

# THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP AND WELL-BEING IN NORWAY

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## ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	-	Analysis of variance
CAPI	-	Computer-assisted personal interviewing
CST	-	Core Scientific Team
ESS	-	European Social Survey
EU	-	European Union
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
NEF	-	The New Economics Foundation
SDG	-	Sustainable Development Goals
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
WHO	-	World Health Organisation

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** Although active citizenship has been increasingly emphasised in political discourses due to its multidimensional scope, potential for democracy and empowerment there has been scarce research in Norway regarding the association between active citizenship and well-being. This thesis is a pioneer as it investigates the association between the two concepts through four dimensions of active citizenship: Protest and Social Change; Community Life; Democratic Values; and Representative Democracy.

**Objective:** The objectives of the study were to explore the association between total active citizenship and well-being in Norway, and to investigate the extent to which each of the dimensions of active citizenship contributes to well-being.

**Data and Methods:** A total of 1406 participants in Norway, aged from 15 to 90, were included in the analysis. The data was collected via face-to-face computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) by ESS between October 2018 and May 2019. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis constituted the main analysis, controlling the effects of covariates to identify the relative contribution of each dimension.

**Results:** When measured broadly as a composite indicator, total active citizenship was not significantly associated with well-being. Of the four dimensions, Community Life was found as the only dimension that had a statistically significant contribution to explaining well-being in the regression analyses.

**Discussion and Conclusion:** The results of this thesis indicated that community life, rather than total active citizenship, was significantly associated with well-being in Norway. In other words, when active citizenship took shape only in the form of community life, it was found significantly associated with well-being in Norway. Considering multidimensional aspects of community life, an inclusive and integrated approach in which collaboration between local and national governments is taking place has been suggested by this thesis. Yet still, an elaboration regarding community life practices and additional support through qualitative data might be needed in order to further the understanding of the association between community life and well-being in detail.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Active citizenship has become a political discourse and part of the institutional language in various European Countries (Boje, 2015, pp. 164-165). It is described in an official document written by the European Commission (1998) as “a method of social inclusion, in the course of which people together create the experience of becoming the architects and actors of their own lives” (p. 11). In this regard, active citizenship might be linked to the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion which, more than a decade before the European Commission did, drew attention to the empowerment of the people and communities (see WHO, 1986). Empowerment, as “a flagship value of health promotion” (Woodall et al., 2012, p. 742), is, in a way but not limited to, the stimulation of active citizenship which has been seen as ‘a salve’ and ‘panacea’ to mental and physical ill-health (Gaynor, 2011, p. 28). In addition, active citizenship might be linked to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) since it has the potential to promote inclusive societies (SDG16), reduce inequalities within countries (SDG10), achieve gender equality, and empower all women and girls (SDG5) (see The United Nation, 2015) by increasing participation and nudging the redistribution of power.

The vast majority of previous research, on the one hand, has shown that empowerment, civic engagement, and active citizenship promote subjective well-being (Georghiades & Eiroá Orosa, 2019, p. 2115; Wallace & Pichler, 2009, p. 271; Zepke, 2013, p. 639) and mental health (WHO, 2004, p. 24). On the other hand, a few scholars have found either no association between some sorts of active citizenship practices and well-being (Wray-Lake et al., 2019, p. 171) or anger- and despair-triggering effects of some active citizenship practices (van Zomeren et al., 2008, p. 524). As for the Norwegian context, there has been scarce research regarding if active citizenship underpins well-being.

Following Hoskins and Mascherini (2009)’s framework of active citizenship and Zimmerman (2000)’s empowerment theory, the present thesis will explore the association between active citizenship and well-being in the Norwegian context through four dimensions of active citizenship: Protest and Social Changes; Community Life; Democratic Values; and Representative Democracy, which makes this paper relatively unique in international and Norwegian literature. Organisations and communities in Norway or abroad that aim to promote better and healthier societies might benefit from the inferences of this thesis.



## **1.1. BACKGROUND**

Individuals in western societies have been increasingly characterised by the preoccupation with their own private domain (Lauglo & Oia, 2006, p. 12). A declining trend in acting idealistically in favour of others indicates a rising challenge for civil society in regards to participation in civic activities which require time, effort, and commitment to act (Lauglo & Oia, 2006, p. 14). Therefore, European policymakers have started emphasising the concept of active citizenship in order to ensure the continuation of participatory and representative democracy by promoting particular forms of participation; enhance social cohesion; and reduce the gap between citizens and governing institutions (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, pp. 459-460).

According to ESS (2015)'s well-being report, Scandinavia showed greater well-being levels than southern and eastern Europe (p. 7). One might immediately associate that with the wealth Scandinavian countries hold as it was a common attitude to perceive well-being as "synonymous of economic welfare" in the twentieth century (Iezzi et al., 2014, p. 849). However, scholars have found that money and wealth are insufficient gauges of well-being and that income and life satisfaction are weakly associated (Zepke, 2013, pp. 640-641). Thus, a range of different fields other than the economy such as education, health system, parenting, and the time spent with beloved ones have been addressed in order to flourish well-being (Shah & Marks, 2004, pp. 2-3). That is to say that there are many more determinants of well-being that cannot be limited to economics. Active citizenship with its comprehensive scope may be one of the determinants that has potential to contribute to well-being.

In a report written in 2006, it is said that youths in Norway vote in elections, participate in civil society, and join voluntary organisations less frequently than their predecessors (Lauglo & Oia, 2006, p. 11). On the one hand, that might now be a general trend among the people given the fact that youths at the time the report was written are now adults and technological developments in recent decades might have exacerbated passive behaviours. On the other hand, it might be argued that due to the climate change people have become more concerned about their future and thereby developed more active behaviours. Such an uncertainty deserves to be explored because people cannot fully achieve their health potential without being able to have a voice in decisions that would affect their well-being (WHO, 1986). Thus, the existence of active citizens in a country is quite important and should not be neglected. Based on this backdrop, the present paper aims to carry through the objectives indicated in the following section.

## **1.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The objective of this study is to explore the association between active citizenship and well-being in Norway, and the extent to which different dimensions of active citizenship contribute to well-being in Norway.

## **1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The present study aims to answer the following questions:

- 1) What is the association between active citizenship and well-being in Norway?
- 2) To what extent are the dimensions of active citizenship -Protest and Social Change, Community Life, Democratic Values, and Representative Democracy- associated with well-being in Norway?

## **1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

Chapter 2 gives insight into conceptual and theoretical frameworks along with definitions of active citizenship and well-being, that guided the thesis. In chapter 3, existing literature regarding the association between active citizenship practices, the dimensions of active citizenship, and well-being are addressed prior to the contribution of this thesis to the literature. Chapter 4 provides information regarding the research paradigm, the data, research design, study sample and variables, data analysis methods, quality assurance, ethical consideration, and lastly limitations of the preferred research strategy. Chapter 5 presents findings by explaining analyses followed step by step. Afterwards, the findings of the thesis are evaluated in relation to similar and different findings in the literature; and assessed in relation to their implications for empowerment theory and health promotion in Chapter 6 where limitations of the thesis and suggestions for further research are also addressed. Lastly, the thesis is finalised in Chapter 7.

## 2. CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

### 2.1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

#### 2.1.1. WHAT IS ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP?

Active citizenship is an interdisciplinary concept intersecting the boundaries of social research and community development research (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 461). Because of its interdisciplinary nature, there is no single agreed upon definition of active citizenship. Besides, let alone active citizenship, the concept of “citizenship” itself is not a static term due to the emergence of new rights during the 20<sup>th</sup> century such as ecological, sexual, and indigenous rights that blur the boundaries between human and civil, political and social rights across regions and states (Isin, 2009, p. 367). Hence, there have been various definitions of active citizenship initiated by scholars.

Banaji and Mejias (2020) and more than forty researchers debated institutional and normative definitions of active citizenship for their project (p. 3). Taking into account mainly whether the definition is value-laden and inclusive they handled definitions of the concept under five categorisations: ‘conservative normative,’ ‘liberal normative,’ ‘non-normative,’ ‘inclusive critical,’ and ‘critical normative’ (p. 8-9). In this thesis, the critical normative definition which is consistent with the EU values and the framework is adopted and the definition is as follow:

*“Any form of informed, intermitted or sustained solidarity, engagement, debate and/or collective or individual action taken by any member or members of the globe, region, locality or nation in relation to each other, the government, legislature, corporate sphere, media and civil/voluntary spheres in the world, their region, locality or region, which is oriented towards upholding the principles and deepening the practices of human rights, dignity, equity and democratic governance”* (Banaji & Mejias, 2020, p. 9).

Significant aspects of the definition above are that active citizenship is not restricted to any national borders and that its normative positioning in regard to equity and human rights excludes groups with ideas against human rights. For example, unjust practices such as ‘defending white neighbourhoods against refugees’, carried out by some white supremacists or other right-wing organisations might be perceived as a form of active citizenship by some citizens (Banaji & Mejias, 2020, p. 16), however, as their actions conflict with the human rights, members of those groups are not qualified as active citizens in this paper and this is

consistent with the European Union's goals and principles (see European Court of human Rights, 1953).

### **2.1.1.1. Conceptualisation of Active Citizenship**

Hoskins and Mascherini (2009) have developed an overall model of active citizenship for operationalisation of the concept and identifying measurable components. In this paper, their model will guide the research. To state briefly, the model is comprised of four dimensions each of which provides an outline for possible indicators of active citizenship. The four dimensions are 'Protest and Social Change;' 'Community Life;' 'Representative Democracy;' and 'Democratic Values' (See Figure 1). Considering that Hoskins and Mascherini (2009) used ESS dataset 2002 in their works to identify active citizenship indicators, the world and circumstances have changed especially since the internet has been rapidly spreading over. New forms of expressive platforms on the internet such as blogs, social media, and videos have capacities to trigger citizens' participation and involvement (Hillygus et al., 2010, pp. 207-208). In other words, the ways to be an active citizen today are, to some extent, different than the ways decades earlier. Therefore, new indicators taking into contemporary progresses account is essential for analysing active citizenship. In that regard, Banaji and Mejias (2020) have listed a range of factors, from personal context to community and culture, to historical and political contexts, that have the greatest impact on active citizenship (p. 12-13) and their study were also benefited, in harmony with the model, in identifying additional indicators for active citizenship.

