

CIVIC ENGAGEMENT IN A CHANGING WORLD: DOES IT CONTRIBUTE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP?

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One of the challenges faced by contemporary societies concerns building a more inclusive society. This objective is particularly compelling in the current historical period characterized by growing social and cultural heterogeneity in European countries and an increase of prejudice and discrimination toward immigrants. Global citizenship (GC) can support inclusive attitudes and immigrants' acceptance. The aim of the study was to test the role of different forms of associative experiences and civic and political participation in promoting GC in the younger generations. Data were collected between October 2016 and January 2017 using paper and online questionnaires. The sample consisted of 1,732 participants (60.7% females; $M_{age} = 19.73$). The questionnaire measured demographics, mobility experiences, membership in organizations, latent and manifest political participation. Based on UNESCO conceptual model (2015), GC was operationalized as follows: *openness and tolerance toward migrants and refugees, trust in people, democratic and civic values, knowledge and political awareness, personal and collective capacity to act politically*. Results showed that members of volunteer organizations scored higher in all the dimensions of GC included in the study, compared to nonmembers, while the impact of other kinds of organizational membership and participation on GC was limited. Volunteer organizations proved to be a very important context for the development of GC in young generations.

Key words: Civic participation; Voluntary organizations; Young people; Italy; Global citizenship.

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One of the challenges faced by contemporary societies concerns building a more inclusive society, capable of promoting democratic values and social coexistence in a historical period of growing social and cultural heterogeneity. The public reaction to rising migration in European countries has been characterized by an increase of prejudice and discrimination toward immigrants (Zick, Pettigrew, & Wagner, 2008). Recent Special Eurobarometer (European Commission, 2018) showed that European adults tend to overestimate the proportion of immigrants in their countries, and that a third (34%) feels uncomfortable with the idea of having social relationships with people with different cultural backgrounds and consider that immigration is more of a problem (40%) than an opportunity in their country. The picture in Italy is even worse — 51% consider immigration a problem, and 58% think that immigrants take jobs away (vs. 40% at the EU level). The alarming rate of rejection of ethnic and social groups in Europe calls for research on methods for promoting a more inclusive society. Global citizenship, in particular, has been identified as a conceptual framework with which to foster individuals' understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and their ca-

capacity to work together with people who are different from themselves, and to secure “a world which is more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure, and sustainable” (UNESCO, 2015, p. 9).

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP

The concept of global citizenship draws from diverse disciplines and perspectives (e.g., political, theological, developmental, educational, social psychology). Some scholars, like Reysen and Katzarska-Miller (2013) refer to global citizenship as a sense of belonging to a broader community and common humanity, considering it a particular type of social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) that can be reflected in specific values, like social justice orientation. Some have emphasized global awareness (Oxfam, 1997), while others have stressed the aspect of skills, focusing on the competences that are needed to “perform” and “act” as a global citizen. Most scholars, despite different emphases, have opted for multidimensional definitions (i.e., Morais & Ogden, 2011; Schattle, 2008), which may include a broad list of components (for a review, see Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2018).

UNESCO (2015) provided a definition and a model of global citizenship (GC) with the following conceptual dimensions: a *cognitive dimension*, which refers to “knowledge, understanding, and critical thinking about global, regional, national, and local issues and about the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations”; a *socioemotional dimension*, which refers to “a sense of belonging to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, empathy, solidarity and respect for differences and diversity”; and finally, a *behavioural dimension*, referring to the “capacity to act effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world” (p. 15). The model is intended to define goals, objectives, and competencies of GC educational programs, to be implemented in the formal educational system (UNESCO, 2015).

Despite its merits, the model shares with previous efforts to define GC in the domain of education the limit of lacking empirical support, as it is mostly based on theoretical reflections (Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2018). One of the aims of this paper was to test the UNESCO model empirically.

The formal educational system has a key role and responsibility in promoting GC in younger generation, but there are substantive and theoretical reasons to hypothesize that also other contexts can contribute to the development of a GC outlook, namely the family (see Gniewosz & Noack, 2008) and voluntary organizations. In this paper we analyze particularly the role of organizational membership (associative experiences) and of civic and political engagement in fostering GC of young people.

ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIP AND CIVIC AND POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

The literature has showed that contributing to community life through civic and social participation (within or outside associative experiences) generally promotes positive developmental outcomes. Belonging to organized groups represents an opportunity for young people to enhance their levels of connectedness to the community and prosocial behaviors (Albanesi, Cicognani, & Zani, 2007), and to develop a more complex civic and political identity (Albanesi, Mazzoni, Cicognani, & Zani, 2015). These outcomes are coherent with the idea of GC as political, economic, social, and cultural interdependency and interconnectedness. According to some theorists, civic engagement may balance disaffection towards politics among young people (Cicognani, Zani, Fournier, Gavray, & Born, 2012; Loader, Vromen, & Xenos, 2014; Talò, Mannarini, & Rochira,

2014; Torney-Purta, Barber, & Richardson, 2004). The developmental literature suggests that civic engagement in early stages of life can foster and support political engagement in later stages, contributing to a durable disposition to serve communities and engage in political processes, supporting the idea that civic engagement is a latent form of political participation (see Ekman & Amnå, 2012). Other outcomes that are generally associated with civic engagement are commitment to moral principles, development of civic skills, improvement of sense of political efficacy (Yates & Youniss, 1998; Kenny & Gallagher, 2003; Ohmer, 2010; Pancer, 2014; Staples, Hulland, & Higgins, 1999).

Volunteering is a form of civic engagement (Barrett & Zani, 2015; Ekman & Amnå, 2012; Marta, Pozzi, & Marzana, 2010; Pancer, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Alisat, 2007; Rossi, Lenzi, Sharkey, Vieno, & Santinello, 2016) and it is widely widespread in Italy. More than six million of Italians devote their time to volunteering (Guidi, Fonovic, & Cappadozzi, 2016): two out of three volunteers offer their time/service within volunteers' organizations, while 30% are classified as "individual or episodic volunteers," who typically do not have the resources/willingness to commit to long-term or more regular volunteer roles and limit their volunteering to specific events without having any organizational membership (Cnaan & Handy, 2005; Dunn, Chambers, & Hyde, 2016). Even if episodic volunteerism is becoming more common among young people (Ascoli & Pavolini, 2017; Hyde, Dunn, Scuffham, & Chambers, 2014; Meneghini et al., 2016, Pozzi, Meneghini, & Marta, 2019), long-term experience in voluntary organizations offer unique opportunities to improve young people's attitude toward society (Moore & Allen, 1996), cultivate civic skills (Yates & Youniss, 1998), engage in reflection on social issues (Read, 2010), experience diversity that in turn can contribute to the development of a durable disposition to serve their communities (Quintelier, 2008), promote youth positive development (Bhangaokar & Mehta, 2012) and well-being (Kim & Morgül, 2017), as well as support the acquisition of transversal competences that allow youth to be active citizens and increase their human capital. Khasanzyanova (2017) collected data on 300 students in France who reported that through volunteering in the community they learned different types of skills: individual skills (which included patience, listening, open-mindedness), group skills (in particular communication and team-work), and finally project management skills.

Moreover, taking part in association activities brings people in contact with others who may be very different from themselves, while sharing common interests. The literature suggests that people with more diversified networks can develop greater openness toward others and tolerance (Coté & Erickson, 2009; Putnam, 2000), which are assumed to be key components of GC. Also studying abroad is thought to help students adopt a more global perspective (Engberg, 2013), increasing their awareness of interdependence and supporting the internationalization of personal networks. Most research concerns the effects of participation in the Erasmus program, which is the largest program for student exchange in the world and the most popular framework for student mobility in the European Union. Mitchell (2012) found that Erasmus students, compared to nonmobile students, engage more in cross-cultural interaction and are more multilingual, thus making it "relatively easier for them to engage in the type of extensive cross-cultural interactions that are important for future community-building" (p. 505). Mazzoni and colleagues (2018) found that short-term mobility is also effective in enhancing young people's adoption of a superordinate identity that transcends national ones, suggesting that traveling for noneducational reasons may provide important cross-cultural experiences and contact opportunities as well. Moreover, Prati, Cicognani, and Mazzoni (2019) found longitudinal evidence that cross-border friendships among young people predict a range of indicators of European citizenship (identification, positive attitudes and trust toward the EU, as well as engagement) after one year.

