in data analyses. In the following section, I discuss the use of a survey as a way to implement the quantitative method for this study.

Survey (questionnaire)

According to Groves *et al.* (2004, p.2), a survey is a "systematic method for gathering information from (a sample of) entities for the purpose of constructing quantitative descriptors of the attributes of the large population of which the entities are members." Sapsford (2007) further points out that inference of causation or patterns of influence from systematic covariation can also be drawn from surveys. It should be noted that the survey methodology itself is multidisciplinary and includes both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods (Groves *et al.*, 2004; Krathwohl, 1993). A survey can include systematic interviewing and systematic observation, but in this study, I limit the scope of the survey to its quantitative part, i.e., the administration of a pre-designed questionnaire. In the following paragraphs, I examine the two stages of a survey life cycle from a design perspective, as proposed by Groves *et al.* (2004). It should be noted, however, that there are other ways of viewing the research cycle of surveys (e.g., Rosier, 1997). I also checked some of the basic assumptions of survey research to ensure satisfactory reliability and validity.

Representation stage of surveys

The representation stage of surveys is a scientific process of sampling, after which inferences of the characteristics of the population can be drawn from the characteristics of the sample. The representation stage includes identifying the target population, the utilizing the sampling frame, the attaining the sample and respondents, and doing some post-survey adjustments. The researchers are responsible for controlling and minimizing the non-observational errors (Groves *et al.*, 2004; Umbach, 2005) that can occur during this stage, including any coverage errors, sampling errors, nonresponse errors, and adjustment errors.

The ideal process of representation in surveys involves random sampling, including simple random sampling, clustered random sampling, and stratified random sampling. However, when it comes to real-world sampling, especially a small-scale project such as dissertation research, compromises usually have to be made for non-random sampling. Sapsford (2007) offers some alternatives to non-random sampling, when a sampling frame is not available due to the resource limitations. These alternatives, ranked on their desirability for close approximation of a random sampling strategy, are cluster non-random sampling, quota sampling, and haphazard sampling (samples of opportunity).

For the purpose of my study in which students from Mainland China and Hong Kong were selected and compared, I used the quota sampling strategy for the questionnaire portion. Quota sampling is a strategy in which the researcher sets out to build a sample by deliberate selection of cases that will represent the population in terms of predetermined variables, i.e., selecting cases to match the characteristics of the population based on some known variables. Furthermore, as the study focuses on students

within schools, I will employ two levels of sampling, which are discussed in more detail in the research design section.

Measurement stage of surveys

The measurement stage aims to draw inferences of the characteristics of a respondent from the respondent's answers to questions on the survey questions. The construction of the instrument and sampling come together during the data collection phase, during which time complete responses are given sufficient attention. The second half of the measurement stage involves data coding and editing (Groves *et al.*, 2004). The types of questions usually asked in a self-administered questionnaire contain factual questions and attitudinal questions (Tourangeau, Rips and Rasinski, 2000). Factual questions measure characteristics, behaviors, or circumstances, all of which are considered to be objective measures whereas attitudinal questions are subjective, based on personal beliefs and/or perceptions. The format of questions and statement formats also vary, so responses can be measured by Likert type answers or feeling thermometers (Groves *et al.*, 2004). There may also be vignettes, which are artificially constructed case descriptions, for respondents to consider and to report on what they would have done under such situations (Sapsford, 2007).

From a respondent's perspective, answering of the questions (i.e., the process of being measured) contains four stages: comprehension of the question, retrieval of information, judgment and estimation, and reporting an answer (Tourangeau, Rips and Rasinski, 2000; Groves *et al.*, 2004). The four tasks, however, do not necessarily require the respondent to progress in a fixed and orderly way, even though the tasks are presented sequentially in most of the literature. A good understanding of this process will reflect on

the measurement stage of survey design and reveal any problems with the instrument, such as clarity of the questions or quantification of the questions.

The measurement stage of questionnaire design includes mostly attitudinal questions which are obtained in an indirect or projective manner, along with some basic factual questions, the answers of which are obtained in a direct manner (Sapsford, 2007). As indicated in the research question and conceptual framework, attitudinal questions probe into factors that are associated with the respondents' attitudes, including various social and individual factors. Lastly, since the data collected from the questionnaires are self-reported, it is important to review some of the major assumptions of survey design and self-reported data.

Assumption checking

The assumption checking stage is a summary of possible caveats that may be encountered during the implementation stage. Its aim is to minimize the potential errors that could bias the results the survey, although it is virtually impossible to eliminate all errors in survey research.

Groves *et al.* (2004) summarize the two general categories of errors associated with the measurement and representation stages: observational and non-observational errors. In response to controlling these errors, Umbach (2005) puts forward 17 suggestions, as summarized in table 3.1. Of these causes and suggested coping strategies, I address the following strategies in the research design section:

- Clearly define the objective of my study and the attitudes towards the particular issues raised in the research questions.

- State the characteristics of the cities and schools and their relation to the
  quota sampling method.

- Acknowledge the implications and the limitations for generalizability.

The instrument validation process, as suggested by Sapsford (2007), involves standardization, the achievement of internal consistency and reliability, and validation of the instruments, including face validity and construct validity. Reliability refers to consistency of information from respondents across the sample, while validity is the extent to which the instruments correctly measure the operational constructs that the study sets out to explore.   Although reliability and validity refer to different concepts, the two are inherently related and satisfaction of both, not either, should be considered before the actual implementation.

The nature of educational research determines that the data obtained for this study would be self-reported. Gonyea (2005) reviewed the types of self-reported survey data in higher education settings, and some of his ideas were applied to this study, even though they Gonyea's surveys were given to middle school students. Self-reported data can be trusted given the satisfaction of rigorous scholarship on the instrument design and administration process. It would be desirable, however, to improve the quality of self-report data, taking into consideration the possibility of social desirability and halo effects.

Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement

Table 3.1: Types of errors commonly occurred in survey researches and suggested coping strategies

Types of error		Causes of error	Suggested coping strategy
Observational error	Measurement	• Poor wording of the questions • Bad construction of the questionnaire • Inappropriate data collection mode	• Have a definite objective • Pay close attention to question wording • Evaluate survey questions before implementation
	Process	• Data entry mistakes • Data coding difficulty • Existence of outlier	• Try to avoid open-ended questions • Search for outliers
Non-observational error	Coverage	• Members of the target population do not have an equal chance of being selected in the sample	• Maintain good data • Carefully choose the mode of collection
	Sampling	• Selected sample does not match the sampling frame	• Determine the appropriate sample size • Report confidential intervals • Consider stratified sampling
	Non-response	• Unit non-response: when a respondent does not complete the survey • Item non-response: when a respondent does not complete one or more questions in the survey	• Use multiple contacts • Keep the questionnaire brief • Focus on the sample • Know the target population • Check to make sure the respondents match the target population

Source: Umbach (2005), with adaptations from the author

Research Design: Comparative research with multiple schools in two cities

My research is a comparative analysis that includes Chinese cities under different political, social, and possibly cultural contexts. The first research design section provides the rationale for comparing a Mainland Chinese city with Hong Kong, a special administrative region (SAR) of China.

The field of comparative education has evolved over the past century and within the field, its purposes, perspectives, approaches, and methods have been discussed by various scholars (e.g., Arnove *et al.*, 1982; Noah, 1988; Broadfoot, 2001). Fairbrother (2005, p.6) summarizes the purpose of comparative education as "understanding our own and other countries' education system; improving, developing and reforming education systems, policy, and practices; predicting the success and consequences of educational change, and developing tools to aid in each of these endeavors through the construction of theoretical frameworks." For this study, although it does not involve multiple countries, the difference between the cities guarantees the significance of this intra-national comparison. As Bray and Thomas (1995) point out, the units of analyses in comparative studies range from the world to individual classrooms, and the significance of multi-society, intra-national comparisons is further emphasized by Crossley and Jarvis (2000). My study will enrich the literature of intra-national comparative studies as it includes both Hong Kong SAR and a large Mainland Chinese city.

Another important theme to be further enhanced is the methodology of comparative studies. Rust *et al.* (1999) categorized nine comparative research strategies according to their different levels of abstraction: literature review, historical analysis, experimentation, content analysis, field research, comparative research, and theoretical and conceptual

research. They also found that for comparative studies published in major professional

journals such as *Comparative Education Review*, *Comparative Education*, and

International Journal of Educational Development, the most common research strategy

has been literature review, and qualitative studies comprise a larger percentage of the

published studies. Thus, the authors call for more varied research strategies and

experimentation studies. Since publication of this journal article, more quantitative

studies have appeared in major comparative education professional journals.

Nevertheless, Rust *et al.'s* (1999) recommendations are still useful in comparative

education research today as more attention should be given to the study of

methodological issues in comparative education studies and the elaboration of

comparative strategies in published articles. In this methodology chapter, I have given

sufficient theoretical explanation in the previous section and provide practical guidance

in the following section for the strategies I employed for this comparative study.

Lastly, the comparative study of college students' national attitudes, critical

thinking, and political socialization patterns in Mainland China and Hong Kong by

Fairbrother (2003) sets a good example for future studies with similar purposes, including

a geographic focus and more refinement. Fairbrother (2005, p.14) points out that "while

the Hong Kong and Mainland cases are similar in that a dominant-group-led state utilizes

education to influence the political attitudes of the youth, they represent a theoretical

maximization along the spectrum of the intensity of political education in schools." His

study included various methods from observation, document analysis, interviews, and

surveys and the full results are reported in Fairbrother's (2003) book: *Towards Critical*

Patriotism. More importantly, the comparative strategy aided in the conceptualization,

refinement, and reconceptualization of the theoretical concepts such as critical thinking

and resistance, and it could not have been achieved as well had the differences between

Hong Kong and Mainland China not been elicited. One finding of his study is that

secondary school experiences are found to have an influence on students' attitudes

towards the nation and critical thinking disposition, and it is this finding that justifies the

need to look at students while they are still in secondary school. Although my main

research focus is different from that of Fairbrother's in that I am interested in examining

students' civic attitudes and civic engagement with a focus on social issues that affect the

development in the background of China's reform, the similar research focus and

geographic concern makes his study a good example from which to learn.

<div align="center">Participant Selection Mechanism</div>

Selection of cities

The selection of cities was the first step of this three-phase participant selection.

The selection of Hong Kong SAR and Shanghai was relatively simple and

straightforward. However, this selection was not based on convenience but based on the

geographic location, the features of the cities, and the policy implementations. It should

be noted that if the selection of cities from Mainland China could have been expanded,

the representation would have been more desirable.

The main advantages of choosing these cities is that both Hong Kong and Shanghai

are located along the East Coast, which is the most developed region of China. The

geographic location means these two cities share some common features such as being

commercial and financial centers, having leading positions in China's development, and

having diverse cultures associated with migration. As far as the demography is

concerned, both Shanghai and Hong Kong are large metropolitan areas composed of several millions of people with various backgrounds, Chinese and non-Chinese.

Another advantage is that both cities' policies have been issued to improve civic and citizenship education at the secondary school level, as part of the overall education reform in the new millennium. In addition, previous studies have compared Shanghai and Hong Kong, thus providing further foundation for a comparison between these two cities. One large-scale study is a comparative study of global citizenship (Lee and Gu, 2005) in which school principals and teachers in Shanghai and Hong Kong were surveyed about concepts and practices of global citizenship. There have also been other smaller scale comparative studies such as on the management of education in Hong Kong and Shanghai. Although Shanghai and Hong Kong as large metropolitan cities in China have been studied extensively in terms of education in general, the current comparative study is not be a redundancy of any kind.

Selection of schools

As far as the sites are concerned, three or four schools were selected from each city. The selection of schools was not random because of my limited resources and the large numbers of schools in Hong Kong and Shanghai. Currently, there are 566 middle schools in Hong Kong, and an equivalent number of schools in Shanghai. Therefore, the selection of only six to seven schools cannot fully represent the diversity of the thousands of schools in the two cities.

The selection of schools utilized purposeful sampling, and in particular, a mixture of purposeful random sampling and criterion sampling. Patton (2002, pp. 230-242) summarizes several kinds of sampling. A criterion sampling strategy is used to study all

cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance while purposeful random sampling adds credibility when the purpose sample is larger than one can handle. Although I set out some criteria for selection of schools, it was impossible to administer the instruments to all of the schools that met these criteria. Therefore, adding purposeful random sampling made the sampling more feasible as well as reduced possible biases within the purposeful category.

I identified three criteria for which the selected schools needed to meet. The first one was schools in which civic and moral education is considered an important part of the students' development. The reflection of this can usually be found in the school mission and/or ethos. Satisfying this criterion made the data collection more meaningful and made it more likely to have support from the school. The second criterion was to choose schools that used Chinese language (Mandarin and Cantonese) as the instruction medium, so this criterion excluded some of the schools in Hong Kong where English is used as the instruction language. The rationale for this criterion was to level the schools linguistically so that only one written language could be used for the questionnaire. The second criterion, however, did not guarantee that all students being surveyed would be Chinese, as there could be a small proportion of non-Chinese background students in Hong Kong attending Chinese-medium schools. The last criterion is that the schools would have an average class size of approximately 35-45 students. Class size can have profound influence on the classroom climate; therefore, controlling class size would reduce some biases or affect classroom climate.

As far as the type of the schools concerned, I matched the schools from both cities according to their banding. At least one key school (or top band school) and one ordinary

school (or second band school) from each city was selected. The third school was a non-public school and is considered as average to above average quality as far as students' achievement is concerned. A non-public school is defined as a school that does not receive government funding as its sole source of revenue. In Hong Kong, this type of school is called a government-subsidized school, meaning that they receive some, but not all funding from taxpayers; in Shanghai, a school like this is called a "socially run school" (*min ban*). [10]

Selection of students

For my study, I selected students from the eighth grade, i.e., students in the middle year of junior high secondary schools. This grade was chosen for the following three practical reasons. : First, students have more knowledge and experiences to utilize for measurement of civic attitudes, than the younger ones, and have more time than the ninth graders who are facing the pressure of examinations and continuing of education, and therefore would be less available. Second, since part of my survey instrument would be adapted from the second IEA Civic Study that tested 14-year-old students in 28 countries, it was more suitable to match the sample with the instruments. Third, it would be desirable to capture the students' civic development by conducting a study with multiple grades, but it would have added much more complications into the study. Thus, for the sake of feasibility, I surveyed only a single grade in this dissertation project.

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[10] [In Hong Kong, there are 566 middle schools in the academic year of 2006-07 (Hong Kong Education Bureau, 2007 http://www.edb.gov.hk/index.aspx?nodeid=139&langno=1) Detailed list can be found here: http://www.edb.gov.hk/index.aspx?langno=2&nodeID=5477
The list of all the junior high schools in Shanghai can be found at: http://www.shmec.gov.cn/web/jyzc/listInfo.php?areaId=985]

Within each school, a paper-based survey was administered to all of the eighth-grade classrooms. This strategy guaranteed a relatively large sample size because each school had 4-6 classes within the grade.

<div align="center">Data Collection Procedures and Instruments</div>

Before I elaborate on the implementation of fieldwork, it is necessary to briefly restate the design of my study. From fall 2008 to spring 2009, I conducted fieldwork of a comparative quantitative study of eighth-grade students' civic attitudes and civic engagement in two cities in China: Shanghai and Hong Kong SAR.

Instruments

The survey instrument consists of four parts: 1) students' background information, including gender, parental education and other socio-economic status items, 2) attitudinal responses to statements regarding three social issues as indicators of students' civic attitudes, 3) students' perceptions of the classroom atmosphere, their pattern of attending to and discussing current events, and participation in extracurricular activities, and 4) projective responses of students about their future engagement in relation to the attitudes measured in section two. The full instrument is listed in Appendix B.

The survey starts with background questions such as gender, expected education beyond ninth grade, whether they are a class council member, and their parental education. Following these basic questions are three questions related to students' attentiveness to news and events. The first part concludes with a question entitled "perception of citizenship," about which students are asked to evaluate the following six components of citizenship education on a 1-6 scale (very negative to very positive): citizen, people, democracy, participation, patriotism, and community.

The second part of the survey consists of 24 questions soliciting students' responses to attitudinal statements as a measurement of students' civic attitudes towards three social issues: legal justice, domestic migration and environment protection. The statements come from various sources based on previous studies on civic attitudes, especially those surveying adolescents (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001) or Chinese students (Zhuang, 2003; Liu and Wei, 2007). Some instruments (e.g., Cheung and Kwok, 1998), however, were adapted from surveys of college students or adults, and therefore were re-written in a way that is clear and understandable to middle school students. There are also a few new items that were written by the researcher.

Questions about students' classroom climate experiences and their extra-curricular activity participation related to the development of civic attitudes are included in the third part. Like the questions in the second part, the questions were either adapted from the second IEA Civic Study (Torney-Purta *et al.* 2001), from previous Chinese studies, or written by the researcher.

The last section of the questionnaire relates to students' civic engagement in two respects: their intended engagement and actual engagement. Students' intended engagement refers to their willingness to participate in activities in order to enhance people's civic consciousness in the future, while students' actual engagement refers to the frequency of their current participation in activities specifically related to the three social issues (legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. In addition, this section also includes a question about students' civic values and influence of the students' formation of civic values. Students' civic values include 15 items, about which items students perceived as important for these values, while the influence of students'

formation of civic values is a multiple choice question in which students are asked to indicate the strongest influence.

Piloting of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was piloted before its actual implementation via postal mail sent to China. The pilot group of students did not participate in the final survey administration. The researcher performed translation of the survey into Chinese and another person who is well versed in both Chinese and English did back translation to English. Some items were then removed from the questionnaire after the pilot, either because of language issues or they were confusing for the students.

Analysis of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was analyzed using the statistical software SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science). Descriptive statistics were used for the first question about the civic attitudes of eighth-grade students in Hong Kong and Shanghai. The means of each of the sub-scales of civic attitudes was calculated. In addition, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were performed to test the sub-scales of civic attitudes before their means were calculated. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then used to detect the statistical significance of differences between Hong Kong and Shanghai.

For question two, three, and four, I employed multiple regression with predictors grouped according to the categories defined in the research question. Some independent variables, such as open classroom climate, were composite scores and were created by scaling the items in the questionnaire together. Lastly, the regression beta of the predictors was compared to determine which of them were better predictors and could explain more variances in the Hong Kong sample versus the Shanghai sample.

Ethical Considerations: Balancing Sensitivity, Integrity and Quality

As an important part of the research design and methodology chapter, it is necessary to discuss some of the ethical considerations of my empirical work. To achieve this goal, I attempted to minimize sensitivity while protecting the integrity of both the researched group and the researcher.

A sensitive topic, according to Lee and Renzetti (1993, p.5), is "one that poses for those involved a substantial threat…[through] the collection, holding, and/or dissemination of research data." Sensitivity usually includes cultural, ethical and political issues. Common topics may include, but not limited to, sexual issues, drug use, and mental health topics, although social attitudes and public opinions on a large scale can also be considered sensitive to some extent. I would argue that for my own empirical work, the sensitivity, as well as its potential consequences were controlled at a feasible and practical level, although the survey instrument is not value-free.

Attitudinal and public opinion research that yields some politically undesirable results are more often than not large-scale projects conducted through massive representative sampling, but my work is considered a small-scale project because the research was conducted with one person, with little financial cost, demanding little more than the cost of travel and printing, and was completed in a relatively short period of time (Knight, 2002). Moreover, the unit of analysis was individual students placed in the context of schools and communities so the implication to national level policy making is indirect. Although conducting a small-scale project is not ideal for external validity with regards to generalization, it is a good compromise given the limited resources and time.

Another factor affecting validity is that being critical is not a synonym to being sensitive, but rather a state of being mediated and in progress. Therefore, attitudes towards critical social issues should not be considered as sensitive or dangerous. On the contrary, these attitudes could stimulate students' critical thinking ability and problem-solving skills, which are considered more important than memorizing facts and acquiring knowledge.

Finally, it should also be noted that the overall environment in China, especially in big cities, has become more open and welcoming to research on civic and citizenship education. There has also been research conducted with secondary school students regarding similar topics that I covered in my work. For example, Zhuang (2003) surveyed 1028 secondary school students in six schools in Fujian Province on their civic consciousness. Included in her instruments were questions regarding democratic participation and legal awareness, some of which were arguably taboo or suppressed to research in the past (Curran and Cook, 1993). Establishing the link between understanding civic attitudes to an overall effort to improve the quality of education is key to reducing the issue of sensitivity, at least in Mainland China. In Hong Kong where democratic participation is encouraged, the sensitivity issue is less of a concern.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS FROM STUDENTS IN SHANGHAI

This chapter presents the results of 728 questionnaires collected from students in Shanghai. The questionnaire contained four sections, which examine students' backgrounds and socialization information, their perceptions of citizenship and civic values, their civic attitudes towards three different social issues, and, their intended and actual civic engagement in their schools and communities. The results are presented using descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, and factor analysis of the created scales, and multiple regression to answer the research questions for this study.

Research question 1: What are students' perceptions of citizenship, civic values, their attitudes towards three social issues (hereafter civic attitudes), and their civic engagement?

Research question 2: Which factors are associated with students' civic attitudes, and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Research question 3: Which factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement, and how do these factors relate to students' civic engagement?

Research question 4: Which factors are associated with students' specific engagement with regard to three social issues? How do these factors relate to students' specific engagement? How, if any, does the inclusion of civic attitudes change the relationship between factors and students' engagement?

Research question five will be answered in Chapter six where a comprehensive comparison of the results from Hong Kong and Shanghai are provided.

