

ACTIVE CITIZENS FOR THE COMMON GOOD:

The Active Citizenship Footprint



About Volonteuropa

Volonteuropa is an international network promoting volunteering, active citizenship and social justice in Europe and beyond. Volonteuropa works at all levels, from the local to the international, and across the public, private and third sectors. We facilitate exchange, foster collaboration and carry out research and advocacy. Volonteuropa currently has over 60 members in more than 20 countries across Europe and beyond. Established in the Netherlands in 1981, Volonteuropa is registered as an ASBL in Belgium, while its Secretariat is hosted by Volunteering Matters, a charity leading UK volunteering in policy and practice.

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Volonteuropa is supported by the European Commission's 'Europe for Citizens' programme. Sole responsibility for this report and its contents lies with Volonteuropa.

Acknowledgements

Volonteuropa owes a special thanks to Piotr Sadowski, Laura de Bonfils and Louise King who authored the report.

Volonteuropa would like to thank the following for their contributions to this report:

- Juana Bengoa, Alianza por la Solidaridad, Spain
- Rubens Carvalho, UK
- Valentin Dupouey-Sterdyniak, Belgium
- Marianna Kallipoliti, Emfasis Foundation, Greece
- Filip Pazderski, Institute of Public Affairs, Poland
- Dr M. Andrea Pisauo, University of Glasgow, UK
- Julie Rosenkilde, Nyt Europa, Denmark
- Mariana Rodrigues, Associação À Praça, Portugal
- Vladimir Sestovic, European Civic Forum, France
- Anna K. Shepherd, Finland

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Executive summary

Volonteuropa and European Civic Forum champion active citizenship as a pathway to social justice in Europe and beyond. Through exploring the meaning of active citizenship and highlighting the main barriers to, and enablers of, this type of societal engagement, we have created a measurement tool, *Active Citizenship Footprint*, which will be used as a starting point for reflecting on areas of engagement, with the aim of fostering an increase in participation.

What is active citizenship?

The study of active citizenship has evolved as a specific strand within research on social capital which is defined as the connections among individuals and the norms of reciprocity, and trustworthiness that arises from them. The concept of active citizenship, which we promote, is based on a vision of common good, which we understand as the necessary condition for every human being to flourish. A survey exploring the meaning of active citizenship enabled us to define the concept as someone who participates in civil society and political life, who takes a role in the community, seeks information and is moved by the aim of common good and the respect of human rights.

Barriers and enablers of active citizenship

There are various factors which affect the active citizenship level of an individual. Economic success within the capitalist societies has been accompanied by increased levels of community fragmentation, loneliness and distrust due to a consumerist mentality, increased social inequality, long working hours and the geographic mobility of jobs. However, through adapting the existing economic system or moving away from the current neoliberal model, the economy could have a positive role in boosting active citizenship for everyone. Corruption and lack of good governance also has a strong negative impact on civic engagement and active citizenship as it reduces social trust. A failing economy and low income negatively affect active citizenship, as a lack of resources inhibits participation. From a survey to complement the findings of the academic research, educational attainment (citizenship education), socio-economic status, availability of free time, availability of information, community and family links and personality characteristics such as individualism or altruism were all highlighted as variables which had a strong effect on active citizenship.

Active Citizenship Footprint

The methodology to produce the *Active Citizenship Footprint* has been based on the results of a survey and literature review, drawing particularly on the study by Hoskins and Mascherini (2008). An engagement score was then crossed with a score indicating barriers to active citizenship experienced when living in a specific location. Rather than producing highly specific scientific results, the main aim of this tool is to promote self-reflection and encourage engagement through highlighting areas of strength and weakness in relation to an individual's level of active citizenship. The tool will help raise awareness about active citizenship and it will motivate people to think about the circumstances in their lives that influence their ability to be active citizens, and in doing so, help us achieve our goal of the campaign: to foster an increase in participation.

Introduction

Active citizenship is an incredibly important form of civic engagement, which encompasses a wide range of values and activities. Through active citizenship, existing structures can be challenged, social connectedness can be improved and people can be empowered with the knowledge and understanding required to make informed decisions and influence the decisions which affect their lives.

Volonteuropa's mission is to champion active citizenship as a pathway to social justice in Europe and beyond. Its focus on active citizenship comes from the belief that individuals live happier lives and experience higher levels of wellbeing when they are active members of their communities and wider society.

The campaign, *Active Citizens for the Common Good*, was launched to amplify the engagement of citizens, fostering reflections on the meaning of civic participation and barriers and enablers to engagement. Volonteuropa decided to join forces with European Civic Forum network to work collaboratively on the project, to reach a broader audience.

Volonteuropa and European Civic Forum, with the support of a European Working Group on Participation, composed of representatives of CSOs from across Europe working actively on human rights and active citizenship, had worked together to produce a report which will take us closer to producing answers to questions such as: *"Is active citizenship a widespread reality in Europe and in the world today?" "Is everyone able to exercise active citizenship and enjoy the benefits that come from it?" "What facilitates and prevents people from becoming active citizens?"*

The report explores the meaning of active citizenship through addressing academic literature on these topics and through using a survey, launched among European citizens, to arrive at a definition of active citizenship. Using information gathered from the academic literature and survey results, we were able to develop the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, made up of a series of questions that place respondents within an active citizenship scale. This tool will encourage individuals to reflect on their level of societal engagement and motivate them to take a more active role in society. Barriers and enablers to active citizenship are also taken into consideration when placing them within the active citizenship scale.

Rather than producing highly specific scientific results, the main aim of this tool is to promote self-reflection on this topic and encourage engagement through highlighting areas of strength and weakness in relation to an individual's level of active citizenship. The tool will help raise awareness about active citizenship and it will motivate people to think about the circumstances in their lives that influence their ability to be active citizens.

Chapter 1. Arriving at the definition of active citizenship

There are various approaches to defining active citizenship, and as such, a common definition has yet to be agreed on within the academic sphere. If we are to effectively champion active citizenship as a pathway to social justice we must define the idea that it is seeking to promote. This section begins with an exploration of the concept of active citizenship in academia and concludes with a survey to arrive at a single definition of active citizenship.

For one to arrive at a definition of active citizenship, one must explore the idea of citizenship. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights equates citizenship to nationality. Article 15 of the Declaration states that “*everyone has the right to a nationality*”; and, that “*no one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality*” (UN, 1948). However, citizenship is a more complex concept than these passages suggest. It refers not only to a person’s legal membership of a political body – i.e. possession of a passport – but also to the rights and duties everyone has in relation to others and the state (Turner B. and Hamilton, P. eds., 2003). The concept of citizenship can vary depending on the school of thought – some focus on its public spirit and prerogatives whereas others emphasise the protections and privileges it bestows upon the individual (Turner B. and Hamilton, P. eds., 2003).

