

1 **Profiles of Adolescents’ Perceptions of Democratic Classroom Climate and Students’ Influence: The**
2 **Effect of School and Community Contexts¹**

3 Frank Reichert*, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR

4 Jiaxin Chen, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China

5 Judith Torney-Purta, University of Maryland, College Park, USA

6 *Corresponding author: Room 217, Runme Shaw Building, Faculty of Education, The University of Hong
7 Kong, Pok Fu, Lam Road, Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, Phone: +852 2241 5571, Email: reichert@hku.hk

8 **Abstract**

9 Students’ learning experiences and outcomes are shaped by school and classroom contexts. Many studies have
10 shown how an open, democratic classroom climate relates to learning in the citizenship domain and helps nurture
11 active and engaged citizens. However, little research has been undertaken to look at how such a favorable
12 classroom climate may work together with broader school factors. The current study examines data from 14,292
13 Nordic ninth graders (51% female) who had participated in the International Civic and Citizenship Education
14 Study in 2009, as well as contextual data from 5,657 teachers and 618 principals. Latent class analysis identifies
15 profiles of students’ perceptions of school context, which are further examined with respect to the contextual
16 correlates at the school level using two-level fixed effects multinomial regression analyses. Five distinct student
17 profiles are identified and labeled “alienated”, “indifferent”, “activist”, “debater”, and “communitarian.”
18 Compared to indifferent students, debaters and activists appear more frequently at schools with relatively few
19 social problems; being in the communitarian group is associated with aspects of the wider community.
20 Furthermore, being in one of these three groups (and not in the indifferent group) is more likely when teachers act
21 as role models by engaging in school governance. The results are discussed within the framework of ecological
22 assets and developmental niches for emergent participatory citizenship. The implications are that adults at school
23 could enhance multiple contexts that shape adolescents’ developmental niches to nurture active and informed
24 citizens for democracies.

25 **Keywords:** classroom climate; developmental niche; efficacy at school; person-centered analysis; student voice;
26 youth civic engagement

¹ This is the version that was accepted for publication. The published version should be cited as:
Reichert, F., Chen, J., & Torney-Purta, J. (2018). Profiles of adolescents’ perceptions of democratic classroom
climate and students’ influence: The effect of school and community contexts. *Journal of Youth and
Adolescence*, 47(6), 1279–1298. DOI: [10.1007/s10964-018-0831-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0831-8).

27

Introduction

28 In many democratic countries, a major goal of schooling is to prepare active and engaged citizens who contribute
29 to decision-making in their societies and communities. Schools can foster this goal by formal and informal means,
30 and many studies have shown that positive school climates that encourage students to share their opinions and
31 shape aspects of their schools are important in the academic and civic development of students (Mager and Nowak
32 2012). Schools with positive school and classroom climates are characterized by principals, teachers and other
33 staff who value students' contributions to school life and provide "genuine opportunities for collaboration,
34 cooperation and communication" (Homana et al. 2006, p. 7). According to Barber et al. (2015a) and Knowles et
35 al. (in press), students who perceive that their school provides such a favorable climate are more likely to be
36 interested in politics, to trust civic institutions, to feel politically efficacious and to intend to participate in legal
37 forms of political behavior; they are less likely to engage in illegal political protest. Hence, schools in democratic
38 societies have strong incentives to provide a positive school and classroom environment.

39 How do students differ in their perceptions of the democratic climate at their school, and what contextual
40 variables explain these differences in students' perceptions? The analysis of students' perceptions of school
41 climate is important, because people usually act in accordance with their perceptions of others, their perceived
42 control over their behaviors and their own goals (Ajzen 2001). Fostering educational outcomes is enhanced when
43 school leaders understand the perspectives and beliefs of students (as well as those of teachers). A school
44 environment designed to be supportive can promote civic development and participation effectively only to the
45 extent that adolescents themselves perceive that school climate as open for student voice.

46 It was the goal of the current study to identify distinct groups or clusters of students characterized by different
47 patterns or profiles in their perceptions of school context using a person-centered statistical approach. A person-
48 centered approach enables researchers to identify groups of students characterized by distinct and similar patterns
49 in their perceptions of school climate, and it better accounts for potential heterogeneity than variable-centered
50 approaches (Collins and Lanza 2010).

51 A limitation of previous studies is that most have examined students' perceptions of school context as
52 individual predictors of other variables, such as civic knowledge or expected participation (Knowles et al. in
53 press). A nuanced analysis of the contextual effects on these perceptions is missing in the literature, and the extent
54 to which patterns of contextual factors and students' perceptions of school climate are associated with valued
55 outcomes remains unclear. Yet as Eckstein and Noack (2014) analyzing longitudinal data from three age cohorts
56 of German adolescents suggest, contextual factors should be seriously considered when studying adolescents'

57 civic development. Characteristics of the community context can have indirect effects on the civic development
58 of young people through adolescents' perceptions of their schools' contexts. A second goal of the current analysis
59 was therefore to examine the school-level and community-level correlates of distinct profiles of students'
60 perceptions of school climate.

61 This article addresses these goals using data collected in 2009 from nationally representative samples of ninth
62 grade students in four countries with well-developed structures for democratic school participation and decision-
63 making: Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden. Despite some differences among the Nordic societies, this
64 context provides a suitable background for analyzing differential perceptions of school climate and how contextual
65 variables relate to these distinct perceptions. Among other reasons, these countries have long histories of stable
66 representative, parliamentary democratic traditions. Further, their educational policies, schools and curricula
67 emphasize the value of civic education (Gilljam et al. 2010), and their citizens are better prepared to participate
68 in politics and less likely to be politically alienated than citizens of many other countries (Amnå and Zetterberg
69 2010; Dahl et al. 2017). Although student voice and participation at school is valued in such contexts according
70 to the policy documents, the ideal of student participation may not be fully realized at the local level (Blossing et
71 al. 2014). In other words, students may not perceive the welcoming climate for their voices and participation at
72 school that the policy documents and curricula prescribe.

73 This analysis is framed within aspects of ecological frameworks of civic and human development. The study
74 utilizes the concept of "ecological assets" (e.g., Theokas and Lerner 2006) commonly referred to in research on
75 positive youth development. Schools can be compared to ecological systems situated in their communities where
76 multiple assets may help students to develop their strengths (or prevent them from doing so). Furthermore, this
77 analysis is also framed by the "developmental niches model" that explicitly links students' political socialization
78 and citizenship engagement to the contexts in which they develop (Torney-Purta and Amadeo 2011). These
79 approaches provide more meaningful interpretations of students' perceptions of the school context than previous
80 studies; they also offer evidence that these perceptions and civic development are related to the available
81 ecological assets.

82 **Developmental Niches for Emergent Participatory Citizenship**

83 Contemporary literature on youth development focuses on the associations between individual development and
84 contextual factors. According to Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011), adolescents' participation in civic and political
85 life can be labeled as "emergent participatory citizenship". Although adolescents cannot participate in political
86 life as adults do, they can develop the knowledge, skills and dispositions essential for future engagement and

87 participation as adult citizens through their present participation in the civic and political activities available to
88 them (Barber et al. 2015b). Furthermore, these researchers argue that emergent participatory citizenship develops
89 in a particular *niche*. There are a number of dimensions to this niche that can reinforce each other, some reflecting
90 present circumstances in which the young person is developing and other reflecting the past (e.g., traditions of a
91 particular group). Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011), based on a review of qualitative studies, propose an
92 ecological model that is particularly designed to frame the civic development of adolescents.

93 Specifically, Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) identified three dimensions of developmental niches
94 contributing to emergent participatory citizenship. First, they identified settings that are directly relevant to
95 adolescents' development, such as characteristics that are unique to them and their families (e.g., ethnicity or how
96 individuals in a family interact); characteristics that may be shared within a local community (e.g., economic
97 resources, opportunities for civic engagement); and schools, where they may (or may not) be offered opportunities
98 to practice forms of participation that can strengthen their sense of efficacy and help them develop a civic identity.
99 Based on the results of a secondary analysis of survey data from ten countries, Torney-Purta and Barber (2011)
100 emphasize that positive social interactions in these everyday settings have the potential to prevent alienation from
101 politics. This finding aligns with reviews of research that argue that a civic identity develops in social interactions
102 within everyday contexts (Carretero et al. 2016), and that collective activities over time based on shared rules (i.e.
103 involvement in "communities of practice") foster such development (Homana in press).

104 Second, Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) note that parents and educators attempt to organize developmental
105 niches in line with their own experiences, affiliations, and the economic, educational, and social resources that
106 are available to them. Torney-Purta and Barber (2011) also emphasize the role of adults' beliefs in the civic
107 development of adolescents. Longitudinal survey research on African-American and Latino adolescents in the US
108 utilizing this model further suggests that social interactions with teachers and aspects of the school and classroom
109 climate can support the development of positive civic engagement (Jagers et al. 2017).

110 Finally, societal customs and cultural beliefs determine some characteristics of the developmental niche.
111 Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) and Torney-Purta and Barber (2011), for example, refer to mandatory civic
112 education in schools, limitations on speaking openly about social and political issues, or a belief that educators
113 should not express partisan points of view. In addition, characteristics of the individual adolescent also influence
114 the developmental niche and, hence, the development of the qualities essential for future participation. The
115 development of emergent participatory citizenship to a large extent depends on "external" and "internal" assets.

116 Applied to the civic realm, the developmental assets framework suggests that the civic development of young
117 people can be enhanced if ecological (external) assets, such as social networks and access to resources in their
118 families, schools and communities, align with or promote adolescents' individual strengths (i.e. internal assets)
119 (Lerner et al. 2014). Assets can also be generated by providing opportunities for adolescents to actively engage
120 with their environments. Thereby, positive youth development can be stimulated and result in adolescents'
121 contributions to society, such as civic engagement that is in accordance with a democratic political process, and
122 at the same time lessen anti-social behaviors (Lerner et al. 2014; Torney-Purta et al. 2007).

123 **School Climate and Emergent Participatory Citizenship**

124 Schools are an important developmental niche for emergent participatory citizenship; adolescents are responsive
125 to both curricular influences and the participatory climate (Eckstein and Noack 2016). In fact, the school climate
126 has been identified as an important asset for the academic and civic development of adolescents (Barber et al.
127 2015a; Mager and Nowak 2012). Students who share beliefs with other school members, are aware of and respect
128 school rules, and sense that they are valued at school have the potential to develop character and school
129 connectedness, which have been identified as protective factors for positive youth development (Torney-Purta et
130 al. 2007). The present study focusses on an open classroom climate for discussion and on opportunities for students
131 to participate more broadly in interconnected aspects of a school's overall climate (see also Eckstein and Noack
132 2014): Schools with a positive climate value students input both in the form of active engagement and the sharing
133 of views about issues, which support positive civic development (Torney-Purta and Amadeo 2011; Torney-Purta
134 and Barber 2011).