Objectives and Hypotheses

The present study was part of a larger project CATCH-EyoU funded by the European Union within the H2020 framework programme. The aim of the study was to test the role that associative experiences and civic and political participation have in promoting GC in the younger generations.

We hypothesized that young adults (vs. adolescents) and females (vs. males) would show greater engagement in organizations (H1) and in different forms of civic and political participation (H2). We expected that young people who have experience in organizations would score higher on GC, compared to nonmembers (H3). Moreover, based on previous research (Mazzoni et al., 2018), we expected that GC would be positively associated with cross-national mobility (H4) and international social relationships (H5).

Overall, we expected that organizational membership, together with civic and political engagement in society and opportunities for mobility, would reinforce GC (H6).

METHOD

Procedure

To test the hypotheses, data¹ were collected between October 2016 and January 2017 using paper and online questionnaires, after obtaining written consent of participants and their parents (if participants were minors). Ethical approval of the research was obtained by the Bioethic Committee of the University of Bologna before starting data collection.

Participants

The sample consisted of 1,732 respondents, of whom 60.7% were females and 39.1% males (two respondents did not report their gender). The mean age of the total sample was 19.73 ($SD = 3.59$, $Min = 15$, $Max = 30$). Eight hundred and fourteen (47%) questionnaires were collected in six high schools located in North Italy (two lyc ee, three technical high schools, and one vocational school), and 918 (53%) were collected in the university. Participants were classified into two groups: adolescents (recruited in secondary education) and young adults (recruited in higher education).

Instrument

The questionnaire included the following measures.

Demographics. Participants were asked about their age, gender, family socioeconomic status (SES), migrant background, and knowledge of English as a second language.

Membership in organizations was measured considering different types of organizations: political parties or their youth organizations, student or youth organizations, religious organizations or groups, leisure organizations or groups (music, art, sports, etc.), and civic organizations or volunteer groups for social issues (human rights, anti-racism, peace, environment, animal protection, etc.). Participants responded on a 4-point scale (1 = *No*, 2 = *I am not currently involved but I was sometime in the past*, 3 = *I am currently*

involved occasionally, 4 = *I am currently involved on a regular basis*). For the purposes of analyses, we dichotomized the responses distinguishing nonmembers (= 0) from previous or current members (= 1).

Civic and political participation. We measured participation in 18 different activities in the last 12 months on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *No* to 5 = *Very often*). The list of activities (see Table 1) was based on the work of Barrett and Zani (2015).

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the dimensionality of the scale (see Table 1). Since we expected correlations among components, Oblimin rotation was used. Four factors were extracted according to the Kaiser (1970) criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0, explaining 49% of the total variance. The inspection of the scree-test confirmed the plausibility of the four factors solution.

The first factor included seven items and was named *online participation* ($\alpha = .85$); the second one, included four items corresponding to *political participation* ($\alpha = .80$); the third factor included four items corresponding to *civic participation* ($\alpha = .74$); the final factor included three items corresponding to *protest* ($\alpha = .66$). Correlations between factors were positive and statistically significant and ranged from $r = .38$ to $r = .59$. Subscales were computed by averaging across the individual items belonging to each factor.

TABLE 1
 Rotated factor matrix for civic and political participation

	Component			
	1 ^a	2 ^b	3 ^c	4 ^d
Part9	.77			
Part8	.76			
Part11	.76			
Part1	.66			
Part10	.64			
Part3	.53			
Part4	.44			
Part15		.82		
Part16		.75		
Part18		.73		
Part17		.70		
Part5			.75	
Part6			.70	
Part7			.70	
Part2			.43	
Part13				.78
Part14				.73
Part12				.65
Cronbach's alpha	.85	.80	.74	.66

Note. Factor loadings < .30 are suppressed. Items' content is not showed for Copy-right restriction.