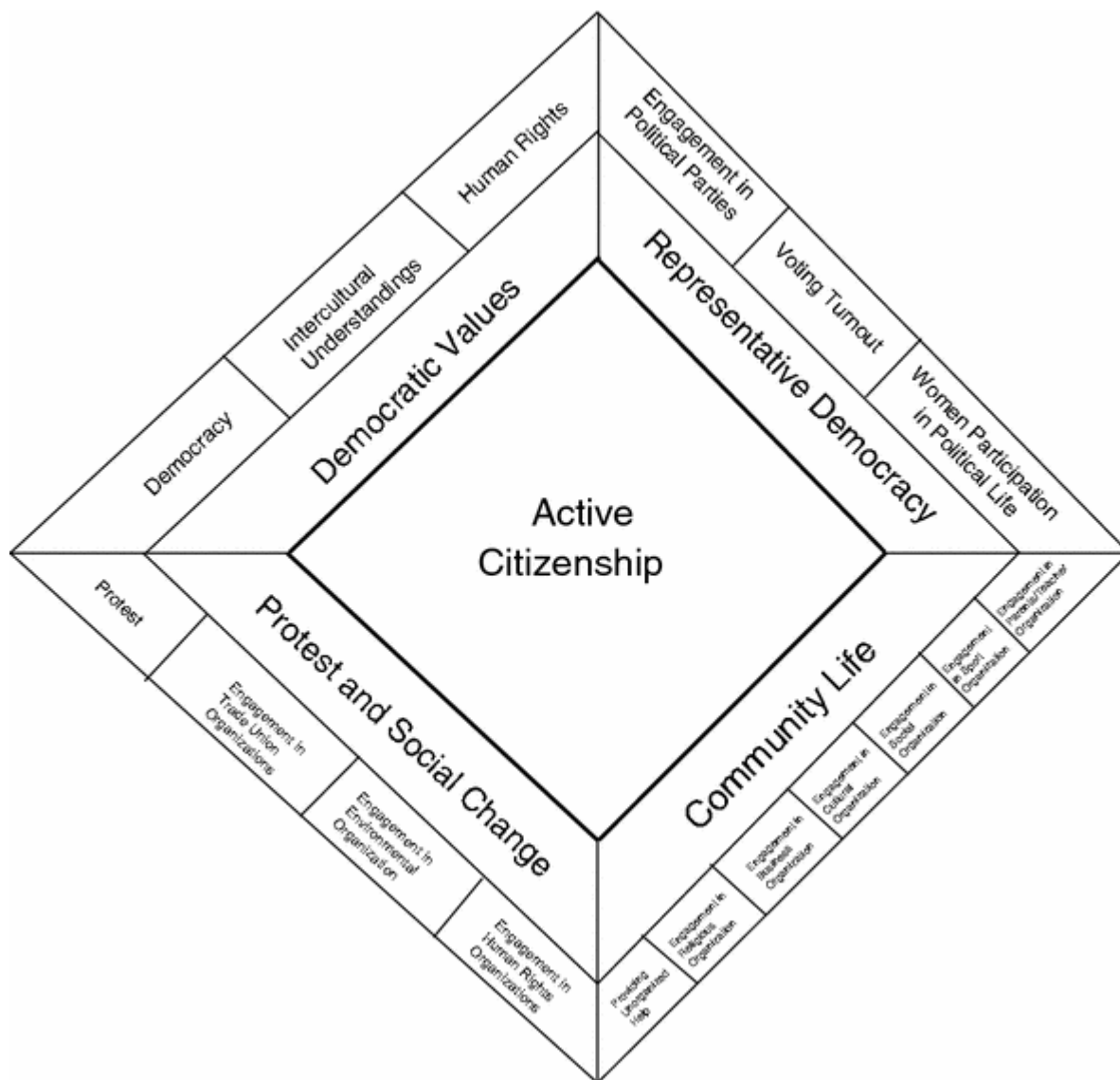


Figure 1: The Dimensions of Active Citizenship; Retrieved from (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 469)

The dimension of Protest and Social Change refers to activities such as participation in demonstrations, boycotts, political strikes, or volunteering in activities organised by civil society organisations that work towards positive social change (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 465). As for community life, ideal indicators were concerning participation in informal and unorganised activities such as engagement in religious or social organizations in the community (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 466). The definition of Active Citizenship has a normative value that encompasses “*human rights, dignity, equity, and democratic governance*” as referred to in the conceptual framework above. Therefore, a composite indicator of Active Citizenship not only includes indicators of participation but also values (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 467). As for the last dimension of active citizenship, representative democracy includes activities that are available to the people within the system of representative

democracy such as voting, contacting elected representatives and government officials (Ogris and Westphal cited in Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 466). Indicators found in the dataset are presented in Chapter 4.

### **2.1.2. WHAT IS WELL-BEING?**

The discussion about well-being might be traced back to the ancient era (Iezzi & Polistena, 2006, p. 113). While Epicurus, a pioneer of the hedonic school of thought, believed a good life should be filled with happiness, Aristotle proposed living in accordance with your true self as a way to have a good life (ESS, 2015, p. 7). Contemporary scholars, on the other hand, have developed more concrete and multidimensional inputs for well-being than subjective phrases like ‘your true self’ and ‘filling with happiness’ which vary from one to another.

The concept of well-being was likened to an umbrella that encompasses several components such as gross domestic product (GDP), life satisfaction, satisfaction with marriage, work, income, housing, and leisure (Iezzi et al., 2014, p. 849). The New Economics Foundation (NEF), an independent think-tank, has two personal dimensions for their model of well-being: 1) “*People’s personal development*” includes being engaged in life, autonomy, fulfilling potential, curiosity, having a purpose in life, personal development and growth. 2) “*People’s social well-being*” includes a sense of belonging to communities, positive attitudes towards others, contribution to society, and pro-social behaviours (Shah & Marks, 2004, p. 4). In that sense, the concept of well-being is multidimensional, comprised of interrelated components (Wray-Lake et al., 2019, p. 167).

As might be interpreted from the remarks above, there is no universally accepted definition of well-being (Iezzi et al., 2014, p. 849). In this thesis, well-being is perceived in a comprehensive and inclusive manner rather exclusive, especially during the literature review. However, since the current paper is based on the secondary data analysis, our measures are limited to a certain number of indicators. In ESS dataset, the core measuring indicators of well-being are “life satisfaction,” and “happiness” (ESS, 2015, p. 2). In addition to those two, another indicator regarding “personal health status” was also added to the measuring process of well-being in this thesis. Detailed information about the indicators used for measuring well-being is referred to in Chapter 0.

## 2.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.2.1. EMPOWERMENT THEORY

If active citizenship is basically described as “a method of social inclusion, in the course of which people together create the experience of becoming the architects and actors of their own lives” (European Commission, 1998, p. 11), empowerment is, in a way but not limited to, the stimulation of increasing active citizens as it refers to “enabling individuals to gain control and mastery over their lives” (Chan & Mak, 2020, p. 1). In addition to that nexus between empowerment and active citizenship, empowerment theory links well-being with larger socio-political environment and enhances wellness by providing opportunities for participants to develop skills and engage as collaborators instead of authoritative experts (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995, pp. 569-570). On this basis, this paper embraces empowerment theory.

Empowerment is not a single unified entity (Wilkinson, 1998, p. 6). It takes unique and different forms, depending on a given context therefore, it is prone to fluctuations over time (Foster-Fishman et al., 1998, p. 511). In this paper, Zimmerman (2000)’s theoretical framework of empowerment will guide the research. According to that, empowerment theory is handled through two steps; “*empowering process*” and “*empowered outcomes*” in which individual, organisational, and community level of analysis are carried out (Zimmerman, 2000, pp. 45-46).

While the empowering process is concerning whether it helps people develop skills leading to independent problem-solvers, empowered outcomes are about the consequences of citizens’ attempts to gain greater control (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 46). Both empowerment process and outcomes are context dependent, varying in their outward form and taking different forms in different contexts (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 45). When applied in our context, active citizenship practices are the empowering process, and well-being is the empowerment outcome resulting from active citizenship practices.

### **3. LITERATURE REVIEW**

The literature used in this paper was found in Oria, Google Scholars, and ProQuest Social Sciences which encompass a wide range of databases, from journal articles to books. Using Wildcard symbols, quotation marks, and similar words to active citizenship and well-being, the thematic search was implemented. “Active citizenship,” “participation,” “civic engagement,” “well-being,” and “health” were the words used in the search rows. In addition to primary sources found through the mentioned search process, secondary sources were also checked and benefited from. As a result, valuable contexts found for the research are referred to in this chapter where respectively the existing literature regarding the association between active citizenship and well-being and then the literature written specifically in relation to the dimensions of active citizenship and well-being will be addressed. Lastly, contribution of this thesis to the existing literature and how it differs from earlier studies will be reflected.

#### **3.1. EXISTING LITERATURE ABOUT THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP AND WELL-BEING**

There has already been some research conducted regarding the nexus between active citizenship, or its near-synonymous concepts such as civic engagement, participation, and well-being. Implementing an intervention research design, Georghiades and Eiroá Orosa (2019) found a positive correlation between active citizenship and well-being (p. 2115). Similarly, Zepke (2013) argues that subjective well-being is underpinned through active citizenship (p. 649). Winterton (2019) provided that active citizenship among older adults promotes healthy aging and facilitates individual well-being (p. 17). Applying multiple correspondence analysis Iezzi et al. (2014) found that active citizenship underpins life-satisfaction and well-being (p.860). In mainland China and Hong Kong, civically active adults have reported better psychological well-being (Chan & Mak, 2020, p. 8).

The vast majority of research about active citizenship and well-being, as seen above, has found a positive association despite the different methods implemented across different regions. However, a few research have found either no association or negative association between active citizenship and well-being. For instance, while some sorts of active citizenship practices such as volunteering was found to bring happiness and joy (Borgonovi, 2008, p. 2326) and advance well-being (Cicognani et al., 2015, p. 40) in some studies, it was found that volunteering was not related to well-being in another study (Wray-Lake et al., 2019, p. 171). Besides, speaking of injustice and grievances, as a practice of an active citizen, might bring



anger and despair (van Zomeren et al., 2008, p. 524) let alone well-being. Therefore, the fact that Fenn et al. (2021) have found both positive and negative associations between civic engagement and well-being, depending on different types of civic engagement (p. 924) suggests: 1) an unstable association between active citizenship and well-being and 2) necessity to investigate active citizenship through dimensions but not as one concept.

As for the Norwegian context, literature concerning the association between active citizenship and well-being is close to absent. Even though there has been research about active citizenship (see Halvorsen et al., 2007; Jdid, 2021; Vabø, 2011), and reports about the effect of education on civic engagement (see Lauglo & Oia, 2006) in Norway, only one article which investigated the impact of volunteering -a component of active citizenship- on well-being of older adults in Norway was found at the time this study was conducted (see Goth & Smaland, 2014). Hence, the association between active citizenship and well-being in Norway remains to be explored.