135 **Civic knowledge.** One of the most commonly studied correlates of school and classroom climate in variable-
136 centered analyses is the association with civic and political knowledge. For example, Persson (2015) analyzed
137 panel data from Swedish adolescents who were approximately 16. He found evidence for a causal effect of
138 students' perception of an open classroom climate on civic knowledge. In additional analyses of the cross-
139 sectional international Civic Education Study (CivEd) that collected data from 14-year-olds in 28 countries in
140 1999, Persson (2015) identified similar relationships both for the Swedish sample and across all 28 countries.
141 Analyses of the cross-sectional data from eighth graders who participated in the International Civic and
142 Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) in 38 countries in 2009 also found positive associations between both
143 classroom and school climate (considered separately) and students' levels of civic knowledge (e.g., Lin 2014;
144 Schulz et al. 2013).

145 **Civic efficacy.** Studies using the US CivEd data also found positive associations between efficacy (i.e. students'
146 perceived capacity to influence public decisions and/or the responsiveness of public institutions) and classroom-
147 level measures of open classroom climate for discussion (Barber et al. 2015a; Godfrey and Grayman 2014). A
148 multilevel analysis of data from 14 European countries in the ICCS showed that eighth graders' perceptions of
149 their classroom as open for discussion were positively associated with measures of internal political efficacy
150 (Knowles and McCafferty-Wright 2015). Manganelli et al. (2015) used the Italian sample of the ICCS and found
151 that citizenship self-efficacy mediates the effect of an open classroom climate on students' intentions to engage
152 in civic activities. This is similar to the analysis of cross-sectional data from Australian tenth graders by Reichert
153 and Print (2017a), who found that the effect of self-reported participation at school on expected political
154 participation is mediated by the perception that students' participation at school is valued.

155 **Citizenship-related attitudes.** In their variable-centered analysis of the US CivEd data, Barber et al. (2015a)
156 further found a positive association between individual students' trust in government institutions and the
157 classroom-level aggregate of openness of classroom climate. Similarly, Dassonneville et al. (2012) using panel
158 data from Belgian adolescents aged 16 and 18 years identified a positive effect of the school-level aggregate of
159 an open classroom climate on adolescents' trust in governmental institutions. Other analyses of the CivEd data
160 also found positive associations between a classroom climate that students perceive as open for discussion and
161 their support for women's rights as well as for immigrants' rights (Barber et al. 2015a; Barber et al. 2015b; Torney-
162 Purta et al. 2007).

163 **Civic participation.** Finally, analyses of the US CivEd data have shown that students who perceive their
164 classroom as more open for discussion are more likely to intend to vote in elections as adults (Campbell 2008)
165 and less prone to participate in illegal protest activities (Barber et al. 2015a). Analyses of data from 35 countries
166 that participated in the ICCS also support the view that an open classroom climate is positively associated with
167 voting intentions, legal political protest and informal political participation (Quintelier and Hooghe 2013).

168 **Conclusion.** The school climate is often conceptualized as a characteristic of the school context but frequently
169 measured using student reports. Previous research using several sources of data has identified the perceived school
170 climate as an important predictor of adolescents' civic development in multiple domains of participatory
171 citizenship. However, students' perceptions often vary significantly within a school, and there are likely to be
172 groups of students who share different perceptions of their school's climate (Shukla et al. 2016). Yet it remains
173 unclear how adolescents' perceptions of the school climate hang together or diverge, and how such patterns are
174 associated with civic development. No analysis has been conducted on patterns of adolescents' perceptions of the

175 school context as supportive for student voice and participation, and little is known about how different ecological
176 assets are associated with students' perceptions of their school's climate.

177 **Ecological Assets and Youth Development**

178 According to Theokas and Lerner (2006), the following assets can influence adolescents' development: human
179 resources (e.g., parent's education); physical and institutional resources (e.g., opportunities to engage with others);
180 joint activities; as well as ease of access to resources and safety of the environment. These assets can be found in
181 different forms in the everyday settings where adolescents are embedded and may be regarded as potential
182 predictors of school climate.

183 **Individual and family context.** Among the human assets that are associated with positive youth development
184 and likely also with the development of emergent participatory citizenship are gender, ethnicity, and
185 socioeconomic status (SES) (Li and Lerner 2011; Torney-Purta and Amadeo 2011). Li and Lerner (2011), for
186 instance, examined longitudinal data from US students over four years from grades five to eight. They found
187 lower behavioral and emotional school engagement among boys and adolescents from lower income families;
188 African Americans reported lower behavioral engagement, and Latino adolescents reported lower emotional
189 engagement, than other youths (Li and Lerner 2011). Reichert and Print (2017b), in their cross-sectional analysis
190 of data from Australian tenth grade students, report that girls perceived their schools as more supportive of student
191 participation. In their longitudinal analysis of German adolescents, Eckstein and Noack (2014) found that girls in
192 Germany reported a higher sense of community at school than boys, but there were no gender differences with
193 respect to other aspects of the school climate. Yet, Barber et al. (2015a), in their analysis of the US sample from
194 the cross-sectional CivEd study, report that girls perceived more open discussion climates at school. Another
195 analysis of these data found that boys and African American students perceived the classroom climate as less open
196 for discussion than girls and students from other ethnic backgrounds (Campbell 2007).² Finally, using the first
197 wave of data they collected from fifth grade students in the US, Theokas and Lerner (2006) also found that joint
198 activities within a family predicted positive youth development. Shared discussions with family or peers may
199 enable adolescents to recognize opportunities to share their opinion in other settings, which in turn could be
200 associated with their perceptions of classroom and school climates.

201 **School context.** Several aspects related to the availability of school assets were considered in this analysis. On
202 one hand, research has shown that the background of the student body, also referred to as student composition of

² Note that data about ethnic group membership was collected as a national option and categories varied across countries, limiting the analysis possible with the CivEd and ICCS datasets.

203 the school, provides a context that can be more or less nurturing (Harris 2010). Studies using the US CivEd data
204 found that adolescents' perceptions of classroom climate were more similar among students at schools with higher
205 percentages of students from high SES backgrounds (Barber et al. 2015a). Furthermore, Reynolds et al. (2014)
206 who reviewed studies of student achievement conclude that it is generally beneficial to be at a school with a high
207 proportion of girls. The absence of social problems at school is also an important ecological asset (Theokas and
208 Lerner 2006), but factors like this have not been the focus in research on school climate.

209 On the other hand, there are teacher-related assets, such as years of experience and skills in teaching, as well
210 as opportunities for students to observe teachers taking on leadership by participating in collaborative school
211 governance (Theokas and Lerner 2006). Again, limited research exists. However, in a cross-sectional study of
212 fifth grade students in the United States Koth et al. (2008) found that students' perceptions of the school being a
213 safe place were more positive the more experienced the teachers were.

214 **Community context.** Many schools are part of a neighborhood, and students' perceptions of the school climate
215 may also be shaped by community contexts. For example, Zaff et al. (2011) report a longitudinal analysis using
216 data from US adolescents from grades eight to eleven, according to which active and engaged citizenship is
217 positively associated with participation in religious activities and youth development programs. A study using
218 data from the ICCS found that students at schools in urban communities are less likely to intend to participate in
219 the future, and the presence of social tensions in the community were negatively associated with students' civic
220 knowledge (Isac et al. 2014). However, Campbell's (2007) analysis of the US CivEd data yielded no significant
221 effect of urbanicity on perceived classroom climate. Research on other community factors that may be associated
222 with students' perceptions of the school climate, such as physical resources in the community (e.g., libraries,
223 youth facilities) and opportunities for student participation in community organizations, is limited. Whether
224 characteristics of the community are associated with the perceived climate at school deserves further exploration.

225 **Current Study**

226 Using data from four countries with well-developed structures for democratic school participation that participated
227 in the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) 2009, the current analysis addressed some
228 limitations of previous studies. This analysis was guided by two research questions: First, we wanted to know
229 whether there are distinct groups of students characterized by different patterns in their perceptions of school
230 contexts. The focus was on aspects of the school climate and within-school heterogeneity in students' perceptions
231 of the school climate. That is, students may perceive the school climate differently despite them being enrolled in
232 the same school. Distinct patterns of adolescents' perceptions of the school context as supportive for student voice

233 and participation could also be associated in different ways with civic development. Therefore, we further asked
234 whether adolescents' perceptions of the school climate correlate with indicators of emergent participatory
235 citizenship.

236 In particular, we hypothesized that it would be possible to identify multiple groups and at least one group
237 would show signs of alienation. That is, students in such a group would be characterized by negative perceptions
238 of school climate and score low on correlates of school climate. Previous research by Torney-Purta (2009) using
239 data on civic attitudes from an earlier study (CivEd) found a small group of students who were generally alienated
240 from democratic norms. This politically alienated group expressed anger about ethnic minorities and immigrants
241 in their country and were cynical about national government institutions. This analysis did not examine alienation
242 specific to the school context. Similar results were reported by Reichert (2016b) in a more recent analysis of
243 survey data from Australian secondary school students. The current study therefore sought to investigate whether
244 there is a group expressing attitudes of alienation when asked about the contexts of their classrooms and schools.

245 Generally speaking, a person-centered approach is required to examine whether there are definable groups of
246 students with respect to their perceptions of school and classroom contexts. This approach, which identifies
247 clusters or latent classes of students, is better suited to identify patterns of heterogeneity among adolescents than
248 the variable-centered approaches that dominate research on civic development (Reichert 2016a). In addition, the
249 findings of person-centered research tend to be easier to grasp for policy makers, educators and the public than
250 the results of variable-centered analyses of large-scale assessments (Torney-Purta and Barber 2011). This is true
251 in particular when complemented by follow-up analyses that can link response profiles to external variables
252 (Reichert 2016b), such as indicators of emergent participatory citizenship.

253 This analysis first identifies patterns of student responses to questions about the contexts they experience in
254 their schools (whether students have voice in decisions) and in their classrooms (whether an open and respectful
255 classroom climate prevails). Previous analysis has focused on the latter and has not conceptualized these as two
256 distinct but closely related arenas in which students can experience positive participation. Second, the analysis
257 explores which contextual variables – found in the way the school is organized and governed and in characteristics
258 of the local community – are associated with the distinct patterns of students' perceptions of school context for
259 student voice and participation. To put it differently, if there is within-school heterogeneity in students'
260 perceptions, it is helpful to explore which aspects of everyday contexts such as families, schools, and communities
261 are associated with distinct profiles in these perceptions of the school and classroom climate.

262

Methods

263 Data

264 The International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) 2009 database was utilized to investigate whether
265 profiles of attitudes toward participation in classroom and schools could be identified. If such profiles (latent
266 classes) existed, how were they related to contextual variables at the school and community levels? ICCS is an
267 international large-scale assessment of fourteen-year-olds' civic knowledge and understanding, dispositions and
268 attitudes (Schulz et al. 2011). The database also includes contextual variables about students' family background
269 (from student surveys), the school and community context (from surveys of school principals), and about teachers
270 of the sampled schools. ICCS used a stratified two-stage probability sample design, based on schools sampled
271 with probability proportional to size during the first stage, and one intact class of target-grade students and a fixed
272 number of target-grade teachers randomly selected during the second stage (for details on the samples and data
273 collection procedures see Schulz et al. 2011). Table 1 reports the raw sample sizes; however, in subsequent
274 analyses all four countries were weighted equally to balance the unequal sample sizes.