Because citizenship refers to a person’s status in society, it has an element of exclusion. For example, in most Western societies, women were not considered full citizens with voting rights until the late 19th or early 20th centuries. Today, citizenship is a very relevant issue to migrants and refugees, who sometimes struggle to exercise their rights in their countries of residence. Moreover, in several EU Member States there are still citizens who can be seen as ‘second class citizens’, as they see denied access to some civil rights on the basis on their sexuality, gender, and so on. (Evans, 1993). In this sense, it is important to stress, as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights does, that citizenship must be enjoyed by all without exceptions. Volonteuropa and European Civic Forum advocate for inclusive, non-discriminatory citizenship that allows every individual to fully participate in the social and political life of society, being enabled to be an active citizen.

What is active citizenship?

The study of active citizenship has evolved as a specific strand within research on social capital. Robert Putnam (2002) states that “*Active citizenship is strongly related to civic engagement and plays a crucial role in building social capital.*” Putnam (2000) defines social capital as “*connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them*” (Putnam, 2000). Simply put, social capital refers to all the resources that people derive from their relationships with others (Hoskins et al., 2006). Social capital is both a source and a consequence of active citizenship. It can only arise as a result of rich networks of social relations and, in turn, the presence of social capital engenders increased active citizenship.

The Importance of active citizenship as being part of the community

Putnam highlights the link between active citizenship and social connectedness. Many researchers have emphasised the importance of connectedness as a universal human need (Doyal and Gough, 1991; Putnam, 2000; Jackson, 2009; Sen, 1988; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2010). The strong links between social connectedness and prosperity are widely recognised. Ecological economist Tim Jackson has argued that *“beyond mere subsistence, prosperity hangs crucially on our ability to participate meaningfully in the life of society”* (Jackson, 2009). South (2015) and Hopkins and Rippon (2015) support this statement, finding that active citizens enjoy better mental and physical health, and higher levels of confidence and optimism about life. They are more able to withstand the adversities they face in different periods of their lives, as well as to seize the opportunities that come along.

A lack of social connectedness has various negative implications. A lack of social networks and support, and low social status, have been associated with adverse physical and mental health outcomes, including lower life expectancy, depression, obsessive-compulsive disorders, and the occurrence of chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular conditions, diabetes and cancer (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2010). In short, active citizens are more likely to flourish as human beings and live up to their full potential as individuals than socially isolated people.

The positive effects of active citizenship extend beyond the physical and psychological levels of the individual. Several studies identify that active citizenship helps build strong communities and promote social justice (Carnegie UK Trust’s series; Muir and Parker, 2014). If active citizenship is about caring for each other’s wellbeing, then it must follow that high levels of active citizenship will inevitably lead to a society where people help each other live well.

Active citizenship and the common good

Active citizenship is generally described in positive terms and accredited for helping to build social capital, create robust communities, promote social justice and improve individual wellbeing. However, it is important to note that the concepts of connectedness and active citizenship can also be used for purposes that can have harmful effects on certain communities. Members of neo-nazi or xenophobic groups may claim to be active citizens in their communities and to want what is best for their societies. However, their view of wellbeing is limited to a restricted number of people and excludes those who they perceive to be different – migrants, ethnic and religious minorities, and others.

This is far from the concept of active citizenship that we promote, which is based on a vision of the common good. In this sense, one can speak of active citizens for the common good. But what is the common good? It can mean different things to different people. Volonteuropa and European Civic Forum understand the common good as the existence of the necessary conditions for every human being to flourish, both as individuals and within communities. Flourishing means not only being able to satisfy our material needs (food, water, shelter), but also our social and

psychological ones: being able to freely participate in society; share a sense of purpose and meaning with others; feel trust in others; feel loved, secure and valued by others. The common good reflects respect for diversity and non-discrimination.

Amartya Sen's capability approach is central to this concept of the common good (1984). Sen (1984) argues that what matter the most for wellbeing and social justice are not commodities, standard of living or fairness of outcomes. Rather, what matter are the freedoms and opportunities – that is, capabilities – people have “*to do valuable acts or reach valuable states of being*” (Walker and Unterhalter, 2010). Societies must remove the obstacles that exist for people to exercise their capabilities. Such capabilities should lead individuals to live more fulfilling lives and societies to be more egalitarian and just. The common good becomes a reality when people have the adequate capabilities to flourish.

If we see the common good as our capability to flourish – both individually and collectively – and we also recognise that active citizenship is critical to our flourishing, then it follows that the concepts of active citizenship and common good are inextricably linked. In fact, obstacles to the exercise of active citizenship are also obstacles to a person's capability to flourish and therefore, to the common good. The idea that the common good is realised through active citizenship is broadly recognised in academia (Rowlands, 2013; 2015). As Anna Rowlands (2015) has maintained, if the necessary conditions for flourishing are to be found, “*we need to think hard about the best ways for us to communicate with each other*” (Rowlands, 2015). No single person or group “*can be or do the common good alone*” (Rowlands, 2013). The common good is entirely based on relationships and togetherness. It would appear that we cannot contemplate a common good society without the active participation of its citizens.

The academic literature that we have consulted supports Hoskins and Mascherini's (2009) definition of active citizenship which is employed by the European Commission JRC:

“[Active citizenship is] participation in civil society, community and/or political life, characterised by mutual respect and non-violence and in accordance with human rights and democracy”.

As can be seen within this definition, active citizenship incorporates a wide spread of participatory activities, including political action, participatory democracy, civil society and community support. However, in this view, action alone it is not enough to be considered active citizenship; it needs to be moved by democratic values and thus is in line with our vision of active citizenship for the common good.

Survey on the definition of active citizenship

From the literature reviewed so far we can present our understanding of active citizenship as similar to civic engagement and reciprocally linked to the production of social capital. It involves participating in society which is an expression of being part of the community. This has a variety of positive physical, social and psychological effects on individuals, as well as the wider community. Our understanding must be based on a vision of the common good. Active citizenship must be an inclusive concept that promotes the necessary conditions for every human being to flourish, both as an individual and within communities. While we find that the definition employed by the European Commission is supported by the literature that we have reviewed, we are aware that this is just one of many definitions. Given the multiple descriptions of active citizenship in academia, Volonteuropa and European Civic forum felt that it was important to conduct an online survey to find a common, bottom-up, definition. This survey was translated into 10 languages and launched in May 2016.

A total of 338 people answered the survey online, while offline a further 200 people were consulted through small focus groups. The analysis of the survey was used also to set the bases for developing the indicators for barriers and enablers to participation. We do not claim that the results of the online survey and the consultation are representative of the whole European population as the sample is too small. Furthermore, due to the nature of the channels used to distribute the survey, it is more likely that citizens already active in society were reached as the respondents were active members of Volonteuropa and European Civic Forum.

The set of 27 questions used for the survey was selected by the Working Group from a list developed from the literature review on the definition of active citizenship.

As indicated above, a total of 338 people were involved in the survey, eight of whom skipped to answer the questions. The respondents to the survey online can be divided into the following response groups, based on the language used:

- Bulgarian: 2
- English: 107
- Danish: 27
- French: 24
- Polish: 100
- Portuguese: 19
- Greek: 14
- Spanish: 25



Figure 1: Web banner for the Active Citizenship Survey (English version)

The results in the table on the following page are expressed in percentage terms. They indicate the proportion of a particular response out of the total responses to each statement. The statements are ranked from those that the respondents most associated with active citizenship to those that they found least significant when describing the concept.