### **3.2. THE DIMENSIONS OF ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP AND WELL-BEING**

As seen in the previous chapter, there are four dimensions of active citizenship: Protest and Social Changes, Community Life, Democratic Values, and Representative Democracy. Under the present section, literature was reviewed by separately searching each of dimensions along with well-being.

The literature is scarce and unstable in regard to the dimension of Protest and Social Change. In her essay exploring two protesters' accounts of participating in collective protests, Rawlins (2021) interprets the protesters' experiences in protests as a way of healing, especially for collective traumas that require collective mending (p. 1). However, she also draws attention to risks of being harmed and painful emotional burdens that many activists may face (Rawlins, 2021, p. 2). In a similar manner, Houkamau et al. (2020) exploring the relationship between support for protest and well-being for New Zealand's indigenous Maori people have found higher level of psychological distress and decreased health status among those who thought of taking political action on behalf of their ethnic group (p. 42).

As for Community Life, Wallace and Pichler (2009) have empirically investigated the impact of civic participation over the quality of life and they confirm a positive relationship between participation in civil society and quality of life (p. 266). In a panel analysis based on one-year reciprocal analysis and nationally cohort dataset in Australia, it has been found that participation in community life predicts higher mental health in the following year (Ding et al., 2015, pp. 251-252).

As for the dimensions of Democratic Values, and Representative Democracy, Loubser and Steenekamp (2017) have found a positive correlation between democracy and life satisfaction in their 'A 10-nation study' involving countries from Sweden, and the U.S. to Rwanda, and China. According to their study, the level of life satisfaction is higher in secure democracies than it is in countries experiencing more political and economic challenges (Loubser & Steenekamp, 2017, p. 1). Being aware of the fact that democracy might have impacts on other variables in their analysis, Orviska et al. (2014) have found democratic satisfaction affects both individual happiness and life satisfaction (p. 493-494). The effect of democracy on happiness and subjective well-being was found stronger in countries with an established democratic tradition even though income and culture were controlled (Dorn et al., 2007, p. 505).

### **3.3. WHAT DOES THIS STUDY CONTRIBUTE TO THE EXISTING LITERATURE?**

As indicated earlier, the association between active citizenship and well-being remains unclear. What distinguishes the present study from the previous ones on the same topic is that the association between active citizenship and well-being was analysed through four different dimensions of active citizenship. In that sense, this study is a pioneer expecting to stimulate more research on the field by attracting attention to relationship between the dimensions of active citizenship and well-being. So that, a specific dimension would be aimed and investigated, depending on the context. On our way to 2030, certain active citizenship practices might be cost-effective to promote relevant SDGs and underpin well-being.

## **4. DATA AND METHODS**

### **4.1. RESEARCH PARADIGM**

Every social science research has philosophical foundations regarding ontological and epistemological assumptions even if a researcher does not acknowledge them explicitly (Neuman, 2014, p. 93). The ontological foundation of this thesis rested on critical realism that recognises, like realism, that there is reality out there but, unlike realism, assumes reality is likely to be provisional, and distinguishes between the objects we investigate and the terms we use to account for the objects (Bryman, 2012, p. 29). As for the epistemological stance, this thesis embraces post-positivism as a variation of positivism (Neuman, 2014, p. 97). The reason I embarked critical realist ontology and post-positivist epistemology stems from the fact that the concept of citizenship, let alone active citizenship, has historically been gendered, racialised, heterosexualised, and class differentiated, which affect the participation of people (Yuval-Davis, 1999, p. 132). Hence, I admit, by embracing critical realist and post positivist stances, that active citizenship might, ontologically, amount to something different than the indicators in ESS dataset and thus might require a different epistemological approach.

### **4.2. DATA FROM EUROPEAN SOCIAL SURVEY (ESS)**

The data used in this study is taken from European Social Survey (ESS) which has been conducting cross-national surveys across Europe every two years since 2001, with newly selected, cross-sectional samples. More information regarding the data in this chapter might be found elsewhere (ESS Round 9: European Social Survey Round 9 Data, 2018).

#### **4.2.1. DATA COLLECTION**

ESS National Funding Agency appoints a national coordinator and a survey organisation in each country to carry out the survey. ESS Core Scientific Team (CST) provides training materials, guidelines, and support for interviewers. The whole process of data collection in each country is monitored by CST. The data used in the current study was collected via face-to-face computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) according to the common ESS Specification. The data is open access without any restrictions (ESS, n.d.-a).

#### **4.2.2. SAMPLING STRATEGY**

Key principles that guided the ESS sampling strategy are as the following:

- All participants in the survey must be aged 15 and over without any upper age limit, resident in private households, regardless of their nationality, citizenship, or language
- Strict random probability methods were implemented at every stage
- Quota sampling was not permitted at any stage
- Substitution of non-responding individuals was not permitted at any stage (ESS, n.d.-c).

#### **4.2.3. DATA QUALITY**

The ESS undertakes a range of activities concerning data quality assessment throughout the survey in order to ensure the highest methodological standards. Some of these include country-specific reports about the issues encountered in the previous data collections, meetings with field directors, fieldwork progress provided weekly during the data collection, depositing data and all fieldwork documents at the ESS Data Archive, analysing numerous quality aspects related to data collection. Moreover, they use a software called ‘Survey Quality Predictor’ during the questionnaire development and their scientific team evaluates the quality and comparability of its measurement instruments, assesses the socio-demographic sample composition and output quality of the survey (ESS, n.d.-b).

#### **4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN**

This research is designed within the framework of the correlational survey which concerns itself with relationships between variables (Punch, 2014, p. 216). Since the data is taken from the ESS, the research is based on secondary data analysis.

#### **4.4. STUDY SAMPLE**

ESS Round 9: European Social Survey Round 9 Data (2018) was conducted from October 2018 to May 2019 in Norway. Information about attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour patterns of diverse populations have been obtained through the survey. The data includes 572 variables from 1,406 participants in Norway, of which are 777 Males (51.9%) and 629 Females (49.1%). Since the aim of this thesis was to investigate the association between active citizenship and well-being on a general population, there were implemented neither excluding nor including criteria for the sample.

## 4.5. STUDY VARIABLES

### 4.5.1. INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Active citizenship is the main independent variable of this paper. However, since I wanted to separately find unique contributions of the dimensions of active citizenship on well-being, active citizenship was separated into the four dimensions addressed in Chapter 0. A total of eighteen indicators for active citizenship were identified in the ESS dataset, distributed across the dimensions, and presented in Table 1.

*Table 1: Indicators of different dimensions of Active Citizenship*

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Indicator</b>
<u><i>Protest and Social Change</i></u>	Worked in political party or action group last 12 months
	Worked in another organisation or action group last 12 months
	Worn or displayed campaign badge/sticker last 12 months
	Signed petition last 12 months
	Taken part in lawful public demonstration last 12 months
	Boycotted certain products last 12 months
	Posted or shared anything about politics online last 12 months
<u><i>Community Life</i></u>	Member of trade union or similar organisation
	Often socially meet friends, relatives, or colleagues
	Often attend religion services
<u><i>Democratic Values</i></u>	Take part in social activities compared to others of same age
	Government should reduce differences in income levels
	Gays and lesbians free to live life as they wish
	Allow many/few immigrants from poorer countries outside Europe
	Country's cultural life undermined or enriched by immigrants
<u><i>Representative Democracy</i></u>	Immigrants make country worse or better place to live
	Voted in last national election
	Contacted politician or government official last 12 months

The dimension of Protest and Social Change refers to activities such as participation in demonstrations, boycotts, political strikes, or volunteering in activities organised by civil society organisations that work towards positive social change (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 465). In that regard, participants were asked seven questions starting like “During the last 12 months, have you... worked in a political party or action group; worked in another organisation or association; worn or displayed a campaign badge/sticker; signed a petition; taken part in a lawful public demonstration; boycotted certain products; posted or shared anything about politics online, for example on blogs, via email or on social media such as Facebook or Twitter?” which were all with Yes (1), No (2), Refusal (7), and Don’t know (8) choices. During the creation of a composite indicator for this dimension, only those who answered “Yes” the aforementioned questions were counted while those who answered “No” were presented at .00 score. Thus, the rise or decline in well-being might be seen as the scale gradually increases.

As for community life, ideal indicators were concerning participation in informal and unorganised activities (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 466). Three questions represented this dimension: “How often do you meet socially with friends, relatives, or work colleagues?” from Never (1) to Every Day (7), “Apart from special occasions such as wedding and funerals, about how often do you attend religious services nowadays?” from Every day (1) to Never (7), lastly “Compared to other people of your age, how often would you say you take part in social activities?” from Much less than most (1) to Much more than most (5). For the sake of internal consistency and an accord among the indicators, the scales were re-coded in the direction of Never to Everyday, and 7-point Likert scales were decreased to 5-point Likert scale where higher score indicates more active participation. A composite indicator of this dimension was created by counting score-3 (Several times a month) and above on the scale as scores less than 3 represents inactive participation.

The definition of Active Citizenship has a normative value that encompasses “*human rights, dignity, equity, and democratic governance*” as referred to in the conceptual framework above. Therefore, a composite indicator of Active Citizenship not only should include indicators of participation but also values (Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 467). In this regard, relevant indicators found in the ESS dataset were obtained as the following: participants were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale from Agree strongly (1) to Disagree strongly (5) that whether

“The Government should take measures to reduce differences in income levels;” “Gay men and lesbians should be free to live their own life as they wish;” “Allow many or some people of a different race or ethnic group to come and live here,” and to rate on a 10-point Likert scale from Cultural life undermined (0) to Cultural life enriched (10) whether “Norway’s cultural life is generally undermined or enriched by people coming to live here from other countries,” and lastly to rate on Worse place to live (0) to Better place to live (10) “Is Norway made a worse or a better place to live by people coming to live here from other countries?” 10-point scales were decreased to 5-point scales and the scales were re-coded in the direction of Disagree strongly (1) to Agree strongly (5) thereby higher score reflects more indication of active citizenship in line with the scales of the previous dimensions.

As for the last dimension of active citizenship, representative democracy includes activities that are available to the people within the system of representative democracy such as voting, contacting elected representatives and government officials (Ogris and Westphal cited in Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, p. 466). In relation to that, there were two indicators in the ESS dataset. Questions asked for those indicators were “Did you vote in the last Parliamentary Elections, in the autumn of 2017?” Yes (1), No (2), Not eligible to vote (3), Refusal (7), Don’t know (8), and “During the last 12 months, have you contacted a politician, government, or local government official?” Yes (1), No (2), Refusal (7), Don’t know (8). For the composite indicator of this dimension, only those who answered Yes (1) were counted whereby those answered No (2) are represented at .00 score in the index.