275

<INSERT TABLE 1 HERE>

276 **Student sample.** A total of 14,292 eighth grade students from 664 schools in Denmark, Finland, Norway and
277 Sweden participated in ICCS. Student participation rates were above 91% in all four countries. However, school
278 participation rates were slightly below 90% in Denmark and Norway. Therefore, the (weighted) overall
279 participation rates in the student survey were somewhat lower in Denmark (78%) and Norway (79%) compared
280 to Finland (90%) and Sweden (93%).

281 **Teacher sample.** All four countries met the rigorous sampling criteria set by the International Association for the
282 Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) in relation to the student survey (Schulz et al. 2011), but Denmark
283 and Norway had relatively low overall response rates in the teacher survey. While the participation rates were
284 acceptable at the teacher level, only roughly half of the Danish and Norwegian schools decided to participate in
285 the teacher study. Hence, the (weighted) overall participation rates in the teacher survey were quite low in
286 Denmark (42%) and Norway (35%), whereas these rates were acceptable in Finland (85%) and Sweden (76%).
287 In sum, 5,657 teachers from 516 schools participated in ICCS.

288 Measures

289 All students were assessed and surveyed in class, and the assessment was conducted by a trained test administrator
290 (details about data collection procedures in Schulz et al. 2011). Before students completed the international student
291 questionnaire (about 40 minutes), they also participated in an assessment of their civic knowledge and

292 understanding (exactly 45 minutes). Teacher questionnaires were sent to each school for each sampled teacher,
293 and a school questionnaire was sent to the school principal, except for Sweden where the principal and teacher
294 questionnaires were administered online. All measures utilized in the present study are based on the ICCS
295 framework; the school and class climate measures had also been included in previous administrations of the survey
296 (Torney-Purta et al. 2001). The scales utilized were created using item response theory techniques (see Schulz et
297 al. 2011, for a list of items used, scales constructed, and additional references). The use of these scales eases
298 interpretation, as these estimates were scaled in a way that makes it possible to compare them across all countries
299 participating in the administration of the test and survey in 2009. Scales derived from questionnaire items have an
300 international mean of 50 and an international standard deviation of 10 across all 38 countries that participated in
301 the ICCS (Schulz et al. 2011). Civic knowledge and understanding was rescaled to that scale for the present
302 analysis. For all scales, higher scores mean “more” of the respective construct.

303 **School climate.** Twelve items measured students’ perceptions of two dimension of school climate. In many of
304 the analyses of the CivEd and ICCS data, this item set has been separated into two scales – “Open Classroom
305 Climate for Discussion” and “Confidence in Participation at School” (e.g., Torney-Purta et al. 2001). Both aspects
306 can be considered indicators of school climate or of democratic experiences at school (see Eckstein and Noack
307 2014). Two innovations in the current analysis are to use the items from both scales without distinguishing
308 between classroom and school climate and then to identify clusters of students who have definable profiles of
309 experience in the classroom and the school as a whole. The perception of classroom climate as being open for
310 discussion was measured by items one to seven in Table 2, followed by the question: “When discussing political
311 and social issues during regular lessons, how often do the following things happen?” Students could respond on
312 a four-point scale (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often). Items eight to twelve in Table 2 measured
313 students’ perception of the value of student participation at school following the question: “How much do you
314 agree or disagree with the following statements about student participation at school?” (reverse coded into: 1 =
315 strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree). Although items and not scales were analyzed here,
316 both climate scales were reliable in all four countries (Cronbach’s $\alpha \geq .74$).

317 <INSERT TABLE 2 HERE>

318 **Distal outcomes.** Six additional scales were used to explicate the meaning of the student profiles. The mean of
319 five measures provided in the international database was used to measure *civic knowledge and understanding*

320 ($\alpha \geq .81$).³ Students' internal political efficacy was measured by means of six items (e.g., I am able to understand
321 most political issues easily; $\alpha \geq .87$). Citizenship-related attitudes were measured by five items on students'
322 support for *democratic values*. This scale combines the aspects of freedom of speech and citizenship-related rights
323 (e.g., all people should have their social and political rights respected; $\alpha \geq .68$). Finally, three measures of students'
324 expected participation as adults were used: On the one hand, students' expectations to participate in elections
325 (*future electoral participation*) were measured by three items (e.g., expectation to vote in national elections;
326 $\alpha \geq .79$). On the other hand, protest-related political participation was measured via two scales: The six-item scale
327 *future legal protest* (e.g., collecting signatures for a petition; $\alpha \geq .78$) was used as a measure of widely accepted
328 protest participation in democracies, whereas *future illegal protest*, as anticipated by the adolescents, was also
329 included (3 items, e.g., occupying public buildings; $\alpha \geq .86$).

330 **Student- and family-level correlates.**⁴ At the student level, sociodemographic information that reflects
331 individual or family-based assets shaping the developmental niche for emergent participatory citizenship is used
332 in correlational analyses: students' *gender* (0 = boy, 1 = girl) and family SES, measured via the common proxy
333 *home literacy* (six-point scale from 0 = 0-10 books to 5 = more than 500 books; see Persson 2015, for a
334 justification of this measure). *Discussions* of political and social issues with parents and/or peers *outside of school*
335 was measured by four items (e.g., talking with parent(s) about political and social issues) as another aspect of the
336 developmental niche ($\alpha \geq .79$).

337 **School-level predictors.** At the school-level, the *percentage of girls* in the school sample was used, and the *school*
338 *SES* was measured as the average of students' home literacy background. These aggregate measures reflect
339 important aspects of the school. Further, ease of access to educational resources was measured as the ratio of
340 students per teacher at school (*student-teacher ratio*). Safety of the school environment was measured as *social*
341 *problems at school*, indicating the prevalence of disruptive behaviors of students at school (e.g., frequency of
342 vandalism, bullying etc.), as reported by the principal (9 items, $\alpha \geq .71$).

343 **Community-level predictors.** All community-level measures of ecological assets were measured via the
344 principal questionnaire. The *size of the community* (five-point scale, from 0 to 4: village, small town, town, city,
345 large city) was used as an indicator of urbanicity. The available *resources in the community* are ecological assets
346 and were measured by six items (e.g., public library, museum or art gallery; $\alpha \geq .72$). Furthermore, *opportunities*

³ Following the tradition of other large-scale assessments of the IEA, the items that assessed students' civic knowledge have not been made available to those conducting secondary analysis.

⁴ Although information about students' immigration status was collected (see first note), these data were reserved for future analysis.

347 *for student participation* in the local community are institutional resources and were measured by means of seven
348 items (e.g., human rights projects, cultural activities; $\alpha \geq .66$). Finally, 12 items measured potential *social tension*
349 *in the community* (e.g., youth gangs; $\alpha \geq .83$). This is another measure of safety of the physical environment
350 located at the community-level.

351 **Teacher-level predictors.** Teachers and the nature of their teaching play a vital role in students' opportunities for
352 open discussions and meaningful participation at school. The specific sampling strategy employed in ICCS results
353 in teachers of all subjects being sampled and in teachers' responses being aggregated to the school level. Three
354 variables were used as indicators: The indicator of gender balance was the *percentage of female teachers*. In
355 addition, *teachers' experience* in teaching students was measured in years (averaged); their self-reported ability
356 to apply a range of teaching methods (*confidence in teaching methods*) was also examined. The confidence in
357 teaching methods scale contained eight items (e.g., group work, lecturing; $\alpha \geq .65$). Finally, the school is a place
358 where teachers can serve as role models for students by demonstrating collaborative *participation in school*
359 *governance*. Seven items measured this ecological asset (e.g., teachers actively take part in school development
360 activities; $\alpha \geq .80$).

361 **Data Analysis**

362 The research questions were addressed in several steps. First, two-level latent class analysis (LCA) was performed
363 in Latent Gold 5.1 (Vermunt and Magidson 2016) to identify distinct groups of students, where students within
364 groups would be more homogenous in relation to their perceptions of school climate than students between groups.
365 The two-level analyses accounted for the data structure with students being nested in schools; missing responses
366 were handled in the Likelihood function while conducting the LCA (Vermunt and Magidson 2016). Relative fit
367 measures were utilized and triangulated against classification reliability to decide on the number of groups (latent
368 classes) that would be most suitable to describe the student sample in terms of their perceptions of school context.
369 The identified latent classes were then inspected with respect to a range of potential student-level correlates (distal
370 outcomes) to better understand the groups and to validate their distinctiveness.

371 Finally, two-level fixed effects multinomial regression analyses were performed to predict group membership
372 using contextual variables. On the one hand, school, community and teaching contexts are distinct conceptually
373 and with respect to the types of measures and the participation rates. On the other hand, the number of schools is
374 limited, and the higher-level model might be inflated by considering all contexts in one analysis. Therefore,
375 separate models were estimated to examine: (1) characteristics of the student and home background, which shape
376 the developmental niche above and beyond other contextual influences; (2) school-related characteristics; (3)

377 community context; and (4) the aggregated teacher variables. The analyses described in points (2) through (4)
378 were performed controlling for student characteristics. Because missing data in the predictor variables could not
379 be properly handled as part of these analyses, a two-level multiple imputation (“EM imputation”) was performed.
380 Furthermore, predictors that were scaled by means of item response theory were grand mean-centered in these
381 analyses.

382 **Results**

383 **Distinct Groups**

384 In a first step, LCA of students’ perceptions of the classroom climate and overall school climate items (see
385 Table 2) were performed separately for each country. The fit indices indicated that five latent classes would be
386 most suitable to describe the data in each country (based on the relatively smallest information criteria; Collins
387 and Lanza 2010). In a next step, LCA of the pooled data from all four countries were performed. In Table 3, we
388 see that several fit indices favored a solution with four or five latent classes, as some did not decline substantially
389 (Collins and Lanza 2010).⁵ Additional tests were conducted to examine whether the identified groups have the
390 same response profiles in each country. All slopes were found to be invariant across the four countries. However,
391 two items were identified to have non-invariant thresholds using item-level invariance tests (Kankaraš, Miloš,
392 Moors, Guy and Vermunt 2011).⁶ In addition, models with different group sizes across countries performed better
393 than models assuming that group sizes would be identical in all four countries (see Table 4). Therefore, the latent
394 class model with two direct effects and unequal group sizes was selected as most appropriate to describe the data.

395 <INSERT TABLE 3 HERE>

396 The following section presents the profiles of students’ perceptions of the school climate and how these
397 profiles are associated with civic knowledge, attitudes, and expected adult participation. This characterization
398 helps us to better understand the differences and similarities among the identified groups. Given that a group of
399 alienated students identified according to their more general social attitudes had been found in earlier analysis, in
400 this analysis we wanted to examine whether there is a group of students alienated from participation in their
401 schools. Subsequently, associations between contextual variables and student profiles are presented to understand
402 which ecological assets are meaningful predictors of group membership.

⁵ Had we chosen six latent classes, one of these five latent classes would have split into two latent classes (one of them of extremely small size). Furthermore, the fit indices of separate LCA on each aspect of the school climate supported three- to six-class models. Their triangulation suggested five latent classes as the optimal solution, which reflects the student profiles very well. More complex latent class models performed worse than the models reported here.

⁶ “Teachers present several sides of the issues [...]” and “All schools should have a <school parliament>.”