^aOnline participation; ^bPolitical participation; ^cCivic participation; ^dProtest.

Mobility was measured with two items. One refers to the opportunity for contact with friends living abroad ("How often have you been in contact with people who live in another European country, either

by calling on the phone/Skype, or messaging on email/Facebook/Instagram/Snapchat, etc.?"). The other refers to short-term mobility ("How often did you visit other European countries for a trip between one day and two weeks?"). The item did not refer to any specific mobility program. Possible answers for both items ranged from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Very often*).

Global citizenship (GC). The operationalization was based on the conceptualization that has been developed by UNESCO (2015), using scales and items from the Processes Influencing Democratic Ownership and Participation (PIDOP) study (Barrett & Zani, 2015). For the cognitive dimension we measured *knowledge and political awareness* (two items adapted from Zani, Cicognani, & Albanesi, 2011; e.g., "I consider myself capable to become engaged in societal issues"; $r = .61^2$). For the socioemotional dimension we used four measures: *openness and tolerance toward migrants and refugees* (six items; e.g., "I feel that refugees should have the right to maintain their traditions and cultural heritage," "I feel that our government does not do enough to help refugees"; $\alpha = .70$); *trust in people* (one item; "Most people can be trusted"); *democratic values* (three items adapted from Finkel, Sigelman, & Humphries, 1999; e.g., "All people should have a right to express their opinions"; $\alpha = .46$); and *civic values* (three items; e.g., "Do something useful for society"; $\alpha = .79$). Behavioral dimension was composed by two measures: *personal capacity to act politically* (two items; e.g., "I am able to look for people, institutions, and services that can help me to find solutions to my problems"; $r = .44$), and *collective efficacy* (two items; e.g., "I think that by working together, young people can change things for the better"; $r = .57$). All the measures were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). We did not include a measure of identification to a common humanity, since it could be too abstract. We argue that the socioemotional dimensions of global citizenship would be more concretely captured by values of openness and tolerance toward migrants and refugees.

RESULTS

In order to verify if the components we used to operationalize the global citizenship model can be descriptive of the general construct, principal components analysis (PCA) was used (Chumney, 2012; Costello & Osborne, 2005). The differential role of associative experiences in contributing to GC was tested using ANOVA, *t*-test, and Pearsons' correlations. ANOVA and chi square tests of independence were used to test H1. In order to test H2, a multivariate analysis of the variance was performed. The different forms of civic and political participation were inserted as dependent variables, while age and gender as independent ones. In order to test H3, *t*-test was used. In order to test H4 and H5, we used Pearsons' correlations. Finally, in order to test the role of organizational membership in volunteer associations as a playground for GC (H6), a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed.

Global Citizenship

In order to describe the components of the GC model, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis. PCA with Oblimin rotation was used. Consistent with the measures used, we imposed the extraction of seven factors. The eigenvalues indicated that the first three factors explained 24.9%, 11.8%, and 10.3% of the variance, respectively. The fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh factors explained from 6.9% to 4.7% of the variance. Factor loadings of each item and reliability of each component are presented in Table 2. Correla-

tion values are shown in Table 3. All components were positively and significantly correlated. Correlations ranged from $r = .42$ to $r = .09$. Given the low reliability of the democratic values subscale, this component was excluded from further analysis. The final scale had good reliability ($\alpha = .82$) On the items belonging to each component, subscales were computed by averaging across the individual items.