After creating a separate composite indicator for each dimension, they were then summed into a variable called ‘total active citizenship’ in order to answer the first research question of the thesis. As a result, a Total Active Citizenship Index consisting of 18-point scale was obtained.

#### **4.5.2. DEPENDENT VARIABLE**

The dependent variable in this thesis is well-being measured as a composite indicator consisting of three variables, namely “satisfaction with life,” “happiness,” and “subjective health.” Participants, in that regard, were asked “All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole nowadays?” to rate on 10-point Likert scales ranging from Extremely Unsatisfied (0) to Extremely satisfied (10), “Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are?” from Extremely unhappy (0) to Extremely happy (10), and lastly “How is your health in general?” to rate on a 5-point Likert scale from Very good (1) to Very bad (5)? In order to have internal consistency and reliability in the scale of well-being, the health indicator

was re-coded in the line with the other scales, from Very bad (1) to Very good (5). In addition, the indicators of satisfaction with life and happiness were converted to 5-point Likert scale to cohere with the health indicator.

#### **4.5.3. COVARIATES**

As for the control variables, age, gender (Male, Female), marital status (Married, Civil Union, Single), the highest education completed (Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational School, University/Master/Doctorate), income (Less than 39.000kr per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, More than 72.001 per month), domicile (Big city, Small city) and lastly political trust (Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, and Trust) were entered as covariates in the analysis and that is coherent considering their effects (See Hooghe & Marien, 2013, p. 131; Wallace & Pichler, 2009, pp. 264-265). Apart from age and gender, all the covariates were collapsed into as smaller categories as possible in case they would be used as dummy variables later during the data analyses. Initially, marital status consisted of five categories including legally married a civil union, “legally separated,” “legally divorced,” and “widowed/civil partner died.” The categories in inverted commas were summed together then coded as “single.” The education variable had over twenty categories with detailed information about duration of education at each level. They were collapsed into three categories by summing those who finished high school and below as “Primary/Intermediate/High School,” those who had degrees from different vocational schools as “Vocational School”, and those who graduated from at least a university and above as “University/Master/Doctorate.” The income variable consisted of ten categories ranging from “Less than and 22.000kr per month” to “100.000 or more.” It was collapsed into three income categories. As for domicile, “Town or small city,” “Country village,” “Farm or home in countryside” were coded as small city while “Suburbs or outskirts of big city” was added to another category labelled “A big city.” Thus, the variable of domicile got collapsed into two categories from five. The trust variable was created by summing up three variables found in ESS dataset: “Trust in country’s parliament,” “Trust in politicians,” and “Trust in political parties.” Trust items were initially 10-point Likert scale from No Trust at all (0) to Trust completely (10) but they were collapsed to three categories: Distrust Completely (0) -consisting of 0+1+2+3 points of the scale; - Neither Distrust nor Trust (1) -consisting of 4+5+6 points of the scale; - and Trust Completely (2) -consisting of 7+8+9+10 points of the scale-.



#### **4.6. DATA ANALYSIS METHODS**

Data analyses in this thesis were gradually performed in three phases: Univariate, Bivariate, and Predictive Analyses. First of all, as a part of univariate analyses, preliminary analysis was conducted to check for errors, outliers, normality and discover the nature of variables by running IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; SPSS, Inc., Chicago), version 28. There were neither significant number of missing values nor values out of range. Nevertheless, answers with “refusal” and “don’t know” were coded as missing. Some variables were collapsed into smaller categories and 10-point scales into either 5-point, or 3-point Likert scales as mentioned above in detail. Outliers were not changed due to the ethical concerns that actual information might be lost and thus readers would be misinformed. A negatively worded variable was identified and recoded as to be coherent with other items. Cases were excluded pairwise. All analysis used sample weight as recommended by ESS (Kaminska, 2020, p. 4).

Univariate analysis was furthered by running descriptive analyses. Demographic characteristics of participants, and features of the scales were investigated and presented with standard statistical parameters such as frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis.

Secondly, Pearson Correlation Coefficients analysis was conducted to identify the strength and direction of the relationship between the covariates, independent variables, and dependent variable, and to determine how to use the dimensions of active citizenship in the further analysis.

Lastly, controlling the covariates, data analysis was furthered by twice carrying out hierarchical multiple regression in order to finally answer my two research questions: “What is the association between active citizenship and well-being in Norway?” and “To what extent are the dimensions of active citizenship -Protest and Social Change; Community Life; Democratic Values; and Representative Democracy- associated with well-being in Norway?” In both models, the covariates were entered into step 1 as directed by Pallant (2016). Non-dichotomous variables were re-coded into dummy variables. As for reasons to choose hierarchical multiple regression, first, it is used to explore relationship between one continuous dependent variable (well-being) and a number of independent predictors (Field, 2018, p. 651). Secondly, it provides information about the relative contribution of each predictors and enables to controlling the influence of covariates (Pallant, 2016), which was required to identify genuine contributions of the dimensions. Lastly, considering the dependent variable, well-being, is

skewed (See Table 4), the regression still allows to perform the analysis as long as there are more cases than usually needed (Pallant, 2016). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013)'s formulation, required sample size for five independent variables in a regression is 90 cases (p. 123), and ESS data met well above that requirement with over 1,000 participants.

## 4.7. QUALITY ASSURANCE

### 4.7.1. RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure (Bryman, 2012, p. 169). The higher reliability amounts to lower error variance, or the lower reliability amounts to higher error variance (Punch, 1998, p. 100). One of the most common ways to check reliability of a scale is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. While it is recommended to have Cronbach's alpha value above .7 for more than ten items, it is more appropriate to report, for fewer than ten items, the mean inter-item correlation which is recommended to be between .2 to .4 (DeVellis, and Briggs & Cheek cited in Pallant, 2016).

The two dimensions of Active Citizenship, Protest and Social Change, and Representative Democracy, were constructed with items holding categorical values (Yes/No) rather than scales as mentioned above. Therefore, it was not appropriate to run the reliability test for those dimensions, and Total Active Citizenship Index since 10 out of 18 items in the Active Citizenship Index were categorical. As for the rest of the composite indicators, Community life, Democratic values, and Well-Being Index, which were all constructed with scale items, the reliability tests were performed, and the results are presented in Table 2.

*Table 2: Cronbach's alpha values and mean inter-item correlations for the scale variables*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Mean Inter-item</b>
<b>Community Life</b>	3	.32	.13
<b>Democratic Values</b>	5	.66	.27
<b>Well-Being</b>	3	.70	.45

As seen on the table, all the scales consist of fewer than ten items. Although the Community Life Index's mean inter-item was not between .2 and .4, it was kept in the analysis to use it during the construction of Total Active Citizenship Index. The indexes of Democratic Values and Well-Being proved to be reliable scales with their mean inter-item values above .20. Well-

being Index revealed even acceptable Cronbach's alpha with .70 despite consisting of only three items.

#### **4.7.2. VALIDITY**

According to Bryman (2012) the terms reliability and validity have quite different meanings although they seem to be synonymous, and thus often appear to be confused with one another (p. 168). Validity refers to the issue of whether an indicator designed to measure a concept really measures that concept (Bryman, 2012, p. 171). All the indicators of active citizenship were identified from Hoskins and Mascherini (2009)'s study in which they benefited from ESS Dataset 2002 for the development of a composite indicator of active citizenship in the four dimensions. In that sense, there is no doubt that the indicators are valid and proper measures. However, whether the number of indicators to measure the concept is enough or not is open to discussion. Because, in ESS Dataset 2002, participants were asked four sub-questions for some indicators -Membership, Participation, Donating money, Voluntary work- (See Hoskins & Mascherini, 2009, pp. 472-473). As to ESS 2018, questions regarding donating money, voluntary work, sport organisations, environmental organisations were abandoned. Therefore, I could only identify eighteen indicators for active citizenship in ESS Dataset 2018 while Hoskins and Mascherini (2009) identified sixty-one indicators in ESS Dataset 2002 about membership, participation, donating money, and voluntary work for different organizations. As a result, while I do not doubt indicators are valid to measure the concept, I do admit the number of indicators might not be numerous enough due to the data on hand.

#### **4.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Although ethical principles vary from one to another, there are four fundamental ethical principles in the social science that no one would oppose, namely; 'no harm to participants,' 'informed consent,' 'respect for privacy,' and 'no deception' (Bryman, 2012, p. 135). As indicated above, this research benefited from secondary data which were collected by the ESS that have subscribed to the Declaration on Ethics of International Statistical Institute and been awarded by international institutions and associations. Nevertheless, there are ethical considerations for secondary data users such as obtaining permission from the data holder to use it, and anonymity. However, those ethical criteria do not bear upon the present thesis as the data is open-access and anonymity has been maintained during the data collection.

#### **4.9. LIMITATIONS**

Since our analyses apply to one country, it is limited to certain extent. Therefore, findings generated in this study are not carved in stone. The reliance on quantitative measures of active citizenship may be insufficient to capture the phenomenon that might be perceived differently in everyday experience. Therefore, the findings might require additional support through qualitative data. Besides, the concept of well-being is biased towards Western post-industrial society, excluding non-western contexts (La Placa et al., 2013, p. 123). There might have been obtained a different well-being scale with different indicators depending on the context. Lastly, no casual conclusions can be drawn since the study is cross-sectional.

## 5. RESULTS

### 5.1. UNIVARIATE ANALYSES

#### 5.1.1. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Demographic characteristics of 1.406 participants are presented in Table 3. Equal participation in terms of gender was almost reached with 48.1% women and 51.9% men participants. The average age of participants was 45 (SD: 18) and the age range was from 15 to 90. The vast majority of participants (94.8%) were single. More than one-third of participants (36.3%) have completed university education or upper degree, almost quarter of participants (23%) vocational school, and the rest (40.7%) have completed high school or below. About half of the participants (45.5%) have indicated household income between 39.001kr to 72.000kr per month while the rest of the participants were almost equally collapsed to the two ends with 24% in more than 72.000kr per month and 30.5% in less than 39.000kr per month. The vast majority of participants (69%) have indicated to be living in a big city while barely less than one-third (31%) have been living in a small city. Lastly, political trust was extensive among almost half of the participants (45.5%), relatively followed by neither distrust nor trust (35.8%) and distrust (18.7%).