403

<INSERT TABLE 4 HERE>

404 **Latent Class Profiles based on Classroom and School Climates**

405 Figure 1 shows the mean scores for each item and group, whereas Figure 2 provides a more nuanced image of the
406 distinct differences. In addition, student-level distal outcomes were used to provide more detailed descriptions of
407 these groups and to help label each of them (see Figure 3 and Table 5). Table 6 summarizes the group sizes per
408 country and overall.

409 <INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE>

410 <INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE>

411 **Activist.** Starting with the group that reports the most positive school climate, the first group of students was
412 labeled *Assured activists*, as they consistently reported perceiving their school context as very open and supportive
413 for student voice and participation (see Figures 1 and 2). *Activists* are also likely to score high on most indicators
414 of emergent participatory citizenship (see Figure 3): This group on average has the highest levels of civic
415 knowledge and understanding, as well as the highest levels of political efficacy, and the most positive attitudes
416 towards democracy. While this group also shows the highest expectations to participate in a range of political
417 activities in the future, their intentions to participate in illegal protest activities is significantly lower than in most
418 other groups. In total, roughly 16% of all students were in this group, though Finnish and Swedish students were
419 somewhat underrepresented among *Activists* (compared to Danish and Norwegian students).

420 <INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE>

421 <INSERT TABLE 5 HERE>

422 **Debater.** The second and third group had contrasting response patterns. *Constructive debaters* commonly use the
423 two highest response categories, and for the first three items on classroom climate, they primarily respond that
424 this is “often” the case. Although members in this group tend to perceive the classroom as very open for discussion,
425 their perception of the value of student participation in the school as a whole tends to be lower than for *Activists*
426 and the *Communitarians*. Although about one quarter of the students was in this group, almost half of all Danish
427 students were *Debaters*. What makes members of this group distinct from *Communitarians* (the next group to be
428 discussed) is their tendency to engage somewhat more frequently in civic discussions outside school (one tailed
429 $p < .01$), which explains the label. They also had relatively low support for democratic values.

430 **Communitarian.** *Confident communitarians* were given this name due to their high probability to strongly agree
431 with indicators of the value of student participation at the school level. In fact, members of this group and *Activists*
432 never disagreed or strongly disagreed that their participation at school is meaningful. However, these students on

433 average had the second to lowest perceptions of their classroom being open for discussion, and they were in
434 between the *Indifferent* and *Activist* groups in terms of indicators of emergent participatory citizenship. What
435 makes them different from the *Debaters* is their significantly stronger support for democratic values, as well as
436 their less frequent involvement in discussions about social and political issues with peers and parents outside
437 school. *Communitarians* represent the next to smallest group overall and are especially rare in Denmark (see
438 Table 6).

439 <INSERT TABLE 6 HERE>

440 **Indifferent.** The majority of students labeled the *Indifferent* group, reported moderate perceptions of their school
441 context as open and supportive for student voice and participation. Students in this group more frequently used
442 the second highest response category throughout when indicating their perceptions of school climate. Although
443 they were basically in the middle between the previously described groups and the last group that is described
444 below, they were below average on most indicators of emergent participatory citizenship and had attitudes to
445 democracy that were as negative as *Alienated* students. Finally, it is noteworthy that this group comprised less
446 than a third of all students in Denmark, whereas more than half of all Finnish students were categorized as
447 *Indifferent*.

448 **Alienated.** Despite the comparatively negative perception of classroom context among members of the last group,
449 their average perceptions of the value of student participation at school are quite moderate. At the same time,
450 members of this group have a higher likelihood of using the most extreme, negative response category than
451 members of the other groups (see Figure 2). This negative view on school context is associated with the most
452 negative results on other indicators of emergent participatory citizenship: On average, students in this group are
453 least knowledgeable in the civic domain, are least efficacious and have the most negative attitudes towards
454 democracy. Although they are least likely to expect to participate in legal forms of political action in the future,
455 they report the highest levels of expected illegal protest behavior. *Alienated* students form the smallest group in
456 Denmark, Finland and Norway (less than 8%), but in Sweden they are more common than *Communitarians*.

457 **Prediction of Group Membership**

458 Finally, we examined the associations between contextual variables and the student profiles to learn which
459 characteristics of adolescents' contexts are nurturing for emergent participatory citizenship, and which contexts
460 appear conducive to alienation. The largest group of students, the *Indifferent* group, was used as a reference group
461 in the analyses that are presented below.

462 **Group membership and home context.** The student-level analysis (no table) as well as the multilevel analyses
463 displayed in the following tables suggest that girls are more likely than boys to be *Debaters* or *Activists*. The odds
464 of being in the *Alienated* group compared to membership in the *Indifferent* group are significantly higher for boys
465 than for girls. Socioeconomic background, measured via home literacy resources, is negatively associated with
466 being in the *Indifferent* group, that is, higher socioeconomic background goes with better chances of being an
467 *Activist*, a *Debater*, or a *Communitarian*. Finally, the more students discuss social or political issues outside
468 school, the larger their odds of being in the groups of *Activists* or *Debaters*, and the less likely students are to be
469 in the *Alienated* group.

470 **Group membership and school context.** The results in Table 7 show no significant effect for the student gender
471 ratio. However, the odds of being in the *Alienated* group are higher the higher the average socioeconomic status.
472 Furthermore, the principals' report of fewer social problems at the school is positively associated with membership
473 in the *Debater* and *Activist* groups.⁷

474 <INSERT TABLE 7 HERE>

475 **Group membership and community context.** The results in Table 8 suggest that community context *per se*
476 matters less than school context. Variations in community context are primarily associated with membership in
477 the *Communitarian* group. Specifically, smaller, more rural communities, and more opportunities for student
478 participation in the local community are associated with higher odds of being a *Communitarian* rather than an
479 *Indifferent* student. On the other hand, opportunities for student participation in the local community are
480 negatively associated with being a *Debater* (in the classroom setting). In addition, social tension in the community
481 predicts higher levels of membership in the *Alienated* group.

482 <INSERT TABLE 8 HERE>

483 **Latent class membership and teaching context.** Finally, Table 9 shows the effects of teacher variables
484 (aggregated at the school level due to the ICCS sampling design) on group membership. The results indicate that
485 being in schools with a large proportion of male teachers is associated with higher odds of their students being
486 *Activists* or *Debaters*. More importantly, teacher role models seem to matter for the development of emergent
487 participatory citizenship: The more teachers at school are involved in school governance, the higher the odds that
488 students will be in one of the three more advantaged groups in terms of emergent participatory citizenship.
489 Specifically, a one-point increase in teacher participation in school governance goes hand in hand with 3% higher

⁷ All results were compared to analyses in which cases with missing data were eliminated, yielding only one significant difference: Had cases been eliminated from the analyses, we would have identified a significant negative effect of the student-teacher ratio on being in the *Alienated* group ($p < .05$).

490 odds of students being an *Activist*, a *Debater*, or a *Communitarian* instead of an *Indifferent* student. Students at
491 schools where teachers on average are more confident in using a range of teaching methods have higher odds of
492 being in the *Alienated* group and lower odds of being *Communitarians*. Further analysis of teacher data will be
493 necessary to clarify this, remembering that teachers respond to curriculum requirements as well as to perceptions
494 of what will work with their students in developing and using various instructional modes.

495 <INSERT TABLE 9 HERE>

496 **Discussion**

497 This analysis examined ninth graders' perceptions of school context as open and supportive of student voice and
498 participation using large-scale nationally representative cross-sectional data from four Nordic countries. Many
499 studies have shown that positive school climates that encourage students to share their opinions and to contribute
500 to decisions about the school are important for the civic development of adolescents (Knowles et al. in press;
501 Mager and Nowak 2012), but the distinct features and the contextual predictors of how students perceive the
502 school climate remain unclear. The current analysis is the first to show how adolescents differ in their perceptions
503 of the school and classroom climates considered together, and that multiple ecological assets shape how young
504 people perceive the climate at their school. Thus, the contexts that surround young people may contribute to their
505 civic development through multiple and inter-related aspects of the developmental niche (Torney-Purta and
506 Amadeo 2011).

507 Based on a latent class analysis, and in line with the expectation that there is within-school heterogeneity in
508 adolescents' perceptions of school climate contexts, five distinct groups of students with distinct profiles in their
509 perceptions of school context were identified. Subsequent analyses showed that group membership was associated
510 with different levels of civic knowledge, efficacy, and support for democratic values. Furthermore, group
511 membership was also predictive of students' expected participation in political activities in the future. One group
512 expressed negativity about their classes and schools, was unwilling to become engaged and was labeled *Alienated*.
513 The other groups were labeled *Indifferent*, *Activist*, *Debater*, and *Communitarian*, based on students' perceptions
514 of school context. These groups were also characterized by different levels of emergent participatory citizenship.
515 In short, students' perceptions of their contexts at school appear helpful in understanding civic development.
516 Schools and communities should consider encouraging adolescents to share their views and to contribute more
517 fully to decision-making in their schools as Flanagan et al. (2007) and Knowles et al (in press) also argue.

518 In addition, ecological assets at the individual, family, school and community levels were significant
519 predictors of the profiles summarizing perceptions of class and school climate. These results suggest that

520 ecological assets are associated with the civic development of adolescents and that the contexts that surround
521 adolescents form niches that can support or hinder the development of emergent participatory citizenship (Torney-
522 Purta and Amadeo 2011). More precisely, compared to *Indifferent* students, *Alienated* students on average were
523 less frequently engaged in civic discussions outside of school. Members of all the other three groups reported
524 more frequent such discussions than did *Indifferent* students. Furthermore, *Debaters* and *Activists* were more
525 commonly found at schools where principals reported relatively few social problems like bullying. Aspects of the
526 community context such as urbanicity and opportunities for student participation were predictive of being a
527 *Communitarian*; and membership in one of these three groups was more likely if teachers collaboratively engaged
528 in school governance activities. Therefore, both adolescents' distinct perceptions of student voice and influence
529 at school as well as contextual predictors can help identify adolescents who may be at risk of being alienated at
530 school (and potentially in broader settings, which could be examined in future research). These insights may be
531 useful to promote aspects of a productive school climate that can further a positive civic development at a time
532 when young people are susceptible to a variety of potentially negative external influences (Eckstein and Noack
533 2014).

534 **Developmental Niches**

535 In the ecological assets framework, relatively proximal ecological settings are considered in relation to the civic
536 development of young people. These include social networks and access to family, school and community
537 resources (Lerner et al. 2014). These everyday settings are predictors of students' civic development, and are part
538 of the developmental niches model. More precisely, Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) identified three dimensions
539 of developmental niches: settings where adolescents have face-to-face contact with others that are directly relevant
540 to adolescents' development (family, school, peers, community organizations), societal customs, and
541 characteristics and beliefs of those who care for or teach adolescents. The present analysis addressed these
542 dimensions by examining the associations between students' perceptions of the setting of school context and
543 characteristics of their homes, schools, and communities, as well as teaching-related factors. These are daily life
544 settings that matter. Examining both classroom- and school-level opportunities for students to express themselves
545 should be more central to future research on civic development.