TABLE 2
Global citizenship: Rotated factor loadings and reliability (PCA)

	F1 ^a	F2 ^b	F3 ^c	F4 ^d	F5 ^e	F6 ^f	F7 ^g
T4	.89						
T1	.88						
T3	-.72						
T6	.70						
T5	-.67						
T2	.58						
P1		.89					
P2		.86					
C2			.85				
C3			.83				
C1			.82				
PC1				.83			
PC2				.82			
D1					.73		
D3					.72		
D4					.72		
P4						-.89	
P3						-.84	
ST1							-.83
Reliability	.85 (α)	.44** (r)	.79 (α)	.61** (r)	.32 (α)	.57** (r)	
Mean	3.40	3.58	3.52	3.39	4.09	3.80	2.96
SD	0.95	0.79	0.75	0.81	0.62	0.82	1.07

Note. T = Tolerance items; P = Participation items; C = Civic values items; PC = Personal capacity to act politically items; D = Democratic values items; ST = Social trust item.

Factor loadings < .30 are suppressed. Items' content is not showed for Copyright restriction.

^aOpenness and tolerance; ^bKnowledge and political awareness; ^cCivic values; ^dPersonal capacity to act politically;

^eDemocratic values; ^fCollective efficacy; ^gTrust in people.

** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Membership in Organizations

We tested age differences and gender in organizational membership through chi-square tests of independence (H1). Table 4 shows the amount of participants involved in organizations according to age group and gender. Young adults were more likely to be members of different organizations compared to adolescents — political parties: $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 52.930, p = .000$; student organizations: $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 5.384, p = .020$; volunteer organizations: $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 142.227, p = .000$ — except for leisure, $\chi^2(1,$

$N = 1730$) = 0.086, $p = .769$, and religious organizations, $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 2.101, p = .147$. More females reported involvement in volunteer organizations compared to males, $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 13.307, p = .000$, while the opposite was observed for political parties, $\chi^2(1, N = 1730) = 23.518, p = .000$.

TABLE 3
 Pearson's correlations between dimensions of GC

	2	3	4	5	6
1. Openness and tolerance	.29**	.28**	.21**	.29**	.18**
2. Knowledge and political awareness	-	.23**	.16**	.42**	.14**
3. Civic values		-	.14**	.27**	.19**
4. Personal capacity to act politically			-	.17**	.09**
5. Collective efficacy				-	.23**
6. Trust in people					-

** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

TABLE 4
 Membership in organizations: Distribution according to gender and age groups (frequencies and percentages)

		Adolescents	Young adults	Females	Males	Total
Political parties	<i>N</i>	49	160	95	114	209
	%	6.0	17.4	9.0	16.8	12.1
Student organizations	<i>N</i>	337	431	437	330	768
	%	41.4	46.9	41.0	48.7	44.3
Religious organizations	<i>N</i>	303	315	368	249	618
	%	37.2	34.3	35.0	36.7	35.7
Volunteer organizations	<i>N</i>	162	433	397	198	595
	%	19.9	47.2	37.7	29.2	34.4
Leisure organizations	<i>N</i>	571	638	721	487	1209
	%	70.1	69.5	68.5	71.8	69.8

Civic and Political Participation

To test the differences according to age and gender on civic and political participation (H2) a multivariate analysis of the variance was performed. The four types of civic and political participation were inserted as dependent variables, gender and age group as independent ones. Mean values and standard deviations are shown in Table 5. We found a main effect of both age — $F(4, 1713) = 165.316, p = .000$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .721$; partial $\eta^2 = .27$ — and gender — $F(4, 1713) = 24.361, p = .000$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .946$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$. Young adults participated more, regardless of the specific form of participation, the difference being stronger between adolescents and young adults when it came to online participation.

TABLE 5
 Civic and political participation: Mean values (range 1-5)
 and standard deviations according to gender and age groups

		Adolescents	Young Adults	Females	Males	Total
Protest	<i>M</i>	1.10	1.20	1.13	1.19	1.15
	<i>SD</i>	0.35	0.46	0.33	0.51	0.41
Civic	<i>M</i>	1.84	2.46	2.24	2.06	2.16
	<i>SD</i>	0.72	0.94	0.89	0.90	0.90
Political	<i>M</i>	1.11	1.36	1.18	1.34	1.25
	<i>SD</i>	0.34	0.73	0.46	0.75	0.60
Online	<i>M</i>	1.44	2.36	1.96	1.88	1.93
	<i>SD</i>	0.57	0.88	0.87	0.89	0.88

Females reported lower engagement compared to males, except for civic participation, where an interaction between age and gender was found (see Figure 1): younger females were more active than their male peers, while an opposite pattern emerged in young adults, $F(1, 1719) = 17.797, p = .00$; partial $\eta^2 = .010$. Concerning political participation (Figure 2), gender differences were limited in adolescents, but they increased significantly in the older group, $F(1, 1719) = 27.996, p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .016$.