An active citizen is someone who...?	strongly or somewhat disagreed	neither agreed or disagreed	somewhat or strongly agreed
Is involved in their community	4	4	92
Reacts to injustice and discrimination	5	6	89
Worries about the wellbeing of future generations and acts upon it	6	5	89
Contacts their political representatives	7	6	87
Pays their taxes	6	9	85
Follows the local political life	7	9	84
Regularly votes	9	7	84
Keeps public spaces clean and in good condition	9	7	84
Protects the environment	6	10	84
Is not afraid to publically express their views for the common good	6	10	84
Believes in equal rights for all	5	11	84
Helps their neighbours	7	11	82
Minds their behaviour in public spaces and is mindful of others' comfort	8	10	82
Participates in public events about important public issues	7	13	80
Follows the political life of the country	8	13	79
Follows the political life of the EU	8	13	79
Follows international developments globally (political, economic, social etc.)	10	11	79
Supports the welfare system because it exists to help those who cannot provide for themselves	8	13	79
Helps anyone in need	2	20	78
Engages in campaigns or petitions	8	14	78
Is a conscious consumer and avoids unethical providers or products/services	10	14	76
Volunteers / gives their time freely	8	18	74
Participates in consultations on policies with their government	11	17	72
Makes use of online tools in the interest of the good of the public	8	20	72
Welcomes new migrants to their community	7	23	70

Donates to causes and those in need	10	29	61
Participates in elections	14	33	53

Table 1: Results of the Active Citizenship Survey

The data gathered reveals a variety of interesting findings. Over 90% of respondents agreed that someone who is involved in their community is an active citizen. Other high scores can be seen for the statements 'Reacts to injustice and discrimination' and 'Worries about the wellbeing of future generations and acts upon it'. Contacting their political representatives, paying taxes and following local politics were also deemed very significant aspects of being an active citizen. The two statements that received the lowest percentage of agreement amongst the respondents were 'Donates to causes and those in need' and 'Participates in elections'.

To sum up, we can define an active citizen as someone who participates in civil society and political life, who takes a role in the community, seeks information and is moved by the aim of common good and the respect of human rights. Furthermore, active citizenship can be defined as having the following key aspects:

- Political Life
- Civil Society
- Community
- Sharing values

The findings from the survey were used in conjunction with further reference to academic literature when producing a methodology for the Active Citizenship Footprint. This will be addressed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

Chapter 2. Barriers to active citizenship

Contextualising active citizenship: exploring enablers and barriers

Our definition of active citizenship, combined with the four key aspects that we have identified through our literature review and the survey, were used along with reference to academic literature to provide a methodological base for our active citizenship measurement tool and ensure that it can be operationalised effectively. This helped us to identify areas of engagement. However, the tool must also take the barriers and enablers of active citizenship into account.

It is important to consider the social, political, legal, cultural and economic contexts in which we live, which can facilitate or limit our level of engagement. These categories are not isolated from one another. On the contrary, they are closely inter-connected and often overlap. A closer look at the economic and political contexts, as well as psychosocial factors, provides a useful analytical starting point.

Capitalism, culture and the welfare state

Several countries – especially in the developed Western world – have experienced immense wealth accumulation, productivity growth and technological innovation over the past seven decades (Roser, 2015). Yet a significant body of research has demonstrated that this economic success has been accompanied by increased levels of community fragmentation, loneliness and a growing sense of anxiety, mistrust and disconnectedness among people (Dorling et al., 2008).

There are several reasons for this simultaneous advance of economic success on the one hand and social dysfunction on the other. Since the beginning of the 1990s, for many European workers the number of hours has increased, making them overworked. Extreme working hours – defined as over 50 hours worked per week – have increased in 16 Western European countries, particularly among full-time, high-skilled men (Burger, 2015). A survey by the National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) in England found that the main barrier to formal volunteering in the country is work commitments (NCVO, 2015). In addition to long working weeks, the intense geographic mobility of labour – a feature of the current capitalist system – has contributed to community fragmentation (Jackson, 2009). People who travel a lot in their work have less time spent in their communities and less time to engage in active citizenship.

Social inequality

The current economic system, based on individualism, consumerism and competition, is driving soaring levels of social inequality, which has serious effects on an individual and societal level. Over the past 40 years, social inequalities have increased significantly in the developed world. A study by the OECD has found that the gap between rich and poor is at its highest level in most OECD countries in 30 years (OECD, 2014).

High levels of social inequality have consequences for community life and social relations. For example, in their much-cited book, *The Spirit Level*, Richard Wilkinson and Kate Pickett demonstrate how “*the quality of social relations deteriorates in less equal societies*” (2010). Inequality undermines trust and divides people. Social capital research has, to a large extent, been used by several governments and policy organisations to send a message to people that the bad things in their society are caused by too little volunteering. However, research by Uslaner and Rothstein (2005) reveals that low levels of trust and social capital are caused by too little government action to reduce inequality. Many countries with low levels of social trust and social capital may be stuck in what is known as a social trap: social trust is very low because massive inequality prevails, but the public policies that could remedy this situation cannot be established precisely because there is a genuine lack of trust. Lack of social trust caused by inequality affects levels of active citizenship. As Wilkinson and Pickett put it, “*with greater inequality, people are less caring of one another, there is less mutuality in relationships, people have to fend for themselves and get what they can*” (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2010). Furthermore, these authors have shown that inequality, regardless of the total wealth present in a society, negatively affects physical and mental health, educational performance and social mobility (Rothstein and Uslaner, 2005). Equality thus has a direct positive effect on participation in society, as healthier and safer individuals are more likely to be active citizens.

How our economic system shapes social policy

This dominant economic-cultural context certainly has an impact on societal levels of active citizenship and wellbeing. Research carried out by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation (JRF, 2015) in Northern England found that, in our society, being helped is generally seen with shame, embarrassment and denial, while independence and self-reliance are admired qualities. This may not be true for every cultural context in Europe – and it probably is not – but it illustrates how modern discourses have come to shape our understanding of social life.

This economic-cultural nexus in turn influences social policy at the state level. The JRF (2015) argue that *“prevailing welfare policy largely presents vulnerability in negative terms, things to be resisted, denied or denigrated. Those messages are reinforced by the media and compel people to present as capable and independent if they are to maintain their dignity.”*

This scenario may not be the same throughout Europe but it is certainly present in some parts of the continent.

Moving towards a better economic model

In light of this research it can be concluded that a model that fragments communities and distances people from each other in the name of efficiency, productivity and growth needs to be questioned. But the economy is not always a barrier to active citizenship. Meaningful and quality employment gives individuals a sense of worth, self-esteem, financial security, leisure time and the confidence to engage with others in a positive way. In fact, statistics show that formal volunteering is more common among employed people who live in less deprived areas.

Alternative models to neoliberalism have proved far more conducive to cooperation, community cohesion, connectedness, wellbeing, strong social capital and resilience in the face of adversity. The economic model of the Italian region of Emilia Romagna is a case in point. Co-operatives and small enterprises are the foundation of the region’s economy. They work in collaborative manufacturing networks to supply global markets. Their democratic models of governance empower workers and lead to higher wages, a more qualified workforce and lower social inequalities. Emilia Romagna is one of the most productive, dynamic and innovative regions in Europe. By focusing on participation and collaboration, the region merges the values of democracy, community, human and social capital with the requirements of industrial capitalism.