546 The idea behind the endpoint of "emergent participatory citizenship" to which these developmental niches
547 contribute is a complex one. It is not that there is a simple relation between living in a home with activist parents
548 or attending a school where students cooperate for the common good and outcomes often associated with
549 participatory citizenship. These niches are multidimensional and often interactive, and they require a multilevel

550 perspective on the civic development of young people that extends beyond formal education processes (see also
551 Amnå 2012; Eckstein and Noack 2016; Lerner et al. 2014). Male and female students may have different
552 experiences, as may be the case for students whose families live below the poverty line (to give just two examples).
553 However, identifying the dimensions that are important, as this analysis does, can provide useful guidance to those
554 who wish to enhance the process of developing emergent participatory citizenship.

555 **Student characteristics and family background.** Previous studies have shown that boys are at greater risk for
556 showing signs of alienation in their general social attitudes (Reichert 2016b; Reichert 2017; Torney-Purta 2009;
557 Torney-Purta and Barber 2011). Similarly, this study found that boys and girls have different likelihoods of being
558 in the *Alienated* group with respect to perceptions of schooling. Even in Nordic schools that provide relatively
559 well-developed structures for democratic school participation (Blossing et al. 2014), boys are less likely to be
560 interested in debate or to believe that their participation at school is valued. At the same time, additional analyses
561 found that boys are less likely to expect to participate in future civic activities, but more likely than girls to report
562 expected participation in illegal protest activities. Future research needs to address the ways in which male and
563 female students differ in how the aspects of the developmental niche at school can positively influence
564 participatory citizenship. For instance, Eckstein and Noack (2014) found stronger sense of community among
565 girls than boys, and that students' sense of community at school was a positive predictor of other aspects of school
566 climate. Building community at school appears to be an important aspect of a nurturing developmental niche
567 (Jagers et al. 2017). Future studies are required to clarify the gender differences in perceiving school climate.
568 Other factors might be considered such as the role of peer interaction outside school in reinforcing alienation
569 among boys (Barber et al. 2015b; Ellis et al. 2018).

570 Home resources also play a role in predicting membership in the identified groups, a finding that is neither
571 novel nor surprising. Especially important is the effect of discussions with peers and parents, however. If students
572 have opportunities to engage in discussions about social or political issues outside of school, they are likely to
573 perceive their school as more valuing and are at less risk of being alienated. Discussions with parents often reflect
574 beliefs that their offspring need to learn about and be able to discuss social and political issues. These experiences
575 could equip adolescents to participate constructively when teachers encourage students to express themselves.

576 **School context.** Schools serve as an important niche for the civic development of adolescents and can provide an
577 environment that reduces alienation. Unsurprising is the finding that the existence of social problems at school
578 (e.g., bullying or vandalism) is associated with lower probabilities of being an *Activist* or a *Debater*. The fewer
579 social problems students encounter at school, the more open and positive will they perceive the school context for

580 sharing opinions and contributing to the school. Students who feel safe at school are more likely to sense that their
581 perspectives and contributions are valued, and disruptive behaviors of other students at school has the potential to
582 hamper emergent participatory citizenship and achievement (Ferrín Pereira et al. 2015; Koth et al. 2008). Hence,
583 schools should continue to place priority on reducing social tensions that present negative contexts for emergent
584 participatory citizenship.

585 **Community context.** The results suggest that community context *per se* matters less than school context in the
586 prediction of membership in the identified groups of students. Furthermore, aspects of the community were
587 primarily associated with membership in the *Communitarian* group, which supports the validity of the chosen
588 label. Smaller communities and communities that provide spaces for participation of adolescents are more likely
589 to be those in which *Communitarians* emerge at school. The provision of opportunities for student participation
590 is an important characteristic of the local community that helps to develop citizens that are neither *Indifferent* nor
591 *Alienated*.

592 **Teaching context.** Adults' expectations and beliefs about education and civic communities have the potential to
593 influence the interactions that take place within the developmental niche where the individual is embedded
594 (Torney-Purta and Amadeo 2011). An important message here is that teachers can serve as models for students.
595 Teachers who are able to take action in school governance can shape developmental niches and become role
596 models for positive development of emergent participatory citizenship. Although Nordic curricula and education
597 policies emphasize the value of democratic participation (Ofstedal Telhaug et al. 2006), the significance of
598 teachers' participation in school governance for motivating students' democratic participation at school could be
599 further emphasized. Blossing et al. (2014) note that the ideal of participation at Nordic schools may not be fully
600 realized at the local level. By way of example, focus group interviews showed that Swedish adolescents do not
601 recognize their schools as places where democracy is practiced (Arensmeier 2010). Schools could intensify their
602 efforts to show that the opinions and contributions of teachers and students matter above and beyond those of
603 school administrators.

604 Amnå and Ekman (2014) discuss the concept of "standby citizens" who are able to and will participate if
605 motivated by worrisome political events. Therefore, adolescents need to be able to identify social and political
606 problems in order to participate in times of need. Developing this ability could be enhanced by small group
607 discussions and reciprocal cooperation in class through which students are encouraged to listen to others and take
608 their perspectives (Arensmeier 2015). However, teachers need to be prepared to scaffold such discussions and to
609 interact with students in ways that encourage them to contribute to their schools.

610 On the other hand, the measures of teaching confidence in this dataset did not relate in expected ways to
611 membership in one of the five groups. One explanation could be that teachers whose classes have many alienated
612 or otherwise difficult students may try to develop the ability to use a wide range of teaching methods to engage
613 them (but will not always succeed). Also remember that the teachers sampled were from a range of subject matters
614 (some of which are less appropriate than others for using the methods listed in the teacher survey).

615 Bayram Özdemir et al. (2016) examined adolescents' civic engagement at school in relation to students'
616 perceptions of teachers' behaviors. Their results revealed that only engaged and inspiring teaching styles fostered
617 adolescents' initiations of civic and political discussions in class. Consequently, the way that civic and political
618 issues are presented for discussion in classrooms may matter more than teachers' confidence in using particular
619 methods. Observational studies are needed to extend the results from the self-reported measures here.

620 **Societal context.** Although the countries in this sample were comparatively homogenous in relation to their
621 cultural and historic traditions, certain profiles were more common in some countries than in others. It appears
622 that students in Denmark are especially likely to live in supportive developmental niches: Only one third of
623 students in this country were in the *Indifferent* or *Alienated* groups, whereas it was nearly half of the students in
624 each of the other three countries. Though the *Indifferent* group was the largest in the other three countries, Danish
625 students were especially likely to be in the group of *Debaters*. Hahn (1998, 2015), who has studied Danish civic
626 education over several decades, raises several possibilities, especially that Denmark is a nation where discussion
627 is valued and widespread (although the term “debater” assigned in this study may indicate somewhat more
628 contention than is common). Sweden – the country with the largest number of students who experience alienation
629 from their schools (compared to Denmark, Finland and Norway) – has taken the market-oriented school system
630 further than other Nordic countries and has implemented a national school inspection system (Blossing et al.
631 2014). Again, we can only speculate whether these facts may be causally related to these country differences.
632 However, it is noteworthy that the ethos of Swedish school inspections has changed over the previous decades
633 (Gustafsson et al. 2014). Furthermore, Ekholm and Lindvall (2012) examined the potential effects of school
634 inspections on value-adjusted marks in Swedish schools with ninth-grade students. These authors found that in
635 46% of the schools that were inspected in 2003 or 2004, the marks declined in the following years, with
636 improvements only in 29% of all schools. Therefore, future research may also need to consider the interaction
637 between the implementation of school inspection and movement toward a market-oriented school system.

638 **Limitations and Future Research**

639 Finally, a few limitations of the present study need to be noted, which also provide avenues for future research.
640 First, the ICCS provides cross-sectional data, hence this research was correlational in nature. Yet it is plausible
641 that contextual variables at the school, community and teaching levels precede students' perceptions of school
642 context (or have a stronger effect on students' perceptions than vice versa). Although large-scale longitudinal data
643 collections are challenging at an international level, future waves of quantitative large-scale studies should make
644 the collection of longitudinal data a priority in order to provide more possibilities for causal analyses in
645 comparative perspective. Using person-centered analysis, longitudinal data would also enable researchers to
646 examine whether, at which age, and perhaps even why transitions in views of school climate take place. Another
647 question is how the effects of developmentally relevant assets may change over time. The combination of
648 longitudinal data and a person-centered approach to its analysis would enable developmental psychologists and
649 school educators to establish nurturing developmental niches for youth at different stages during adolescence.

650 Second, this study had a regional focus on highly developed countries with stable democratic traditions.
651 Future studies should apply person-centered analyses to data from other regions. The ICCS 2009 database
652 provides opportunities in many other countries to extend the present analysis, and another wave (ICCS 2016) will
653 soon be available for analysis.

654 Third, the Danish and Norwegian teacher samples were quite small. Therefore, caution needs to be exercised
655 when drawing conclusions from the teacher analysis. Yet it is also noteworthy that the effect of teachers as role
656 models makes sense. Future research might examine how schooling can be conceived as part of a developmental
657 niche, and analyze the role of concurrent teacher practices across classrooms at school (Jagers et al. 2017).
658 Furthermore, we need a better conceptualization of how peers contribute to these niches. Research has shown that
659 spending time with peers in unstructured contexts out of school is associated with lower levels of civic knowledge
660 and relatively poor attitudes toward women's rights (Barber et al. 2015b), and is also associated with a higher
661 propensity of political alienation (Torney-Purta and Barber 2011).

662 Fourth, the measurement of community context was constrained as it relied on reports by the school
663 principals. It would be better if survey data could be linked with official data and perhaps location. However, this
664 raises issues of data privacy, and the way these data were collected certainly balances costs and benefits quite
665 well.

666 Last, the effects of contextual variables may seem relatively small. It is possible that aspects not measured in
667 the current study are important contextual predictors of the student profiles. However, it is also necessary to note

668 that the scales of the contextual variables differed from those of the student level predictors. For example, being
669 a girl instead of a boy is qualitatively different from a 1% change in the relative number of girls at a school.

670 **Conclusion**

671 Several important conclusions emerge from this study. First, the analysis showed that students' perceptions of
672 whole school contexts and of classroom contexts both contribute to their overall view of their schools as open and
673 supportive for student voice and participation (or alternatively, not open or supportive). Second, these views are
674 intertwined with school and community contexts as reported by teachers and school administrators. Multiple
675 contexts shape the developmental niches of adolescents, as Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2011) proposed. Students'
676 perceptions are not merely a result of individual characteristics or specific classroom experiences. Instead
677 ecological assets in each of these contexts contribute to adolescents' overall perceptions of their school's climate.
678 Characteristics of both the classroom and the school as a whole contribute to this process.

679 These perceptions of the classroom and school are associated with indicators of emergent participatory
680 citizenship. By enhancing the niches in which emergent participatory citizenship develops, students may also
681 perceive more opportunities to shape their environments, which may further support positive youth development.
682 Raising teachers' and community leaders' awareness of the associations between contextual assets, students'
683 perceptions of the school climate, and factors associated with alienation from school are important. Setting ground
684 rules, preparing teachers to scaffold discussions, and more generally building schools in which adolescents can
685 experience a sense of community and practice democratic participation is a promising direction.