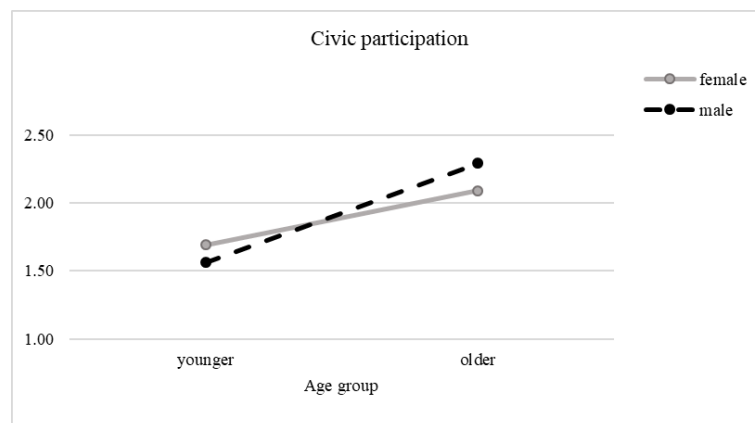


FIGURE 1
 Civic participation: Gender \times Age interaction.

Membership in Organizations and Global Citizenship

Our results (Table 6) showed that members of volunteer organizations scored higher than non-members in all the dimensions of GC — openness and tolerance: $t(1721) = -14.729, p = .001$; knowledge and political awareness: $t(1721) = -15.551, p = .001$; civic values: $t(1721) = -14.064, p = .001$; personal capacity to act politically: $t(808) = -4.843, p = .001$; collective efficacy: $t(1725) = -2.713, p = .007$; trust in people: $t(1721) = -8.171, p = .001$.

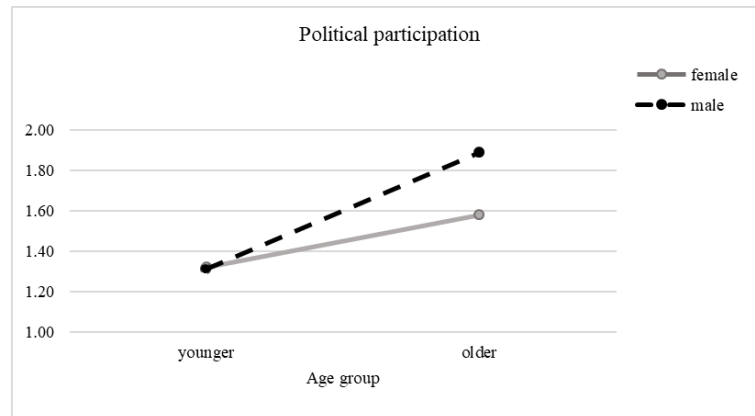


FIGURE 2
Political participation: Gender × Age interaction.

TABLE 6
Global citizenship: Differences based on membership in organizations (range 1-5)