*Table 3: Demographic features of the participants*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N (%)</b>
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	
Male	777 (51.9 %)
Female	629 (48.1 %)
<b><u>Age</u></b>	
	45.92 (Mean), St. D= 18.21
Minimum	15
Maximum	90
<b><u>Marital Status</u></b>	
Legally Married	28 (3.2 %)
Legally Registered Civil Union	17 (1.9 %)
Single	756 (94.8 %)
<b><u>Education</u></b>	
Primary/Intermediate/High School	412 (40.7 %)
Vocational	284 (23 %)

University/Master/Doctorate	702 (36.3 %)
<b><u>Income</u></b>	
Less than 39.000kr per month	355 (30.5 %)
39.001 to 72.000kr per month	594 (45.5 %)
More than 72.001kr per month	346 (24 %)
<b><u>Domicile</u></b>	
Big City	449 (31 %)
Small City	954 (69 %)
<b><u>Political Trust</u></b>	
Distrust	236 (18.7 %)
Neither distrust nor trust	494 (35.8 %)
Trust	657 (45.5 %)

### 5.1.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Table 4 shows descriptive statistics of all independent and dependent variables that were scales. Minimum and maximum values of each scale varied as each scale was constructed with a different number of items. The lowest scale range respectively belonged to Representative Democracy (Range 2) and Community Life (Range 3) due to the scarcity of the items identified for those scales in the dataset. Only mean values of Protest and Social Change, and Total Active Citizenship were below mid points of their own scales. Total active citizenship in Norway might be interpreted as “moderate” with 8.63 mean value -close to the mid-point 9.- Skewness and Kurtosis statistics have indicated normal distribution within the scales with their values generally close to .0 (Pallant, 2016). On a scale of 15-point, well-being of people in Norway was quite high with 12.46 mean value. Hence, well-being was found to be skewed. In such a situation, it is recommended to examine the distributions through histograms and normal probability plots (Pallant, 2016). When the graphs were analysed in detail there seemed long thin tails towards the right-high end where the size of the tails start decreasing in the histogram, and a reasonably straight line in the normal probability plots, suggesting normal distribution (See Appendix A: Distribution of Well-Being).

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the Scales

Scales	N	Min	Max	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
Protest and Social Change	1359	0.00	8.00	2.43	0.71*	0.16**
Community Life	1397	0.00	3.00	1.75	-0.64*	0.80**
Democratic Values	1354	0.00	5.00	3.34	-0.36*	-0.77**
Representative Democracy	1400	0.00	2.00	1.09	-0.03*	-0.22**
Total Active Citizenship	1305	1.00	18.00	8.63	0.32*	-0.14**
Total Well-Being	1398	1.00	15.00	12.46	-1.24*	2.91**

\*Std. Error of Skewness = 0.12 \*\*Std. Error of Kurtosis = 0.24

## 5.2. BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

### 5.2.1. PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ANALYSES

Although it was possible to perform the correlation analysis with all the variables, two separate correlation analysis were performed instead: one with the covariates and well-being, and another with the independent variables and well-being. The reasons to do so were that 1) the covariates were not dichotomous therefore they had to be recoded as dummy variables to perform the correlation analysis; 2) all the independent variables were scale; 3) a literal representation of tables for readers to separately compare the strength of relationship that the covariates and the independent variables had with well-being.

Pearson's  $r$  value reflects the strength of the relationship among the variables. In assessing the relationships, Cohen (2013)'s guideline -Small effect  $r = .10$  to  $.29$ , Medium effect  $r = .30$  to  $.49$ , Large effect  $r = .50$  to  $1.0$ - was benefited from (pp. 79-80).

#### 5.2.1.1. Correlation Between the Covariates and Well-Being

In Table 5, only the variables whose correlations with well-being were statistically significant were presented. When the correlation table was investigated, coherent results between the negatively and positively worded items were seen. That is to say that if distrust is negatively associated with well-being, trust is naturally supposed to have positive association or vice versa. That, in a way, shows accuracy of the data. As seen from the Table 5, positive but weak

correlations were found between political trust ( $r = .209, p = .000$ ), having a university or upper degree ( $r = .096, p < .05$ ), earning more than 72.001kr per month ( $r = .141, p < .05$ ), and well-being, suggesting those having more political trust, higher level of income and education were more likely to indicate higher level of well-being. Bear in mind though, none of other variables were controlled for in Pearson's correlation analysis.

Table 5: Correlation between the Covariates and Well-Being

Covariates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	-							
2. Pri/Inter/High School	.015	-						
3. Uni/Master/Doc	.078	.624**	-					
4. Less than 39.000kr	.090*	.115*	-.160*	-				
5. More than 72.001kr	-.071	-.123*	.147*	-.373*	-			
6. Distrust	-.025	.084*	-.147*	.099*	-.053	-		
7. Trust	-.013	-.010	.143*	-.102*	.082	-.439**	-	
<b>8. Well-Being</b>	<b>-.085*</b>	<b>-.085*</b>	<b>.096*</b>	<b>-.183**</b>	<b>.141*</b>	<b>-.215**</b>	<b>.209**</b>	<b>-</b>

\*  $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

\*\*  $p < .001$  (2-tailed)

### 5.2.1.2. Correlation Between the Independent Variables and Well-Being

Table 6 gives insight into the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The most attention-grabbing findings at the first glance were that all the independent variables were weakly correlated with well-being; that the dimension of Community Life was the only independent variable which was statistically significant and had the strongest correlation with well-being ( $r = .253, p < .05$ ) out of five independent variables; and that there was no strong correlation among the dimensions. Although, the dimension of Protest and Social Change was, unlike the rest, the only negatively correlated dimension with well-being ( $r = -.048, p > .324$ ), the correlation was neither strong nor statistically significant.



Table 6: Pearson Product-moment Correlations Between Active citizenship, its dimensions, and Well-Being

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Protest and Social Change	-					
2. Community Life	.113*	-				
3. Democratic Values	.191*	.082	-			
4. Representative Democracy	.300*	.042	.004	-		
5. Total Active Citizenship	.820*	.357*	.625*	.426*	-	
6. Total Well-Being	-.048	.253*	.051	.008	.057	-

\*  $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

### 5.2.1.3. The Comparison of Table 5 and Table 6

When the two tables were studied, important findings are as follows:

- 1) Political trust, income, and education variables were significantly associated with well-being, while total active citizenship was not
- 2) Political trust, income, and education variables had respectively stronger correlation with well-being, though weak but statistically significant, than total active citizenship had.
- 3) Community life had the strongest correlation with well-being among all the variables including political trust, income, and education variables.
- 4) The dimensions of protest and social change; democratic values; and representative democracy were not significantly associated with well-being unlike political trust, earning 72.001kr per month, and having a university or upper degree.

## 5.3. PREDICTIVE ANALYSIS

### 5.3.1. HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES

In order to assess whether active citizenship and its dimensions could predict well-being, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed controlling gender, age, marital status, education, income, domicile, and political trust. Prior to the regression, the assumptions regarding outlier, multicollinearity, and normality were checked. As indicated above, outliers were not changed due to ethical concerns. The assumption of multicollinearity was not violated

as can be seen in Table 6 that there were no significant correlations found among the dimensions of active citizenship. As for normality, Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual showed normality for both models (See Appendix B: Normality of Model 1 & Appendix: C: Normality of Model 2).

### 5.3.1.1. Model 1 – Association Between Total Active Citizenship and Well-Being

Model 1 was developed to answer the first research question: “What is the association between active citizenship and well-being in Norway?” The covariates were entered in step 1 and then the regression was furthered by adding total active citizenship variable into step 2 to see whether active citizenship would predict well-being after the covariates were controlled. As seen in Table 7, the bivariate correlation of the covariates in step 1 was .32, accounting for 10% of the variance in well-being ( $R = .318$ ,  $R^2 = .101$ ). After entry of total active citizenship at step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was still 10% ( $R^2 = .102$ ,  $R^2$  Change = .000), meaning the entry of active citizenship did not make any difference to the model 1 in step 2. Consequently, active citizenship -measured broadly- was not associated with well-being in Norway. The model as a whole was significant,  $F(12, 214) = 2.013$ ,  $p = .024$  (See Appendix D: ANOVA Table of Model 1).

Table 7: Model Summary<sup>c</sup> of Multiple Regression Between Total Active Citizenship and Well Being

Model-1	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R <sup>2</sup> Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Step 1	.318 <sup>a</sup>	.101	.055	1.97653	.101	2.197	11	214	.016
Step 2	.319 <sup>b</sup>	.102	.051	1.98069	.000	.097	1	213	.755

- Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Marital Status - Single, Legally Married, In a legally registered civil union- Education - Not completed, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational, University/Master/Doctorate- Income -Less than 39.000 per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, Domicile, Trust -Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, Trust-
- Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Marital Status - Single, Legally Married, In a legally registered civil union- Education - Not completed, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational, University/Master/Doctorate- Income -Less than 39.000 per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, Domicile, Trust -Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, Trust- Total Active Citizenship
- Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

Table 8 provides the regression coefficients for the two steps in the model 1. While the column labelled “B” under “Unstandardized Coefficients” indicates the degree to which each predictor affects the outcome by one unit (Field, 2018, p. 718), the column labelled “Beta” under “Standardized Coefficients” is used to compare unique contributions of different variables to explaining the dependent variable on the same scale they have been converted to (Pallant,

2016). Accordingly, one unit rise in active citizenship increased well-being by 0.016 ( $B = .016$ ,  $p = .755$ ), however, it was neither significant nor strong contribution to explaining the variance in well-being. In line with the correlation analyses above (See Table 5), the income and trust indicators reflected stronger contribution to explaining well-being than active citizenship (For income 39.001 to 72.000 per month  $Beta = .129$ ,  $p = .092$ ; for income more than 72.001 per month  $Beta = .178$ ,  $p = .024$ ; for distrust  $Beta = -.140$ ,  $p = .057$ , for trust  $Beta = .130$ ,  $p = .077$ , for total active citizenship  $Beta = .022$ ,  $p = .755$ ). However, only earning more than 72.001kr per month was statistically significant when the variance explained by all other variables in the model was controlled for.