In addition to completely alternative economic models, adaptations can be made to the existing economic models to address the problems described above and ensure that they can be an enabler of active citizenship rather than a barrier to it. In April 2016 the European Union held a public consultation on a *Pillar of Social Rights*, which intended to place more focus on work related social rights, including fair working conditions and adequate social protection (European Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2017). The *Pillar of Social Rights* consists of 20 key principles and rights structured into three categories: equal opportunities and access to the labour market; fair working conditions; and, social protection and inclusion. These principles aim to promote welfare and labour

systems that function well for everyone, leading to the overall outcome of improved standards of living across Europe, in turn leading to higher levels of active citizenship (Volonteurope, 2017).

Through adapting the existing economic system or moving away from the current neoliberal model, the economy could have that positive role in boosting active citizenship for everyone. The socio-cultural norms and social policy which are influenced both directly and indirectly by the economic system would most certainly be steered in a more positive direction if such changes were made. This would also facilitate the growth of active citizenship.

Corruption and bad governance

Compared to citizens from Western Europe, Eastern European citizens show lower levels of civic and political engagement, a gap which has been ascribed to the domination of communism within that Eastern European region for several decades. Time and again, research on civic participation comparing Eastern and Western European countries has found lower levels of citizenship in Central European countries. For example, Fidrmuc and Gërkhani (2005) show that Eastern European countries lag behind Western European countries with respect to civic participation. However, a recent study from Hooghe and Quintelier (2013), exploring participation in Central and Eastern Europe, which controlled for all relevant individual level characteristics, found that the effect of an authoritarian legacy is rendered non-significant when corruption levels and lack of good governance are controlled for. This reveals that it is bad governance and corruption that have a strong negative impact on civic engagement and active citizenship rather than an authoritarian legacy. In contrast, Nordic countries have very high levels of social trust generated from the transparent and fair way in which the state works. Well-functioning and fair societal institutions, and an absence of corruption, generates positive effects, such as social trust, which in turn generates a culture of active citizenship (Hilde and van der Lippe, 2010; Hooghe and Quintelier, 2013; Nordic Council of Ministers, 2017).

Economic downturn and financial crisis

There is a debate over whether economic downturn and financial crisis lead to an increase or decrease in expressions of active citizenship and civic participation. Based on the literature on political mobilisation, however, it is not clear whether the emergence of an economic crisis stimulates or depresses political participation. Advocates of grievance theory would argue that threatened economic interests function as a major incentive for political engagement (Gamson, 1968; Wilkes, 2004). The civic voluntarism model, on the other hand, would predict that the economic crisis will have a negative effect on the availability of resources that are required to

participate in politics (Verba et al., 1995). A longitudinal study from 2002 to 2010 by Kern et al (2015) sought to determine which model best reflects the relationship between the economic prosperity and active citizenship. The crisis that emerged in Europe in 2008 led to the loss of millions of jobs, resulting in a rising unemployment rate (Verick, 2009; De Grauwe and Ji, 2013). In countries which were worst hit by the economic crisis, such as Spain and Greece, massive protests erupted as governments and the European Union were apparently being held responsible for their lack of determination to address this financial crisis (Anduiza et al., 2013; Hooghe, 2012). Citizens were unhappy with the way liberal democracy was being used to support and facilitate the implementation of neoliberal policies, which often had detrimental effects on the most vulnerable groups in society. This was the case in Spain in 2011 with the modification of the article 135 CE, impeding the implementation of alternative economic measures during economic crisis. The 2010 data from Kern's longitudinal study supports the grievance theory, which attributes higher political participation to threatened economic interests. However, while the dramatic and sudden economic crash created an increase in political participation through protest behaviour, this did not persist, and the longitudinal study revealed that, in general, the civic voluntarism model better explained the relationship between economic problems and active citizenship. It was revealed that as countries' prosperity levels rose and fell, so did the rate of non-institutionalised political participation. This is also supported on an individual level, as an individual's resources (i.e. the level of education and satisfaction with income) are positively related to political participation. The study showed that if resources are abundant, more money can be spent on measures to encourage active citizenship and more affluent citizens will devote at least some of their resources to various acts of participation.

Social capital and the voluntary sector

As we have mentioned earlier, active citizenship is intrinsically linked to social capital and interconnectedness. Furthermore, we stated that social capital and active citizenship have a reciprocal relationship. Active citizenship drives social capital and social capital is required for individuals to actively participate in society. Social ties and shared values or norms bind people together and facilitate participation and collective action, which in turn strengthen social connectedness and build social capital. Voluntary and community organisations play an important part in the life of communities, enabling people to come together for their own purpose and take part in community. Participation can be divided into two categories: horizontal participation and vertical participation. Horizontal participation describes being engaged in the local community, for example, volunteering, being a member of a local community group or institution. Horizontal participation should be valued in its own right because it supports the very fabric of community life.

Horizontal participation is also valuable because it frequently stimulates or reinforces vertical participation, which involves active citizenship in terms of engagement with the state (e.g. voting, being involved in consultations). Voluntary and community sector organisations have the capacity to generate and mobilise different types of social capital, including bonding social capital (related to common identity), bridging capital (related to diversity) and linking capital (related to power), through facilitating horizontal and vertical participation (NCVO, 2005). It follows therefore that an absence of a robust civil society constitutes a barrier to the production of social capital which drives active citizenship.

Type of social capital	Type of participation	Role in civil society
Bonding Relates to common identity (i.e. ties amongst people who are similar to each other)	Horizontal participation	Shared common purpose
Bridging Relates to diversity (i.e. ties amongst people who are different from one another)	Horizontal participation	Dialogue between different interests and views in the public sphere
Linking Relates to power (i.e. ties with those in authority)	Vertical participation	Access to power institutions and decision-making processes

Table 2. Types of social capital, participation and their role in civil society

Chapter 3. Survey to determine barriers and enablers

We have complemented the academic research into the barriers and enablers of active citizenship with data from our survey. With this we hope to ensure that factors we take into consideration when formulating the *Active Citizenship Footprint* are reflective of the struggles that European citizens face in day-to-day life. The respondents were the same as those who answered the questions on what constitutes an active citizen, as the questions were included in the same survey.

The respondents to the survey were asked to describe the barriers and enablers to active citizenship. A wide variety of answers were produced. These answers were used to produce a list of variables that affect active citizenship. It is important that each variable is mutually exclusive. For this reason, similar answers that were worded in slightly different ways were rephrased to produce a single variable. Variables were then grouped into overarching categories, for example, **democracy** or **attitude**. Many of the responses could not be categorised. This by no means meant that they were less important, just that they could not be easily grouped together with other responses. For this reason the category **other** was included to ensure that the categories were exhaustive.

The most significant findings of this survey are described below.