		Organizations				
		Political <i>M (SD)</i>	Student <i>M (SD)</i>	Religious <i>M (SD)</i>	Volunteer <i>M (SD)</i>	Leisure <i>M (SD)</i>
Openness and tolerance	No	3.35 (0.95)	3.30 (0.95)	3.33 (0.98)	3.12 (0.95)	3.37 (0.99)
	Yes	3.54 (0.95)	3.47 (0.95)	3.45 (0.92)	3.85 (0.80)	3.37 (0.93)
Knowledge and political awareness	No	3.54 (0.77)	3.45 (0.79)	3.58 (0.79)	3.43 (0.78)	3.49 (0.82)
	Yes	3.95 (0.77)	3.75 (0.74)	3.60 (0.77)	3.88 (0.70)	3.63 (0.77)
Civic values	No	3.52 (0.73)	3.44 (0.74)	3.44 (0.76)	3.46 (0.73)	3.40 (0.80)
	Yes	3.64 (0.84)	3.64 (0.73)	3.66 (0.69)	3.78 (0.75)	3.57 (0.71)
Personal capacity to act politically	No	3.36 (0.81)	3.31 (0.81)	3.36 (0.82)	3.32 (0.82)	3.33 (0.86)
	Yes	3.60 (0.78)	3.49 (0.81)	3.45 (0.79)	3.53 (0.78)	3.41 (0.78)
Collective efficacy	No	3.77 (0.81)	3.68 (0.81)	3.78 (0.82)	3.69 (0.82)	3.71 (0.86)
	Yes	4.04 (0.83)	3.95 (0.83)	3.83 (0.82)	4.02 (0.73)	3.84 (0.80)
Trust in people	No	2.96 (1.07)	2.91 (1.06)	2.92 (1.07)	2.88 (1.04)	2.91 (1.08)
	Yes	2.89 (1.06)	3.02 (1.09)	3.03 (1.06)	3.12 (1.06)	2.98 (1.06)

Members of student organizations also showed greater levels of almost all GC components, $t(1730) = -7.48, p = .001$, except for civic values and trust in people. Members in political organizations scored higher than nonmember on openness and tolerance, $t(1705) = -2.49, p < .05$, knowledge and awareness, $t(1709) = -3.87, p = .000$, personal capacity to act politically, $t(1709) = -7.5, p = .000$, and collective efficacy, $t(1709) = -5.21, p = .000$, but not on civic values and trust in people. Membership in leisure organizations was associated with higher knowledge and awareness, $t(1721) = -3.400, p = .001$, and collective efficacy, $t(1722) = -3.075, p = .001$; engagement in these organizations was associated with support of civic values, $t(808) = -2.973, p = .003$, but it was not associated with greater openness and tolerance. Members of religious organizations scored higher on civic values, $t(708) = -3.85, p = .000$, personal capacity to act politically, $t(1692) = -2.44, p = 0.01$, and trust, $t(1688) = -2.25, p < .05$, but not on openness and tolerance.

Mobility and Global Citizenship

We analysed whether there were differences in mobility and international contacts according to age and gender by performing a multivariate analysis of the variance. Mobility and international contacts were inserted as dependent variables, gender and age group as independent ones. We found a main effect of age and gender: young adults had more frequent international contacts, $F(1, 929) = 230.02, p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .12$, and were more mobile, $F(1, 929) = 248.42, p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .12$, than adolescents. Females were more mobile, $F(1, 1063) = 6.09, p = .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .003$, than males.

We found that membership in organizations was generally associated with mobility and international contacts. Mobility, in particular, was higher among members of political, student, and volunteer organizations (see Table 7). International contacts were also greater among members of political, student and volunteer organizations (see Table 8). Consistently with H4, we found that mobility was significantly correlated with all the dimensions of GC, except with civic values (Table 9). Correlations were higher with openness and tolerance, as well as with knowledge and political awareness. A similar pattern was found regarding the relationship between opportunities for international contact and GC (Table 9), coherently with H5.

TABLE 7
 Mobility between members and nonmembers of organizations: *t*-tests

	Members <i>M (SD)</i>	Nonmembers <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t</i> value (<i>df</i>)
Political parties	3.42 (1.21)	2.96 (1.24)	-5.03*** (1728)
Student organizations	3.16 (1.25)	2.90 (1.23)	-4.34*** (1730)
Religious organizations	3.01 (1.23)	3.02 (1.26)	.12 (1728)
Volunteer organizations	3.32 (1.21)	2.86 (1.24)	-7.42*** (1728)
Leisure organizations	3.05 (1.23)	2.94 (1.27)	-1.65 (1728)