Table 8: Coefficients of hierarchical multiple regression between the control variables, total active citizenship, and well-being

		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>									
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	11.972	.973		12.302	<.001					
	Gender	-.295	.267	-.072	-1.104	.271	-.085	-.075	-.071	.972	1.029
	In a legally registered civil union	-.019	1.200	-.001	-.016	.987	-.017	-.001	-.001	.632	1.582
	Single	.254	.744	.028	.342	.733	.029	.023	.022	.635	1.574
	Not Completed	-2.159	3.630	-.039	-.595	.553	-.024	-.041	-.038	.992	1.008
	Primary/Intermediate/High School	-.218	.309	-.053	-.706	.481	-.085	-.048	-.046	.750	1.333
	Vocational	-.020	.365	-.004	-.054	.957	-.008	-.004	-.004	.733	1.365
	39.001 to 72.000 per month	.528	.313	.130	1.690	.092	.048	.115	.109	.713	1.403
	More than 72.001 per month	.849	.370	.179	2.294	.023	.141	.155	.148	.690	1.449
	Domicile	.048	.145	.022	.329	.742	-.019	.022	.021	.959	1.043
	Distrust	-.733	.379	-.141	-1.934	.054	-.215	-.131	-.125	.790	1.266
	Trust	.536	.298	.131	1.797	.074	.209	.122	.116	.783	1.277
2	(Constant)	11.845	1.057		11.211	<.001					
	Gender	-.312	.273	-.077	-1.142	.255	-.085	-.078	-.074	.932	1.073
	In a legally registered civil union	-.005	1.203	.000	-.005	.996	-.017	.000	.000	.631	1.585
	Single	.254	.746	.028	.340	.734	.029	.023	.022	.635	1.574
	Not Completed	-2.174	3.638	-.039	-.598	.551	-.024	-.041	-.039	.992	1.008

Primary/Intermediate/High School	-.190	.322	-.046	-.591	.555	-.085	-.040	-.038	.693	1.443
Vocational	.003	.373	.001	.007	.995	-.008	.000	.000	.705	1.418
39.001 to 72.000 per month	.525	.313	.129	1.674	.095	.048	.114	.109	.712	1.405
More than 72.001 per month	.846	.371	.178	2.279	.024	.141	.154	.148	.690	1.450
Domicile	.049	.145	.022	.335	.738	-.019	.023	.022	.958	1.044
Distrust	-.728	.380	-.140	-1.914	.057	-.215	-.130	-.124	.788	1.269
Trust	.532	.299	.130	1.779	.077	.209	.121	.115	.782	1.279
Total Active Citizenship	.016	.052	.022	.312	.755	.057	.021	.020	.854	1.172

a. Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

### 5.3.1.2. Model 2 – Association Between the Dimensions of Active Citizenship and Well-Being

Model 2 has given insight into the second research question: “To what extent are the dimensions of active citizenship – Protest and Social Change, Community Life, Democratic Values, and Representative Democracy – associated with well-being in Norway?” Like in the previous model, step 1 consisted of the covariates. Then the dimension of Community Life which had the strongest correlation and the only statistical significance in the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analyses (See Table 6) was per se entered into step 2. The other three dimensions were added into step 3 altogether since they were all weakly associated with well-being and statistically insignificant (See Table 6). At last, the Model 2 consisting of three steps was presented in Table 9. Accordingly, controlling the effects of the covariates in step 1, the entry of the dimension of community life in step 2 was found to have predicted additional 5% variance in well-being ( $R^2$  Change = .050). The bivariate correlation of step 2 in the model was 38.9%, accounting 15% of variance in well-being ( $R = .389$ ,  $R^2 = .152$ ). Step 2 was as a whole significant  $F(12, 214) = 3.184$ ,  $p < .001$  (See Appendix E: ANOVA Table of Model 2). After adding the rest of the dimensions at step 3, almost no change was observed in the model in overall ( $R^2$  Change = .005), meaning Protest and Social Change; Democratic Values; and Representative Democracy did not predict any significant variance in well-being although they were added into step 3 altogether. The model as a whole was significant  $F(15, 211) = 2.618$ ,  $p = .000$  (See Appendix E: ANOVA Table of Model 2).

Table 9: Model Summary<sup>d</sup> of Multiple Regression Between the Dimensions of Active Citizenship and Well-Being

Model-2	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R <sup>2</sup> Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Step 1	.318 <sup>a</sup>	.101	.055	1.97653	.101	2.197	11	214	.016
Step 2	.389 <sup>b</sup>	.152	.104	1.92470	.050	12.721	1	213	<.001
Step 3	.396 <sup>c</sup>	.157	.097	1.93215	.005	.451	3	210	.717

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Marital Status - Single, Legally Married, In a legally registered civil union- Education - Not completed, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational, University/Master/Doctorate- Income -Less than 39.000 per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, Domicile, Trust -Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, Trust-
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Marital Status - Single, Legally Married, In a legally registered civil union- Education - Not completed, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational, University/Master/Doctorate- Income -Less than 39.000 per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, Domicile, Trust -Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, Trust,- the Dimension of Community Life
- c. Predictors: (Constant), Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Marital Status - Single, Legally Married, In a legally registered civil union- Education - Not completed, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Vocational, University/Master/Doctorate- Income -Less than 39.000 per month, 39.001 to 72.000 per month, Domicile, Trust -Distrust, Neither distrust nor trust, Trust,- the Dimensions of Community Life, Protest and Social Change, Democratic Values, Representative Democracy
- d. Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

According to Table 10, one unit rise in community life increases well-being by 0.752 ( $B = .752$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Moreover, Community Life made the strongest unique contribution to explaining well-being when the variance explained by all other variables were controlled for ( $Beta = .235$ ,  $p < .001$ ). As a result, among the dimensions of active citizenship, Community Life was found the only predictor of well-being in Norway. Apart from Community Life, another variable that significantly contributed to explaining well-being was earning more than 72.001kr per month ( $Beta = .164$ ,  $p = .033$ ). The rest of the other variables were not significant enough to explain well-being.

Table 10: Coefficients hierarchical multiple regression of the covariates, the dimensions of active citizenship, and well-being

		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>									
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	11.972	.973		12.302	<.001					
	Gender	-.295	.267	-.072	-1.104	.271	-.085	-.075	-.071	.972	1.029
	In a legally registered civil union	-.019	1.200	-.001	-.016	.987	-.017	-.001	-.001	.632	1.582
	Single	.254	.744	.028	.342	.733	.029	.023	.022	.635	1.574
	Not Completed	-2.159	3.630	-.039	-.595	.553	-.024	-.041	-.038	.992	1.008
	Primary/Intermediate/High School	-.218	.309	-.053	-.706	.481	-.085	-.048	-.046	.750	1.333
	Vocational	-.020	.365	-.004	-.054	.957	-.008	-.004	-.004	.733	1.365
	39.001 to 72.000 per month	.528	.313	.130	1.690	.092	.048	.115	.109	.713	1.403
	More than 72.001 per month	.849	.370	.179	2.294	.023	.141	.155	.148	.690	1.449
	Domicile	.048	.145	.022	.329	.742	-.019	.022	.021	.959	1.043
	Distrust	-.733	.379	-.141	-1.934	.054	-.215	-.131	-.125	.790	1.266
	Trust	.536	.298	.131	1.797	.074	.209	.122	.116	.783	1.277
2	(Constant)	10.739	1.009		10.646	<.001					
	Gender	-.389	.261	-.096	-1.488	.138	-.085	-.101	-.094	.962	1.040
	In a legally registered civil union	.015	1.168	.001	.013	.990	-.017	.001	.001	.632	1.583
	Single	.359	.725	.039	.495	.621	.029	.034	.031	.634	1.577
	Not Completed	-2.320	3.535	-.042	-.656	.512	-.024	-.045	-.041	.992	1.008
	Primary/Intermediate/High School	-.166	.301	-.040	-.551	.582	-.085	-.038	-.035	.748	1.336
	Vocational	.057	.356	.012	.161	.872	-.008	.011	.010	.730	1.370
	39.001 to 72.000 per month	.499	.304	.122	1.639	.103	.048	.111	.103	.712	1.404
	More than 72.001 per month	.771	.361	.162	2.133	.034	.141	.144	.134	.688	1.454
	Domicile	.048	.141	.022	.342	.733	-.019	.023	.022	.959	1.043
	Distrust	-.658	.370	-.126	-1.778	.077	-.215	-.121	-.112	.787	1.270
	Trust	.482	.291	.118	1.658	.099	.209	.113	.104	.781	1.280
	Community Life	.732	.205	.229	3.567	<.001	.253	.237	.225	.963	1.038

3	(Constant)	10.857	1.084		10.015	<.001					
	Gender	-.354	.267	-.087	-1.327	.186	-.085	-.091	-.084	.927	1.079
	In a legally registered civil union	-.075	1.176	-.005	-.064	.949	-.017	-.004	-.004	.629	1.590
	Single	.359	.732	.039	.491	.624	.029	.034	.031	.627	1.594
	Not Completed	-2.293	3.550	-.041	-.646	.519	-.024	-.044	-.041	.992	1.009
	Primary/Intermediate/High School	-.239	.319	-.058	-.750	.454	-.085	-.052	-.047	.672	1.487
	Vocational	-.006	.363	-.001	-.017	.987	-.008	-.001	-.001	.706	1.416
	39.001 to 72.000 per month	.513	.306	.126	1.675	.096	.048	.115	.106	.709	1.411
	More than 72.001 per month	.779	.363	.164	2.146	.033	.141	.146	.136	.687	1.456
	Domicile	.048	.143	.022	.334	.738	-.019	.023	.021	.946	1.058
	Distrust	-.633	.374	-.122	-1.692	.092	-.215	-.116	-.107	.774	1.291
	Trust	.464	.294	.114	1.581	.115	.209	.108	.100	.771	1.297
	Community Life	.752	.207	.235	3.638	<.001	.253	.243	.230	.955	1.047
	Protest and Social Change	-.092	.082	-.078	-1.120	.264	-.048	-.077	-.071	.820	1.219
	Democratic Values	.015	.104	.010	.144	.886	.051	.010	.009	.878	1.139
	Representative Democracy	.001	.230	.000	.005	.996	.008	.000	.000	.829	1.206

a. Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

## **6. DISCUSSION**

This study investigated whether active citizenship and its dimensions are associated with well-being in Norway by analysing cross sectional data collected by the ESS in 2018. Gradually performing univariate (preliminary and descriptive), bivariate (Pearson correlation), and predictive analyses (hierarchical multiple regression), findings indicated that: 1) active citizenship as a composite measure combining several dimensions was not associated with well-being in Norway; 2) community life, out of the four dimensions, was the only dimension that had a significant correlation with well-being, and the only dimension that predicted variance in well-being. Though correlation with well-being, and the explained variance in the regression analysis were small and weak, only community life was statistically significant among the dimensions.

In this chapter, the scene is first set by evaluating the main findings. Afterwards the implications of findings in relation to empowerment theory, and health promotion and development are addressed. Then, the chapter ends with a discussion of important limitations of the thesis and recommendations for future research.

### **6.1. EVALUATION OF THE FINDINGS**

#### **6.1.1. ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP, AS A COMPOSITE MEASURE, IS NOT ASSOCIATED WITH WELL-BEING**

In spite of applying different research strategies, much research has found a positive correlation between active citizenship and well-being in different regions across the world, (See Chan & Mak, 2020; Georghiades & Eiroá Orosa, 2019; Iezzi et al., 2014; Prati et al., 2020; Winterton, 2019). When active citizenship was constructed as a composite measure combining several dimensions in this study, it was not significantly associated with well-being. In that sense, Norway might be categorised with other group of research in which there was not found a significant correlation between active citizenship and well-being (See Wray-Lake et al., 2019). The non-correlation found in this thesis might be explained with several reasons.