Several scales were created based on the Shanghai student sample. Each scale uses a different number of items, hence, averaging was used when creating these scales in order to maintain consistency across these scales.

Students' Background Information

In Shanghai, 728 students completed questionnaires. A description of their demographic background is presented in table 4.1. There were slightly more males than females in this sample from Shanghai, and about three-fourths of the students were born in Shanghai. Students who were not born in Shanghai came from 25 provinces and/or municipalities of China.

Table 4.1: Shanghai students' demographic background information

Shanghai Students	Gender ratio			Birth Place		
N=728	Male: 54% (392)	Female: 45% (326)	Missing: 1% (10)	Shanghai: 74% (538)	Other places: 22% (157)	Missing: 4% (33)

These students had a relatively high level of expected education compared to their parents' education levels. For the Shanghai students, 38% expressed the desire to complete an undergraduate education, and these students' parents were roughly similar when combining a bachelor or an associate degree. However, when it came to postgraduate education, this disparity seemed to be wider: while less than 10% of the surveyed students' parents held postgraduate degrees, more than half of the students aspired to pursue postgraduate education. Although this is certainly good for the Chinese society which values education highly, the lack of variation in this variable consequently made analysis more difficult later, as will be discussed in upcoming sections. Later in the

regression analysis, students' parental education was used as an independent variable

while students' expected education was eliminated because of its lack of variation.

Table 4.2: Shanghai students' expected education and parental education level

Shanghai Students	Expected Education	Mother's Education	Father's Education
N=728	Junior high school: 1% (7) High school or secondary vocational: 3.8 % (18) Tertiary vocational: 6.3 % (46)	Junior high school or lower: 29.4% (224) High school or secondary vocational: 28.9 % (210)	Junior high school or lower: 25.5% (186) High school or secondary vocational: 26.9% (196)
	Undergraduate level: 37.8 % (274) Postgraduate level: 51% (370)	Undergraduate level (including 2-year associate degree): 37.7% (272) Postgraduate level: 3.6% (26)	Undergraduate level (including 2-year associate degree): 39.6% (283) Postgraduate level: 7% (50)
	Missing: .4 % (3)	Missing: .8% (6)	Missing: 1.8% (13)

In addition to the information listed in table 4.2, the questionnaire also contained

questions about students' attentiveness to current affairs, and their discussion of current

affairs. For example, students indicated up to three current affairs about which they are

most concerned. Out of the ten choices, the top three were 1) 2008 Beijing Olympics

(42.5%); 2) Educational Reform (42.1%); and 3) Building a Harmonious Society

(37.6%). In contrast, the issues they were least concerned about were 1) Health and

Medical Care Reform (9.5%), 2) Housing Reform (13.6%) and Anti-corruption

movement (14.2%). The ten items represented the most frequently broadcasted in

Chinese media at the time. The inclusion of this question was not to test students' specific

political knowledge, but rather to illustrate a picture of the students' attention to current

issues in the news. The reason the Beijing Olympics was ranked as the most important

issue was probably due to the fact that it was the most broadcasted news event that year.

This is not to say that students had been most engaged in or active with this event, but

rather that they had heard the most about it, and hence naturally thought this would be the

most interesting news (Law, 2010). Despite their interests in these news events, students'

limited time spent watching news and discussing news with other people indicated that

students did not have much time, or could not afford much time watching and discussing

news events. See table 4.3 for more detail.

Table 4.3: Shanghai students' attentiveness to news and current affairs

Weekly Hours	Watch news from the following channels			Discuss current events with the following group of people		
	Newspaper	TV	Internet	Parents	Teachers	Friends
0-2	78.4%	41.1%	52.5%	63.6%	89.7%	64.6%
3-5	13.5%	35.3 %	26.2%	25.4%	5.1%	23.2%
6-8	3.4%	15.4%	9.9%	6.6%	1%	6.9%
9-12	0.7%	3.3%	4.7%	1.4%	0.4%	2.1%
12 and above	0.8%	3.6%	3.6%	1.6 %	0.3%	1.6%
Missing	3.2%	1.4%	3.1%	1.4%	3.6%	1.5%
Average	1.27 (between 2-3 hours weekly)	1.92 (between 3-5 hours weekly)	1.76 (between 3-4 hours weekly)	1.5 (between 1-3 hours weekly)	1.1 (between 2-3 hours weekly)	1.51 (between 1-3 hours weekly)

Other background information collected included students' ages, their places of

birth (whether they were born in Shanghai or outside of Shanghai), their roles in school

and community, as well as their estimated annual household incomes. The descriptive

analysis revealed that 42.7% of the students had been class council members and 37.1%

of the students had volunteered in the community. Students were also asked about their

estimated annual household incomes, based on the six statistical categories provided by

the Shanghai Census Bureau. [11] These six categories were 1) under 20,000 RMB, 2)

20,000-40,000 RMB, 3) 40,000-60,000 RMB, 4) 60,000-80,000 RMB, 5) 80,000-

100,000 RMB and 6) 100,000 or more RMB. The average household income of the

surveyed Shanghai students fell between the third and fourth categories (with a mean of

3.64) and was estimated to be about 50,000 to 70,000 RMB per year (about $7352 to

$10294).

Statistical Results by Research Questions

Research Question 1: What are students' perceptions of citizenship, civic values, their attitudes towards the following three social issues: legal justice, domestic migration and environment protection, and their civic engagement?

Students' perception of citizenship is presented through analyses of the following

components: citizen, people, participation, democracy, patriotism, and community.

Students were asked to indicate how positive or negative they felt about these items on a

scale from 1 to 6 with (1) being very negative and (6) being very positive. These items

reflect the components of citizenship in the literature (Cogan and Derricott 2000;

Osborne, 2001) and according to the results of principal axis factor analysis, they load

nicely on one factor and hence are averaged to create a "citizenship perception scale."

(The reliability analysis also corresponds to the results of factor analysis, producing a

reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha=. 801.) Table 4.4 shows the descriptive

statistics (mean and standard deviation) and varimax rotated factor loading of the

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[11] The estimated annual household income divides student into six categories, based on information provided by Shanghai Censes Bureau and others. See: http://news.xinhuanet.com/politics/2008-03/25/content_7856691.htm For example, the lowest salary of a Shanghai person is RMB 960/ month, so the first category for a three-people-family household income (two adults and one child) is set at 20,000 RMB.
The average salary of a Shanghai person is reported at 39,502 RMB. See: http://bbs.book.sina.com.cn/thread-244-0/table-36471-2826.html) and therefore, the median category of annual household income is defined at 60,000-80,000 RMB.

"citizenship perception scale." From the table, it can be inferred that the Shanghai

students had an overall positive perception of all of the components of citizenship,

especially patriotism, which had an average rating of 5.25, indicating that most Shanghai

students felt positive or very positive about patriotism. The remaining five items did not

show much difference from each other, as all of them were between 4 and 5, (i.e.,

between somewhat positive and positive). Among these five items, citizen has the lowest

mean= (4.47) and democracy has the highest, second to patriotism (mean=4.63).

Varimax rotated factor loadings also show that these six items reflect the components of

citizenship very well. This scale of citizenship perceptions was used in regression

analysis in later sections, as it is a direct factor of citizenship education, (i.e., an direct

outcome feature of citizenship education).

Table 4.4: Shanghai students' citizenship perception

Items	Descriptive (mean and standard deviation)	Rotated Factor Loading
Citizen	4.47 (1.107)	.648
People	4.62 (1.007)	.685
Participation	4.56 (1.064)	.684
Democracy	4.63 (1.407)	.570
Patriotism	5.25 (1.111)	.598
Community	4.53 (1.067)	.616
		N= 724 Cronbach Alpha = .801

Civic values represent the important beliefs that citizenship education intends to

instill in young people (Cummings *et al.*, 2001). Table 4.5 presents information about 13

items related to civic values, the importance of which was indicated by students on a

scale from 1 (not at all important) to 4 (very important). These 13 items had a reliability

coefficient of .851 and were averaged to create the scale of "civic values." Although

students placed varying importance on these values, almost all of them thought they were

very important, resulting in a high postiveness of civic values. It is interesting to notice

that among these values, serving the public ranked the lowest, which may correspond to

their concerns about the recent generations of only-children in China (e.g., Fong, 2008;

Goldstein and Wang, 1996, Lau, 1996). Protecting the natural environment ranked top

among these items, revealing students' high level of endorsement of this value. The fact

that Shanghai students placed high importance on environment protection was an

important theme throughout the analyses, as also shown in their attitudes and engagement

with the environment.

Table 4.5: Shanghai students' civic value

Items	Descriptive (Mean and Standard Deviation)	Factor Loading
A stable society	3.62 (.605)	.490
A homeland safe from invasion	3.63 (.615)	.413
Good manners and etiquette	3.57 (.587)	.448
Freedom of speech	3.55 (.617)	.418
Performing responsibility in society	3.61 (.564)	.492
Self independence	3.52 (.657)	.418
Piety to parents	3.78 (.505)	.449
Serving the public	3.12 (.801)	.573
Trustworthiness	3.78 (.466)	.477
Protecting the natural environment	3.80 (.465)	.520
Equality	3.73 (.523)	.458
Tolerance of differences	3.67 (.577)	.547
Contribution to society	3.30 (.775)	.591
	$\alpha = .851$	

Students' civic attitudes

Students' attitudes towards three different social and civic issues were examined:

legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. A total of 24 statements

were created to represent the three issues, with 8 items per issue. All of the statements

start had the format: "I think it is good for society, when…" and those items that were

written in a negative sense were reverse-coded. For the analysis of these attitudinal items as well as the creation of the scales, principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation, followed by a reliability analysis were conducted for each of the three issues, and finally, the three issues as a whole were factor analyzed.

Attitudes towards legal justice. The eight items that contained students' attitudes towards legal justice were listed in table 4.6, all starting with "I think it is good for society, when…." Students were asked to indicate their level of agreement for each of these statements on a 1-4 scale: from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). From the descriptive statistics, it can be inferred that most students endorsed the positively worded statements, and there was a strong tendency of student support for the idea of legal justice which was represented in these items. Specifically, students agreed strongly with a fair legal system and honest law enforcement officers and disagreed that the law should only be made by smart people.

Factor analysis showed that these eight items represented two different dimensions, with items No. 1, 2, 5, 7 and 8 representing the first factor. Two out of the remaining three items, however, loaded quite evenly on two factors, and item No. 4 seemed to be a stand-alone component of the second factor. For further analysis, an average score of the five items (1, 2, 5, 7 and 8) was created to form a student civic attitude scale 1 (Cronbach's alpha =.71) The second factor was not included in further analysis due to the small number of items; however, these items were still worth investigating because they represented students' opinions on other aspects of legal justice.

Table 4.6: Shanghai students' attitudes towards legal justice

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
		Factor 1	Factor 2
1. <u>the basic rights of every citizen are protected by the court</u>.	3.44 (.631)	.507	
2. <u>all of the legal enforcement officers are honest</u>.	3.71 (.561)	.612	
3. harsh punitive procedures are used to reduce the crime rate.	2.61 (.936)	.189	
4. laws are made only by smart people.	2.44 (.914)		.544
5. <u>everyone is equal before the law</u>.	3.60 (.723)	.492	
6. people can do whatever they want according to their free will.	2.10 (.990)		.407
7. <u>the legal system is fair</u>.	3.67 (.560)	.672	
8. <u>violations of the law will be handled correctly</u>.	3.64 (.580)	.586	

N= 707 Cronbach's Alpha= .709 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Attitudes towards domestic migration. The eight items that contained students' attitudes towards domestic migration were listed in table 4.7. The three items that were worded in a negative sense (No. 2, 5 and 6) were reverse-coded for both the factor analysis and reliability analysis.

The items that students endorsed most were about social rights enjoyed by migrants compared to Shanghai natives. Shanghai students did not perceive migrants to be threatening (as most students disagreed that migrants took away work opportunities or created problems for Shanghai). Factor analysis and reliability analysis showed that four items (No. 1, 3, 7 and 8) loaded on the factor, namely, social benefits of domestic migration, and hence were averaged to create a scale for regression analysis in later sections of this chapter. The three negatively worded items loaded strongly on a second

scale, and they should be given more attention in future analyses and it will be an

interesting issue to examine in future research. However, due to the limited focus of this

chapter (only one scale per attitude was created), so this second possible scale is not

included.

Table 4.7: Shanghai students' attitudes towards domestic migration

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
		Factor 1	Factor 2
1. <u>new migrants, regardless of their occupations, bring diversity to the city</u>.	2.77 (.832)	.586	
2. working opportunities for Shanghai natives are threatened by new migrants.	1.96 (.822)		.452
3. <u>new migrants enjoy the same level of social benefit as Shanghai natives</u>.	3.06 (.813)	.802	
4. everyone has the right to choose the place to live and work.	3.19 (.811)		
5. new migrants create a lot of headache-inducing problems.	1.76 (.793)		.735
6. new migrants are treated unequally.	1.49 (.798)	-.373	.301
7. <u>most people sympathize with new migrants and treat them well</u>.	3.08 (.850)	.380	
8. <u>new migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Shanghai natives</u>.	3.15 (.779)	.677	

N= 708 Cronbach Alpha= .706 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Attitudes towards environment protection. The eight items that contained students'

attitudes towards environment protection were listed in table 4.8. Students' attitudes

towards environment protection were analyzed in the same fashion as the previous two.

Shanghai students have a very high environment awareness and are concerned about

environment problems, as indicated in their agreement to the statements. Overall, this

issue received the most attention and endorsement from Shanghai students. Compared to

issues of legal justice and domestic migration, attitudes towards environment protection were more positive. This positiveness can be attributed to the fact that environment protection is not only more tangible in daily school and community lives of eighth-grade students, but also they have more opportunities to actually participate in environment-related activities.

Despite an overall level of high agreement about the importance of environment protection, these items did not combine well enough to create an environment protection scale. As shown in table 4.8, the four items (No. 1, 4, 7, and 8) only had a Cronbach's alpha of .617, but this scale was kept for future analysis for the sake of consistency with the two previous issues.

Table 4.8: Shanghai students' attitudes towards environment protection

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
		Factor 1	Factor 2
1 <u>everyone has a strong awareness for environment protection</u>.	3.83 (.485)	.572	
2 more advanced technologies are implanted to solve environment problems.	3.15 (.864)	.390	.345
3 economic development is prioritized over environment protection.	1.70 (.937)		.618
4 <u>factories and manufactures shoulder more responsibility towards environment protection</u>.	3.66 (.630)	.500	
5 immediate actions are taken on environment protection.	3.56 (.708)	.437	
6 people are pessimistic about environment problems.	1.74 (.897)		.416
7 <u>everyone is concerned about environment problems</u>.	3.71 (.563)	.623	
8 <u>everyone feels capable of protecting the environment from individual level</u>.	3.50 (.643)	.465	

N= 708 Cronbach alpha= .617 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Inter-scale factor analysis

Out of the 24 statements regarding students' attitudes toward social issues, 13

statements were extracted to create three sub-scales of the students' civic attitudes.

Another set of principal axis factor analysis was performed to analyze the relationship

between these 13 items. The analysis is shown in table 4.9. From the factor loadings, it

can be inferred that although these three sub-scales of students' civic attitudes overlapped

with each other, they were relatively independent of each other, and hence were analyzed

as three scales rather than combined to create one "civic attitude" scale.

Table 4.9: Inter-scale factor analysis of Shanghai sample

	Factors		
Statement starts: It is good for society, when…	Domestic Migration	Legal Justice	Environment Protection
The basic rights of every citizen are protected by the court.		.535	
All of the legal enforcement officers are honest.		.568	
Everyone is equal before the law.		.409	
The legal system is fair.		.594	.355
Violations of the law will be handled correctly.		.444	.325
New migrants, regardless of their occupation, bring diversity to the city.	.568		
New migrants enjoy the same level of social benefits as Shanghai natives.	.769		
Most people sympathize with new migrants and treat them well.	.392		
New migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Shanghai natives.	.671		
Everyone has a strong awareness of environment protection.			.652
Factories and manufacturers shoulder more responsibility for environment protection.			.473
Everyone is concerned about environment problems.			.515
Everyone feels capable of protecting the environment at an individual level.			.345

Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Students' civic engagement

Civic engagement was operationalized through the items about students' behavior with a civic purpose and these behaviors were categorized into two kinds of engagement: actual engagement and intended engagement. While actual engagement specifically relates to the three social issues that the researcher was interested in, intended engagement was used to investigate an overall willingness to participate in activities to promote civic and moral education.

Actual engagement. With regard to the three social issues, the researcher asked students how often they participated in the following activities: 1) campaigns to raise legal awareness among adolescent; 2) legal education for youth; 3) donations to charities; 4) tutoring migrant children; 5) community clean-up; and 6) re-use and recycle. The six activities represent activities that students engage in at schools and in their communities, which relate to the three social issues that were examined in the previous section: legal justice, domestic migration and environment protection, with two items representing one issue. Ideally, it would be more desirable to include more items to examine a wider scope of activities that students participate in, not only to widen the range of civic engagement, but also for a better measurement of students' behaviors. However, it was not feasible in this questionnaire, partly due to the limitation in length. As a result, the actual engagement measurement may not accurately capture students' specific engagement, or lack thereof, related to the three issues examined, because there were only two issues related to each of the three social issues. Table 4.10 reveals that most students did not actively participate in these activities, and the frequency of participation rates fell mostly in the "almost never" and "a couple of times per semester" categories. Comparatively speaking, activities related to environment protection were the two that Shanghai students

participated in more often, as the average participation rate was about 2, which indicates

between" a couple of times per semester" and "a couple of times per month."

Table 4.10: Shanghai students' actual engagement

Frequency	Campaign about legal awareness	Legal education for youth	Donations to charities that help migrants	Tutoring migrant children	Community clean-up	Re-use and recycle
	Issue 1: Legal justice		Issue 2: Domestic migration		Issue 3: Environment protection	
Almost never	55.6%	62.9%	8.9%	86.5%	38.5%	38.6%
A couple of times per semester	32.7%	30.2%	78.7%	7.1%	32.4%	27.2%
A couple of times per month	6.5%	4.4%	10.9%	3.2%	16.3%	18%
A couple of times per week	4.8%	2.2%	1%	2.3%	10.4%	10%
Almost daily	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.7%	2.2%	5.4%
Missing	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%
Average	1.61 (A couple times per semester)	1.46 (Almost never)	2.05 (A couple times per semester)	1.23 (Almost never)	2.05 (A couple times per semester)	2.17 (A couple times per semester to a month)

Intended engagement. In the questionnaire, students were given a set of six

proposals to improve practices to promote people's civic awareness, and then were asked

to choose the most effective and the least effective one. In addition, students also

indicated the degree to which they would act on these proposals, on a scale from 1 (very

unwilling) to 4 (very willing). As the descriptive statistics show, students were willing to

act on the things they considered to be effective and less so on ineffective ones. These items represent an overall effort to raise people's civic awareness and civic values, which relate to the citizenship perception and civic value scale. Factor analysis and reliability analysis showed that these six items were internally consistent on the domain of "intended engagement" and hence they were averaged to create the "intended civic engagement" scale. Table 4.11 presents the details of this scale.

Table 4.11: Shanghai students' intended engagement

How effective are these proposals and how willing are you to act on them?	Perceived effectiveness		Mean & S.D.	Factor Loading
	Most	Least		
Promote civics through non-profit advertisements	20.1%	14.8%	2.65 (.891)	.546
Distribute pamphlets for people to read	5.4%	15.4%	2.97 (.853)	.633
Develop specific courses about civics and morality	9.6%	10.4%	2.62 (.941)	.642
Campaign through posters and banners in schools and communities (considered least effective by most students)	4.3%	38%	2.33 (.964)	.472
Propaganda of exemplary deeds	5.5%	10.4%	2.96 (.902)	.594
Self-improvement to influence others (considered most effective by most students)	54.9%	10.3%	3.46 (.780)	.363
			N= 719 Cronbach Alpha =.712	

Research question 2: Which factors are associated with students' civic attitudes and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Classroom climate and other direct factors

Researchers on civic education have found that the climate of the classroom in which the students learn has a strong influence on their attitudes (Torney-Purta *et al.* 2001). In my questionnaire, a total of 12 statements about classroom climate were

included based on and adapted from the second IEA civic education study in 28

countries. Students were asked about the frequency of the situations described in the

statements, from almost never to very often. Three statements described a relatively

closed classroom climate (e.g., teachers lecture and students take notes) and hence were

not included in the creation of the classroom climate scale. The nine items that are used

to create the classroom climate scale showed a high level of reliability (Cronbach Alpha=

.798). The average classroom climate can be described as "semi-open," as students

reported that teachers respect students' ideas and encourage student expression.

Especially those who had different opinions than the teachers occurred most frequently in

their classrooms of civics and morality. The introduction of current social issues into

classroom discussions and the encouragement of student discussion occurred least

frequently in their classrooms. This important socialization factor scale, together with

other factors regarding students' background, attentiveness to news and events, as well as

membership in extracurricular activity groups, was used in the regression analysis on

students' civic attitudes and civic engagement. Table 4.12 presents a detailed descriptive

analysis of the classroom climate scale.