- Variables linked to **democracy** were the most frequently cited (a total of 212 responses). The two most popular responses in this category were: *state adherence to democratic values including free elections, freedom of speech/free media/functioning democracy*; and, *transparency and information of public institutions*.
- Within the **other** category, *Information on opportunities and availability of free time* were considered to have a significant effect on active citizenship (63 and 50 times).
- In the **networks** category, *level of connectedness to community and family and presence of role models* were also considered significant (made up 73 responses).
- In the **attitudes** section, *level of individualism or altruism* was considered very influential on an individual's active citizenship level (63 responses).
- The **economy** and **education** were also considered important factors: *educational attainment including citizenship education* and *social and economic status* made up 78 and 47 responses, respectively.

We can therefore conclude from this survey that the factors that can constitute a significant barrier or an enabler to active citizenship are educational attainment (citizenship education), socio-economic status, availability of free time, availability of information, community and family links and personality characteristics such as individualism or altruism.

Category	Enablers/Barriers	Italian	English	Finnish	Portuguese	French	Polish	Bulgarian	Greek	Danish	Spanish	Total
Democracy	State adherence to democratic values including free elections, freedom of speech/ free media / functioning democracy	2	33	4	1	14	0	0	0	8	5	67
	Transparency and information of public institutions	4	27	2	5	2	7	0	5	3	3	58
	Cooperation of political representatives at the local level	0	0	0	0	0	31	0	0	0	0	31
	State support of civil society and availability of NGOs	0	19	0	0	5	1	0	1	4	1	31
	Space for aggregation – physical and online	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	14
	Political instability	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	1	0	0	8
	Degree of centralisation or decentralisation	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total: 212	Democratic deficit in the EU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Other	Information on opportunities	2	27	0	4	0	16	0	5	4	5	63
	Availability of free time	0	16	1	2	0	22	0	4	4	1	50
	Perception of impact that actions have on the state	0	25	0	1	1	4	1	4	5	0	41
	Presence of pyramid organisations	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	6
	Past experiences	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	4
	Family obligations	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	4
	Availability of common language	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Disability	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Total: 173	Detention	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Attitudes	Level of individualism / altruism	1	17	3	0	5	17	0	7	9	7	66
	Interest in participation	0	0	2	5	0	19	0	0	6	2	34
	Total: 121	Fear of reprisal	0	0	0	1	0	9	0	7	0	4

Education	Educational attainment including citizenship education	2	42	5	8	12	0	1	0	3	5	78
Total: 83	Knowledge of functioning of political procedures	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5
Economy	Social and economic status	0	25	2	3	0	6	0	2	6	3	47
Total: 82	Robustness of welfare state	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	6	35
Networks	Level of connectedness to community and family and presence of role models	1	37	3	1	0	19	0	3	2	7	73
Total: 81	Being a member of an organisation / association of civil society	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	2	8
Diversity	Existence of policies to combat discrimination	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
	Experience of discrimination	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	2	0	7
	Cultural diversity	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Total: 32	Citizenship rights	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1

Table3. Barriers/Enablers Survey Results

Chapter 4. Measuring active citizenship: the Active Citizenship Footprint

Volonteuropé's and the European Civic Forum's aim is to promote fair, inclusive, sustainable and collaborative societies throughout Europe and beyond in which citizens are able to participate and become active citizens.

In order to contribute to a society where citizens do not face barriers to participation, it is necessary to identify the areas of engagement, as well as factors that constitute barriers or enablers to participation. The aim of this paper is to implement a measurement tool, the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, which will be used as a starting point for reflecting on areas of engagement, with the aim of fostering an increase of participation. The *Active Citizenship Footprint* aims to give an indication if a citizen is active and provide a tool for reflecting on the factors that limit their participation. The score obtained is only indicative and should be used as a guide, not as a judgement on the person. The purpose of this tool is not to tell people that they are either good or bad citizens. On the contrary, the point is to illustrate the barriers we all face in being active citizens, as well as the factors that support our engagement.

The tool consists of a series of questions which help to assess the level of engagement of an individual. This engagement score is then combined with a score measuring the barriers and enablers to active citizenship experienced by an individual. It is important to take factors that facilitate and limit active citizenship into account so that these can be controlled for when giving someone a final active citizenship score.

Engagement

The literature reviewed in chapter one, along with the survey, provides a starting point for measuring engagement through the *Active Citizenship Footprint*. We arrived at the following definition of active citizenship: an active citizen is someone who participates in civil society and political life, who takes a role in the community, seeks information and is moved by the aim of common good and the respect of human rights.

Furthermore, active citizenship can be defined as having the following key aspects:

- Political life
- Civil society

- Community
- Sharing values

These key aspects can be used as the basis for developing a series of questions which indicate the levels of active citizenship. However, while it facilitates the production of a consensus of the main aspects of active citizenship, greater research is required in order to produce a strong methodological base for the tool and to make it operational. A variety of studies assessing levels of active citizenship were consulted and the methodology of Hoskins and Mascherini (2009) was deemed most applicable to our study. Their work, *Measuring Active Citizenship through the Development of a Composite Indicator* (2009), developed a framework for measuring the level of active citizenship in European countries looking at four dimensions: social change, community life, representative democracy and democratic values. The European Social Survey 2002 was used to populate the framework as this survey provided the best data coverage available and included 19 European countries. In total, 61 questions from the 2002 Social Survey were selected and responses from the 2002 Survey were used to measure the level of active citizenship in each of the 19 EU Member States.

The study by Hoskins and Mascherini (2008) highlighted similar key themes of active citizenship as found in our survey, yet stressed that there is a considerable overlap between them. For example, political participation can be practiced by people in civil society and civil society includes the majority of community practices. Therefore an effort must be made to ensure that categories are distinct.

Civil society action

Hoskins and Mascherini identified two forms of civil society action. The first is activities categorised as protest and social change. This refers to political action which holds governments accountable. The second is community life engagement, which refers to less political and more community orientated practices. For Ogris and Westphal (2006), protest and social change orientated activities are activities that are often deemed to be unconventional forms of participation, such as protests, demonstrations, boycotts and political strikes used to give a voice to the masses in order to influence modern democracies. Activities that fall under this theme could include protest activities, such as petition writing, lawful demonstrations and ethical and environmental consumerism. Participation in activities organised by CSOs and social partners, such as trade unions and environmental organisations which advocate for government accountability and positive change, also counts as a form of protest and social change (Ogris and Westphal, 2006). Donating money to

such organisations is a weaker form of this type of activity, according to experts in the field (Hoskins and Mascherini, 2008).

Community life engagement

Community life engagement refers to participation in sport, cultural or religious activities, in activities that support a community. According to Bess et al. (2009), community refers to a network of relationships in which people have a common interest and cooperate, based on this common interest. Informal forms of community support, such as helping your neighbour, should also be included to capture this particular form of active citizenship, which is often neglected in surveys (Hoskins and Mascherini, 2008).

Participation in representative democracy

While our survey results highlight political life as a central theme of active citizenship, as Hoskins and Mascherini (2008) state, this theme is too broad and would overlap with activities of protest and social change. Participation in representative democracy, or conventional participation, can be covered in this section, however, and defined as conventional political participation. This aspect of active citizenship was highlighted by Ogris and Westphal (2006) when identifying indicators for political forms of active citizenship. According to these academics, in representative democracy, a few elected representatives make decisions for the group. Participation in politics in representative democracies is limited to voting, political party-related activities and contacting elected representatives and governmental officials.