First of all, total active citizenship index conceptually consisted of four different dimensions some of which seem to have cancelled out the effect of others. For instance, while community life, per se, increases well-being by 0.752 with one unit rise (See Table 10), the contribution of total active citizenship to well-being is 0.016 (See Table 8), suggesting other dimensions cancelled out the impact of community life. Otherwise, a greater value than  $B = 0.752$  would



be seen in the coefficients table when the total active citizenship index was entered into the regression. Secondly, the facts that all the dimensions except community life were statistically insignificant, and that only the scales of democratic values and well-being were found as reliable measures (See Table 2) raise a question mark in minds about the validity and reliability of the construct. The dimensions of protest and social change, and representative democracy were obtained through ten yes & no questions, which might not be enough to make the construct functional. Lastly, noncorrelation between active citizenship and well-being might be also attributed to Norway's genuine features. In this regard, the finding that political trust and income level were found more correlated to well-being in Norway than total active citizenship gives countenance to the existence of other determinants and some earlier studies support this assertion.

A study in Sweden investigated the association between political trust and self-reported psychological health among 27,757 respondents and found that those with high levels of political trust reported higher psychological health (Lindstrom & Mohseni, 2009, p. 440). Similarly, Acar and Uluğ (2021, p. 9) and Hudson (2006, p. 58) found that political trust had positive impacts on people's well-being. In line with the previous studies, this thesis affirms positive relationship between political trust and well-being, however, annotates that political trust did not have significant contribution to explaining well-being when the variance explained by all other variables in the regression model was controlled for (See Table 8 & Table 10). In addition to political trust's impact on well-being, trust to the political system, the parliament, and representatives might make people become disinterested in certain active citizenship behaviours. Therefore, relatively high political trust in Norway (See Table 3) might also explain why the dimensions of Protest and Social Change; Representative Democracy; and Democratic Values were not associated with well-being, but Community Life.

As for income level, although some earlier studies have shown no association between income and well-being (See Ngamaba et al., 2018; Zepke, 2013), a positive association with higher income and well-being has been affirmed by this thesis and that is consistent with earlier studies (See Killingsworth, 2021; Mentzakis & Moro, 2009). Besides, earning 72.001kr per month had significant contribution to explaining well-being in both models, in contrast to political trust, when all other variables were controlled in the regression analysis (See Table 8 & Table 10).

Apart from the aforementioned variables found as significant contributors in the analyses of the present thesis, the non-correlation between active citizenship and well-being in Norway

might be still attributed to more impactful determinants that might have vitiated the impact of total active citizenship's explaining well-being. For instance, Norway has a deep-rooted universal health coverage, dating back to 1900s, which holds the national government and municipalities responsible for not only "*providing health care and guaranteed basic income*" but also "*promoting healthy lifestyles and reducing social health disparities*" (Saunes, 2020, p. 159). In addition to free health care, education is also free in state-owned universities and colleges in Norway (See Wiers-Jenssen, 2019), which directly and indirectly affects people's well-being. Directly, having a university or upper degree had a positive, though weak, correlation with well-being in this thesis (See Table 5). As for its indirect impact, education has cumulative and multifunctional effects, meaning a good education leads up to a good job, a good job paves the way for higher income, and higher income predicts well-being eventually as mentioned above. Come to mention higher income, employees in Norway get paid one of the highest minimum wage (Eldring & Alsos, 2012, pp. 74-76) and earlier studies have shown that higher minimum wages are positively associated with well-being (See Gülal & Ayaita, 2019, p. 2686; Kuroki, 2018, p. 175). Consequently, total active citizenship appears to be out of play in contributing to well-being because of the stronger impacts that the aforementioned factors have.

### **6.1.2. COMMUNITY LIFE PREDICTS WELL-BEING**

Community life had the strongest correlation with well-being among the dimensions of active citizenship and predicted 5% variance in well-being in the regression analysis. In other words, when active citizenship took shape in the form of community life it was significantly associated with well-being. The community life scale in this thesis consisted of three items: 'meeting with friends, relatives, or work colleagues;' 'attending religious services;' and 'taking part in social activities.' Each of those items per se, except from attending religious services, have showed positive impacts on well-being among different populations in earlier studies. It was found that social relations and family interactions promote mental health and life satisfaction (See Amati et al., 2018, p. 14; Forsman et al., 2013, p. 820; Lee & Szinovacz, 2016, p. 660), and that taking part in social activities improves social well-being (See Lindsay-Smith et al., 2018, p. 9; McMunn et al., 2009, p. 776). As for attending religious services, there has been unstable findings. In such a way that the relationship between religion and well-being is varying depending on different national contexts (Lun & Bond, 2013, p. 304). While religious participation was negatively associated with well-being among young gay and bisexual men in Detroit, the U.S. (Meanley et al., 2015, p. 35), in the Norwegian context, it was found that

church attendance is positively associated with well-being for men but not for women (Kvande et al., 2015, p. 8). Taken all together, having found that community life has a positive association with well-being in Norway is coherent with the previous research. Bear in mind though, the community life scale was constructed by only three items. It could be that the strength of correlation between community life and well-being would grow if more items were added to the composite indicator. For example, cultural and sport activities are quite common and popular in Norway. A study carried out in Nord-Trøndelag County, Norway, with 50.797 participants showed that cultural activities is significantly associated with good health, satisfaction with life, low anxiety, and depression (Cuypers et al., 2012, p. 698). Likewise, being physically active proved to be beneficial to well-being in Norway (See Kim et al., 2016, p. 337; Stea et al., 2022, p. 1) and such indicators were missing in the community life scale. Hence, a composite indicator of community life including such items, I believe, would be likely to show stronger correlation with well-being.

## **6.2. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Consistent with the proposition of the empowerment theory, empowering processes and outcomes took different forms in the present thesis, depending on socio-political context, the population, and the point of time (Foster-Fishman et al., 1998, pp. 508-509; Zimmerman, 2000, p. 45). When each dimension of active citizenship is thought as a separate empowerment process per se, only community life was found to have predicted a greater empowerment outcome (well-being) in Norway. Although community life indicators in this thesis revolved around activities related to participation in community, community life might include engagement in decision-making processes in the community level such as neighbourhood assemblies that would empower people in the way of becoming architects of their own lives.

The findings that neither total active citizenship nor the other dimensions, except community life, were associated with the empowerment outcome in this thesis suggested that there might be other variables such as political trust, income, universal healthcare, and free education. Although they are not necessarily supposed to be directly related to empowerment, they are indeed more effective to explain the empowerment outcome (well-being) than total active citizenship is as they are likely to play down the importance of some active citizenship practices in Norway. As empowerment theory focuses on environmental influences of social problems rather than blaming victims in the society (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995, p. 570), practical suggestions in the following section should be assessed in that regard.

### **6.3. IMPLICATION FOR HEALTH PROMOTION AND DEVELOPMENT**

Given that healthy life and well-being are enlisted as SDG 3 aimed by the U.N. by 2030 (See The United Nation, 2015), and empowerment is seen as a flagship value of health promotion (Woodall et al., 2012, p. 742), community life has significant implications in regards to the field of global development and health promotion. The findings of this thesis have demonstrated that community life, income, and political trust are associated with well-being in Norway. These findings suggest an integrated approach in which collaborations between national and local governments would be necessary to create supportive environment for community life; to assure basic and fair income for all; and to increase political trust among the people. Individuals per se cannot tackle, for instance, the issues of political distrust, or unequal distribution of wealth however can, to some extent, change their behaviours in regard to community life for the sake of healthier societies in which new generations of healthy individuals would be brought up. Let's bear in mind though cultural differences and different expectations of the people in the community might call for the counselling led by local or national governments taking into account the people's desires.

### **6.4. LIMITATIONS**

The findings of this thesis should be interpreted in the light of its limitations. Since our analysis applies to one country it is limited to certain extent considering Norway's social, economic, and political characteristics. No casual conclusions can be drawn since the study was cross-sectional. The reliance on quantitative measures of active citizenship may be insufficient to capture the phenomenon that might be interpreted differently in everyday experience. Hence, it is arguable whether indicators found in the dataset operationalised the 'critical normative definition' of active citizenship to an appropriate extent since the number of indicators might not be numerous or relevant enough, which raises questions in minds regarding to the low explained variance, reliability, and internal validity of the active citizenship variables. Therefore, the findings might require additional support through qualitative data in which different perceptions on active citizenship are taken into account. Thus, new active citizenship practices that indeed promote well-being but had been neglected in earlier studies might come up and enrich the field in that regard.

Although empowerment exists across individual, organisational, and community level (Chan & Mak, 2020, p. 2), the data used for the thesis was based on individual level of analysis. That is to say that the empowerment theory has not been investigated in the other levels. The

dimension of community life consisted of only three items due to availability of the data. Besides, the scale of the community life was not found as a reliable scale since its mean inter-item value was less than .2 (See 0 and Table 2 in this thesis). There should be more indicators regarding the community life. In addition to that, the concept of well-being is biased towards Western post-industrial society, excluding non-western contexts (La Placa et al., 2013, p. 123). Therefore, findings generated in this study are not carved in stone, meaning different results might occur in different contexts with different measures.

### **6.5. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Although it was found that community life predicted well-being in Norway it still requires elaboration about which kind of community life practices are more effective in promoting well-being. By doing so, decision-makers would be able to aim specific initiatives that are more likely to promote well-being. Ethnic background, and age differentiation were not taken into account in this thesis hence, the association between community life and well-being might be furthered by comparing certain community life practices among different ethnic minorities and age groups. Also, longitudinal research designs with the same participants might help to better understanding the directionality between the concepts. Lastly, a community life scale with comprehensive inputs and how to measure the community life might be subject of future research whereby both quantitative and qualitative methods are benefited from.

## 7. CONCLUSION

Active citizenship, with its comprehensive and multidisciplinary scope, has been an important discourse in various European Countries and EU institutions to promote participation and democracy. This thesis aimed to investigate the association between active citizenship and well-being through ESS Round 9: European Social Survey Round 9 Data (2018). Given prior and relatively scarce literature about the dimensions of active citizenship, the present thesis provided genuine knowledge about whether active citizenship and its dimensions are associated with well-being. The findings indicated that active citizenship, as a composite indicator combining the four dimensions, was not associated with well-being overall. However, of the four dimensions of active citizenship, community life was the only variable that had the strongest and statistically significant association with well-being, and it explained 5% variance in well-being when the other variables were controlled in hierarchical regression analysis. That suggests active citizenship in Norway was associated with well-being only when it took shape in the form of community life. Taken together, the findings enrich the discussion of active citizenship in relation to well-being and guide the field toward further steps regarding the relationship between community life and well-being in Norway.