Table 4.12: Shanghai students' perceived classroom climate

Items about perceived classroom climate	Descriptive: Mean (Standard Deviation)
We bring current social issues into classroom discussions.	2.77 (1.154)
Expressing our opinions is respected and encouraged by the teacher.	3.82 (1.167)
The teacher emphasizes the importance of learning facts when learning about political events.	3.45 (1.235)
The teacher encourages us to discuss social issues with people of different opinions.	2.80 (1.360)
The teacher shows us different opinions on the same issue in our classroom.	3.32 (1.229)
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from those of the majority of the class.	3.37 (1.416)
Students holding different opinions can discuss and exchange ideas freely.	3.43 (1.333)
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from that of the teacher.	3.08 (1.323)
The teacher encourages students holding a different opinion from his/hers to express themselves freely.	3.57 (1.231)
1: Almost never, 2: Occasionally 3: Sometimes 4: Often 5: Very frequently N=715	

Another important factor is students' participation in extra-curricular activities, including activities organized by class councils, those organized by the Chinese Communist Youth League (a mandatory organization in which all students participate), after school projects, student-run newspapers, an environment protection organization, and an organization that conducts volunteer service. Apart from their frequency of participating in these extra-curricular activities, students also indicated the most important reason for them to participate. Among them, "learning knowledge that would otherwise not be available in books" was the top reason (34.9% of the students chose this reason) and "it makes me feel happy" was the second reason (29. 1% of the students).

In addition, students were asked to name the most influential person (group of people) on their formation of their civic awareness. Among them, the most chosen group was parents (35.7%, 260 students) and the least chosen group was historical figures (7%, 51 students). Students also identified other influential sources such as a celebrity and TV. Although this item was not included as a predictor for regression analysis, it provided useful information on how students form their civic awareness. Table 4.13 provides details about the frequency of these sources.

Table 4.13: Influence on formation of civic awareness of Shanghai students

Sources of influence on formation of civic awareness	Frequency
Parents	35.7 % (N=260)
Teachers	10.6% (N=77)
Friends	11.8 % (N=86)
Famous historical people	7% (N=51)
Famous contemporary people	9.3% (N=68)
Popular culture (e.g., TV, movies, or novels)	13.9% (N=101)
School education	8.5% (N=62)
Others	1.8% (N=16)
Missing	1.4 (N=7)

Factors Relating to Civic Attitudes

Multiple regression analyses were performed on the three social issues, with the same set of eight factors of educational background, their citizenship perception and civic values, as well as other socialization factors including attentiveness to news, classroom climate, and participation in extra-curricular activities. Before the regression analyses, some preliminary correlations were performed to determine what predictor variables to include. Other background information (such as students' gender, place of birth, and their expected education level) did not seem to be significant predicators of either students' civic attitudes or engagement, and therefore were eliminated after performing initial bi-

variate correlations. Overall, all eight predictor variables explained a medium proportion (between 16% to 29%) of variation in the dependent variables.

The four indirect variables were 1) whether students are a member of class council, 2) their parental education level (an average between the mother's and father's education), 3) their weekly time spent watching news, and 4) their weekly time spent discussing news and events. Being a class council member does not seem to relate much to the variation to students' civic attitude, except for the attitude towards environment protection. Parental education is associated with attitudes towards both domestic migration and environment protection. However, this association is negative when it comes to domestic migration attitudes. Hence, more interpretation is needed to explain why the higher the parental education level, the less favorable the students' attitudes were towards domestic migration. Students' attention to and discussion of news also had similar mixed effects, in that they showed both positive and negative associations with students' civic attitudes.

School-related variables, or direct factors related to citizenship education; on the other hand, they played a much more important role in associating with students' civic attitudes. The citizenship perception scale and the formed civic value scale consistently explained a large proportion of the variations in the dependent variables. As a matter of fact, these two were the strongest predictors across the three attitudes, not only in terms of coefficients, but also with regard to statistical significance. However, classroom climate was only statistically significant in association with students' attitudes towards domestic migration, but not for the other two attitudes. Further analyses will be needed to look into the make-up of the classroom climate, particularly the ways in which the

specific method of teacher-student interaction should be analyzed, and students'

perceived classroom dynamics. The last school-related variable, membership in extra-

curricular activities group, did not seem to be a very strong predictor associated with

students' civic attitudes, nor was the association statistically significant. The results of

multiple regression are presented in the tables below:

Table 4.14: Factors related to Shanghai students' civic attitudes: Legal justice

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.45 (.497)	.013	.028	.016
Parental Education Level	4.17 (1.646)	-.007	.008	-.029
Weekly Time Watching News	1.64 (.636)	-.015	.024	-.023
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.37 (.539)	.053	.029	.070
Citizenship Scale	4.66 (.791)	.133	.019	.259***
Civic Value Scale	3.58 (.351)	.411	.043	.355***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.30 (.788)	.026	.018	.051
Participation in ECA Scale	1.83 (.535)	-.019	.026	-.025

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Legal Justice Mean: 3.61, Standard Deviation: .406 (N=639)

$R^2 = .289$, adjusted $R^2 = .290$, * indicates p<.05, ** indicates p<.01, *** indicates p<.001

Table 4.15: Factors related to Shanghai students' civic attitudes: Domestic migration

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.44 (.497)	.000	.044	.000
Parental Education Level	4.16 (1.640)	-.027	.013	-.075*
Weekly Time Watching News	1.65 (.646)	.021	.037	.023
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.38 (.541)	-.080	.045	-.073
Citizenship Scale	4.68 (.789)	.093	.031	.124**
Civic Value Scale	3.59 (.350)	.435	.069	.256***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.29 (.784)	.113	.029	.149***
Participation in ECA Scale	1.82 (.533)	.037	.042	.033

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Domestic Migration Mean: 3.02, Standard Deviation: .593 (N=646)
$R^2 = .161$, adjusted $R^2 = .150$, * indicates p<.05, ** indicates p<.01, *** indicates p<.001

Table 4.16: Factors related to Shanghai students' civic attitudes: Environment protection

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.44 (.497)	.063	.028	.081*
Parental Education Level	4.18 (1.642)	.017	.008	.071*
Weekly Time Watching News	1.65 (.645)	-.069	.024	-.117**
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.37 (.536)	.040	.029	.056
Citizenship Scale	4.68 (.784)	.070	.019	.143***
Civic Value Scale	3.59 (.349)	.366	.043	.334***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.30 (.781)	.003	.018	.007
Participation in ECA Scale	1.83 (.531)	-.048	.026	-.067

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Environment Protection Mean: 3.69, Standard Deviation: .383 (N=452)
$R^2 = .201$, adjusted $R^2 = .191$, * indicates p<.05, ** indicates p<.01, *** indicates p<.001

Research question 3: What factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement and how do these factors influence students' civic engagement? How does the inclusion of civic attitudes, change, if any, the relationship between the factors and students' engagement?

Factors related to civic engagement

I performed three sets of multiple regression analyses: 1) the same set of eight predictors as the regression analyses of the three civic attitudes; 2) three predictors of civic attitudes, and 3) a hierarchical regression in which the 11 predictors were all included, but entered as two blocks. In table 4.17, three R-square coefficients from the three sets of regressions are presented along with discussions of these predictor variables. This question reflects the connection between civic attitudes and civic engagement, as indicated in the conceptual framework.

From these regression results, it can be seen that if these two blocks of predictors are independent from each other (with no correlations), then the R square of them combined should be .339 (.409=.219+.120). However, because these variables are correlated with each other (but not high enough to cause multicollinearity problems), the R square of an 11-predictor model does not add up to as high as .339, but only to .229. Hence, it can be inferred that there is an indirect effect from some of the predictors.

The unique effect (R square) of the 3-predictor model should be .010 (.012=.229-.219), whereas the unique effect (R square) of the 8-predictor model should be .109 (.191= .229-.120). Hence, the shared effect between these two blocks of variables is .187 (.103= .306-.109-.010).

Civic value consistently showed a strong relationship with civic attitudes and engagement variables. The three civic attitudes were also positively associated with civic engagement; however, because their correlations with the dependent variables were not as strong as some of the school-related variables, the correlation was mediated and when a combined model of 11 predictors were fit.

Table 4.17: Factors related to Shanghai students' intended civic engagement

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Block 1				
Class Council Member	.45 (.498)	.058	.040	.052
Parental Education Level	4.18 (1.643)	-.015	.012	-.045
Weekly Time Watching News	1.64 (.638)	.043	.034	.049
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.37 (.533)	.066	.042	.064
Citizenship Scale	4.69 (.788)	.084	.028	.119**
Civic Value Scale	3.59 (.349)	.442	.062	.278***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.30 (.788)	.099	.026	.140***
Participation in ECA Scale	1.83 (.535)	.113	.038	.108**

$R^2 = .219$ adjusted $R^2 = .209$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Block 2				
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.61 (.405)	.250	.060	.175***
Attitudes towards domestic migration	3.02 (.590)	.184	.037	.190***
Attitudes towards environment protection	3.69 (.384)	.133	.060	.091*

Dependent variable: Students' intended civic engagement Mean= 2.83 Standard Deviation= .561 N= 614
$R^2 = 120$ adjusted $R^2 = .116$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001
$R^2 = 229$ adjusted $R^2 = .215$ (for the 11 predictors)

Research question 4: What factors are associated with students' specific engagement with regard to the three social issues? How do these factors relate to students' specific engagement? How does the inclusion of civic attitudes, change the relationship between the factors and students' engagement?

The analysis format of this research question is almost identical to the previous one.

Three dependent measures of actual engagement were used in this analysis,

corresponding with the three social issues: legal justice, domestic migration, and

environment protection. The three tables (tables 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20) present the results of

these analyses.

Table 4.18: Factors related to Shanghai students' actual civic engagement: Legal justice

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.45 (.497)	-.019	.051	-.014
Parental Education Level	4.17 (1.646)	-.002	.015	-.006
Weekly Time Watching News	1.64 (.636)	-.013	.043	-.012
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.37 (.539)	.114	.053	.092*
Citizenship Scale	4.66 (.791)	.037	.035	.043
Civic Value Scale	3.58 (.351)	.012	.079	.006
Classroom Climate Scale	3.30 (.788)	.004	.034	.005
Participation in ECA Scale	1.83 (.535)	.380	.048	.301***

$R^2 = .112$ adjusted $R^2 = .101$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.61 (.406)	.064	.063	.038

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Legal Justice (Mean=1.54, Standard Deviation=.671, N=639)

$R^2 = 001$ adjusted $R^2 = .000$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

$R^2 = 116$ adjusted $R^2 = .103$ (for the 9 predictors)

Table 4.19: Factors related to Shanghai students' actual civic engagement: Domestic

migration

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.44 (.497)	.017	.033	.020
Parental Education Level	4.16 (1.640)	.006	.010	.023
Weekly Time Watching News	1.65 (.646)	.057	.029	.084*
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.38 (.541)	.008	.035	.010
Citizenship Scale	4.68 (.789)	-.002	.023	-.003
Civic Value Scale	3.59 (.350)	.039	.052	.031
Classroom Climate Scale	3.29 (.784)	.038	.022	.069
Participation in ECA Scale	1.82 (.533)	.188	.032	.230***

$R^2 = .082$ adjusted $R^2 = .080$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards Domestic Migration	3.02 (.593)	.073	.029	.094*

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Domestic Migration. Mean=1.64, Standard Deviation=.438 N=646

$R^2 = 009$ adjusted $R^2 = .008$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

$R^2 = 081$ adjusted $R^2 = .068$ (for the 9 predictors)

Table 4.20: Factors related to Shanghai students' actual civic engagement: Environment protection

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.44 (.497)	.043	.070	.022
Parental Education Level	4.17 (1.641)	.020	.021	.035
Weekly Time Watching News	1.65 (.645)	.060	.060	.040
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.37 (.536)	.193	.073	.108*
Citizenship Scale	4.68 (.784)	.032	.049	.026
Civic Value Scale	3.59 (.349)	.217	.109	.079*
Classroom Climate Scale	3.30 (.782)	.059	.047	.048
Participation in ECA Scale	1.83 (.531)	.609	.066	.336***

$R^2 = .179$ adjusted $R^2 = .169$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards environment protection	3.69 (.383)	.196	.093	.079*

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Environment Protection (Mean =2.11, Standard Deviation=.968, N=643)
$R^2 = 009$ adjusted $R^2 = .008*$ indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001
$R^2 = 184$ adjusted $R^2 =. 172$ (for the 9 predictors)

Only two items were averaged to create each scale of actual engagement for each of the issues. These scales were not as robust or reliable compared to the other scales that were created; hence, there could be some measurement issues that hinder an accurate capturing of students' actual civic engagement. Thus, caution should be taken when interpreting these regression results. Therefore, these three models of students' actual civic engagement did not have as high of R squares compared to the model of students'

intended civic engagement, mainly due to the fact that the dependant variables were not as reliable as the previous one. Overall, the models only explained about 10 % of the variations, except for the model of students' engagement related to environment protection. Students' participation in extra-curricular activities was the strongest predictor in these three models, whereas citizenship perception, civic values and classroom climate did not seem to be strong or positive predictors across three models. Except for the first model of actual civic engagement (legal justice), the correlations between students' civic attitudes and civic engagement were significant, albeit moderate.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS FROM STUDENTS IN HONG KONG

In this chapter, the same set of research questions that were answered in Chapter 4 are answered, through the analysis of 584 questionnaires collected in three public middle schools in Hong Kong. The research questions are:

Research question 1: What are students' perceptions of citizenship, civic value, their attitudes towards the three social issues (hereafter civic attitudes), and their civic engagement?

Research question 2: What factors are associated with students' civic attitudes and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Research question 3: What factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement and how do these factors relate to students' civic engagement?

Research question 4: what factors are associated with students' specific engagement with regard to the three social issues? And how do these factors relate to students' specific engagement? How does the inclusion of civic attitudes, change the relationship between factors and students' engagement?

Research question 5 is answered in Chapter 6, where a comprehensive comparison of the results from Hong Kong and Shanghai, including the contextual differences of these two cities regarding citizenship education reform is provided.

Students' Background Information

A total of 584 students in Hong Kong completed questionnaires. A description of their demographic backgrounds is presented in table 5.1. Like students in Shanghai, there were slightly more male students than female students in Hong Kong. Although there

were also a small number of students who were not born in Hong Kong, most of them came from Guangdong, the Mainland province that boarders Hong Kong.

Table 5.1: Hong Kong students' demographic background information

Hong Kong Students	Gender ratio			Birth Place		
N=584	Male: 52% (304)	Female: 45% (261)	Missing: 3% (19)	Hong Kong: 79% (463)	Other places: 17% (101)	Missing: 4% (20)

The Hong Kong students' expected education level was higher than those of their parents, as shown in table 5.2. Less than 15 percent of Hong Kong students' parents had post-secondary education, while almost half of the Hong Kong students aspired to attend tertiary education. In addition, because the mothers' education levels and fathers' education levels were highly correlated with each other (Pearson R=.78), a new variable called "parental education" was created, which took the average of the mother's education and father's education of a given student. This new variable was used in the regression analyses that appear in later sections in this chapter in order to avoid a potential problem of multi-collinearity.

Table 5.2: Hong Kong students' educational background information

Hong Kong Students	Expected Education	Mother's Education	Father's Education
N=584	Undergraduate level: 19.3 % (113) Postgraduate level: 24% (140)	Undergraduate level (include 2-year associate degree): 7.7% (45) Postgraduate level: 3.6% (21)	Undergraduate level (include 2-year associate degree): 7.9% (46) Postgraduate level: 4.6% (27)

Hong Kong students also identified in the survey the current news items and events that they were most (and least) concerned about. Out of the 10 choices, the three most chosen ones were 1) Educational Reform (46.7%); 2) Beijing Olympics (31.8%); and 3) Building a Harmonious Society (28.1 %). In addition, some students also indicated that they were concerned about the earthquake that happened in Sichuan province (1%) and the financial crisis in Hong Kong (1%). Health and Medical Care Reform (7%), Housing Reform (11.3%), and Sino-Japan relations (12.7%) were the bottom three news items or events that Hong Kong students were least concerned about. Although Hong Kong students showed relatively high concern about some of these events, their weekly time spent watching news through various channels and discussing events with different groups of people was still very low. As table 5.3 indicates, most of the students spent less than 2 hours per week watching and discussion news.

Table 5.3: Hong Kong students' attentiveness to current affairs

Weekly Hours	Watch news from the following channels			Discussing current events with the following group of people		
	Newspaper	TV	Internet	Parents	Teachers	Friends
0-2	79.6%	46.1%	51%	79.6%	83.9%	80.8%
3-5	13.7%	33.7 %	26.2%	15.6%	11.6%	14.7%
6-8	3.1%	11.1%	9.4%	1.4%	1%	1.5%
9-12	0.7%	3.3%	3.9%	0.5%	0%	0.5%
12 and above	1.9%	5.1%	7.9%	1.7 %	2.4%	1.7%
Missing	1%	0.7%	1.2%	1.2%	2.1%	0.7%
Average	1.30 (between 2-3 hours weekly)	1.87 (between 3-5 hours weekly)	1.89 (between 3-5 hours weekly)	1.27 (between 1-3 hours weekly)	1.2 (between 1-3 hours weekly)	1.26 (between 1-3 hours weekly)

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Statistical Results by Research Questions

Research Question 1: What are students 'perceptions of citizenship, civic values, their civic attitudes towards the following three social issues: legal justice, domestic migration and environment protection, and their civic engagement?

Citizenship perception and civic value

Students' perceptions of citizenship was presented through analysis of the following items: citizen, people, participation, democracy, patriotism, and community. Like their Shanghai counterparts, Hong Kong students were asked to indicate how positive or negative they felt about these (terms) on a scale from 1 to 6 with (1) being very negative and (6) being very positive. These items reflect the components of citizen in the literature (Cogan and Derricott 2000; Osbornne, 2001), and according to according to the results of principal axis factor analysis, they loaded nicely on one factor and hence were averaged to create a "citizenship perception scale" (alpha=. 852). Table 5.4 shows the descriptive, inter-item correlations and factor loading of the "citizenship perception scale." On average, Hong Kong students felt positive about the components of citizenship, especially that of patriotism and participation, as the mean perception score was between "somewhat positive" and "positive." Other items, although somewhat lower, were also positively perceived by the Hong Kong students that were surveyed.

Table 5.4: Hong Kong students' citizenship perception

	Descriptive (mean and standard deviation)	Rotated Factor Loading
Citizen	4.40 (0.950)	.742
People	4.36 (0.941)	.787
Participation	4.57 (0.938)	.746
Democracy	4.47 (1.225)	.664
Patriotism	4.77 (1.222)	.630
Community	4.53 (0.927)	.698
	N= 578 Cronbach Alpha = .852	

Civic values represent the important beliefs that citizenship education intends to instill in young people (Cummings *et al.*, 2001). Table 5.5 presents information about the 13 items on civic values, the importance of which were indicated by Hong Kong students on a scale from 1 (not at all important) to 4 (very important). Like the previous scale of citizenship perception, this civic values scale also showed a positive orientation for Hong Kong students' perceptions towards these civic values, as most of these items had an average score between 3 and 4, i.e., between "important" and "very important." The only item that had an average below 3 was "serving the public," while two items shared the top rank of an average of 3.54: "equality" and "tolerance of differences." This high ranking also correlated with the fact that Hong Kong students possess more favorable attitudes towards the diversity of migrants from other places, as shown in the civic attitudes analysis in later sections.

Table 5.5: Hong Kong students' civic values

Items	Descriptive (Mean and Standard Deviation)	Factor Loading
A stable society	3.37 (.695)	.275
A homeland safe from invasion	3.20 (.785)	.233
Good manners and etiquette	3.19 (.714)	.566
Freedom of speech	3.38 (.686)	.575
Performing responsibility to society	3.28 (.691)	.714
Self independence	3.23 (.752)	.601
Piety to parents	3.39 (.698)	.566
Serving the public	2.97 (.754)	.554
Trustworthiness	3.36 (.692)	.747
Protecting the natural environment	3.44 (.678)	.617
Equality	3.54 (.617)	.535
Tolerance of differences	3.54 (.694)	.641
Contribution to society	3.19 (.760)	.563
	$\alpha = .902$	

Students' civic attitudes

Hong Kong students' attitudes towards three different issues were examined in the same format as those of Shanghai students: legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. A total of 24 statements were created starting with the format: "I think it is good for society, when…". Principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation and reliability analysis were conducted for each of the three issues.

Attitudes towards legal justice. Factor analysis of Hong Kong students' attitudes towards legal justice showed a similar pattern to that of Shanghai students. The eight items represent two different dimensions, with items No. 1, 2, 5, 7 and 8 representing the first factor, and No. 3, 4, and 6 representing a second, albeit much weaker factor. For further analysis, an average score of the five items (1, 2, 5, 7 and 8) was created as students' civic attitude scale 1 (Cronbach's alpha =.815).

Table 5.6: Hong Kong students' attitudes towards legal justice

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
		Factor 1	Factor 2
1 the basic rights of every citizen are protected by the court.	3.21 (.559)	.566	
2 all of the legal enforcement officers are honest.	3.42 (.666)	.717	
3 harsh punitive procedures are used to reduce the crime rate.	2.76 (.839)		.417
4 laws are made only by smart people.	2.50 (.800)		.672
5 everyone is equal before the law.	3.54 (.632)	.658	
6 people can do whatever they want according to their free will.	2.54 (.895)		.320
7 the legal system is fair.	3.48 (.626)	.744	
8 violations of the law will be handled correctly.	3.44 (.650)	.690	

N= 578 (listwise) Cronbach Alpha= .815 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Attitudes towards domestic migration. The eight statements were worded in the same way as in the Shanghai student questionnaire, except "Hong Kong" replaced "Shanghai" to indicate the specific location. Students were asked their level of agreement with these statements on a 1-4 scale: from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4), and the three items that were worded in a negative sense were reverse-coded.