686 In addition, the present analysis found differences even among a relatively homogenous set of highly
687 developed countries with long democratic traditions. This aligns with the developmental niches model, which
688 argues that besides historically rooted customs and cultural beliefs, political and social institutions also shape the
689 developmental niches and, hence, emergent participatory citizenship (Torney-Purta and Amadeo 2011).
690 Comparative studies on the development of adolescents are fruitful sources to identify directions for promoting
691 positive youth development. If the aim of civic and citizenship education and related programs is to foster the
692 development of emergent participatory citizenship among adolescents, then adults who surround adolescents need
693 to consider ways to enhance the *various contexts* that constitute adolescents' developmental niches. The present
694 study has shown that multiple contexts may need enhancement in order to support adolescents' civic development
695 and has shown the relevance of ecological assets in that endeavor.

696

697

References

- 698 Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and operation of attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*, 27–58.
- 699 Amnå, E. (2012). How is civic engagement developed over time? Emerging answers from a multidisciplinary
700 field. *Journal of Adolescence*, *35*, 611–627.
- 701 Amnå, E., & Ekman, J. (2014). Standby citizens: Diverse faces of political passivity. *European Political Science*
702 *Review*, *6*, 261–281.
- 703 Amnå, E., & Zetterberg, P. (2010). A political science perspective on socialization research: Young Nordic
704 citizens in a comparative light. In L. R. Sherrod, J. Torney-Purta, & C. A. Flanagan (Eds.), *Handbook of*
705 *research on civic engagement in youth* (pp. 43–65). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- 706 Arensmeier, C. (2010). The democratic common sense: Young Swedes' understanding of democracy -
707 Theoretical features and educational incentives. *Young*, *18*, 197–222.
- 708 Arensmeier, C. (2015). Swedish students' conceptual knowledge about civics and citizenship: An interview
709 study. *Citizenship Teaching & Learning*, *11*, 9–27.
- 710 Barber, C., Sweetwood, S. O., & King, M. (2015a). Creating classroom-level measures of citizenship education
711 climate. *Learning Environments Research*, *18*, 197–216.
- 712 Barber, C., Torney-Purta, J., Wilkenfeld, B., & Ross, J. (2015b). Immigrant and native-born adolescents' civic
713 knowledge and attitudes in Sweden and the United States: Emergent citizenship within developmental
714 niches. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, *10*, 23–47.
- 715 Bayram Özdemir, S., Stattin, H., & Özdemir, M. (2016). Youth's initiations of civic and political discussions in
716 class: Do youth's perceptions of teachers' behaviors matter and why? *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*,
717 *45*, 2233–2245.
- 718 Blossing, U., Imsen, G., & Moos, L. (2014). Schools for all: A Nordic model. In U. Blossing, G. Imsen, & L.
719 Moos (Eds.), *The Nordic education model: 'A school for all' encounters neo-liberal policy* (pp. 231–239).
720 Dordrecht: Springer.
- 721 Campbell, D. E. (2007). Sticking together: Classroom diversity and civic education. *American Politics*
722 *Research*, *35*, 57–78.
- 723 Campbell, D. E. (2008). Voice in the classroom: How an open classroom climate fosters political engagement
724 among adolescents. *Political Behavior*, *30*, 437–454.
- 725 Carretero, M., Haste, H., & Bermudez, A. (2016). Civic education. In L. Corno & E. M. Anerman (Eds.),
726 *Handbook of educational psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 295–308). New York: Routledge.

- 727 Collins, L. M., & Lanza, S. T. (2010). *Latent class and latent transition analysis: With applications in the*
728 *social, behavioral, and health sciences*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- 729 Dahl, V., Amnå, E., Banaji, S., Landberg, M., Šerek, J., Ribeiro, N., et al. (2017). Apathy or alienation? Political
730 passivity among youths across eight European Union countries. *European Journal of Developmental*
731 *Psychology*, <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405629.2017.1404985>.
- 732 Dassonneville, R., Quintelier, E., Hooghe, M., & Claes, E. (2012). The relation between civic education and
733 political attitudes and behavior: A two-year panel study among Belgian late adolescents. *Applied*
734 *Developmental Science*, *16*, 140–150.
- 735 Eckstein, K., & Noack, P. (2014). Students' democratic experiences in school: A multilevel analysis of social-
736 emotional influences. *International Journal of Developmental Science*, *8*, 105–114.
- 737 Eckstein, K., & Noack, P. (2016). Classroom climate effects on adolescents' orientations toward political
738 behaviors: A multilevel approach. In P. Thijssen, J. Siongers, & J. van Laer (Eds.), *Political engagement of*
739 *the young in Europe: Youth in the crucible* (pp. 161–177). New York: Routledge.
- 740 Ekholm, M., & Lindvall, K. (2012). Skolinspektor – i tid och otid. (School inspections - in due time and not so
741 due time). *Pedagogisk Forskning i Sverige*, *13*(1), 41–58.
- 742 Ellis, W., Zarbatany, L., Chen, X., Kinal, M., & Boyko, L. (2018). Peer groups as a context for school
743 misconduct: The moderating role of group interactional style. *Child Development*, *89*, 248–263.
- 744 Ferrín Pereira, M., Fraile, M., & Rubal, M. (2015). Young and gapped? Political knowledge of girls and boys in
745 Europe. *Political Research Quarterly*, *68*, 63–76.
- 746 Flanagan, C. A., Cumsille, P., Gill, S., & Gallay, L. S. (2007). School and community climates and civic
747 commitments: Patterns for ethnic minority and majority students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *99*,
748 421–431.
- 749 Gilljam, M., Esaiasson, P., & Lindholm, T. (2010). The voice of the pupils: An experimental comparison of
750 decisions made by elected pupil councils, pupils in referenda, and teaching staff. *Educational Assessment,*
751 *Evaluation and Accountability*, *22*, 73–88.
- 752 Godfrey, E. B., & Grayman, J. K. (2014). Teaching citizens: The role of open classroom climate in fostering
753 critical consciousness among youth. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *43*, 1801–1817.
- 754 Gustafsson, J.-E., Lander, R., & Myrberg, E. (2014). Inspections of Swedish schools: A critical reflection on
755 intended effects, causal mechanisms and methods. *Education Inquiry*, *5*, 461–479.

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

758 Hahn, C. L. (2015). Teachers' perceptions of education for democratic citizenship in schools with transnational
759 youth: A comparative study in the UK and Denmark. *Research in Comparative and International*
760 *Education, 10*, 95–119.

761 Harris, D. N. (2010). How do school peers influence student educational outcomes? Theory and evidence from
762 economics and other social sciences. *Teachers College Record, 112*(4), 1163–1197.

763 Homana, G. (in press). Youth political engagement in Australia and the United States: School student councils
764 and volunteer organizations as communities of practice. *Journal of Social Science Education*.

765 Homana, G., Barber, C., Torney-Purta, J. (2006). *Assessing School Citizenship Education Climate. Implications*
766 *for the Social Studies*. (CIRCLE Working Paper No. 48). College Park, MD: CIRCLE.

767 Isac, M. M., Maslowski, R., Creemers, B., & van der Werf, G. (2014). The contribution of schooling to
768 secondary-school students' citizenship outcomes across countries. *School Effectiveness and School*
769 *Improvement, 25*, 29–63.

770 Jagers, R. J., Lozada, F. T., Rivas-Drake, D., & Guillaume, C. (2017). Classroom and school predictors of civic
771 engagement among Black and Latino middle school youth. *Child Development, 88*, 1125–1138.

772 Kankaraš, Miloš, Moors, Guy, & Vermunt, J. K. (2011). Testing for measurement invariance with latent class
773 analysis. In E. Davidov, P. Schmidt, & J. Billiet (Eds.), *Cross-cultural analysis: Methods and applications*
774 (pp. 359–384). New York: Routledge.

775 Knowles, R. T., & McCafferty-Wright, J. (2015). Connecting an open classroom climate to social movement
776 citizenship: A study of 8th graders in Europe using IEA ICCS data. *The Journal of Social Studies Research,*
777 *39*, 255–269.

778 Knowles, R. T., Torney-Purta, J., & Barber, C. (in press). Enhancing citizenship learning with international
779 comparative research: Analyses of IEA Civic Education datasets. *Citizenship Teaching and Learning, 13*(1).

780 Koth, C. W., Bradshaw, C. P., & Leaf, P. J. (2008). A multilevel study of predictors of student perceptions of
781 school climate: The effect of classroom-level factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*, 96–104.

782 Lerner, R. M., Wang, J., Champine, R. B., Warren, D. J. A., & Erickson, K. (2014). Development of civic
783 engagement: Theoretical and methodological issues. *International Journal of Developmental Science, 8*(3-
784 4), 69–79.

785 Li, Y., & Lerner, R. M. (2011). Trajectories of school engagement during adolescence: Implications for grades,
786 depression, delinquency, and substance use. *Developmental Psychology, 47*, 233–247.

787 Lin, A. R. (2014). Examining students' perception of classroom openness as a predictor of civic knowledge: A
788 cross-national analysis of 38 countries. *Applied Developmental Science, 18*, 17–30.

789 Mager, U., & Nowak, P. (2012). Effects of student participation in decision making at school: A systematic
790 review and synthesis of empirical research. *Educational Research Review, 7*, 38–61.

791 Manganello, S., Lucidi, F., & Alivernini, F. (2015). Italian adolescents' civic engagement and open classroom
792 climate: The mediating role of self-efficacy. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 41*, 8–18.

793 Oftedal Telhaug, A., Asbjørn Mediås, O., & Aasen, P. (2006). The Nordic model in education: Education as part
794 of the political system in the last 50 years. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 50*, 245–283.

795 Persson, M. (2015). Classroom climate and political learning: Findings from a Swedish panel study and
796 comparative data. *Political Psychology, 36*, 587–601.

797 Quintelier, E., & Hooghe, M. (2013). The relationship between political participation intentions of adolescents
798 and a participatory democratic climate at school in 35 countries. *Oxford Review of Education, 39*, 567–589.

799 Reichert, F. (2016a). Students' perceptions of good citizenship: A person-centred approach. *Social Psychology
800 of Education, 19*, 661–693.

801 Reichert, F. (2016b). Who is the engaged citizen? Correlates of secondary school students' concepts of good
802 citizenship. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 22*, 305–332.

803 Reichert, F. (2017). Young adults' conceptions of 'good' citizenship behaviours: A latent class analysis. *Journal
804 of Civil Society, 13*, 90–110.

805 Reichert, F., & Print, M. (2017a). Civic participation of high school students: The effect of civic learning in
806 school. *Educational Review*, <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2017.1316239>.

807 Reichert, F., & Print, M. (2017b). Mediated and moderated effects of political communication on civic
808 participation. *Information, Communication & Society, 20*, 1162–1184.

809 Reynolds, D., Sammons, P., Fraine, B. de, van Damme, J., Townsend, T., Teddlie, C., et al. (2014). Educational
810 effectiveness research (EER): A state-of-the-art review. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 25*,
811 197–230.

812 Schulz, W., Ainley, J., & Fraillon, J. (Eds.). (2011). *ICCS 2009 technical report*. Amsterdam: IEA.

813 Schulz, W., Ainley, J., & Fraillon, J. (2013). *Student participation at school and future civic engagement:
814 Results from ICCS 2009*, IEA International Research Conference. IEA, Singapore, 2013.