Our results add to the existing literature that relatively community life, political trust, and income are important elements in Norway that should be taken into account for any initiatives and public policies aiming to increase well-being. Especially, community life and earning more than 72.000kr per month showed significant contributions to explaining well-being when all the other variables were controlled in the regression analysis. Considering those variables' multidimensional aspects, I suggest an inclusive and integrated approach in which collaborations between local and national governments are taken place.

While concluding, I would like to draw attention to -in line with critical realist research paradigm- that active citizenship might, ontologically, amount to something different than the indicators found in ESS dataset and thus might require a different epistemological approach. Therefore, an elaboration regarding community life practices and an additional support through qualitative data might be needed in order to better understand the association between community life and well-being. The relationship between the two might be also furthered through different age groups and the lens of ethnic minorities along with their unique cultural codes. Besides, a comprehensive scale of community life including more than three items might have different findings with a more reliable rate. Nevertheless, this thesis demonstrates the

importance of community life in relation to well-being in Norway and calls for further research. On our way to 2030, certain active citizenship practices might be cost-effective to promote relevant SDGs and underpin well-being.

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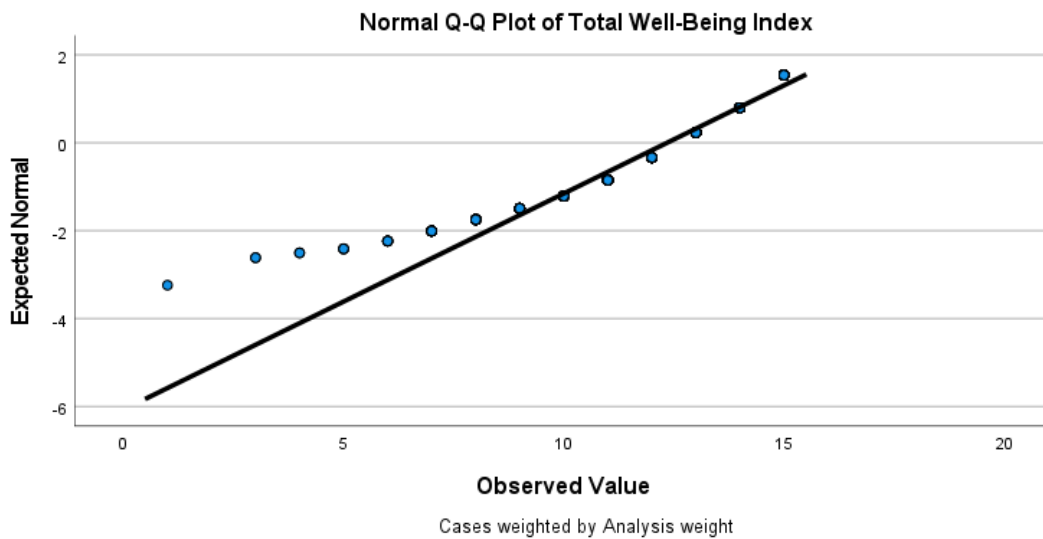
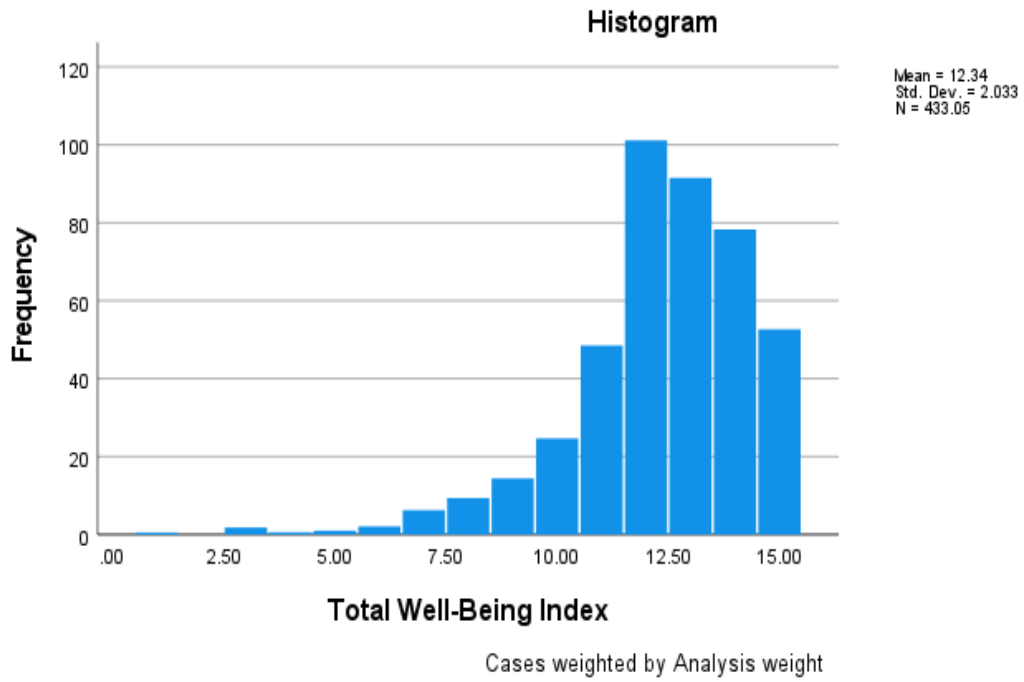
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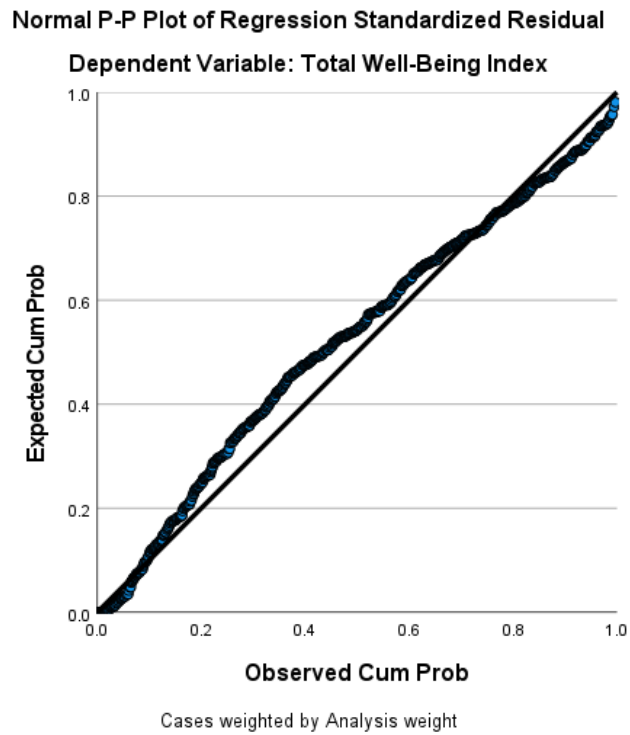
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# APPENDICES

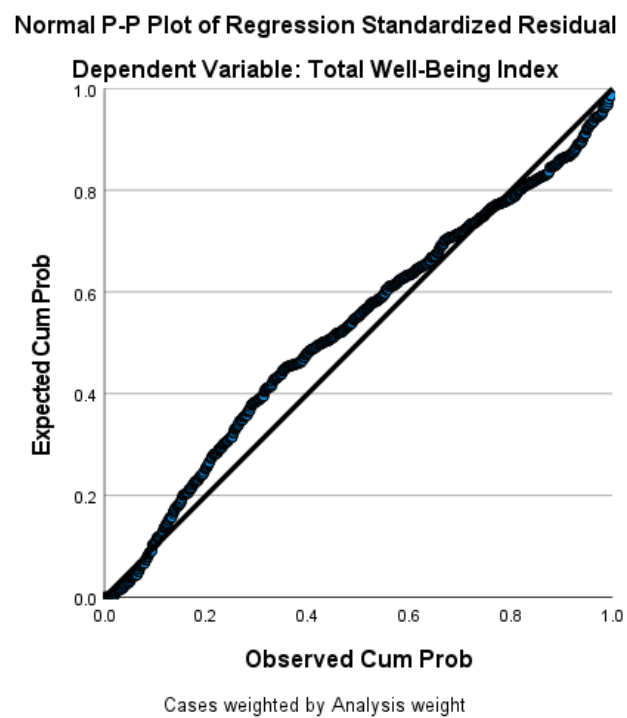
## APPENDIX A: Distribution of Well-being



## APPENDIX B: Normality of Model 1



## APPENDIX C: Normality of Model 2



**APPENDIX D: ANOVA Table of Model 1**

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	94.405	11	8.582	2.197	.016 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	838.942	215	3.907		
	Total	933.346	226			
2	Regression	94.787	12	7.899	2.013	.024 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	838.559	214	3.923		
	Total	933.346	226			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

b. Predictors: (Constant), Trust, Primary/Intermediate/High School, Single, Gender, income=39.001 to 72.000 per month, education=Not Completed, domicile, Distrust, education=Vocational, income=More than 72.001 per month, In a legally registered civil union

c. Predictors: (Constant), Trust, education=Primary/Intermediate/High School, Single, Gender, income=39.001 to 72.000 per month, education=Not Completed, domicile, Distrust, education=Vocational, income=More than 72.001 per month, In a legally registered civil union, Total Active Citizenship

**APPENDIX E: ANOVA Table of Model 2**

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	94.405	11	8.582	2.197	.016 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	838.942	215	3.907		
	Total	933.346	226			
2	Regression	141.530	12	11.794	3.184	<.001 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	791.816	214	3.704		
	Total	933.346	226			
3	Regression	146.584	15	9.772	2.618	.001 <sup>d</sup>
	Residual	786.762	211	3.733		
	Total	933.346	226			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Well-Being Index

b. Predictors: (Constant), Trust, education=Primary/Intermediate/High School, Single, Gender, income=39.001 to 72.000 per month, education=Not Completed, domicile, Distrust, education=Vocational, income=More than 72.001 per month, In a legally registered civil union

c. Predictors: (Constant), Trust, education=Primary/Intermediate/High School, Single, Gender, income=39.001 to 72.000 per month, education=Not Completed, domicile, Distrust, education=Vocational, income=More than 72.001 per month, In a legally registered civil union, Community Life

d. Predictors: (Constant), trust3=Trust, education=Primary/Intermediate/High School, Single, Gender, income=39.001 to 72.000 per month, education=Not Completed, domicile, Distrust, education=Vocational, income=More than 72.001 per month, In a legally registered civil union, Community Life, Protest and Social Change, Democratic Values Index, Representative Democracy