Hong Kong students gave their highest endorsement to the rights of people to choose the place to live and work, followed by the diversity brought by migrants. However, when it came to social benefits and welfare, Hong Kong students' opinions diverge. Factor analysis and reliability analysis showed that four items (No. 1, 3, 7 and 8) loaded on one factor and they were averaged to create a score for future analysis.

Table 5.7: Hong Kong students' attitudes towards domestic migration

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
		Factor 1	Factor 2
1 <u>new migrants, regardless of their occupations, bring diversity to the city</u>.	3.06 (.682)	.533	
2 working opportunities of Hong Kong natives are threatened by new migrants. (reverse-coded)	2.82 (.770)		.494
3 <u>new migrants enjoy the same level of social benefit as Hong Kong natives</u>.	2.84 (.809)	.714	
4 everyone has the right to choose the place to live and work.	3.21 (.684)	.409	
5 new migrants create a lot of headache-inducing problems. (reverse-coded)	2.94 (.801)		.771
6 new migrants are treated unequally. (reverse-coded)	3.09 (.858)		.609
7 <u>most people sympathize with new migrants and treat them well</u>.	2.95 (.752)	.520	
8 <u>new migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Hong Kong natives</u>.	2.81 (.783)	.633	

N= 575 (listwise) Cronbach Alpha= .698 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Attitudes towards environment protection. . Like the two other social issues

mentioned above, students' attitudes towards environment protection were analyzed in

the same fashion. After conducting factor analysis and reliability analysis, as shown in

table 5.8, I averaged the four items (No. 1, 4, 7, and 8) that had a Cronbach alpha of .744,

to create the third civic attitude scale. In this way, all three civic attitudes were scaled,

using the same items from both questionnaires, to ensure further comparability between

Shanghai and Hong Kong students.

Table 5.8: Hong Kong students' attitudes towards environment protection

Statements starting with "It is good for society, when…"	Descriptive	Factor Loadings	
1 <u>everyone has a strong awareness of environment protection</u>.	3.50 (.694)	.694	
2 more advanced technologies are implanted to solve environment problems.	2.85 (.828)		.403
3 economic development is prioritized over environment protection.	2.27 (.913)		.703
4 <u>factories and manufacturers shoulder more responsibility towards environment protection</u>.	3.43 (.717)	.577	
5 immediate actions are taken on environment protection.	3.29 (.719)	.640	
6 people are pessimistic about environment problems.	1.95 (.929)		.600
7 <u>everyone is concerned about environment problems</u>.	3.46 (.683)	.720	
8 <u>everyone feels capable of protecting the environment at the individual level</u>.	3.37 (.648)	.616	

N= 577 (listwise) Cronbach alpha= .744 underlined: items used to create the scale
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table

Inter-scale factor analysis. As indicated in table 5.9, 13 statements regarding Hong

Kong students' attitude toward social issues were extracted to create three sub-scales of

students' civic attitudes: legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection.

The results produced a very similar pattern to the same three civic attitude scales

produced from the Shanghai sample.

Table 5.9: Inter-scale factor analysis of Hong Kong sample

Statements start with: "It is good for society, when…"	Legal Justice	Domestic Migration	Environment Protection
		Factors	
The basic rights of every citizen are protected by the court.	.532		
All of the legal enforcement officers are honest.	.647		
Everyone is equal before the law.	.619		
The legal system is fair.	.688		
Violations of the law will be handled correctly.	.647		
New migrants, regardless of their occupations, bring diversity to the city.		.459	
New migrants enjoy the same level of social benefit as Hong Kong natives.		.688	
Most people sympathize with new migrants and treat them well.		.486	
New migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Shanghai natives.		.699	
Everyone has a strong awareness of environment protection.	.436		.483
Factories and manufacturers shoulder more responsibility for environment protection.	.389		.401
Everyone is concerned about environment problems.			.678
Everyone feels capable of protecting the environment at the individual level.			.661
Note: factor loadings less than .3 are suppressed from the table			

Students' Civic Engagement

Civic engagement is operationalized through students' behaviors with a civic

purpose and these behaviors are categorized into two kinds of engagement: actual

engagement and intended engagement. The former specifically relates to the three social

issues, the latter, intended engagement investigates an overall willingness to participate in

activities to promote civic and moral education.

Actual engagement. With regard to the three social issues, students were asked their

frequency in participating in the activities, on a scale from 1 to 5, with 1 meaning "almost

never" and 5 meaning " almost daily." Table 5.10 reveals that most Hong Kong students

do not actively participate in these activities, and the frequency of participation fell

mostly in the "almost never" and "a couple times per semester" categories. A very similar

pattern was also discovered in the questionnaire that Shanghai students completed; hence,

future regression analyses that involve this kind of civic engagement should be

interpreted with caution, due to the lack of variation in these participation scores.

Table 5.10: Hong Kong students' actual engagement

Frequency	Campaign about legal awareness	Legal education for youth	Donations to charities	Tutoring migrant children	Community clean-up	Re-use and recycle
	Issue 1: Legal justice		Issue 2: Domestic migration		Issue 3: Environment protection	
Almost never	70.7%	76.0%	28.4%	80.3%	46.9%	25.5%
A couple times per semester	21.2%	17.1%	48.3%	11.5%	29.5%	31.8%
A couple times per month	4.3%	3.9%	18.3%	5.3%	11.3%	20.7%
A couple times per week	1.5%	1.5%	3.6%	1.7%	6.0%	14.6%
Almost daily	1.7%	0.9%	0.9%	0.7%	5.7%	6.8%
Missing	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.7%	0.5%
Average	1.41 (A couple times per semester)	1.33 (Almost never)	2.00 (A couple times per semester)	1.30 (Almost never)	1.93 (A couple times per semester)	2.45 (A couple times per semester to a month)

Intended engagement. Students were also given a set of six proposals to improve practices promoting people's civic awareness, and were asked to choose the most effective and the least effective ones. In addition, they also indicated the degree to which they would act on these proposals, on a scale from 1 (very unwilling) to 4 (very willing). "Promote civics through non-profit advertisements" was considered most useful by the largest percentage of Hong Kong students, while "campaigns through posters and banners in schools and communities" was considered least effective. Students were willing to act on the things they considered to be effective and less so on the ineffective ones. Interestingly, the proposal to engage in "self-improvement to influence others," which was the activity Hong Kong students were most willing to act on, attracted a relatively large number of students in both ways of perceived effectiveness: with 31.5% of the Hong Kong students thinking it would be the most effective proposal, and 19.7% considering it to be the least effective. Factor analysis and reliability analysis revealed that these six items were internally consistent in the domain of "intended engagement," and hence they were averaged to create the "intended civic engagement" scale.

Table 5.11: Hong Kong students' intended engagement

How effective are these proposals and how willing are you to act on them?	Perceived effectiveness		Mean & S.D.	Factor loading
	Most	Least		
Promote civics through non-profit advertisements	38.0%	6.3%	2.40 (.808)	.610
Distribute pamphlets for people to read	3.9%	19.0%	2.51 (.788)	.678
Develop specific courses of civics and morality	9.8%	14.4%	2.31 (.832)	.650
Campaign through posters and banners in schools and communities	4.6%	27.7%	2.41 (.864)	.611
Propaganda of exemplary deeds	9.8%	9.9%	2.67 (.850)	.674
Self-improvement to influence others	31.5%	19.7%	2.90 (.905)	.509
			N= 579 Cronbach's Alpha =.789	

Research question 2: Which factors are associated with students' civic attitudes and how do these different factors relate to students' civic attitudes?

Classroom climate and other direct factors

A total of 12 statements about classroom climate were included in the Hong Kong students' survey, based on and adapted from the second IEA civic education study in 28 countries (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001). Students were asked about the frequencies of the situations described in the statements, from "almost never" to "very often." Three statements describing a relatively closed classroom climate (e.g., teachers lecture and students take notes) were not included in the scale. The nine items that are used to create the classroom climate scale showed a high level of reliability (Cronbach Alpha= .877).

Table 5.12: Hong Kong students' perceived classroom climate

Items about perceived classroom climate	Descriptive: Mean (Standard Deviation)
We bring current social issues into classroom discussions.	3.18 (1.132)
Expressing our opinions is respected and encouraged by the teacher.	3.61 (1.046)
The teacher emphasizes the importance of learning facts when learning about political events.	3.38 (1.017)
The teacher encourages us to discuss social issues with people of different opinions.	3.26 (1.118)
The teacher shows us different opinions on the same issue in our classroom.	3.45 (1.066)
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from those of the majority of the class.	3.31 (1.144)
Students holding different opinions can discuss and exchange ideas freely.	3.52 (1.054)
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from that of the teacher.	3.45 (1.129)
The teacher encourages students holding a different opinion from his/hers to express themselves freely.	3.55 (1.050)
1: Almost never, 2: Occasionally 3: Sometimes 4: Often 5: Very frequently N=570	

Another important factor was students' participation in extra-curricular activities, for which Hong Kong students indicated their frequency of participation in the same six categories of extra-curricular activities, except for one. While participating in the Chinese Communist Youth League is mandatory for all Mainland students in eighth grade or above, this is not the case in Hong Kong. As a result, a youth chapter of a political party replaced the "Chinese Communist Youth League" item to maintain a similar category. Hong Kong students were also given a space to write in other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (youth chapters) in which they are members. Among these NGOs, some local charities such as St. John's Ambulance and Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts were frequently mentioned. These six categories were averaged to create a scale called "extra-curricular activities" (Cronbach alpha = .790) for regression analysis of students' civic attitudes and civic engagement.

Apart from their frequency of participating in these extra-curricular activities, students also identified the most important reason for them to participate. Among them, "learning knowledge that is otherwise not available through books" was the top reason (28.4% of the students chose this reason) and "develop leadership potential" was the second (10. 1% of the students).

Students were also asked to name the most influential person (group of people) on their formation of civic awareness, which provided useful information on how students formed their civic awareness. For Hong Kong students, the three most influential groups on Hong Kong students' civic awareness were: parents (22.1% of the students), teachers (17.3% of the students) and friends (14.6% of the students).

Table 5.13: Influence on formation of civic awareness of Hong Kong students

Sources of influence on formation of civic awareness	Frequency
Parents	22.1 % (N=129)
Teachers	17.3% (N=101)
Friends	14.6 % (N=85)
Famous historical people	4.3% (N=25)
Famous contemporary people	11.3% (N=66)
Popular culture (e.g., TV, movies, or novels)	9.4% (N=55)
School education	12.7% (N=74)
Others	3.1% (N=16)
Missing	0.9% (N=4)

Factors Influencing Civic Attitudes

Multiple regression analyses were performed on the three social issues, against the factors of parental educational background, citizenship perception and civic values, as well as other socialization factors including attentiveness to news, classroom climate and participation in extra-curricular activities. To ensure comparability of the three distinct civic attitudes across the two cities, the same set of eight predictors (directly and indirectly related to school citizenship education) were included in the three sets of regression analyses. These eight predictors were 1) class council member (dummy coded); 2) parental education level (scaled); 3) weekly time spent watching news (scaled); 4) weekly time spent discussing news (scaled); 5) citizenship scale; 6) civic values scale; 7) classroom climate scale; and 8) participation in extra-curricular activities (ECA). Tables 5.14, 5.15, and 5.16 present the result of factors on each individual civic attitude scales.

Table 5.14: Factors related to Hong Kong students' civic attitudes: Legal justice

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.36 (.481)	-.010	.158	-.010
Parental Education Level	3.05 (1.444)	-.026	.039	-.077*
Weekly Time Watching News	1.69 (.817)	.032	.025	.053
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.575)	-.095	.036	-.114**
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.797)	.142	.025	.235***
Civic Values Scale	3.31 (.475)	.416	.043	.410***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.768)	.063	.026	.100*
Participation in ECA Scale	1.70 (.669)	-.050	.029	-.069

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Legal Justice Mean: 3.42, Standard Deviation: .482 (N=451)

$R^2 = .377$, adjusted $R^2 = .366$, * indicates p<.05, ** indicates p<.01, *** indicates p<.001

Table 5.15: Factors related to Hong Kong students' civic attitudes: Domestic migration

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.36 (.481)	-.006	.052	-.005
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.445)	-.013	.018	-.034
Weekly Time Watching News	1.69 (.816)	.002	.018	.003
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.577)	-.031	.049	-.032
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.798)	.114	.035	.165**
Civic Values Scale	3.31 (.475)	.243	.059	.209***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.771)	.044	.035	.061
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.685)	.045	.038	.056

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Domestic Migration Mean: 2.91, Standard Deviation: .552 (N=451)

$R^2 = .126$, adjusted $R^2 = .110$, * indicates p<.05, ** indicates p<.01, *** indicates p<.001

Table 5.16: Factors related to Hong Kong students' civic attitudes: Environment

protection

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.36 (.481)	.018	.045	.016
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.455)	.002	.015	.005
Weekly Time Watching News	1.70 (.821)	.000	.029	.000
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.576)	-.064	-.042	-.071
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.800)	.072	.029	.111*
Civic Values Scale	3.31 (.473)	.479	.029	.437***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.778)	.040	.032	.059
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.688)	-.010	.051	-.014

Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Environment Protection Mean: 3.43, Standard
Deviation: .519 (N=452)

$R^2 = .275$, adjusted $R^2 = .262$, * indicates p<.05, *** indicates p<.001

Other background information (such as students' gender, place of birth, and their

expected education level) did not seem to be significant predicators of either the students'

civic attitudes or engagement, and therefore were eliminated after performing initial bi-

variate correlations. Other background variables were associated with the students' civic

attitudes, albeit with mixed effects. For example, while parents' education level was

positively associated with students' attitudes towards environment protection, it was

negatively associated with the other two attitudes. This finding leaves readers wondering

why for this particular sample of Hong Kong students, the higher their parents' education

level, the less likely they were to hold favorable attitudes towards legal justice and

domestic migration. The mixed effects were also seen for the other background variables,

e.g., the average time students spent per week watching news and discussing news.

However, since most Hong Kong students spend relatively little time watching and

discussing news, these two variables were of less significance than others.

Variables that were directly related to school citizenship education, on the other

hand, played a far more important role in associating with students' civic attitudes. The

education that Hong Kong students received about citizenship and the formed civic

values and beliefs consistently explained a large proportion of the variations in the

dependent variables. These two variables were the strongest predictors across three

attitudes, not only in terms of coefficients, but also with regard to statistical significance.

Another interesting phenomenon was that students' perceived classroom climate has

always presented statistically significant relationships in international studies, but showed

mixed effects in the Hong Kong student sample and the Shanghai sample. For certain

issues, an open classroom climate is associated with more positive attitudes, while in

other cases this does not hold true. In these analyses, classroom climate is only

statistically significant in association to students' attitudes towards legal justice, but not

to the other two attitudes. Further analyses is needed to look into the makeup of

classroom climate, in which specific teacher-student interaction in China should be

analyzed, along with students' perceived classroom dynamics.

Research question 3: What factors are associated with students' intended civic engagement, and how do these factors relate to students' intended civic engagement? Factors influencing civic engagement

Table 5.17 presents three sets of regression analyses on Hong Kong students'

intended engagement, reflecting the created scale of six items. The dependent variable,

intended civic engagement, measures Hong Kong students' willingness to act on strategies

that would enhance the civic awareness of people in society. The first set of regressions

examined the eight direct and indirect variables and their associations to students'

intended engagement. The second set of regression examined the three civic attitudes

scales and their relationships to students' intended engagement. The third set of

regressions utilized a hierarchical regression method in which 11 predictors were entered

into the model in two blocks (eight and three) and hence produced a new R square that

took into consideration the shared effects of these two blocks of variables. Possible

mediation effects are examined and presented after comparing the three R squares from

these three regressions.

From these regression results, it was clear that if these two blocks of predictors

were independent from each other (with no correlations), then the R square combined

would be .409 (.409=.296+.115). However, because these variables were correlated with

each other (but not high enough to cause multicollinearity problems), the R square of an

11-predictor model did not add up to as high as .409, but only to .306. Hence, it can be

inferred that there was an indirect effect (mediation effect) by some of the predictors. [12]

The unique effect (R square) of the 3-predictor model would be .012 (.012=.306-

.294), whereas the unique effect (R square) of the 8-predictor model would be .191

(.191= .306-.115). Hence, the shared effect between these two blocks of variables was

.103 (.103= .306-.191-.012). The change of coefficients and p-value should also be

interpreted with caution. For example, while the three civic attitudes variables show

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[12] For more information on mediation, refer to: http://davidakenny.net/cm/mediate.htm

strong relationships to students' intended civic engagement, the statistical significance

"disappeared" when they were included in the model together with other predictors. This

is because compared to other predictors (such as classroom climate and civic values),

these attitudes variables did not possess such strong correlations with the dependent

variables, and hence, their explanatory power was "diverged" to the shared model.

Table 5.17: Factors related to Hong Kong students' intended civic engagement

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Block 1				
Class Council Member	.36 (481)	.100	.049	.084*
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.452)	.004	.017	.009
Weekly Time Watching News	1.70 (.822)	.034	.032	.048
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.575)	-.116	.046	-.116*
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.796)	.031	.032	.043
Civic Value Scale	3.32 (.474)	.429	.055	.353***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.777)	.031	.032	.184***
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.687)	.164	.035	.195***
$R^2 = .294$ adjusted $R^2 = .281$ * indicates $p<.05$** indicates $p<.01$ *** indicates $p<.001$				
Block 2				
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.42 (.587)	.210	.064	.170**
Attitudes towards domestic migration	2.91 (.551)	.097	.046	.091*
Attitudes towards environment protection	3.43 (.519)	.179	.057	.158**
Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Legal Justice				
$R^2 = 115$ adjusted $R^2 = .110$* indicates $p<.05$** indicates $p<.01$ *** indicates $p<.001$				
$R^2 = 306$ adjusted $R^2 =.288$ (for the 11 predictors)				

Research question 4: What factors are associated with students' specific engagement with regard to the three social issues? How do these factors relate to students' specific engagement? How does the inclusion of civic attitudes and change the relationship between factors and students' engagement?

The analysis format of this research question is almost identical to the previous one, except that students' actual engagement was used as the dependant variable. There were three dependent measures of actual engagement used in this analysis, corresponding with the three social issues of legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. Therefore, two items were averaged to create a scale of actual engagement for each of the issues. Compared to the intended civic engagement scale, these scales were not as robust or reliable because of the small number of items; hence, there could be some measurement issues that hinder an accurate capturing of students' actual civic engagement. Caution should be taken when interpreting regression results.

For each of the dependent measures of actual engagement, three sets of regression analyses were performed: the first set of regression included the eight background and school-related variables, the second set included civic attitudes as predictors, and the last regression involved a hierarchical regression that included all nine predictors in the first two regression models. The three tables below present the results of these analyses.

The same set of predictor variables showed very different associations to Hong Kong students' civic engagement, compared to the models in which they were applied to students' civic attitudes. While indirect variables such as parental education and weekly time spent watching and discussing news can still explain some of the variation in students' civic engagement, school-related variables, such as citizenship and civic value, were not associated with students' civic engagement in a statistically significant sense.

On the contrary, students' participation in extra-curricular activities consistently showed

a positive relationship between students' civic engagement. Hong Kong students' civic

attitudes were also positively related to their civic engagement, even though the

association was somewhat weak. Moreover, these attitudinal items did not possess a

strong correlation with students' civic engagement, compared to students' participation in

extra-curricular activities. Hence, when adding civic attitudes into the regression model,

the explanatory power did not change much.

Table 5.18: Factors related to Hong Kong students' actual civic engagement: Legal justice

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.36 (482)	.079	.054	.056
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.45)	.019	.018	.041
Weekly Time Watching News	1.70 (.820)	.015	.035	.018
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.574)	.076	.050	.064
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.798)	.038	.035	.044
Civic Value Scale	3.31 (.474)	-.117	.060	-.082*
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.776)	.050	.035	.058
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.687)	560	039	566***

R^2 = . 389 adjusted R^2 = . 378 * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.42 (.477)	-.060	.060	-.063

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Legal Justice (Mean=1.37, Standard Deviation=.681)

R^2 = 004 adjusted R^2 = .002* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

R^2 = 370 adjusted R^2 =. 358 (for the 9 predictors)

Table 5.19: Factors related to Hong Kong students' actual civic engagement: domestic

migration

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.36 (482)	.018	.009	.086*
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.45)	.001	.003	.020
Weekly Time Watching News	1.70 (.820)	.000	.005	-.008
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.574)	.018	.007	.104*
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.798)	.007	.005	.053
Civic Value Scale	3.31 (.474)	-.004	.009	-.020
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.776)	.011	.005	.083*
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.687)	084	.006	573***
$R^2 = .421$ adjusted $R^2 = .410$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001				
		Block 2		
Attitudes towards Domestic Migration	2.91 (.547)	.020	.008	.107*
Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Domestic Migration. Mean=.25, Standard Deviation=.102				
$R^2 = 115$ adjusted $R^2 = .110$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001				
$R^2 = 427$ adjusted $R^2 = .415$ (for the 9 predictors)				

Table 5.20: Factors related to Hong Kong students' actual civic engagement: Environment protection

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Block 1				
Class Council Member	.36 (482)	.052	.086	.025
Parental Education Level	3.07 (1.451)	.061	.029	.088*
Weekly Time Watching News	1.70 (.820)	.076	.056	.062
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.26 (.574)	.054	.081	.031
Citizenship Scale	4.54 (.798)	.090	.057	.071
Civic Value Scale	3.31 (.474)	.092	.057	.043
Classroom Climate Scale	3.42 (.775)	.067	.063	.052
Participation in ECA Scale	1.71 (.687)	.643	.097	439***

R^2 = . 272 adjusted R^2 = . 259 * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Block 2				
Attitudes towards environment protection	3.44 (.515)	.259	.085	.127**

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Environment Protection (Mean =2.20, Standard Deviation=1.054)

R^2 = 016 adjusted R^2 = .014* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

R^2 = 276 adjusted R^2 =. 261 (for the 9 predictors)

CHAPTER SIX: COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

Contextual Differences of Citizenship Education Between Hong Kong and Shanghai

Citizenship education in Hong Kong

In this chapter, I provide the contextual background of citizenship education in Hong Kong and Shanghai with a specific focus on the latest reforms in citizenship education curriculum. I also review citizenship education in the pre-1997 period, particularly in relation to Hong Kong, to ensure a continuous and holistic picture of development. This continuity is viewed in terms of a policy paradigm that includes a traditional Chinese approach to moral education, the British ambivalence about political education in Hong Kong, and Hong Kong's reaction against Mainland Chinese Communist ideological and political education (Fairbrother, 2006, p.32).