Democratic values

Finally, democratic values can be considered as a distinct section, as it has little overlap with the other themes mentioned above. As previously highlighted, participation, per se, is not necessarily beneficial for a democratic society that values human rights. In order to measure active citizenship it is thus necessary to measure the values involved in engagement, in particular those values which will positively improve the quality of the actions undertaken. The values of active citizenship follow the principles which founded the European political structures that exist today. These values are based on human rights and non-discrimination, which are both set out in the European Convention of Human Rights (Council of Europe, 1950) and the European Council (1997). Therefore, the category democratic values, is made up of a combination of questions on the values of participation in democracy, human rights and non-discrimination (Hoskins and Mascherini, 2008).

Formulation of questions

From close consultation of the work of Hoskins and Mascherini (2008), we believe that the categories protest and social change, community life, democratic values and representative democracy, provide a good framework for assessing the active citizenship of an individual. We have adapted the indicators from the European Social Survey 2002, which these authors used to populate their framework, formulating them into questions that mirror the key aspects of active citizenship and which, in combination, will compute the *Active Citizenship Footprint*. A respondent will receive a score for each question based on their answer (grading them using a Likert scale linked to a score from 0 to 3). This will then be cross-referenced with a score of the barriers to active citizenship that they experience, based on living in a specific location (i.e., one of the EU Member States). They will then be given a final score, which places them on an active citizenship scale.

The questions are as follows:

Category	Code	Question	Answer	Code
Protest and social change	P1	In the last year have you worked/volunteered or been involved with/ donated money to a non-governmental organisation or an association?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	P2	In the last year how many petitions have you signed?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More than 20 • Between 10 – 20 • Between 0 – 10 • None 	3 2 1 0
	P3	In the last year how many times have you taken part in a lawful demonstration?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More than 10 • Between 5– 10 • Between 0 – 5 • None 	3 2 1 0
	P4	Of the food/ products you buy how much is purchased or consumed on ethical grounds?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More than 30% • 10%-30% • 0%-10% • None 	3 2 1 0
	P5	In the last year have you worked/volunteered or been involved with/ donated money to a human rights organisation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	P6	In the last year have you worked/volunteered or been involved with/ donated money to an environmental organisation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always • Occasionally • Rarely • Never 	3 2 1 0
	P7	Have you been a member of a trade union?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0

Community life	C1	In the last year have you participated in unorganised help in the community?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	C2	In the last year have you been involved/ volunteer with/ given money to a sport association	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	C3	In the last year have you been involved/ volunteer with/ given money to a hobby or cultural organisation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	C4	In the last year have you been involved/ volunteer with/ given money to a social organisation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
Democratic values	D1	Do immigrants make a country a better place?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
	D2	Is it important for a citizen to participate in the democratic life?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
	D3	Is it important for a citizen to behave respecting human rights and the common good?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
	D4	Is it important for a citizen to develop an independent opinion?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
	D5	Is it important for a citizen to be active in a voluntary organisation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
	D6	Is it important that local citizens have the same rights of migrants?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strongly Agree • Agree • Disagree • Strongly Disagree 	3 2 1 0
Participation to Representative democracy	R1	In the last year have you worked/volunteered or been involved with/ donated money to a political party?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	R2	Do you vote at local elections?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0

	R3	Do you vote at European Parliament elections?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0
	R4	Do you vote at national parliamentary elections?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most of the time • Some of the time • Seldom • Never 	3 2 1 0

Table 4: Active Citizenship Footprint

Barriers and enablers to active citizenship

Factors that facilitate and limit active citizenship must be taken into account when placing an individual on an active citizenship scale. From the literature review the following variables affecting active citizenship were identified. The variables are divided into factors that are specific to each individual, and factors that affect active citizenship at the state level. For example, from the literature we can understand that a state with a poor welfare system not only produces greater inequality, which negatively affects social trust and active citizenship, but also promotes a culture which presents vulnerability in negative terms, encouraging those in need not to ask for help and those with the means to help others not to do so.

Individual	State
Employment / income level	Equality
Amount of free time	Corruption / quality of governance
Hours worked a week	Welfare system
Education attainment (citizenship education)	Civic space

It was decided that the individual factors would not be used to compute the final score of the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, because these questions would produce answers with too high a degree of subjectivity to be deemed scientific. Furthermore, the first part of the questions determines the level of engagement of the person.

The variables above were derived by proxies or deductive means. However, Kuhn (1970) observes in his seminal work that deductive studies based purely on the past research can be self-limiting, as they prevent the identification of emerging trends. For this reason, it is important to take the results of our survey into consideration when building the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, to identify what European citizens feel are barriers and enablers to active citizenship.

While the survey identified three more individual variables, availability of information on opportunities, community and family links, and personality characteristics, such as individualism or altruism, we have decided not to include these individual factors in the survey for the reasons already mentioned. Therefore, the factors enabling or inhibiting active citizenship that will be considered in the *Active Citizenship Footprint* will be:

Barriers/Enablers
Equality
Corruption / quality of governance
Welfare system
Civic space

How to score barriers and enablers to active citizenship

For variables that are assessed by looking at which state the respondent is from, we have adopted a method identifying indicators and existing composing indicators measuring a proxy of the concept identified as a barrier to engagement. Each of the 28 EU Member States will be scored on their Gender Equality Index, corruption level / quality of governance, welfare system and the robustness of civil society / civic space. The respondent will be given an overall score for their country, which will be added to the individual score. These two scores combined will constitute the total score for barriers and enablers.

Equality

As proxy measure of equality, we picked the EIGE's Gender Equality Index, a composite indicator that measures gender quality in Europe, built on the policy priorities of the European Union. The Gender Equality Index not only relies on gender gaps, but also on the difference in the levels of achievement between women and men on a given gender indicator. No distinction is made as to the direction of this gap, meaning that the gender approach takes into account the situation of women and men in various domains of economic and social life, including those where men are in disadvantaged situations. The target is 100, total equality, versus 1 representing complete inequality.

In the EU, the value of the Gender Equality Index in 2015 ranges from 50 in Greece to 82.6 in Sweden. To make these scores of the Gender Equality Index meaningful for our *Active Citizenship*

Footprint, countries with values ranging from 1 to 55 are considered as having a low level of equality; while those with values of above 70 are considered to have high equality, and those ranging from 55 to 70, medium levels of equality. For the final computation we will use the score assigned in Table 6. Gender Equality Index Cluster Score.