815 Shukla, K., Konold, T., & Cornell, D. (2016). Profiles of student perceptions of school climate: Relations with
816 risk behaviors and academic outcomes. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 57*, 291–307.

817 Theokas, C., & Lerner, R. M. (2006). Observed ecological assets in families, schools, and neighborhoods:
818 Conceptualization, measurement, and relations with positive and negative developmental outcomes. *Applied*
819 *Developmental Science, 10*(2), 61–74.

820 Torney-Purta, J. (2009). International psychological research that matters for policy and practice. *American*
821 *Psychologist, 64*(4), 825–837.

822 Torney-Purta, J., & Amadeo, J.-A. (2011). Participatory niches for emergent citizenship in early adolescence:
823 An international perspective. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 633*,
824 180–200.

825 Torney-Purta, J., & Barber, C. (2011). Fostering young people’s support for participatory human rights through
826 their developmental niches. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 81*, 473–481.

827 Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H., & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and education in Twenty-eight*
828 *countries: Civic knowledge and engagement at age fourteen*. Amsterdam: IEA.

829 Torney-Purta, J., Barber, C. H., & Wilkenfeld, B. (2007). Latino adolescents’ civic development in the United
830 States: Research results from the IEA Civic Education Study. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 36*, 111–
831 125.

832 Vermunt, J. K., & Magidson, J. (2016). *Technical guide for Latent GOLD 5.1: Basic, Advanced, and Syntax*.
833 Belmont, MA: Statistical Innovations Inc.

834 Zaff, J. F., Kawashima-Ginsberg, K., Lin, E. S., Lamb, M., Balsano, A., & Lerner, R. M. (2011). Developmental
835 trajectories of civic engagement across adolescence: Disaggregation of an integrated construct. *Journal of*
836 *Adolescence, 34*, 1207–1220.

837

Acknowledgments

Acknowledgment

We would like to thank Nora Elise Hesby Mathé, Thomas Ringenberg, the journal editor and three anonymous reviewers for their feedback on earlier versions of this article. Furthermore, we would also like to acknowledge the valuable feedback received from the audience that attended a seminar organized by Kerry J. Kennedy and held by the first author at the Centre for Governance and Citizenship at the Education University of Hong Kong on 27 June 2017.

Authors' Contributions

FR conceived of the analysis and its design, performed the statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript. JC participated in the design of the analysis and in the interpretation of the data and helped to draft the manuscript. JTP participated in the interpretation of the data and helped to draft the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Data Sharing Declaration

The data analyzed here are available from the IEA Study Data Repository (<http://rms.iea-dpc.org/>).

Conflicts of Interest

The authors report no conflict of interests.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

The data used in this study were collected by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) and all data collection procedures conformed with the rigorous methodological and ethical standards of the IEA, including informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, and voluntary participation.

Funding

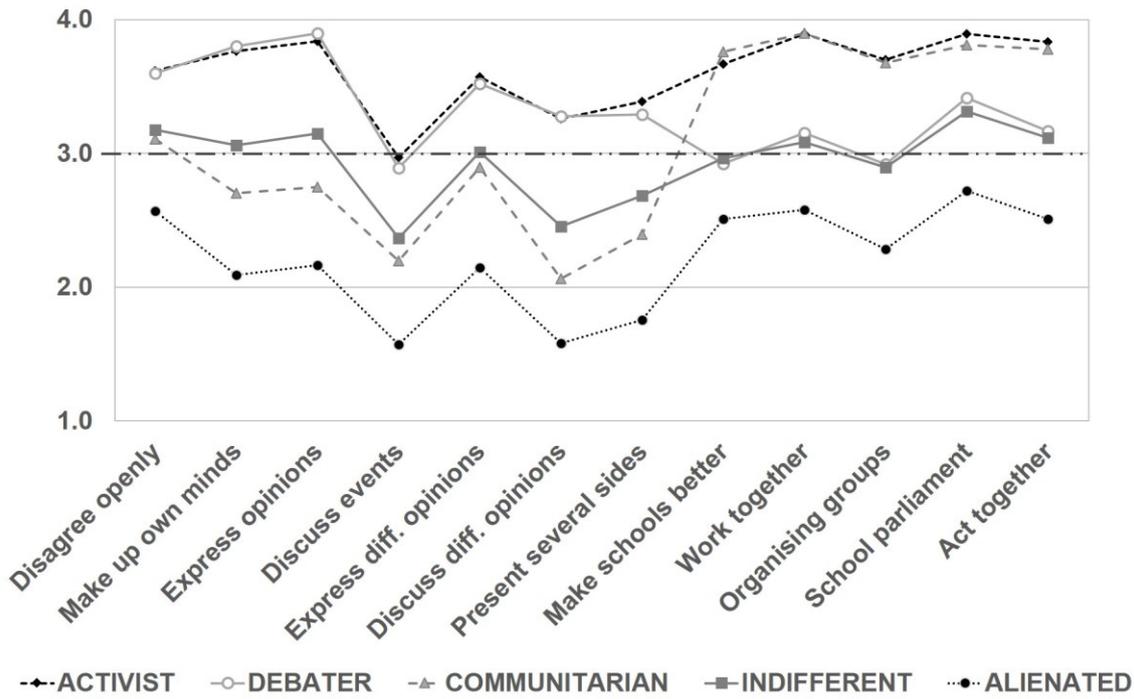
This project was supported by a grant of the Faculty Research Fund awarded by the Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, and by a Spencer Postdoctoral Fellowship awarded by the National Academy of Education, Washington, DC, USA with generous support from the Spencer Foundation.

Ethical Approval

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. This article does not contain any studies with animals.

Informed Consent

Informed consent was provided by the study participants (and their parents in the case of student data).

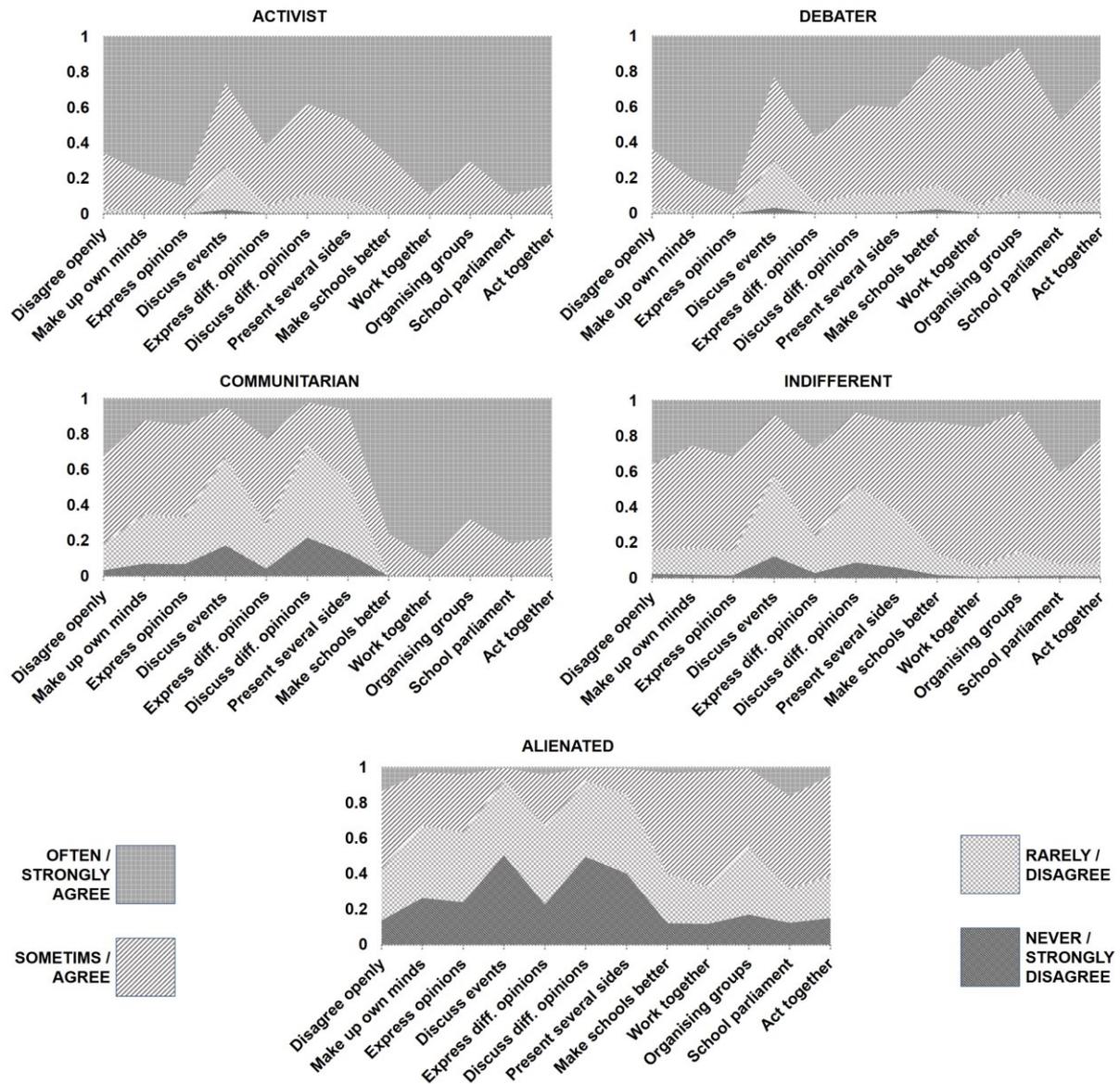


869

870

871

Figure 1. Mean scores of the indicators of the five latent classes. Note: Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

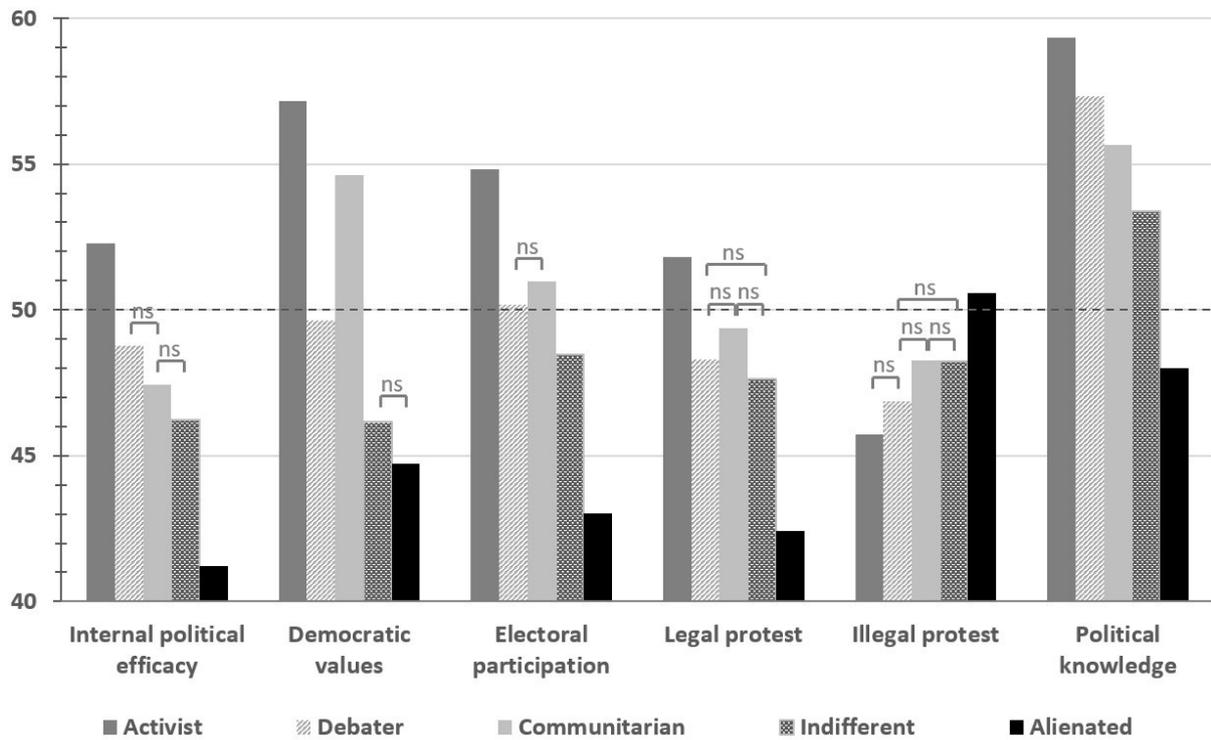


872

873 *Figure 2.* Response probabilities per category of each indicator for each of the five latent classes. *Note:* Data

874 sourced from ICCS 2009.