Hong Kong schools have implemented various kinds of moral and civic education in a depoliticized form for the past 30 years in order to maintain societal stability. This depoliticized policy orientation of citizenship education parallels, to some degree, features of British citizenship education, such as cross-curricular formats and an emphasis on political and constitutional knowledge (Fairbrother, 2006). In the 1980s, following the Sino-British Joint Declaration, reform of citizenship education can be traced back to a series of educational documents issued by the Hong Kong Education Commission. *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* was published in 1985, followed by the establishment of a Committee on the Promotion of Civic Education. As far as the curriculum is concerned, Government and Public Affairs (GPA) was proposed as a secondary school course, devoting substantial content to learning about the representative form of governance and Hong Kong's future role as a Special Administrative Region. In

addition, the implementation of civic education was proposed to adopt an interdisciplinary model to include various subjects such as Chinese, Chinese history, geography, economic and public affairs, government and public affairs, history, religious education, social studies, as well as extracurricular activities (Curriculum Development Committee, 1985).

The 1985 *Guidelines* stated the following aims for civic education:

1.   To promote a growing understanding of the nature and workings of our community-based institutions and organizations and an appreciation of the values, dispositions, and principles which are characteristics of a democratic community.

2.   To shape the attitudes and behavior of young people in preparation for an effective participating role in adult life.

3.   To develop the social and political skills necessary for a rational appraisal of the basic issues that affect the life of the community and encourage the formulation of opinions and judgments rooted in a respect for reason and individual autonomy.

4.   To offer all pupils the opportunity to gain experiences and skills in discussion, debate and decision making through participation in a variety of formal and informal situations and structures (Curriculum Development Committee, 1985, p.10)

Although analytical and discussion skills were mentioned in the stated aims of the 1985 *Guidelines*, the implementation of civic education in Hong Kong schools was not as successful as expected (Tang and Morris, 1999; Fairbrother, 2003, Tse, 2000), as

reflected in the lower popularity of the civics subjects, the dissatisfaction of teachers, and schools' limited extracurricular activities. A fundamental reason could be the lack of critical thinking and avoidance of controversy and an effort to stay away from any ideological stance in the *Guidelines*. A study conducted by the Curriculum Development Committee (1995) showed that neither students' civic knowledge nor attitudes were satisfactory. With the approach of the 1997 handover, a revised version of the *Guidelines* were drafted by a working group and published in 1996 (Curriculum Development Committee, 1996). Some of the aims were more specific than the 1985 Guidelines, especially with regard to a better understanding of Hong Kong society:

1. To enable students to understand how the individual, as a citizen, relates to the family, the neighboring community, the national community and the world.

2. To help students understand the characteristics of Hong Kong society, and the importance of democracy, liberty, equality, human rights and rule of law.

3. To develop students' critical thinking dispositions and problem-solving skills that would allow them to analyze social and political issues objectively and to arrive at a rational appraisal of these issues.

(Curriculum Development Council, 1996, pp.5-6)

Hong Kong's reform of citizenship education since the 1997 hand-over has experienced several stages of "de-politicization," to "politicization" and going back to "re-depoliticization" (Leung and Ng, 2004). The Education Commission submitted the "Reform Proposal for the Education System of Hong Kong" in 2000, which aimed to

"create more room for schools, teachers and students, to offer all-around and balanced learning opportunities, …[to] lay foundations for Hong Kong to become a diverse, democratic, civilized, tolerant and cultured cosmopolitan city" (Education Commission, 2000, p.1). The scope of the reform covers the curricula, the assessment mechanisms as well as the admission systems for different stages of education. In the nine-year basic education period (six years of primary and three years of junior secondary), a curriculum framework that fosters life-long learning and focuses on whole-person development was proposed. All subjects were re-grouped into eight Key Learning Areas (KLA)[13] and four Key Tasks (KT): Moral and Civic Education, Reading to Learn, Project Learning and Information Technology for Interactive Learning (Curriculum Development Council, 2001). The importance of moral and civic education was also acknowledged and the proposal stated that reform should provide students with structured learning experiences in this area.

The first five academic years from 2000-01 to 2005-06 involved the short-term development phase of the education reform. Moral and civic education were considered an important medium for whole-person development of students and topics including personal development and a healthy life, family life, school life, social life, people in society, and work life. The cultivation of positive value beliefs and active attitudes was the goal of moral and civic education. The five important values that Hong Kong students were expected to cultivate were perseverance, respect for others, a sense of responsibility, national identity, and accountability. Students were encouraged to learn these values and

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[13] The eight KLAs are Chinese language education, English language education, Mathematics education, Science education, Technology education, Personal, Social and humanities education, Art education, and Physical education.

form strong connections of the five values through the learning of life events. The events included core events, extended events, and extraordinary events, according to their frequency in students' lives, which included personal development and a healthy life, family life, school life, socialization, and societal life. Core events refer to events that most students experience in that particular stage of growth and development. These events were included in the school's moral and civic education program for the cohort of students every year. Extended events are the prioritized events for inclusion in the moral and civic education program according to the time available and needs of the students in that particular cohort.

Extraordinary events, or special events are events that meet the special needs of students' family backgrounds of that particular year or emergency needs. This event approach was a learner-focused approach that emphasized authentic contexts and multiple perspectives and case studies or themes in Moral and Civic Education were suggested. [14] According to the fourth progress report published by the Education Commission in December 2006, these new initiatives and more resources have now been launched and incorporated in moral and civic education, including a series of training programs, seminars, and workshops for teachers and other school staff of civic and moral education (Education Commission, 2006).

With the reform effort, the Hong Kong government introduced a new vision of education reform to acknowledge the importance of moral education. The government is now responsible for providing support, and also gathering and disseminating successful

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[14] The detailed implementation plan can be found in Booklet 3 at:
http://cd1.edb.hkedcity.net/cd/EN/Content_2909/BE_Eng.pdf

experiences of moral and civic education through various effective channels. Two new

subjects, "Integrated Humanities" and "Science and Technology" were introduced to the

secondary curriculum to enhance the importance of post-1997 citizenship education.

Furthermore, in September 2009, the new senior secondary school reform was

implemented, which has triggered subsequent reforms on the new curriculum (Fung &

Yip, 2010). The introduction of Liberal Studies is especially salient with regard to

citizenship education. One of the aims of Liberal Studies is to develop a sense of

citizenship through the module "Model China," together with other important integrated

themes such as "environment and technology," "society and culture." Relatively

speaking, this is a new phenomenon in education reform and more studies need to be

conducted. The introduction of Liberal Studies may also involve more dynamic and on-

going changes in citizenship education in Hong Kong in the years to come.

Citizenship education in Shanghai: A special case of Mainland China

Citizenship education in Mainland China has experienced significant shifts in

response to the overall changes in China's social, political, economic, and cultural

situations. These transitions facilitated a "diversified method for moral education"

(Cheung & Pan, 2006, p.42) to increase institutional autonomy and provide support and

resources for moral education practitioners in China. Two interrelated changes have been

witnessed. On the one hand, the new socialist China open-door policy and the initiation

of market reform calls for autonomy and "regulated individualism" in the field of

education and pedagogy (Cheung and Pan, 2006, p.37). On the other hand, more

commitment to citizenship and moral education is needed so the government can

maintain its legitimacy. Other scholars have also identified the urgent need for Mainland

China to reform citizenship education due to the recent social changes (e.g., Lee and Ho, 2005; Law, 2006).

Law (2006) identified multi-leveled citizenship as a socio-political selection and compromise rather than a static social construct in China's reform, in which "different players, with various memberships, concerns, priorities, and criteria, select which qualities and content should be highlighted" (p.619). He defines the new citizenship with an "accommodative" framework, in response to external changes due to globalization as well as internal shifts brought on by market economy reform and partial deregulation of society. These accommodative changes include 1) emphasizing people's cooperation rather than class struggles; 2) accommodating Western culture; 3) selecting traditional Chinese virtues as learning models for youngsters; 4) acknowledging the negative side of national development, and 5) paying attention to personal efforts without too much emphasis on individualism. Under this framework, the Ministry of Education issued two directives to initiate secondary-level textbook reforms for moral and political education (Ministry of Education, 2003, cited in Law 2006). The changes include a new political theory from Communist Party leaders, China's economic development blueprint, and ethical elements for students to learn throughout the new curriculum. Citizenship education in China includes multiple facets of elements that can be discussed because of the geographical, economic, and demographic diversity in various regions of China; however, since the focus of this study is two economically developed cities, more detailed discussion is provided in the context of Shanghai as a unique case of Mainland China.

Shanghai, as the most populous and developed city in Mainland China, faces

challenges that need to be resolved through education reforms, especially that of

citizenship education. However, citizenship education reform in Shanghai cannot be

understood simply by talking about citizenship education reform in China as a whole.

Shanghai provides a unique yet somewhat representative example to help us understand

the inadequacy of Chinese citizenship education.

In the city of Shanghai, reform of citizenship education has also been carried out,

focusing on the curriculum and the overall improvement of quality education. The first

phase of the curriculum reform dates back to the late 20th century, from 1988 to 1998.

The second phase of curriculum reform was implemented starting in 2002. The "*Plan

about the Second Phase of Curriculum Reform*" states the aim of the reform is to "let the

curriculum fit the development of every student" (Shanghai Municipal Government,

2003). It provides students with learning experiences, emphasizes students' development

and aims to build a curriculum that fits the rapidly changing social context as well as the

unique features of Shanghai. The new curriculum in Shanghai secondary schools is

divided into four areas: basic education, explorative education, developmental and

research education, and general education. Interestingly, the Shanghai Education

Authority also identified eight key learning areas[15] which are similar to those in the Hong

Kong reform proposal. Moral and political education, as it is called in Shanghai, is

included in the social science learning area.

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[15] The eight key learning areas identified in Shanghai curriculum reform are Chinese language learning, Mathematics learning, Natural science learning, Social science learning, Technological learning, Artistic learning, Physical education learning, and general and service learning.

The social science learning area for the nine-year basic education in Shanghai includes common courses that run throughout the nine years including history, geography, society, and moral education, all of which are considered the core of the curriculum reform. Moral education is called "Morality and Society" in primary schools and "Ideology and Morality" in the junior high secondary level. "Ideology and Morality" consists of various components such as civic education, moral education, law-related education, social responsibility education, national condition education, and mental health education. Like their Hong Kong counterparts, students are supposed to learn from various life events including in school life, family and community life, and public and societal life.

The plan for curriculum reform prescribes core values for junior high secondary students including being1) law-abiding, 2) civilized, 3) patriotic, and 4) having a sense of social responsibility. In addition to reforms in moral education curriculum, the Shanghai Education Authority issued the *Guidelines for National Education* (Minzu Jingshen) and the *Ideas to improve the teaching and learning of Moral and Political Education* in 2005 to complement the moral education curriculum and to improve moral education from both inside and outside the classroom. The *Guidelines* also summarize some of the core values of civic quality for secondary students, which are a sense of social responsibility, honesty and law-abiding, equality and cooperation, and diligence and personal efforts and endeavors. These reform efforts also echo the five major strategies adopted by the Shanghai municipal government to transform Shanghai into a global city on China's east coast with the following aims: 1) create a vision for overall development of the city; 2) foster a sense of contribution to, ownership of and pride in Shanghai's development; 3)

enhance people's civil quality and self confidence; 4) re-make the city's international

identity by hosting competitive and prestigious events; and 5) include recent municipal

developments in ad hoc or extra-curricular citizenship. (Law, 2007, pp.30-32). These

strategies also reflect some of the common goals of citizenship, as they strive to build a

collective civic identity that is unique to Shanghai and reflected in the eighth-grade moral

and political education textbook (Wu and Chen, 1998).

Table 6.1: Features of civic and moral education reform in Hong Kong and Shanghai

Areas	Hong Kong	Shanghai
Terminology	Moral and Civic Education (as one of the four Key Learning Tasks)	Ideology and Morality (as one subject in the social science learning area)
Key Documents from 2000	• *Reform Proposal for the Education System of Hong Kong* (2000) • *Learning to learn - The way forward in curriculum development* (2001) • *Basic education curriculum guide – Building on strengths (Primary 1 - Secondary 3* (2002)	• *Plan about the Second phase of Curriculum Reform* (2002) • *Guidelines for National Education* (2005) • *Ideas to improve the teaching and learning of Moral and Political Education* (2006)
Promoted Civic Value	• Perseverance • Respect for others • Sense of responsibility • National identity • Accountability	• Sense of social responsibility • Honesty and law-abiding • Equality and cooperation, • Diligence • Personal effort and endeavor
Learning through Life Events	• Core events • Extended events • Extraordinary/special events	• School Life • Family and community life • Public and societal life

From the above description, it is clear that the two cities share some common

features in terms of curriculum planning for civic and moral education. Both Hong Kong

and Shanghai consider moral education to be one of the core tasks of curriculum reform and both places emphasize learning about civic and moral education through students' experiences in different realms of life. The two places also have their own distinct features, as the core values of civic and moral education are significantly different from each other. Therefore, a comparison of Shanghai and Hong Kong would be plausible to illustrate the differences in the core values of civic and moral education and as reflected in the assessment of students' attitudes.

Within this context, I found similarities and differences in the context of citizenship education reform in both Hong Kong and Shanghai. Both cities have been at the frontline of China's rapid development and have been given great economic importance. Simultaneously, faced with the changing socio-political contexts, both have had to reform education, especially citizenship education, to respond to the needs posed by the residents, the cities, and the nation state. Previous studies have identified issues (e.g., Cheung and Pan, 2006; Law, 2006; Lee and Ho, 2005) that are of critical importance to China as a nation state, and in this study, the findings discussed in the previous chapters are issues that are of critical importance not only to China as a nation state, but also to the cities for building a civil society.

Comparison of Hong Kong and Shanghai: Results from Student Surveys

Students' perceptions of citizenship and civic value

Overall, Shanghai students have a more positive rating of their own citizenship perceptions and civic values compared to their Hong Kong counterparts, except for the notion of "participation" (where Hong Kong students' mean score was 4.57 and Shanghai students' mean score was 4.56), for which Hong Kong students had a slightly higher

mean score than Shanghai students. The average score of the six items of "citizenship component" for Shanghai student was about 4.68, compared to 4.54 for Hong Kong students. As far as the individual items are concerned, although students from both cities ranked "patriotism" the highest of the six items, the mean of "patriotism" was 5.25 for Shanghai students whereas the "patriotism" averages were 4.77 for Hong Kong students. This difference may be due to the fact that nationalistic and patriotic education has been implemented in Mainland citizenship education for a much longer time than in Hong Kong citizenship education, and therefore, Shanghai students have internalized patriotism more than Hong Kong students, as Law and Ng (2009) point out. Of particular interest, however, is that Hong Kong students also placed the highest value on "patriotism" among all six components (citizen, people, participation, democracy, patriotism, and community), which indicates some success of national education in citizenship education in Hong Kong. The scale was created to understand the basic concepts that are taught in citizenship education for all students, rather than an attempt to capture the multiple dimensions of citizenship, though it may be the focus of another study.

In addition to the scale of citizenship perception, students' responses of their perceived importance of 13 civic value beliefs were also used to create a scale. This 13-item scale consists of important values that are promoted in Chinese citizenship education, some of which reflect the revival of the traditional Chinese values in citizenship education curriculum (Cheung & Pan, 2006; Law 2006). The descriptive results of Hong Kong and Shanghai students showed a similar pattern to that of citizenship perceptions, i.e., the overall higher endorsement from Shanghai students compared to their Hong Kong counterparts, both in terms of the overall mean, as well as

the individual items. Although Shanghai students and Hong Kong students differ on the highest endorsed civic engagement item (stating which ones they each endorsed), students from both cities gave "serving the public" the least importance among all 13 items (3.12 for Shanghai students and 2.97 for Hong Kong students). This finding begs the question as to why the notion of public service is such a weak value belief held by Chinese students, especially given the collectivist nature of the Chinese culture. Hong Kong students gave the most importance to values of "equality" and "tolerance of differences" (both of which averaged 3.54), while Shanghai students thought the most important value was "protecting the natural environment" (3.80). The preference of civic value beliefs also correlates with the students' ranking on their civic attitudes towards three social issues, as Shanghai students highly endorsed environment protection while Hong Kong students gave their consent to the issue of rights for domestic migrants. The differences can also be explained by the different civic values emphasized in the civic and moral education curriculum in these two cities. Respect for others is a core value by Hong Kong students, while in Shanghai, a great amount of emphasis is given to improving the environment of the city, as a result of the hosting of the 2010 World Expo.

To better understand the differences between these two scales, independent sample t-tests were performed and statistically significant differences were found in both the citizenship perceptions and civic values scales. Table 6.2 presents the differences of these two scales between Shanghai and Hong Kong students.

Table 6.2: Comparing Hong Kong and Shanghai students' citizenship perceptions and civic values

Scales	Hong Kong (Mean and Standard Deviation)	Shanghai (Mean and Standard Deviation)	2-tailed t-test significance
Citizenship Perceptions	4.52 (.790)	4.68 (.794)	.000
Civic Values	3.30 (.481)	3.59 (.353)	.000

Note: because these two places have unequal sample size, the t-test assumed unequal variances.

Students' civic attitudes and civic engagement

Both the civic attitudes items and scales were taken into consideration, even though not all of the items were used to create the scales of the three civic attitudes. However, the non-scaled items can still provide useful information about students' attitudes, and hence they are included in the comparison.

Issue 1: Legal justice. Out of the five scaled items, Shanghai students appear to have a higher endorsement than Hong Kong students for legal justice, as they tend to agree with the items that represent the positive side of legal justice. On average, the mean score of Shanghai students' attitude was about 0.2 points higher than that of Hong Kong students. That is, while students from both cities agreed with items such as "It is good for society when all of the legal enforcement officers are honest," most of the Shanghai students tended to "strongly agree" and Hong Kong students tended to only "agree." For the three items that were not included in the scale, Shanghai students did not think harsh punitive procedures used to reduce the crime rate were good for society, nor did they think laws were made only by smart people, or people could do whatever they want according to their free will. For Hong Kong students, their disagreements with these

statements were not as strong as Shanghai students. Another interesting finding is that Shanghai students agreed more on the positively worded items and disagreed more on the negatively worded items when compared to the Hong Kong students.

With regard to engagement related to legal justice, Shanghai students had a slightly higher participation rate in two items: campaigning about legal awareness and attending legal education for youth. While most students in Hong Kong and Shanghai did not report participating in these two activities, about one-third of the Shanghai students participated a couple of times per semester. In contrast, only about one-fifth of the Hong Kong students reported that they participated in these activities several times per semester. This difference could be due to legal education being emphasized in the citizenship curriculum in Mainland China (Zhong and Lee, 2008) whereas this may not be the case in Hong Kong.

Issue 2: Domestic Migration. Both Shanghai and Hong Kong are essentially cities made up of migrants, due to urban development over the last hundred years or so. In Hong Kong, the migrants come from the bordering Guangdong Province, and other parts of China as well as from outside China. About 5% of the Hong Kong population is comprised of Southeast Asians and Westerners. In Shanghai, four million residents are considered "migrants" because they maintain a household registration elsewhere. As Law (2007) argues, Shanghai's citizenship education needs to address the issue of migration as a result of the free flow of people within and across the national boarders.

The pattern of students' attitudes towards domestic migration, reflected in the collective responses to those items, was quite different from their attitudes towards legal justice. Shanghai and Hong Kong students showed different attitudes on this issue. For

example, Hong Kong students agreed that migrants brought diversity to the city (mean =3.06), but Shanghai students' opinion on diversity were in between "agree" and "disagree" with a mean score of only 2.77. Shanghai students also had a lower perception of work opportunities threatened by new migrants, compared to their Hong Kong counterparts (a mean of 1.96 for Shanghai students compared to 2.82 for Hong Kong students). As far as the social rights of new migrants are concerned, Shanghai students were also more supportive than Hong Kong students, which was reflected in the following two items: "new migrants enjoy the same level of social rights as Shanghai/Hong Kong natives" (Shanghai mean: 3.06; Hong Kong mean: 2.84), and "new migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Shanghai/Hong Kong natives" (Shanghai mean: 3.15; Hong Kong mean: 2.81). However, when it comes to the right to choose the place to live and work, Hong Kong students endorsed this right slightly more than Shanghai students (Hong Kong mean: 3.21; Shanghai mean: 3.19).