Country	Gender Equality index Score 2015	Country	Gender Equality index Score 2015
EU28	66.2		
BE	70.5	LT	56.8
BG	58.0	LU	69.0
CZ	53.6	HU	50.8
DK	76.8	MT	60.1
DE	65.5	NL	72.9
EE	56.7	AT	63.3
IE	69.5	PL	56.8
EL	50.0	PT	56.0
ES	68.3	RO	52.4
FR	72.6	SI	68.4
HR	53.1	SK	52.4
IT	62.1	FI	73.0
CY	55.1	SE	82.6
LV	57.9	UK	71.5

Table 5. EIGE Gender Equality Index 2015

Country	Gender Equality Index Score 2015	Level of equality	Score
EU28	66.2		
EL	50	Low	100
HU	50.8		
RO	52.4		
SK	52.4		
HR	53.1		
CZ	53.6		
CY	55.1	Medium	50
PT	56		
EE	56.7		
LT	56.8		
PL	56.8		

LV	57.9		
BG	58		
MT	60.1		
IT	62.1		
AT	63.3		
DE	65.5		
ES	68.3		
SI	68.4		
LU	69		
IE	69.5		
BE	70.5	High	0
UK	71.5		
FR	72.6		
NL	72.9		
FI	73		
DK	76.8		
SE	82.6		

Table 6. Gender Equality Index Cluster Score

Corruption / quality of governance

The level of corruption and the quality of governance in a country can be estimated using the European Quality of Government Index (EQI), 2017. This index is the result of novel survey data on corruption and governance at the regional level within the EU. The data focus on both perceptions and experiences with public sector corruption, along with the extent to which citizens believe various public sector services are impartially allocated and of good quality. The 2017 results of this survey for EU Member States will be used as the basis for scoring countries on their level of corruption and quality of governance. For the purposes of the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, consider countries with an EQI of 0 to 1.0 as having good levels of governance, those with an EQI over 1.0 as excellent, and those below 0 as having poor governance.

EU Countries	EQI 2013	EU Countries	EQI 2013
BG	-1.733	MT	-0.074
RO	-1.555	PT	0.031
EL	-1.387	EE	0.232
HR	-1.214	FR	0.408
HU	-1.150	BE	0.615
IT	-1.132	AT	0.807
SK	-0.813	IE	0.840

LV	-0.514	UK	0.986
PL	-0.462	DE	1.012
ES	-0.328	LU	1.199
SI	-0.294	NL	1.204
CZ	-0.294	DK	1.399
LT	-0.264	SE	1.402
CY	-0.106	FI	1.427

Table 7. EQI 2017

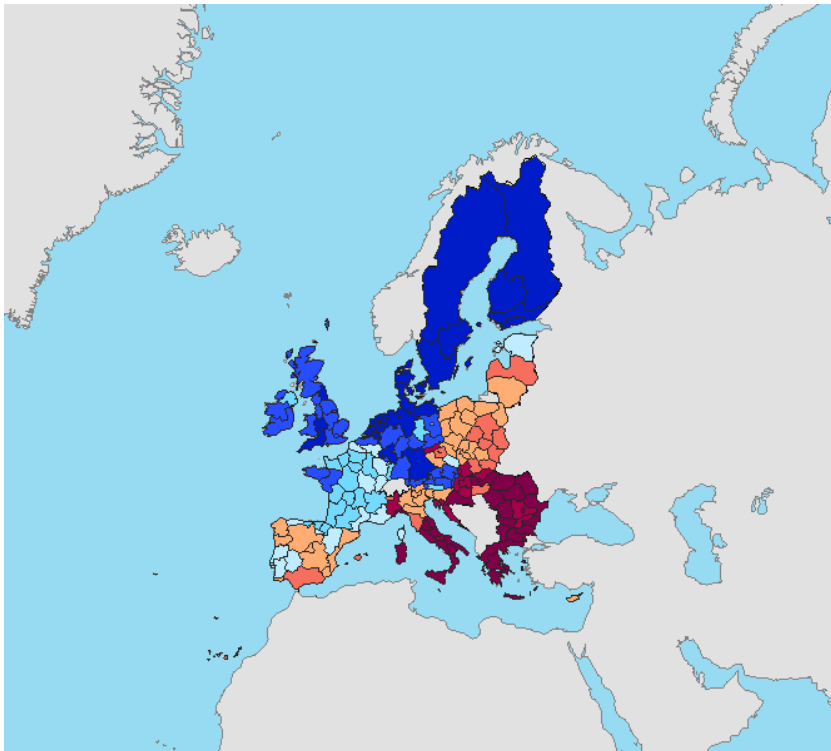


Figure 3. European Quality of Government Index Map 2017

Countries	EQI 2013	Governance level	Score
BG	-1.733	Poor level of governance	100
RO	-1.555		
EL	-1.387		
HR	-1.214		
HU	-1.150		
IT	-1.132		
SK	-0.813		
LV	-0.514		
PL	-0.462		
ES	-0.328		
SI	-0.294		
CZ	-0.294		

LT	-0.264	Good level of governance	50
CY	-0.106		
MT	-0.074		
PT	0.031		
EE	0.232		
FR	0.408		
BE	0.615		
AT	0.807		
IE	0.840		
UK	0.986		
DE	1.012	Excellent level of governance	0
LU	1.199		
NL	1.204		
DK	1.399		

Table 8. EQI Cluster Score

Welfare system

The total expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP will be used to score EU Member States on this factor. Among the EU Member States, the level of social protection expenditure in relation to GDP in 2015 was highest in Finland (25.6%) and France (24.4%). Denmark, Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy reported ratios of at least 20.0%. By contrast, social protection expenditure represented less than 15.0% of GDP in Ireland, Lithuania, Romania, Latvia, Cyprus, Malta, Czech Republic, Estonia, Bulgaria and Hungary. For the *Active Citizenship Footprint* we value countries with under 15% as low expenditure on social protection, those between 15 % and 20 % as medium expenditure, and those with 20% or over as high expenditure.

EU Country	2015	EU Country	2015
BE	20.2	LT	11.1
BG	13.3	LU	18.1
CZ	12.5	HU	14.8
DK	23.6	MT	12.4
DE	19.0	NL	16.3
EE	12.9	AT	21.4
IE	9.6	PL	15.9
EL	20.5	PT	18.3
ES	17.1	RO	11.4
FR	24.4	SL	17.3
HR	15.3	SK	15.0

IT	21.3	FI	25.6
CY	12.0	SE	20.4
LV	11.9	UK	16.4
EU(28)	19.1		

Table 9. Expenditure on social protection (% of GDP) in 2015; Source: Eurostat

Country	2015	Level of expenditure	Score
IE	9.6	Low Expenditure	100
LT	11.1		
RO	11.4		
LV	11.9		
CY	12		
MT	12.4		
CZ	12.5		
EE	12.9		
BG	13.3		
HU	14.8		
SK	15	Medium Expenditure	50
HR	15.3		
PL	15.9		
NL	16.3		
UK	16.4		
ES	17.1		
SL	17.3		
LU	18.1		
PT	18.3		
DE	19		
BE	20.2	High Expenditure	0
SE	20.4		
EL	20.5		
IT	21.3		
AT	21.4		
DK	23.6		
FR	24.4		
FI	25.6		

Table 10. Expenditure on social protection (% of GDP) in 2015 Cluster Score

Civic space

In order to assess the level of civic space we can use the CIVICUS Monitor as a proxy. This monitor offers well-informed, frequently-updated reports and analysis on civic space developments, available on a global scale. The interactive map accessed on February 2018 shows that EU countries can be categorised as open, narrowed or obstructed. CIVICUS defines states with open civic space as states that enable and safeguard civic space for all. In states with narrowed civic space, while the

state allows individuals and civil society organisations to exercise their rights to freedom of association, peaceful assembly and expression, violations of these rights also take place. In states with obstructed civic space, civic space is heavily contested by power holders, who impose a combination of legal and practical constraints on the full enjoyment of fundamental rights. The monitor can be accessed at: <https://monitor.civicus.org/>.