875



876

877 *Figure 3.* Mean scores of student outcomes by latent classes. Higher scores mean “more” of the respective
 878 construct (ns = mean difference between respective groups is non-significant, $p > .05$). *Note:* Data sourced from
 879 ICCS 2009.

880

881 Table 1

882 *Unweighted Sample Sizes*

Country	Student Survey		Teacher Survey		Principal Survey
	Schools	Students	Schools	Teachers	
Denmark	193	4,508	113	928	171
Finland	176	3,307	174	2,295	174
Norway	129	3,013	73	492	118
Sweden	166	3,464	156	1,942	155
Total	664	14,292	516	5,657	618

883 *Note.* Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

884

885 Table 2

886 *Means and Standard Deviations of All Measures*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Indicators of school climate		
Students are able to disagree openly with their teachers	3.30	0.76
Teachers encourage students to make up their own minds	3.25	0.81
Teachers encourage students to express their opinions	3.33	0.80
Students bring up current political events for discussion in class	2.52	0.87
Students express opinions in class even when their opinions are different from most of the other students	3.15	0.81
Teachers encourage students to discuss the issues with people having different opinions	2.68	0.89
Teachers present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class	2.85	0.86
Student participation in how schools are run can make schools better	3.12	0.67
Lots of positive changes can happen in schools when students work together	3.28	0.61
Organising groups of students to express their opinions could help solve problems in schools	3.07	0.65
All schools should have a <school parliament>	3.44	0.67
Students can have more influence on what happens in schools if they act together rather than alone	3.27	0.66
Distal outcomes		
Political knowledge and understanding	55.11	9.40
Internal political efficacy	47.51	10.88
Democratic values	50.02	10.22
Future electoral participation	49.75	9.56
Future legal protest	48.17	9.52
Future illegal protest	47.72	9.41

887

888 Table 2 continued

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Student and home context		
Female student	0.51	0.50
Home literacy	2.61	1.31
Discussion outside school	47.73	10.36
School context		
Percentage of girls	51.54	11.36
School SES	2.61	0.53
Student-teacher ratio	10.10	3.15
Social problems at school	53.99	8.54
Community context		
Size of community	1.37	1.15
Resources in community	53.42	8.64
Opportunities for student participation	48.45	10.47
Social tension in community	47.35	9.13
Teaching context (school averages)		
Confidence in teaching methods	49.32	5.01
Participation in school governance	49.20	4.73
Teacher experience (in years)	14.45	5.00
Percent female teachers	63.06	16.39

889 *Note.* Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

890

891 Table 3

892 *Comparison of Fit Indices of Different Latent Class Models Using the Pooled Sample*

Latent class model	LL	BIC	AIC	AIC3	CAIC	SABIC	Error
One-class model	-24596	50286	49479	49623	50430	49828	0.00
Two-class model	-23354	48198	47100	47296	48394	47576	0.08
Three-class model	-22789	47463	46074	46322	47711	46675	0.11
Four-class model	-22427	47133	45453	45753	47433	46180	0.12
Five-class model	-22206	47088	45116	45468	47440	45970	0.15
Six-class model	-22082	47235	44973	45377	47639	45952	0.16
Seven-class model	-21993	47452	44898	45354	47908	46003	0.17
Eight-class model	-21921	47704	44858	45366	48212	46090	0.20
Nine-class model	-21875	48007	44871	45431	48567	46228	0.21

893 *Note.* LL = Log-Likelihood; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; AIC3

894 = AIC with 3 as penalizing factor; CAIC = Consistent AIC; SABIC = Sample-size Adjusted BIC; Error =

895 classification error. Numbers in bold indicate candidate models given the respective fit index. Data sourced from

896 ICCS 2009.

897

898 Table 4

899 *Comparison of Model Fit in Relation to Measurement Invariance across Four Countries*

Model	LL	BIC	<i>cmP</i>	Error
H0: Heterogeneous	-22206	47088	0.00	0.15
H1: Partial invariance (equal slopes)	-22257	46094	0.00	0.15
H2: Structural invariance (H1 with equal thresholds)	-22517	45795	0.00	0.15
H3: H2 with two direct effects	-22413	45723	1.00	0.15
H4: H3 with equal class sizes	-22475	45755	0.00	0.15

900 *Note.* LL = Log-Likelihood; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; *cmP* = approximate correct model

901 probability; Error = classification error. Model in bold selected for further examination (see text for details).

902 Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

903

904 Table 5

905 *Predicting Distal Outcomes from Group Membership (Reference Group: Indifferent Students)*

	Civic knowledge	Internal political efficacy	Democratic values	Electoral participation	
Activist	5.96*** (0.75)	6.05*** (0.88)	10.85*** (0.79)	6.35*** (0.78)	4
Debater	3.95*** (0.76)	2.54** (0.86)	3.44*** (0.78)	1.71* (0.79)	0
Communitarian	2.28* (0.93)	1.21 (1.06)	8.33*** (0.99)	2.50** (0.97)	1
Alienated	-5.37*** (1.00)	-5.01*** (1.21)	-1.55 (0.96)	-5.44*** (1.05)	-5
Intercept (Indifferent)	53.68*** (0.50)	46.22*** (0.57)	46.17*** (0.51)	48.48** (0.52)	47

906 *Note.* Standard errors of the coefficients are in parentheses. Intercepts are tested against the international scale

907 mean of 50. Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

908 * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

909

910 Table 6

911 *Distribution of Students per Country*

Country	Activist	Debater	Communitarian	Indifferent	Alienated
Denmark	18.5%	41.6%	5.3%	31.1%	3.6%
Finland	12.2%	14.3%	14.7%	51.0%	7.8%
Norway	19.8%	17.6%	13.7%	41.6%	7.4%
Sweden	14.5%	26.2%	7.3%	40.6%	11.4%
Overall	16.2%	24.9%	10.2%	41.1%	7.5%

912 *Note.* Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

913 Table 7

914 *Predicting Group Membership Using School Context (Reference Group: Indifferent Students)*

Predictor	Activist			Debater			Communitarian			Alienated		
	95% CI			95% CI			95% CI			95% CI		
	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Student level												
Student gender (boy/girl)	1.42***	1.23	1.65	1.33***	1.14	1.54	0.90	0.75	1.09	0.34***	0.27	0.43
SES (books at home)	1.16***	1.08	1.23	1.07*	1.01	1.13	1.14**	1.05	1.24	0.95	0.87	1.03
Discussions outside school	1.06***	1.05	1.07	1.04***	1.03	1.04	1.01*	1.00	1.02	0.94***	0.93	0.95
School level												
% Girls	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.01
Avg. home literacy	1.03	0.83	1.29	0.88	0.70	1.11	0.96	0.79	1.18	1.40***	1.06	1.85
Student-teacher ratio	1.04	0.97	1.11	1.09	0.98	1.21	1.00	0.94	1.06	0.96	0.90	1.02
Social problems at school	0.98***	0.96	0.99	0.97***	0.95	0.98	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.01	0.99	1.03

915 *Note.* Avg. = school average; *OR* = odds ratio; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit. Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

916 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001.

917

918 Table 8

919 *Predicting Group Membership Using Community Context (Reference Group: Indifferent Students)*

Predictor	Activist			Debater			Communitarian			Alienated		
	95% CI			95% CI			95% CI			95% CI		
	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Student level												
Student gender (boy/girl)	1.42***	1.22	1.64	1.32***	1.14	1.53	0.89	0.74	1.08	0.34***	0.27	0.43
SES (books at home)	1.17***	1.10	1.25	1.06	1.00	1.12	1.14**	1.05	1.23	0.99	0.91	1.08
Discussions outside school	1.06***	1.05	1.07	1.04***	1.03	1.05	1.01*	1.00	1.02	0.94***	0.93	0.95
Community level												
Size of community	0.94	0.85	1.05	0.94	0.84	1.05	0.90*	0.82	0.99	0.97	0.86	1.11
Resources in community	1.00	0.99	1.02	1.00	0.99	1.02	1.00	0.99	1.02	1.01	0.99	1.02
Opportunities for student participation	1.00	0.99	1.01	0.98**	0.97	1.00	1.01*	1.00	1.02	1.00	0.99	1.01
Social tension in community	1.01	1.00	1.02	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.02	1.01*	1.00	1.03

920 *Note.* *OR* = odds ratio; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit. Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

921 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001.

922

923 Table 9

924 *Predicting Group Membership Using Teaching Context (Reference Group: Indifferent Students)*

Predictor	Activist			Debater			Communitarian			Alienated		
	95% CI			95% CI			95% CI			95% CI		
	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>OR</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Student level												
Student gender (boy/girl)	1.42***	1.23	1.65	1.33***	1.14	1.54	0.89	0.74	1.07	0.34***	0.27	0.43
SES (books at home)	1.16***	1.09	1.24	1.06*	1.00	1.13	1.13**	1.05	1.23	0.97	0.89	1.06
Discussions outside school	1.06***	1.05	1.07	1.04***	1.03	1.04	1.01	1.00	1.02	0.94***	0.93	0.95
Teacher level												
Avg. confidence in teaching methods	0.99	0.96	1.01	0.98	0.95	1.01	0.97*	0.95	0.99	1.04**	1.01	1.07
Avg. participation in school governance	1.03**	1.01	1.06	1.03*	1.00	1.07	1.03*	1.00	1.06	0.99	0.96	1.02
Avg. teacher experience (years)	0.99	0.96	1.01	1.01	0.98	1.04	0.99	0.97	1.02	0.99	0.96	1.02
% Female teachers	0.99*	0.98	1.00	0.99**	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.01	1.00	0.99	1.00

925 *Note.* Avg. = school average; *OR* = odds ratio; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit. Data sourced from ICCS 2009.

926 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001.

927