The activities that students can engage in with regard to migration are minimal; therefore, the two items do not appear to be good measures of their engagement related to domestic migration. Apart from the interactions with peer students who are migrants, neither Shanghai nor Hong Kong students had much opportunity to be involved directly with migrants. However, differences in participation also were prevalent from the data. About three-quarters of the surveyed Shanghai students reported that they had made a donation to a charity that helps migrants a couple of times per semester, while only about half of the Hong Kong students had done so. Hong Kong students, on the other hand, did slightly more tutoring of migrant children compared to Shanghai students, although this difference was very small (11.5% of the Hong Kong students reported tutoring a couple

of times per semester and 7.1% of the Shanghai students reported tutoring a couple of times per semester). It is worth acknowledging that for both of these measurements, students' participation was relatively low, a pattern also observed in the participation of activities related to legal justice.

Issue 3: Environment Protection. The third issue examined was environment protection, for which Shanghai students showed a higher level of endorsement compared to Hong Kong students. This followed a similar a pattern to what was observed in students' attitudes towards legal justice. The differences between students' attitudes were somewhat greater than their attitudes about legal justice. For example, of the four scaled items, Shanghai students' mean was about 0.2 points higher than Hong Kong students' mean. A very similar pattern was also observed among the four non-scaled items.

Students' participation in environment-related activities was higher (than engagement in migrant issues or legal justice) for both the Shanghai and Hong Kong sample. The first one, community clean-up, showed that about 30% of both Hong Kong and Shanghai students participated a couple of times per semester, while 16.3% of the Shanghai students and 11.3% of the Hong Kong students participated a couple of times per week. The second one, re-use and recycle was the measure of activities that had the highest overall participation rate with Hong Kong students participating more frequently than their Shanghai counterparts.

Overall, the three social issues examined in the student questionnaire showed similar patterns of factor loading when factor analysis and reliability measures were performed. Two exceptions were their attitudes towards domestic migration for Hong Kong students and the attitudes towards environment protection for Shanghai students

who had reliability measures (Cronbach's Alpha) lower than 0.7; however, the same items were retained for the creation of the scales so that comparisons between the two samples could be made.

In addition to the civic engagement measures that were specific to the three social issues, the survey also included six items of "intended engagement" and both the Hong Kong and Shanghai sample produced high reliability of the intended engagement scale. Both Hong Kong and Shanghai students were most willing to engage in self-improvement to enhance other people's overall civic consciousness while Shanghai students were least willing to campaign through posters and banners in schools and communities. In contrast, Hong Kong students were least willing to distribute pamphlets about civic consciousness for other people to read. In the following section, factors related to students' civic attitudes and civic engagement are compared and discussed.

Table 6.3: Comparing Hong Kong and Shanghai students' civic attitudes and civic engagement

Social Issues	Scales	Hong Kong (Mean and Standard Deviation)	Shanghai (Mean and Standard Deviation)	2-tailed t-test significance
Legal Justice	Attitude	3.42 (.476)	3.62 (.403)	.000
	Engagement	1.37 (.697)	1.54 (.673)	.000
Domestic Migration	Attitude	2.91 (.549)	3.02 (.596)	.001
	Engagement	1.25 (.102)	1.64 (.458)	.000
Environment Protection	Attitude	3.44 (.515)	3.68 (.391)	.000
	Engagement	2.19 (1.050)	2.11 (.971)	.134
				Note: t-test assumed unequal variances.

In a statistical sense, table 6.3 above compares the six scales (three attitudinal and three behavioral) related to these three social issues examined in the student surveys from the Hong Kong and Shanghai sample.

Factors related to students' civic attitudes

Table 6.4 presents a comparison of the classroom climate and participation in ECA. Hong Kong students perceived their civic and moral education classroom to have a climate that was slightly more open than Shanghai students, but they participated in extra-curricular activities less frequently than Shanghai student counterparts.

Table 6.4: Comparing Hong Kong and Shanghai students' classroom climate and participation in ECA

Scales	Hong Kong (Mean and Standard Deviation)	Shanghai (Mean and Standard Deviation)	2-tailed t-test significance
Classroom Climate	3.41 (.771)	3.29 (.789)	.005
Participation in ECA	1.70 (.678)	1.82 (.538)	.000
		Note: t-test assumed unequal variances.	

The two samples were then combined to conduct a comparative analysis of students' civic attitudes and civic engagement. A new variable "city" was included in the comparative analysis where Shanghai was coded 1 and Hong Kong was coded 0. Tables 6.5, 6.6, and 6.7 compare the similarities and differences of factors on the three attitudinal scales.

Overall, these factors explain the greatest amount of variances in students' attitudes towards legal justice, followed by attitudes towards environment protection, while explaining the least amount of variance in students' attitudes towards domestic migration.

Among the four director factors, students' citizenship perception scale and students' civic value scale consistently appeared to be the most influential and significant factors. Students' civic values scale is associated with the most variances of students' civic attitudes across three social issues.

The other two direct factors, classroom climate, and students' participation in ECA (extra-curricular activities) showed mixed effects in the regression models. The association between civic attitudes and classroom climate scale is statistically significant on the issues of legal justice and domestic migration, but not so on environment protection. This interesting finding opens questions as to what kind of social issues were discussed more often, or more openly in an eighth-grade classroom of social studies. However, the answer to this question remains to be explored, as the content of classroom discussions is not included in the current study. It is an interesting topic to explore in future studies that could include other data collection methods such as observations and interviews. Students' participation in ECA was not a significant factor in explaining the variances of students' civic attitudes, with the exception of legal justice. However, the association between participation in ECA and attitudes towards legal justice is negative, this may be due to the fact that participation in ECA is not a good indicator of students' civic attitudes, but a much better one of students' civic engagement, as discussed in the later sections.

Table 6.5: Factors related to attitudes towards legal justice:

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.41 (492)	.006	.023	.006
Parental Education Level	3.71 (1.659)	-.014	.007	-.053*
Weekly Time Watching News	1.66 (.716)	.005	.017	.007
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.32 (.557)	-.013	.023	-.017
Citizenship Scale	4.61 (.796)	.139	.015	.247***
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.428)	.422	.030	.403***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.782)	.042	.015	.073**
Participation in ECA Scale	1.77 (.597)	-.038	019	-.050*
City	.59(.493)	.087	.026	.095**

$R^2 = .353$ adjusted $R^2 = .348$ * indicates $p<.05$** indicates $p<.01$ *** indicates $p<.001$

Dependant variable: attitude towards legal justice attitudes (Mean=3.53, Standard deviation= .449, N=1090

The addition of "city" as a variable showed consistency with the independent

sample t test conducted above, that there are statistical differences students' civic

attitudes between Shanghai and Hong Kong students. The exception in the model fitted to

domestic migration can be explained by the small partial correlation between city and

civic attitudes. While the partial correlation between city and the other two civic attitudes

are about .1, this correlation is only .03 on the issue of attitudes towards domestic

migration. Moreover, the fact that the city variable has stronger correlation with other

independent variables such as citizenship scale, classroom climate scale and civic value

scale explains why, when fitted into a more complicated model, the effect of city

difference on students' attitudes towards domestic migration is explained by other more

powerful predictors. This finding leads me to conclude that as far as students' attitudes

towards domestic migration is concerned, the geographic locations make less of an

impact, compared to school-related citizenship education factors. It is also consistent with

the fact that both Shanghai and Hong Kong are composed of various migrants from other

parts of China. The research and discussion on domestic migration should continue along

the direction of how perceptions of citizenship and civic value can influence people's

attitudes towards migration, and especially towards some of the negative aspects of

migration, which have not been discussed much in this study.

Table 6.6: Factors related to attitudes towards domestic migration:

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.41 (492)	-.005	.033	-.004
Parental Education Level	3.71 (1.656)	-.021	.011	-.059
Weekly Time Watching News	1.67 (.721)	.013	.025	.016
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.33 (.559)	-.053	.033	-.051
Citizenship Scale	4.63 (.795)	.103	.023	.141***
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.428)	.319	.045	.236***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.781)	.085	.022	.115***
Participation in ECA Scale	1.78 (.603)	.044	.028	.046
City	.59 (.492)	.040	.038	.034

$R^2 = .147$ adjusted $R^2 = .140$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Dependent variable: attitude towards domestic migration (Mean=2.97, Standard Deviation=.579, N=1097)

Table 6.7: Factors related to attitudes towards environment protection:

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
Class Council Member	.41 (492)	.051	.024	.054*
Parental Education Level	3.72 (1.660)	.011	.008	.041
Weekly Time Watching News	1.67 (.723)	-.036	.018	-.056
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.33 (.556)	-.012	.024	-.014
Citizenship Scale	4.63 (.794)	.070	.017	.120***
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.427)	.434	.033	.401***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.782)	.019	.016	.032
Participation in ECA Scale	1.78 (.603)	-.032	.020	-.041
City	.59 (.492)	.118	.027	.126***

$R^2 = .291$ adjusted $R^2 = .285$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Dependent variable: attitude towards environment protection (Mean=3.58, Standard Deviation=.462, N=1096)

Lastly, although the differences in students' civic attitudes are statistically significant, the magnitude of these differences is very small. The 0.2 differences of attitudes on a 4-point scale may reflect minimal differences, if not similarities when the results are interpreted as "Hong Kong students think positively towards legal justice, and Shanghai students think even more positively so." It is equally important to find similarities and differences; while differences in geographic locations shows unique pattern of citizenship education of each city, the similarities indicate an overall success nurturing of positive civic attitudes. This is especially important for Hong Kong, given

that it has resumed Chinese sovereignty in just a little over10 years [16] and citizenship

building is a relatively new concept in Hong Kong. As far as Shanghai is concerned, it

also reflects some of the success of the curriculum reform starting in the new millennium.

Factors related to students' civic engagement

A new model was fitted on students' intended engagement, adding "city" as a new

variable. From table 6.8 it can be seen that there are statistically significant differences on

students' intended engagement to promote civic awareness, taking into consideration

other direct and indirect factors. City is a strong predictor in that students in Shanghai

expressed more willingness to engagement in activities to promote overall civic

awareness compared to their Hong Kong counterparts. The three civic attitudes are also

strong predictors, but not so compared to citizenship and civic values.

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[16] The empirical fieldwork was conducted in 2008 and 2009, about 11 years after Hong Kong's
return to China.

Table 6.8: Factors related to students' intended civic engagement

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		9 Predictors		
Class Council Member	.41 (492)	.079	.032	.066*
Parental Education Level	3.71 (1.663)	-.006	.010	-.018
Weekly Time Watching News	1.67 (.719)	.033	.024	.040
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.33 (.555)	-.013	.032	-.012
Citizenship Scale	4.62 (.796)	.063	.022	.086**
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.428)	.441	.042	.322***
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.784)	.111	.021	.148***
Participation in ECA Scale	1.77 (.598)	.147	.027	.150***
City	.58 (.494)	.162	.036	.136***

$R^2 = .289$ adjusted $R^2 = .283$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		3 predictors		
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.53 (.448)	.252	.044	.188***
Attitudes towards domestic migration	2.98 (.577)	.149	.029	.144***
Attitudes towards environment protection	3.58 (.466)	.194	.049	.153***

$R^2 = 144$ adjusted $R^2 = .142$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Dependent variable: future civic engagement (Mean=2.71, Standard Deviation=.587, N=1056)
$R^2 = 299$ adjusted $R^2 = .291$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

As far as the specific civic engagement related to the three social issues are concerned, including city in the regression model also yields interesting findings. Students in Shanghai engage more in legal and environment activities, but less on activities related to migrants compared to Hong Kong students. The findings are also

consistent with the independent sample t tests in table 6.2. The inconsistency on engagement in environment activities can be explained by suppression in multiple regression. [17]Overall, the findings indicate that Shanghai and Hong Kong students' civic engagement is very moderate, compared to their civic attitudes.

Participation in ECA became a strong and influential predictor of students' civic engagement, both intended and current. Participation in ECA had a standardized beta of .154 in the regression model of students' intended civic engagement. The effect became much stronger in the regression models of the three specific civic engagements, as student participation in ECA had the strongest and in some cases, the only statistically significant predictor across all three specific civic engagement items. It is also interesting that in the model of specific civic engagement, students' citizenship perceptions and their civic values scales did not appear to be significant, which is different from all of the previous models. Again, these models may not be an accurate representation of the theoretical construct, but rather, they are just plausible explanations in a limited sample.

The indirect factors such as parental education, being a class council member, as well as weekly time spent on watching and discussing news are also indicators of students' current civic engagement related to social issues. Compared to the direct factors, the influence of these factors is much smaller. This indicates that when it comes

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[17] Independent sample t-test shows that there are no differences between the mean of civic engagement related to environment protection, however, "city" became a strong predictor in the regression model. A closer look at the zero-order and partial correlation between city and environment protection engagement shows that the zero-order correlation (-.026) is actually smaller than the partial (-.108) correlation. This indicates that correlation between the two was made smaller due to the influence of another (or more) variables, and in turn, this correlation is also suppressing others. See Cohen, Cohen, Aiken and West (2003) *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for Behavioral Sciences* more information.

to civic attitudes and civic engagement, the direct factors have much stronger influence

than indirect factors.

Table 6.9: Factors related to students' actual engagement: legal justice

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.41 (.492)	.027	.037	.020
Parental Education Level	3.71 (1.659)	.002	.012	.005
Weekly Time Watching News	1.66 (.716)	-016	.028	.017
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.32 (.557)	.090	.037	.075*
Citizenship Scale	4.61 (.796)	.042	.026	.049
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.428)	-.050	.054	-.032
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.782)	.036	.025	.042
Participation in ECA Scale	1.77 (.597)	.466	.032	.414***
City	.59 (.493)	.126	.042	.083**

$R^2 = .221$ adjusted $R^2 = .214$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards legal justice	3.53 (.449)	-.050	.050	-.033

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Legal Justice (Mean=1.46, Standard Deviation=.672, N=1090)

$R^2 = 001$ adjusted $R^2 = .000$* indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

$R^2 = 221$ adjusted $R^2 = .214$ (for the 10 predictors)

Overall, the findings comparing the two samples of eighth-grade students show that

Hong Kong and Shanghai students shared very similar patterns of citizenship perceptions,

civic values, and two of the civic attitudes: towards legal justice and towards environment

protection. Shanghai students had a higher level of endorsement than their Hong Kong

counterparts most areas. Their attitude towards migration is an interesting one worthy of

further exploration, as Hong Kong and Shanghai students thought quite differently on this

issue. As far as civic engagement is concerned, students from both cities engage only on

a moderate level. Further investigation should be made on students' civic engagement to

explore better measurement, as well as possible reasons why students do not participate

in activities related to current social issues.

Table 6.10: Factors related to students' actual engagement: domestic migration

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.41 (.492)	.065	.029	.060*
Parental Education Level	3.71 (1.656)	.009	.009	.028
Weekly Time Watching News	1.67 (.721)	.035	.022	.047
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.33 (.559)	.053	.029	.055
Citizenship Scale	4.62 (.795)	.006	.020	.009
Civic Value Scale	3.48 (.428)	-.005	.040	-.004
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.781)	.047	.020	.068*
Participation in ECA Scale	1.78 (.603)	.386	.025	.432***
City	.59 (.492)	-.071	.033	-.065*

$R^2 = .112$ adjusted $R^2 = .101$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards Domestic Migration	3.61 (.406)	.022	.027	.023

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Domestic Migration (Mean=1.64, Standard Deviation=.538, N=1097)

$R^2 = 239$ adjusted $R^2 = .232$ (for the 9 predictors) * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

Table 6.11: Factors related to students' actual engagement: Environment protection

Factors	Descriptive Mean (S.D.)	Un-standardized Beta	Standard error	Standardized Beta
		Block 1		
Class Council Member	.41 (.492)	.038	.054	.019
Parental Education Level	3.72 (1.659)	.032	.017	.054
Weekly Time Watching News	1.67 (.716)	.069	.041	.051
Weekly Time Discussing News	1.33 (.555)	.132	.055	.074*
Citizenship Scale	4.61 (.793)	.045	.038	.037
Civic Value Scale	3.47 (.426)	.071	.079	.031
Classroom Climate Scale	3.35 (.782)	.060	.036	.047
Participation in ECA Scale	1.78 (.603)	.645	.046	.395***
City	.59 (.492)	-.236	.062	-.118***

$R^2 = .217$ adjusted $R^2 = .211$ * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

		Block 2		
Attitudes towards Environment Protection	3.58 (.461)	.158	.068	.074*

Dependent variable: Specific Engagement about Legal Justice (Mean=2.13, Standard Deviation=.985, N=1094)

$R^2 = 221$ adjusted $R^2 = .214$ (for the 9 predictors) * indicates p<.05** indicates p<.01 *** indicates p<.001

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Significance and Limitations of the Current Study

Significance of the current study

As the two most developed metropolitan cities of China, Shanghai and Hong Kong have been compared at various economic, social, and cultural levels. Educators have also conducted comparative studies on education, including citizenship education in these two cities (Cheung, 2008; Law, 2007; Law and Ng, 2009; Lee and Leung, 2006; Lo, 2004). Previous studies on citizenship education all have a global focus, which reflects an important feature of these two cities. The study conducted by Lee and Leung (2006) on teachers' perceptions and realities of global citizenship shows that both places need more support to implement global citizenship concepts. A study conducted by Law and his colleagues (2009) further expanded the dimensionality of citizenship to include the influence from the nation state and local governments. However, these comparative studies on citizenship education in Hong Kong and Shanghai did not take into account some of the specific issues facing both Hong Kong and Shanghai on their way to becoming international and diversified metropolitan cities. This study furthers our knowledge reflecting the growing interest of comparative studies of citizenship education and further investigates the social issues that are not only of interest to the national and local governments, but also to students as future citizens. It goes beyond examining citizenship merely as civic identities from multiple dimensions by focusing on concrete information about citizenship in schools as well as in students' daily lives.

Although there are currently many social issues influencing the development of China, the three selected issues in this study have been carefully contemplated and proven to be of critical importance by researchers on citizenship education. Legal education, or education about law, has been emphasized as a new theme to advance citizenship in the new century to promote Chinese democracy (e.g., Zhong and Lee, 2008). Kennedy and Chow (in press) have used the IEA Civic Ed data to investigate Hong Kong students' attitudes towards the law. They find that Hong Kong students' legal consciousness involves a strong obedience towards the law in which students think disobeying the law is bad for democracy. However, their study is limited in that they use secondary analyses that include items related to the law without including direct first-hand investigations of students' legal attitudes. In my study, I examined students' attitudes not just towards obeying the law, but towards legal justice, an important concept that is emphasized in the concept of "rule of law" in citizenship education.

The importance of domestic migration has also been emphasized in previous research studies (Cheung, 2006; Law, 2007). Domestic migration is a phenomenon that is mostly unique to China, because Chinese people are bound by the household registration system (*Hu Kou*) and when citizens move to a new place, they face issues such as a lack of rights and benefits similar to immigrants to a new country. Studies have focused on immigrant youth, especially those in urban areas (Meyers and Husam, 2009; Sanchez, 2007), but very few have addressed the domestic migration issues in China, especially placed in an urban context like the cities of Hong Kong and Shanghai. Therefore, domestic migration was selected as the second issue to be examined with regard to students' attitudes towards the struggle for equal rights and benefits of new city migrants.

This particular attitude scale, when further developed and validated, can be used as civic attitudinal indicators of Chinese students' support for social capital (e.g., Kennedy and Mellor, 2006; Print and Coleman, 2003).

Environment education (EE) in China has always been closely associated with national environment protection polices; hence, EE is also seen as transmitting the prevailing political ideology (Lee, Lin and Kwan, 2006). According to Lee, Lin and Kwan (2006), both Mainland China and Hong Kong have issued policy documents that are aimed at enhancing environment education that promotes sustainable development (2006, pp.231-232). Studies conducted on environment knowledge, attitudes and behavior (Lee, 2002, and Wang; 2002, both cited in Lee, Lin and Kwan, 2006) in both Mainland China and Hong Kong find that in both places, more attention needs to given to promoting motivation for teachers and students, and in enhancing competence and participation in environment education activities. Hence, environment protection was chosen as the third issue to focus on in the current study, together with the previous two, to provide a full picture of three very different, yet important social issues perceived and acted upon by Chinese students.

In addition to being the very first comparative study of citizenship education in Asia that focuses specifically on students' civic attitudes, this research also adds validity to the empirical work by including not only students' civic attitudes, but also students' civic engagement in both the current and future sense. The reciprocal relationship between civic attitudes and political participation has been discussed in Gastil and Xenos's (2010) work when they examined adult citizens' civic pride and civic faith and their relationship with everyday political discussion, and their involvement in cultural and

community groups. However, there few studies have examined the link of civic attitudes and civic engagement for adolescents. In my study I examined the relationships between students' citizenship perceptions and their civic engagement, and between civic attitudes and civic engagement, when taking into account the possible mediation of civic attitudes. The comprehensiveness of the current study design reflects the interdisciplinary nature of this study by including theories from citizenship education, attitudes and behavior links, as well as comparative education theory. It is a model for future studies to replicate as continued interest emerges in the area of citizenship education in the Asia Pacific region.