Country	Civic space	Score
HU	Obstructed	100
BE	Narrowed	50
BG		
EL		
ES		
FR		
HR		
IT		
CY		
LT		
NL		
AT		
PO		
RO		
SK		
UK		
MT		
PT		
LV		
IE		
EE		
DE		
DK		
CZ		
LU		
FI		
SE		
SL		

Table 11 Civic Space Cluster Index

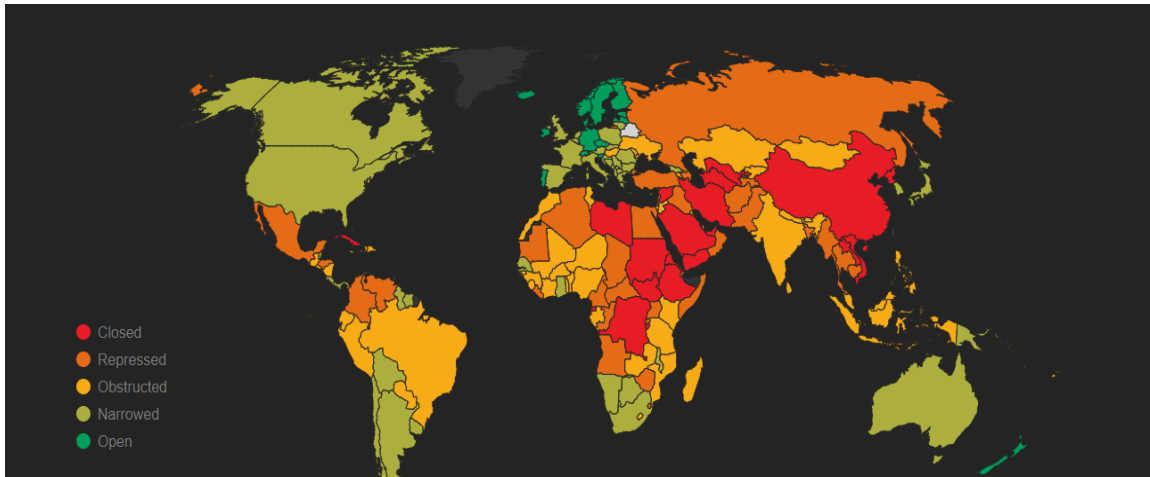


Figure 4. Availability of civic space in 2018. Source: CIVICUS

The Active Citizenship Footprint formula

Building on the conceptual note outlined in the previous chapter we define the formula for the *Active Citizenship Footprint* to be:

$$\text{Active Citizenship Footprint} = \text{Engagement Index} - 0.2 * \text{Barrier Score}$$

In the overwhelming majority of cases, we predict the *Active Citizenship Footprint* score to be between 0 and 100, where 0 is the lowest level of engagement and 100 is the highest level. Although it is highly unlikely, it could be possible to receive a negative score in the eventuality of the Engagement Index being 0; and the resulting Barrier Score being a positive number.

The Engagement Index is calculated with the following formula:

$$\text{Engagement Index} = \text{PSCindex} + \text{CLindex} + \text{DVindex} + \text{PRDindex}$$

The capital letters stand for the initials of the four domains (Protest and social change and so on) and where:

$$\text{PSCindex} = (\text{P1likert} + \text{P2likert} + \dots \text{P7likert}) * 25 / (3 * 7)$$

$$\text{CLindex} = (\text{C1likert} + \text{C2likert} + \dots \text{C4likert}) * 25 / (3 * 4)$$

$$\text{DVindex} = (\text{D1likert} + \text{D2likert} + \dots \text{D6likert}) * 25 / (3 * 6)$$

$$\text{PRDindex} = (\text{R1likert} + \text{R2likert} + \dots \text{R4likert}) * 25 / (3 * 4)$$

Where P1likert is a number between 0 and 3 (where 3 is the "strongest" response).

Thus someone who receives a score of 3 in every question in a domain gets a perfect score of 25 in that domain. The Engagement Index thus ranges between 0 and 100.

The Barriers Score ranges between 0-100 and is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{BarrierScore} = (\text{EScore} + \text{WEScore} + \text{GOVscore} + \text{CSscore})/4$$

In the tables below we have outlined the singular scores for each question and the Engagement Index and the Barriers Score.

Category	Code	Score
PSC-Index	P1	3
		2
		1
		0
	P2	3
		2
		1
0		
P3	3	
	2	
	1	
	0	
P4	3	
	2	
	1	
	0	
P5	3	
	2	
	1	
	0	
P6	3	
	2	
	1	
	0	
P7	3	
	2	
	1	
	0	
CL-Index	C1	3
		2
	C2	3
2		
C3	3	
	2	

		1 0
	C4	3 2 1 0
DV-Index	D1	3 2 1 0
	D2	3 2 1 0
	D3	3 2 1 0
	D4	3 2 1 0
	D5	3 2 1 0
	D6	3 2 1 0
PRD-Index	R1	3 2 1 0
	R2	3 2 1 0
	R3	3 2 1 0
	R4	3 2 1 0

Table12. Engagement Index

Barrier/Enabler	Proxy/Answer	Score
Equality (E-Score)	EIGE Gender Equality Index	0; 50; 100
Corruption / quality of governance (GOV-score)	European Quality of Government Index (EQI)	100; 50; 0
Welfare system (WS-Score)	Expenditure on social protection (% of GDP)	100; 50; 0
Civic Space (CS-Score)	CIVICUS Monitor	100; 50; 0

Table13. Barriers Score

Conclusions

The content of this report has highlighted the importance of civic engagement, which encompasses a wide range of values and activities. Through active citizenship, existing structures can be challenged, social connectedness can be improved and people can be empowered with the knowledge and understanding required to make informed decisions and influence the decisions which affect their lives. Volonteuropé's mission is to champion active citizenship as a pathway to social justice in Europe and beyond. Its focus on active citizenship comes from the belief that individuals live happier lives and experience higher levels of wellbeing when they are active members of their communities and wider society.

In this report we first outline a definition of active citizenship, built on an initial literature review which identified the absence of a common agreed definition. We then analyse the responses of a survey translated into 10 languages, to reach a common bottom-up definition of active citizenship. We then develop a conceptual framework on the barriers to active citizenship, built on the literature review and results of the survey. Finally, we develop the *Active Citizenship Footprint*, a self-assessment tool that assigns a score based on engagement and location to measure the level of participation.

This tool will encourage individuals to reflect on their level of societal engagement and motivate them to take a more active role in society.

Through raising awareness about active citizenship, encouraging individuals to think about their levels of engagement and motivating them to look at the factors that influence their ability to become active citizens, this tool will help us reach our ultimate goal of our work: to increase the levels of active citizenship in Europe. We will use the information that we have gathered from the application of this tool to help us further develop our campaign on promoting volunteering, active citizenship and social justice in Europe and beyond.

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