This study fills some of the current gaps in research of citizenship education in the Asia Pacific region, particularly in China. There are numerous studies of citizenship education that focus specifically on Hong Kong, but fewer studies focus on Mainland China. One important feature of many empirical studies on Hong Kong students is that they tend to focus more on national and patriotic education (e.g., Fairbrother, 2003; Ho, 2007; Law, 2004; Morris, Kan & Morris, 2000; Yuen and Byram 2007), not on the social aspects of citizenship education. However, according to Fung and Yip (2010), the new Liberal Studies curriculum, which will soon be introduced to Hong Kong secondary schools as a mandatory subject, will contain important social and cultural elements in the modules. Hence, shifting the attention from a pure nationalistic perspective to a more comprehensive social perspective, as in the current study, broadens the research agenda on citizenship education in Hong Kong. As far as the Mainland Chinese context is concerned, this study goes beyond a descriptive explanation of the social context change of China followed by the recent open-door policy and related curriculum changes (e.g., Cheung & Pan, 2006; Law, 2006; Lee and Ho, 2005; Price, 1992; Zhong and Lee, 2008).

It further investigates how some of the critical social issues have emerged from the contextual changes. Although this study does not represent the whole geographic area of Mainland China, it provides a unique example of Shanghai, an important economic, social, and cultural center of China's modern development. The focus of this study also fills the gap in literature since the limited number of citizenship education studies from China target mostly university students (Fairbrother, 2003; Li, 2009) instead of secondary school students' attitudes and behaviors.

Limitations of the current study

Although this is a unique comparative study of citizenship education in China, several limitations exist. One of the limitations is the single focus of students in this study without including other important people in school such as the teachers and principals. Several studies conducted in Hong Kong found that teachers play an important role in empowering students to become active citizens, to engage in social activities, and to influence students' formation of democratic thinking (e.g., Leung, 2006; Ng, 2009). A more comprehensive comparative study of citizenship education like the work of Law and Ng (2009) includes surveys, observations, and interviews of students, teachers, and principals whereas this study is a quantitative design with surveys given only to students. As a result, the findings produced in this study are only a snapshot of citizenship education. With the supplementary qualitative data obtained from interviews and/or observations, more detailed and rich information might have been found with regard to some of the questions that are explored in this study, such as classroom climate in eighth-grade students' social studies/liberal studies classrooms, their civic engagement with regard to the three social issues, and their socialization with parents, teachers and peers.

A second limitation is the validation of some of the items used in the questionnaire. Although exploratory factor analysis produced factors of students' civic attitudes towards social issues with acceptable reliability coefficients, I still caution readers on the use of these items without further validation of the items or replication in other the studies. Corollary to the items, the measurement of students' civic engagement about the three social issues might be questionable due to the fact that only two items were used to measure each of these dimensions of engagement. This is partially because of the limitation of time and space of the questionnaire design and partially because of the lack of similar previous research models generating validated items. Therefore, more studies, both quantitative and qualitative, should be conducted to better capture the reality of students' social engagement with regard to legal justice, domestic migration, and environment protection. As the measurements improve in future studies, the statistical models can improve with more sophisticated analysis procedures, such as confirmatory factor analysis, and a structural equation model.

Lastly, the study is entitled "comparing eighth-grade students' civic attitudes and civic engagement in Hong Kong and Shanghai", but I do not intend to generalize the findings to all of the schools in these two cities, let alone to other parts of Mainland China and/or Special Administrative Regions of China. This is because all of the schools I selected in these two cities are public schools (in Hong Kong, aided schools, which are funded by the government, but managed by school-sponsoring bodies), In Hong Kong and Shanghai also there exist privately funded schools, international schools, and/or other schools in which languages other than Chinese (Mandarin or Cantonese) are used for instruction. The findings in this study are somewhat representative of the average public

schools in Hong Kong and Shanghai, but cannot be over-generalized to the whole eighth-grade population in these two cities.

Implication for Policy Making: Towards a Better Planning of Citizenship Education

As Schwille and Amadeo (2002, pp.133-135) point out, school civic education is ubiquitous yet elusive, and it remains problematic in several ways before it can be fully implemented as a subject or a series of subjects that tackle great issues of democracy, national identity, and social cohesion –areas that are so important to societies today. The multidimensional nature of citizenship education (Cogan and Derricott, 2000) makes it difficult to find and secure a major place in the curriculum; therefore, despite the high expectations educators have for citizenship education, it can only address these problems in a partial and fragmented way. Successful civic education is linked with higher academic achievement (Dávila and Mora, 2007), and moreover, active citizenship also nurtures the important skills of learning to learn (Hoskins and Crick, 2010).

Fairbrother (2005) analyzes Hong Kong's citizenship curriculum and argues that citizenship education in Hong Kong provides a "comprehensive guide to knowledge, attitudes, values and behaviors that are deemed appropriate to deal with perceived individual and societal problems and to shape future citizens and society" (p.306). The series of policy documents produced by the Hong Kong SAR and Mainland China government (Curriculum Development Council, 2001, 2002, 2007; Ministry of Education, 2004; Shanghai Municipal Commission for the Construction of Spiritual Civilization, 2004;) all highlight the importance of citizenship education; hence, any

studies conducted on citizenship education should have important implications for the improvement of citizenship education policy making.

Shanghai and Hong Kong are repositioning themselves both in China and internationally; and the nation-state continues to exert influence on citizenship education via the central government, the local government, and individual schools. In this study both Hong Kong and Shanghai students have a fairly positive perception of citizenship and civic value beliefs, yet certain aspects (such as serving the public) need to be addressed and enhanced. Therefore, citizenship education should be given continuous attention and emphasis in order to maintain the current achievements and provide future growth for the Chinese adolescent.

When it comes to the policy making for young people, especially concerning their participation and social engagement, there needs to be more policy implementation and resource support. Research studies (e.g., Cheung, Lee, Chan, Liu & Leung, 2004; Leung 2003) have highlighted the importance of service-learning, experiential learning, or organized long-term services to enhance students' formation of citizenship and development of civic awareness. However, the findings from this study show that neither Shanghai students nor Hong Kong students have participated frequently in extra-curricular activates related to critical social issues. When asked about their motivation for participating in extra-curricular activities, in general, students often said they wanted to learn from non-book resources, but did not take into consideration other aspects that can also be critical to students' civic engagement, such as developing leadership, or a commitment to social justice. So (2007) also concluded that there is too much "responsibility" but not enough "participation" in the current citizenship curriculum.

Low level of participation in civic activities in both schools and community is also

reported in international studies (Schultz *et al*, 2010) Therefore, a more encouraging and

supportive policy for adolescent participation, especially giving local schools and/or non-

profit organizations more autonomy is essential to expand young people's participation

and engagement at an ad-hoc or purely extra-curricular level at a more integrated level

(Ngai, Cheung & Li, 2001). As Youniss *et al.* (2002) point out, effectiveness of civic

education increases when students are given the opportunity to participate in both school

and community affairs, and schools should view themselves as an important microcosm

for students to understand important and practice concepts related to citizenship. As a

result, schools play an important role in fostering diversity and participation, and

educators should be given support from policy makers to create meaningful participation

opportunities for students, both inside the classroom and outside of schools.

Third, although this study does not focus on teachers, one cannot recommend policy

initiatives without the mention of teachers. Successful citizenship education cannot be

implemented without motivated and well-trained teachers. Faulks (2006), for example, in

examining citizenship education in schools in England, argues that over-burdened and

under-skilled teachers constitute an important reason for some of England's relatively

ineffective citizenship education. It is very important to consult with teachers when

making education policies as teacher resistance could well result in failure of

implementation. Lam and Lidstone (2001) use the case study of Brisbane to illustrate the

unsuccessful introduction of an integrated social studies syllabus due to teachers' under-

preparation. This example could be a good warning for the introduction of Liberal

Studies in Hong Kong--the government must provide sufficient professional development

resources for teachers who will be leading interdisciplinary modules. According to

Leung (2006) influential teachers can foster the civic development of young students

(e.g., Leung, 2006). Although there are no direct data from this study to support the

notion of a positive influence from teachers; indirect evidence exists for the importance

of giving teacher support and/or enhancing teachers' role in students' civic learning.

There is great room for improving teachers' role in civic learning based on the findings

that students do not discuss current events with teachers as often as with parents and

peers, and students cite parents rather than teachers (or school education) as being most

influential on the formation of their civic consciousness. Although this study focuses on

Hong Kong and Shanghai, as the implications can be applied to other places as well.

Implications for Future Research:

Towards More Rigorous Research of Citizenship Education

It is important to discuss the future research agenda for citizenship education in

order to promote more rigorous and balanced research. Based on the findings of the

current study, I propose the following directions for future research on citizenship

education worldwide, especially citizenship education for adolescents.

The multi-dimensional nature of citizenship and citizenship education provides a

fertile ground for further investigation (Cogan and Derricott, 2000). Scholars who have

conducted research on citizenship have discussed citizenship from various perspectives.

Kennedy, for example, discussed students' conceptions of good citizens as well as "active

citizens" by examining the different dimensions of the second IEA Civic Ed study

(Kennedy, 2007, 2010). Others (Fairbrother, 2005; Lam, 2005; Tse, 2007) have discussed

citizenship from community and spatial perspectives. Empirical studies conducted by

Law and his colleagues (Law, 2007; Law and Ng, 2009) identified four inter-related

dimensions of citizenship among Hong Kong and Shanghai students, namely personal

and social dimensions, the local dimension, the national dimension, and the global

dimension. All of these studies provide a solid foundation to further enhance our

understanding of the various components of citizenship. Although the focus of this study

is not solely on the elements of citizenship, it is necessary to devote continued research to

how citizenship and citizenship education are perceived, implemented, and acted on by

students and teachers in multiple contexts including schools, neighborhoods, and

community alike.

It is not just enough, however, to advance theory without empirical validation. Such

validation can be done through various research methodologies: document analysis of

policy discourse and public opinion polls, replication of studies on different populations,

and secondary analyses of existing large-scale international studies. In addition to the

scale of citizenship perceptions, other scales created in this study can be further validated

through similar future studies. One example would be the expansion of the classroom

climate, as this was taken from the IEA Civic Ed study but modified to fit the Chinese

context. Future studies can also utilize mixed methods (both quantitative and qualitative)

to examine the climate not only inside a social studies class, but also include issue-based

or project-based learning, and expand the context to a different school setting or

community setting. Homana, Barber and Torney-Purta (2006) have developed an

inventory of school climate that contains seven features, and future studies can utilize

such an inventory to further examine the influence of school on students' civic learning.

Moreover, the civic value scale created for this study can be used for future studies that specifically investigate citizenship education in China, since the scale contains values promoted in citizenship education in both Hong Kong and Mainland contexts. Empirical validation, together with theoretical improvement can bring citizenship education research to a new level. Future studies should utilize and improve the scales that I have developed in this study so researchers can examine the social issues that are of global importance, given the increasing worldwide attention to global migration and environment issues.

Another important area of future research is students' socialization as well as the multiple contexts [e.g., see Helwig, Arnold, Tan and Boyd (2003) for a study on Chinese adolescent's reasoning of democracy and authority-based contexts]. In this study I focused on the influence of media, family background, and extracurricular activities, but I believe each one of these areas can become a solid study of its own when examining contextual influences. The influence of the mass media and international events, for example, can be further explored through various channels (e.g., Law, 2010; Lee, Chan & So, 2005). The effects of the media were averaged in this study to produce an overall score; however, future studies should aim at evaluating the different channels of media influence, as well as the extent to which media influences and interacts with students from various family backgrounds. Another important contextual influence is students' family backgrounds. Common background measures such as students' gender, parental education, and socio-economic status do not appear to be factors that are significantly associated with students' civic attitudes and civic engagements in this study. However, further studies are needed to examine the family backgrounds, as researchers have shown

various results regarding their relationship with students' citizenship learning. What has

not been empirically analyzed in this study is the larger context such as neighborhoods,

cities, and the nation-state. It is important to examine how citizenship education is

implemented in schools with how it is defined, and how, if any, school citizenship is

linked with the local community for students to make sense of it and develop not only

knowledge, but also competency and skills.

Further, there is still a need to study and analyze how teachers' attitudes and

practices impact students, and how those attitudes and practices reflect national and local

policies. It may not be feasible to analyze these variables statistically in a small-scale

study, but it certainly would be more beneficial to conduct large-scale studies like the

IEA CivEd study. Moreover, multiple methods can be utilized to study the influence of

various contexts, and a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods can

compliment each other and uncover more in-depth information about students'

socialization and the environment in which they interact with parents, teachers, peers and

society as a whole.

Concerning links between attitudes and behaviors, this study provides solid results

concerning the strong association between civic attitudes and civic engagement. This

study examines not only students' current behaviors with regard to social issues, but also

their future intentions to improve their overall civic awareness. Future studies might use

either a panel design, or employ longitudinal methods to further examine the relationship

between civic attitudes and civic engagement. Moreover, it was not feasible to tease out

the cognitive and affective components of civic attitudes in this study, due to the

relatively small number of items, but this continues to be an area of interest for future

scholars, especially those with a focus on psychological insights of civic learning. The linkage between students' current attitudes towards issues and their future intensions of civic engagement found in this study can serve as a starting point for more rigorous study of the psychological nature of attitudes and behaviors, especially in the adolescent population.

Finally, more meaningful comparative studies and more rigorous principles need to be established. Citizenship education in the Asia Pacific region, especially in Greater China, is still a topic that lacks researched compared to their Western counterparts. Case studies of single societies exist (e.g., Lee, 2003; Lee, 2007; Leung & Yuen, 2009), as well as studies that compare more than one society in China (e.g., Fairbrother 2003, 2008; Ho, 2003; Law, 2004; Law and Ng, 2009), but they are relatively limited. This study \ contributes to this stream of research by further enhancing the intra-national comparative studies on citizenship education. However, a comparative study must not be a simple combination of two different localities, but it must entail a careful consideration and contemplation of the similarities and differences of two levels and/or places. In my comparison pursuit in this study, I have uncovered many nuances, despite my knowledge of both of these Chinese cities, and despite of the pre-fieldwork design that attempted to take into account all the possible matching contexts of the sites. Apples and oranges, of course, cannot be compared meaningfully, nor can there be interesting contrasts if everything is modeled to fit the exact format. Future scholars should be encouraged to engage in comparative work within China and between China and other parts of the world. They should also initiate international collaboration on citizenship education research. As Sears and Huges (2005) point out, to achieve such an international

collaboration, we need to go beyond the simple borrowing and transferring process, recognize the complexity of educational reforms, acknowledge the various understanding related to citizenship education and democracy, and truly nurture a commitment to cooperation and collaboration.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I began with the contextual similarities and differences of the reform effort on citizenship education in Hong Kong and Shanghai, echoing Law's (2007) framework that various contextual players other than schools (the nation-state, and the local government, for example) also have significant influence on students' learning of citizenship education. After comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences of the eighth-grade students' citizenship perceptions, civic attitudes, and civic engagement, I highlighted several important themes that previous researchers have overlooked. I presented the significance as well as the limitations of the current study, followed by implications for future policy-making and future research on citizenship education. In sum, the completion of this study maybe the end of a doctoral research project, but it is just the beginning of another, or probably a series of scholarly work in the pursuit of better understanding students' citizenship learning and their civic attitudes and engagements. I concluded with proposals to enhance the status the citizenship education in schools, to provide better teacher training as well as more support for a comprehensive youth policy and youth participation. As far as a future research agenda is concerned, better understanding towards citizenship, more empirical studies of a comparative nature on civic attitudes and behaviors, as well as giving more attention to the various contexts

will be essential to advance the research of citizenship education not only in a several

regions in China, but also in a collaborative mode internationally.

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Appendix A: Approval Letter from Institutional Research Bureau (IRB)

08/22/2008

Yongling J Zhang
EdPA3345
330 WullH
Minneapolis Campus

RE: "Citizenship Education in China: Comparing Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and
Civic Engagement in Shanghai and Hong Kong"
IRB Code Number: 0807P39541

Dear Yongling Zhang

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) received your response to its stipulations. Since this
information satisfies the federal criteria for approval at 45CFR46.111 and the requirements set by
the IRB, final approval for the project is noted in our files. Upon receipt of this letter, you may
begin your research.

IRB approval of this study includes the consent form for students received August 5, 2008 and
consent form for teachers received July 10, 2008.

The IRB would like to stress that subjects who go through the consent process are considered
enrolled participants and are counted toward the total number of subjects, even if they have no
further participation in the study. Please keep this in mind when calculating the number of
subjects you request. This study is currently approved for 1000 subjects. If you desire an
increase in the number of approved subjects, you will need to make a formal request to the IRB.

For your records and for grant certification purposes, the approval date for the referenced project
is July 29, 2008 and the Assurance of Compliance number is FWA00000312 (Fairview Health
Systems Research FWA00000325, Gillette Children's Specialty Healthcare FWA00004003).
Research projects are subject to continuing review and renewal; approval will expire one year
from that date. You will receive a report form two months before the expiration date. If you
would like us to send certification of approval to a funding agency, please tell us the name and
address of your contact person at the agency.

As Principal Investigator of this project, you are required by federal regulations to inform the IRB
of any proposed changes in your research that will affect human subjects. Changes should not be
initiated until written IRB approval is received. Unanticipated problems or serious unexpected
adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

The IRB wishes you success with this research. If you have questions, please call the IRB office
at 612-626-5654.

Sincerely,

Felicia Mroczkowski, CIP
Research Compliance Supervisor

Appendix A2: Information Sheet and Informal Consent Form for Students

Dear Students,

Greetings. My name is Yongling Zhang and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Policy and Administration, at the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities in the United States. You are receiving this information sheet because I am asking for your consent in participating in my fieldwork research for my doctoral dissertation entitled: Citizenship Education in China: comparing eighth-grade students' civic attitudes and civic engagement in Shanghai and Hong Kong.

Your teacher has introduced me to you and we will be there on the day of the administration of the questionnaire, if you have any other questions. This research is supervised by my co-advisors, Dr. John Cogan and Dr. Joan DeJaeghere. If you have any questions, they can be reached at: cogan002@umn.edu, and deja0003@umn.edu. In addition, the department chair, Prof. Darwin Hendel, also acknowledges my project and you can also contact him for additional questions at: hende001@umn.edu.

I appreciate your time in participating my research project. It is very important for me to understand what you think on certain issues and how you are learning through classroom studies and extra-curricular activities. Please remember that there will not be a third party, other than you and me, who can have access to the completed questionnaire. Your parents, your class teacher, or any other teachers in your school, are not allowed to read your questionnaire. Your name is not filled out on the questionnaire, and your privacy is fully protected.

This research has minimal risk, you will lose approximately 30 minutes time in completing the questionnaire. Although there is no direct benefit associated, you can certainly give your opinion and help me, as well as your teachers to better understand your learning and engagement as a young citizen. These understandings may help your teachers to plan better lessons and organize more meaningful and interesting activities in the future.

Your participation is completely voluntary and the information sheet is for you to keep a record. Should you change your mind, you can either withdraw your consent, before I administer the questionnaire, or check the withdraw box on the questionnaire (anonymous). Please feel free to contact me if you have any other questions. My e-mail address is: zhang429@umn.edu, my U.S. phone number is: +1-612-598-3537, my China phone number is: +86-21-5677 3798.

Thank you for your cooperation and wish you all the best in your future study!

Appendix A3: Information Sheet and Consent form For Teachers

Dear Class Teacher,

Greetings. My name is Yongling Zhang and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Policy and Administration, at the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities in the United States. You are receiving this information sheet because I am asking for your consent and assistance in my fieldwork research for my doctoral dissertation entitled: Citizenship Education in China: comparing eighth-grade students' civic attitudes and civic engagement in Shanghai and Hong Kong.

I will use the result of the research to write my doctoral thesis as partial fulfillment of the degree requirement. This research is supervised by my co-advisors, Dr. John Cogan and Dr. Joan DeJaeghere. If you have any questions, they can be reached at: cogan002@umn.edu, and deja0003@umn.edu. In addition, the department chair, Prof. Darwin Hendel, also acknowledges my project and you can also contact him for additional questions at: hende001@umn.edu.

I appreciate your time and assistance for my research project. You will grant me access to your class, and introduce to the students my role as a researcher. You will also help me distribute the questionnaire on site. Please be noted that, although I can talk to you about some general pattern from the students' questionnaire, I am not able to share any individual data with you, nor will I provide any completed questionnaire with individual identifier.

This research has minimal risk, you will lose approximately 30 minutes time on site, in supervising the students complete the questionnaire. You will, however, get some benefit from the research, you can better understand how students perceive the classroom environment in social studies courses, and how effective the extra-curricular activities are in promoting civic engagement among students. These better understanding may help you, as well as other teachers in your school, to plan better lessons and organize more meaningful and interesting activities for students to participate.

Once you agree and sign the consent form on the following page, you will receive one copy for yourself to keep the records. Please feel free to contact me before and after the administration of the survey, if you have any other questions. My e-mail address is: zhang429@umn.edu, my U.S. phone number is: +1-612-598-3537, my China phone number is: +86-21-5677 3798.

Thank you for your cooperation and wish you all the best!

Please fill out the following form:

I, _____ (Please print your name), agree to assist Yongling

Zhang, doctoral candidate from the University of Minnesota, in introducing her to my students

and distributing a questionnaire to my students in the classroom.

Signature: _____   Date: _____

Signature of the researcher: _____   Date:_____

Appendix B1: Survey on Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement
(English Version)

1. Please answer the following questions:

Your School:	Gender:	Date of Birth:		Place of Birth：	
Are you a class council member?	Yes ☐	No ☐			
Do you volunteer in your community?	Yes ☐	No ☐			

2. The highest level of your expected education is：

Junior high school	☐	Senior high school	☐	Secondary vocational	☐	Tertiary vocational	☐	Undergraduate level	☐	Postgraduate level	☐

3. Your parents' highest educational levels are：

	Primary	Junior High	Secondary vocational	Senior high	Tertiary vocational	Undergraduate level	Masters	Doctoral
Mom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4.The estimated household income of your family is：
    A. Under 20,000 RMB B. 20,000-40,000 RMB C. 40,000-60,000 RMB
    D. 60,000-80,000 RMB E. 80,000-100,000 RMB F. 100,000 RMB and above

5. The average time you spent watching news per week via the following channel is:

	0-2Hours	3-5Hours	6-8Hours	9-11Hours	12Hours or more
a. Newspaper	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. TV	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Your most concerns national issues are (Select up to three):

    A. National economic development   B. Cross-Taiwan Strait relationship   C. Educational reform   D. Beijing Olympics 2008   E. Sino-Japanese relationship

    F. Building a harmonious society   G. Job market   H. Healthcare reform I. Housing reform J. Anti-corruption K. Others, please specify _____

7. The average time you spent discussing news per week with the following people is:

	0-2Hours	3-5Hours	6-8Hours	9-11Hours	12Hours or more
a. Parents	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Teachers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Please indicate how you feel about these concepts of citizenship：

	Very negative	Negative	Somewhat negative	Somewhat positive	Positive	Very positive
a. citizen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. participation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. democracy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. patriotism	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Please indicate your opinion towards these statements by choosing one of these: strongly disagree, partially agree, partially agree and strongly agree.

It is good for society, when…	Strongly disagree	Partially disagree	Partially agree	Strongly agree
Issue 1: Legal justice				
1. the basic rights of every citizen are protected by the court.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. all of the legal enforcement officers are honest.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. harsh punitive procedures are used to reduce the crime rate.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. laws are made only by smart people.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. everyone is equal before the law.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. people can do whatever they want according to their free will.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. the legal system is fair.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. violations of the law will be handled correctly.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Issue 2: Domestic migration				
1. new migrants, regardless of their occupations, bring diversity to the city.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. working opportunities for Shanghai natives are threatened by new migrants.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. new migrants enjoy the same level of social benefit as Shanghai / Hong Kong natives.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. everyone has the right to choose the place to live and work.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. new migrants create a lot of headache-inducing problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. new migrants are treated unequally.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. most people sympathize with new migrants and treat them well.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. new migrants strive for the same level of social rights as Shanghai / Hong Kong natives.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Issue 3: Environment protection				

1 everyone has a strong awareness for environment protection.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2 more advanced technologies are implanted to solve environment problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3 economic development is prioritized over environment protection.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4 factories and manufactures shoulder more responsibility towards environment protection.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5 immediate actions are taken on environment protection.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6 people are pessimistic about environment problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7 everyone is concerned about environment problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8 everyone feels capable of protecting the environment from individual level.	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Please indicate the frequency of the following situations in your civic and moral education classrooms, where 1: Almost never, 2: Occasionally 3: Sometimes 4: Often 5: Very frequently

In our civic and moral classrooms,	1	2	3	4	5
The teacher lectures and students take notes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Students complete exercises on workbooks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We bring current social issues into classroom discussions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expressing our opinions is respected and encouraged by the teacher.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher emphasizes the importance of learning facts when learning about political events.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher encourages us to discuss social issues with people of different opinions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher shows us different opinions on the same issue in our classroom.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from those of the majority of the class.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Students holding different opinions can discuss and exchange ideas freely.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can express my opinion freely even if it differs from that of the teacher.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher asks students to memorize all kinds of definition.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher encourages students holding a different opinion from his/hers to express themselves freely.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. How often do you participate in the following organizations?

	Almost never	A couple of times per semester	A couple of times per month	A couple of times per week	Almost daily
a. Class council	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

b. Youth chapter of a political party	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Other school organizations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Student-run newspaper	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. An organization for environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. An organization for volunteering	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. What is your reason for participating the organizations mentioned above?

a. to compliments what I learn in school	b. to learn knowledge that are otherwise unavailable on books
c. to develop my own leadership potential	d. to help those that need helped
e. to make myself feel happy	f. Others, please specify：

13. How often do you participate in the following activities?

	Almost never	A couple of times per semester	A couple of times per month	A couple of times per week	Almost daily
a. Campaign about legal awareness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Legal education for youth	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Donations to charities that help migrants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Tutoring migrant children	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Community clean-up	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Re-use and recycle	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14 The following proposals are put forward to raise people's civic awareness, in your opinion，

The most effective one would be (Select one):	
The least effective one would be (Select one):	
A. Promote civics through non-profit advertisements	B. Distribute pamphlets for people to read
C. Develop specific courses about civics and morality	D. Campaign through posters and banners in schools and communities (considered least effective by most students)
E. Propaganda of exemplary deeds	F. Self-improvement to influence others

15. Please indicate your willingness to act upon these proposals in the future:

	Very unwilling	Somewhat unwilling	Somewhat willing	Very willing
Promote civics through non-profit advertisements	☐	☐	☐	☐

Distribute pamphlets for people to read	☐	☐	☐	☐
Develop specific courses about civics and morality	☐	☐	☐	☐
Campaign through posters and banners in schools and communities	☐	☐	☐	☐
Propaganda of exemplary deeds	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self-improvement to influence others	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. Please indicate the most influential source of your formation of civic awareness (Select one):

A. Parents B. Teachers C. Friends D. Famous historical people E. Famous contemporary people
F. Popular culture (e.g., TV, movies, or novels) G. School education H. Others, please specify__

17. Please indicate how important these civic values are:

Civic Value	Not at all important	Unimportant	Important	Very important
A stable society	☐	☐	☐	☐
A homeland safe from invasion	☐	☐	☐	☐
Good manners and etiquette	☐	☐	☐	☐
Freedom of speech	☐	☐	☐	☐
Performing responsibility in society	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self independence	☐	☐	☐	☐
Piety to parents	☐	☐	☐	☐
Serving the public	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trustworthiness	☐	☐	☐	☐
Protecting the natural environment	☐	☐	☐	☐
Equality	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tolerance of differences	☐	☐	☐	☐
Contribution to society	☐	☐	☐	☐

＊ ＊ ＊ Thank you for completing the survey！ ＊ ＊ ＊

Appendix B2: Survey on Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement (Simplified Chinese Version)

1. 请回答以下个人基本情况问题:

学校:		性别:		出生年月:		出生地:	
你担任班干部么?		是	☐		否	☐	
你平时参加社区志愿活动么?		是	☐		否	☐	

2. 你所期望完成的最高学历是:

初中	☐	高中	☐	中等职业学校	☐	高职或大专	☐	大学本科	☐	研究生	☐

3. 你父母的最高文化程度:

	小学	初中	中专	高中	大专	大学本科	硕士	博士
妈妈	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
爸爸	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4.你家庭的年收入情况 :

    B. 2万元以下 B.2万－4万元 C.4万到6万元 D.6万到8万元 E.8万到10万元 F.10万元以上

5. 你每周通过以下渠道了解新闻时事的时间大约是多少?

	0－2小时	3－5小时	6－8小时	9－11小时	12小时以上
a. 报纸	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 电视	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 互联网	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. 你最关注的国家大事是: （可多选，不超过三项）

    A.国民经济发展　B.台湾问题　C.教育改革　D.北京08年奥运会　E.中日关系

    F.和谐社会　G.就业　H.医疗费用改革 I.住房改善 J.反腐问题 K.其他 _____

7.你和以下人们每周大约花多少时间来讨论新闻时事?

	0－2小时	3－5小时	6－8小时	9－11小时	12小时以上
a. 父母	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 老师	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c.朋友们	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. 以下几个名词代表了公民教育的基本概念，请指出你对这些名词的评价:

	非常负面	负面	有些负面	有些正面	正面	非常正面
a. 公民	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

b. 人民	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 参与	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. 民主	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. 爱国	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. 社区	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. 以下你会看到一些关于社会的说法。请指出你自己对这些说法的意见： 强烈反对， 倾向反对， 倾向赞同， 强烈赞同，请选择一个，并在相应的地方打钩。

关于社会的说法：	强烈反对	倾向反对	倾向赞同	强烈赞同
每个公民的基本权利都得到法院保障，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
有诚实的执法人员，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
用严厉的刑事惩罚来降低犯罪率，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
由聪明的人来制订法律， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
法律面前人人平等，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
人们可以根据自己意愿做任何事情，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
有公平公正的法律制度，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
违法行为会得到正确处理，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民，包括新上海人和外来务工者，给社会带来多样性，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
上海人的工作机会受到城市新移民的威胁，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民和上海人享有一样的社会福利，对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
人们有权自由选择生活和工作的地方， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民造成很多令人头痛的问题， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民受到不公正待遇， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
大多数人对于城市新移民都怀有同情并善待， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民争取和上海人一样的社会福利和权利， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
人们有更强的环保意识， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
用更加发达的科技来解决环境问题， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
先发展经济，再考虑环保问题， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
工厂和制造者们对环保更加负责， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
对于环保采取更加紧急的行动， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
人们对于环境问题很悲观， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
每个人都关注环境问题， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐
人们感到有能力从个人层面开展环保， 对社会发展是好的	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. 以下是一些有关思想品德和拓展型课程课堂气氛的说法，请根据你自己的经验指出这些情况发生的频率。1：几乎没有，2：偶尔有，3：有时有，4：经常有，5：几乎一直有。

在我们的课堂里：	1	2	3	4	5
老师讲课，学生记笔记	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
学生们做课本上或者习题册上的练习	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我们会把当前的社会问题带到课堂上来讨论	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老师尊重我们的意见并鼓励我们在课堂上表达自己的想法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
当我们学习政治事件时候，老师强调学习事实的重要性	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老师鼓励我们和与我们观点不同的人一起讨论社会问题	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在课堂上老师会向我们展示一个问题的几个不同立场	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
即使我的观点和班上大多数同学不一样，我也可以自由发表我的见解	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
不同意见的同学之间可以自由讨论，发表各自的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在我们的课堂里：	1	2	3	4	5
即使我的观点和老师的不一样，我觉得我也可以表达我的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老师要求我们大家牢记各种定义	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老师鼓励和自己有不同意见的学生自由发表他（她）的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. 在这些课外活动中，你平均多久参加一次活动？

课外活动：	几乎从不	每学期几次	每月几次	每周几次	几乎每天
a.班级组织活动	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b.少先队组织活动	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c.拓展型课程的项目	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d.学生自办的报纸	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e.一个旨在进行环保活动的组织	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f.一个旨在开展志愿活动的组织	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
具体说明的活动(如果有)：	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. 你是用什么理由来决定参加以上组织活动呢？（单选）（   ）

a.和学校学习有良好的互补	b.通过参加活动来学习课本上学不到的知识
c.通过参加活动来培养自己的领导人才能	d.对于那些需要帮助的人和事情提供帮助是我的责任
e.参加活动让我感觉心情愉快	f.其他，请具体说明：

13. 在这些活动中，你平均多久参一次？

活动：	几乎从不	每学期几次	每月几次	每周几次	几乎每天

a.青少年法规学习	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b.法律宣传活动	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c.为贫困人群捐款捐物	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d.帮助城市新移民同学补习功课	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e.参与周围社区环境清洁	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. 废旧物品回收利用	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. 假如现在请你来策划一个活动帮助提高大家的公民意识和公民素养，下列待选方案中

你觉得最有效的办法是（单选）：（　　　）	
你自己最无效的办法是（单选）：（　　　）	
A.通过电视广播新闻和广告，宣传道德言行	B.出一些相关的书刊画册等发给大家阅读
C.开设专门的公民道德教育课程	D.在街头、社区和学校贴标语横幅进行宣传
E.树立优秀人物作榜样，积极宣传榜样的言行	F.从自己做起，用自己的言行去影响周围人

15. 你会愿意身体力行以上这些方案么？

	非常不愿意	比较不愿意	比较愿意	非常愿意
宣传电视广播新闻和广告里的道德言行	☐	☐	☐	☐
阅读一些相关的书刊画册	☐	☐	☐	☐
学习专门的公民道德教育课程	☐	☐	☐	☐
在街头、社区和学校贴标语横幅进行宣传	☐	☐	☐	☐
树立优秀人物作榜样，积极宣传榜样的言行	☐	☐	☐	☐
从自己做起，用自己的言行去影响周围人	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. 对你的公民意识形成影响最大的是（单选）：（　　　）
A.父母亲　　B.老师　　C.朋友或熟人　D.历史人物　E.当代社会榜样　F.电影、电视剧或小说　　　G.课堂教育　　H.其他，请具体说明：

17. 公民教育赋予人们作为生活准则的价值观，请判断以下价值观在你生活中的重要性：

价值观	完全不重要	不太重要	比较重要	非常重要
社会稳定	☐	☐	☐	☐
保卫祖国免受敌人侵略	☐	☐	☐	☐
举止得体有教养	☐	☐	☐	☐
言论和思想自由	☐	☐	☐	☐
履行责任和义务	☐	☐	☐	☐
自立	☐	☐	☐	☐

孝敬父母	☐	☐	☐	☐
充满激情的生活，体验各种刺激	☐	☐	☐	☐
实现共产主义理想	☐	☐	☐	☐
服务大众	☐	☐	☐	☐
诚实守信	☐	☐	☐	☐
保护自然环境	☐	☐	☐	☐
平等	☐	☐	☐	☐
宽容对待他人	☐	☐	☐	☐
贡献社会	☐	☐	☐	☐

＊＊＊感谢你完成这份问卷！＊＊＊

Appendix B3: Survey on Eighth-Grade Students' Civic Attitudes and Civic Engagement (Traditional Chinese Version)

1. 請填寫以下個人基本情況:

學校:	性別:	出生年月:	出生地：
你在班級擔任甚麼職務麼?	是 ☐	否 ☐	
你參加社區志願活動麼?	是 ☐	否 ☐	

2.你所期望完成的最高學歷是:

中三	☐	中五	☐	中七	☐	高級文憑或副學士	☐	學士	☐	碩士或博士	☐

3. 你父母的最高學歷是:

	小學	中三	中五	中七	高級文憑或副學士	學士	碩士	博士
媽媽	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
爸爸	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. 你家庭的年收入大約是：

　　C.　8萬元以下 B. 8－16萬元 C. 16－24 萬元 D. 24－32萬元　E. 32－40萬元 F. 40萬元以上

5. 你每週通過以下渠道了解新聞時事的時間大約是多少?

	0－2小時	3－5 小時	6－8 小時	9－11 小時	12 小時以上
a. 報紙	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 電視	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 互聯網	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. 你最關注的大事是：（可多選，不能超過三項）

　　A.國民經濟發展　B.大陸與台灣的關係　C.教育改革　D.北京08年奧運會　E.中日關係
　　F.和諧社會　G.就業　H.醫療費用改革　I.公共住房改善 J.打擊腐敗 K.其他，請寫出 _____

7. 你每週和以下人們討論新聞時事的時間大概是多少?

	0－2小時	3－5 小時	6－8 小時	9－11 小時	12 小時以上
a. 父母	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 老師	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 朋友們	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. 以下是幾個有關公民教育的名詞，當你看到這些名詞時候，你對他們的第一印象評價是:

	非常負面	負面	傾向負面	傾向正面	正面	非常正面
a. 公民	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 人民	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 參與	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. 民主	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. 愛國	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. 社區	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. 以下你會讀到一些關於三個社會問題的說法，分別是：法律公正，城市新移民和環境保護。請指出你對這些說法的意見,在"強烈反對"，"傾向反對"，"傾向贊同"，"強烈贊同"中選擇一個，並在相應的地方打鈎。

我對於以下社會問題的說法表示:	強烈反對	傾向反對	傾向贊同	強烈贊同
法律公正				
1.每個公民的基本權利都得到法院保障，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.社會里有誠實的執法人員，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.用嚴厲的刑事懲罰來降低犯罪率，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.由部份聰明的人來制定法律，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.法律面前人人平等，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.人們可以根據自己意願做任何事情，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.社會里有公正公平的法律制度，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.所有違法行為都得到正確處理，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
城市新移民				
1.城市新移民，包括來港的專業人才和務工者，給社會帶來多樣性，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.香港人的工作機會受到城市新移民的威脅，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.新移民和香港人享有一樣的社會福利，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.每個人都有權自由選擇生活和工作的地方，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.新移民造成很多令人頭痛的問題，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.新移民受到不公正待遇，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.大多數人對於城市新移民都懷有同情並善待，對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐

8.新移民爭取和香港人一樣的社會權利， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
环境保护				
1.每個人都有強烈的環保意識， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.用發達的科技來解決環境問題， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.先發展經濟，再考慮環保問題的方法， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.工廠和製造者們對環保持有負責的態度， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.每個人都於環保採取緊急的行動， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.每個人對於環境問題都很悲觀， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.每個人都關注環境問題， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.每個人都感到有能力從個人層面開展環保， 對社會發展是好的。	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. 以下你將看到一些有關通識教育和／或生活與社會課程的課堂氣氛的說法，請根據你自己的經驗指出這些情況發生的頻繁程度。 1：幾乎沒有， 2：偶爾有，3：有時有，4：經常有， 5：幾乎一直有 。

以下情況在我們的课堂里：	1	2	3	4	5
1.老師講課，我們記筆記	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我們做課本上或者習題冊上的練習	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我們把當前的社會問題帶到課堂上來討論	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
以下情況在我們的课堂里：	1	2	3	4	5
老師尊重我們的意見並鼓勵我們在課堂上表達自己的想法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
當我們學習政治事件時候，老師強調學習事實的重要性	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老師鼓勵我們和與我們自己觀點不同的人一起討論社會問題	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在課堂上老師會向我們展示一個問題的幾個不同立場	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
即使我的觀點和班上大多數同學不一樣，我也可以自由發表我的見解	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
不同意見的同學之間也可以自由發表各自的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
即使我的觀點和老師的不一樣，我覺得我也可以表達我的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老師要求我們大家牢記各種定義	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
老師鼓勵和自己有不同意見的學生自由發表他（她）的看法	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. 在以下組織中，你的參與頻率是怎麼樣的？ 如果你有參與其他組織，請具體說明

	幾乎從不	每學期幾次	每月幾次	每周幾次	幾乎每天
a. 學校的學生會	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. 一個青少年團體	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. 學校的興趣小組	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d.學生自辦的報紙	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

e.一個旨在進行環保活動的組織	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f.一個旨在開展志願活動的組織	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. 其他非政府組織機構	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. 其他2（請具體說明）：	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. 你是用甚麼理由來決定參加以上組織活動的頻率呢? 請選擇一個最重要的 （　）

a. 和學校學習有良好的互補	b. 通過參加活動來學習課本上學不到的知識
c. 通過參加活動來培養自己的領導人才能	d. 對於哪些需要幫助的人和事情提供幫助是我的責任
e. 參加活動讓我感覺心情愉快	f. 其他，請具體說明：

13. 以下活動中，你參加的頻率是怎麼樣的? 如果你有參加其他課外活動，請具體說明

	幾乎從不	每學期幾次	每月幾次	每周幾次	幾乎每天
a.青少年法律法規學習	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b.法律宣傳活動	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c.為貧困人群捐款捐物	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d.幫助新移民同學補習功課	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e.周圍社區環境清潔	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. 廢舊物品回收利用	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. 其他（請具體說明）：	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. 假如現在請你來策劃一個活動幫助提高大家的公民意識和公民素養，下列待選方案中

你覺得最有效的辦法是（單選，請填在括號裡）：（　　）	
你覺得最無效的辦法是（單選，請填在括號裡）：（　　）	
A. 通過電視廣播新聞和廣告，宣傳道德言行	B. 出一些相關的書刊畫冊等發給大家閱讀
C. 開設專門的公民道德教育課程	D. 在街頭、社區和學校貼標語橫幅進行宣傳
E. 樹立優秀人物作榜樣，積極宣傳榜樣的言行	F. 從自己做起，用自己的言行去影響周圍人

15. 對於以下方案，你會願意親自參與麼?

這些方案的親自參與，我會：	非常不願意	比較不願意	比較願意	非常願意
通過電視廣播新聞和廣告，宣傳道德言行	☐	☐	☐	☐
出一些相關的書刊畫冊等發給大	☐	☐	☐	☐

家閱讀				
開設專門的公民道德教育課程	☐	☐	☐	☐
在街頭、社區和學校貼標語橫幅進行宣傳	☐	☐	☐	☐
樹立優秀人物作榜樣，積極宣傳榜樣的言行	☐	☐	☐	☐
從自己做起，用自己的言行去影響周圍人	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. 對你的公民意識形成影響最大的是（請選擇一個）：（　　　）
A.父母親　B.老師　C.朋友或熟人　D.歷史人物　E.當代社會榜樣　F.電影，電視劇或小說　　G.課堂教育　H.其他，請具體說明：

17. 公民教育賦予人們作為生活準則的價值觀，請判斷以下價值觀在你生活中的重要性：

這些價值觀在我看來：	完全不重要	不太重要	比較重要	非常重要
社會穩定	☐	☐	☐	☐
保衛祖國免受敵人侵略	☐	☐	☐	☐
舉止得體有教養	☐	☐	☐	☐
言論和思想自由	☐	☐	☐	☐
履行責任和義務	☐	☐	☐	☐
自立	☐	☐	☐	☐
孝敬父母	☐	☐	☐	☐
充滿激情的生活，體驗各種刺激	☐	☐	☐	☐
實現共產主義理想	☐	☐	☐	☐
服務大眾	☐	☐	☐	☐
誠實守信	☐	☐	☐	☐
保護自然環境	☐	☐	☐	☐
平等	☐	☐	☐	☐
寬容對待他人	☐	☐	☐	☐
貢獻社會	☐	☐	☐	☐

＊＊＊ 問卷到此結束，感謝你的回答，並請檢查沒有遺漏任何問題！＊＊＊