*** $p < .001$.

TABLE 8
 International contacts between members and nonmembers of organizations: *t*-tests

	Members <i>M (SD)</i>	Nonmembers <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t</i> value (<i>df</i>)
Political parties	3.26 (1.29)	2.77 (1.34)	-4.98*** (1730)
Student organizations	3.06 (1.13)	2.65 (1.34)	-6.35*** (1728)
Religious organizations	2.90 (1.34)	2.79 (1.35)	-1.66 (1730)
Volunteer organizations	3.28 (1.25)	2.60 (1.33)	-10.27*** (1730)
Leisure organizations	2.87 (1.34)	2.75 (1.36)	-1.69 (1730)

*** $p < .001$.

TABLE 9
Pearson's correlations between opportunities for contact and mobility and dimensions of GC

	Contact	Mobility
Openness and tolerance	.32**	.25**
Knowledge and political awareness	.27**	.22**
Civic values	.04	.02
Personal capacity to act politically	.12**	.10**
Collective efficacy	.20**	.15**
Trust in people	.09**	.10**

** Correlations are significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

Overall predictive model of global citizenship

Finally, given the pattern of results, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis (Table 10) was conducted to test whether volunteer organizational membership contributed to GC (H6), controlling for its effects on participation, mobility, and opportunities for contact.

TABLE 10
Hierarchical multiple regression analysis coefficients for variables predicting GC

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Block 1			
Age	.38***	.32***	.16***
Gender	-.03	-.02	-.009
Block 2			
Volunteer organizations		.22***	.08***
Block 3			
Civic participation			.18***
Political participation			-.02
Online participation			.23***
Protest			-.09***
Contact			.07***
Mobility			.03
<i>R</i> squared	.15	.19	.28
<i>F</i>	155.405	141.684	76.908
<i>Df</i>	2	3	9
<i>F</i> change		96.867	35.873

*** $p < .001$.

Age and gender were entered in the first block and volunteer organizational membership in the second block. Participation, mobility, and opportunities for contact were entered in the third block. The analysis, $R^2 = 28.5$, $F(9, 1708) = 76.908$, $p = .000$, showed that organizational membership was a significant predictor of GC ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$), but its magnitude was reduced when the other variables were en-

tered in the equation ($\beta = .08, p < .001$). Age maintained a prominent role ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) but gender had no impact. Civic participation ($\beta = .18, p < .001$) and online participation ($\beta = .24, p < .001$) emerged as the most significant predictors of GC. Mobility did not have significant effects, but opportunities for contacts abroad predicted positively GC ($\beta = .08, p < .001$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this study we aimed to understand whether membership in organizations, with a particular attention to volunteer ones, could contribute to GC. We referred to the model of GC defined by UNESCO (2015), which includes three dimensions: cognitive, socioemotional, and behavioral. In our study, the cognitive dimension of GC was operationalized using the following variables: knowledge and political awareness; the socioemotional dimension was operationalized using openness and tolerance, civic values, and trust in people; the behavioral dimension was operationalized with personal capacity to act politically and collective efficacy.

We preliminarily tested the differences in organizational membership according to demographic characteristics (age and gender). As expected, our results confirmed the general pattern that has been found in the literature according to age (higher engagement in older participants) and gender (greater involvement of males in political activities and of females in civic forms). However, in our data the pattern concerning civic forms of engagement appeared mainly among adolescents.

Our main hypothesis was that young people who have or have had experience in organizations would score higher on GC, compared to those who had never been organizational members (H3). The findings confirmed that members scored higher on GC compared to nonmembers, with some specificities. Only members of volunteer organizations reported higher scores in all the components/dimensions of GC compared to nonmembers: knowledge and awareness (cognitive dimension), openness and tolerance, civic values, and trust (socioemotional dimension), personal capacity to act politically and collective efficacy (behavioral dimension). Members of student organizations reported higher scores than nonmembers on most components of GC, except trust. Membership of leisure organizations was significantly associated with higher scores only in some dimensions of GC, such as knowledge and awareness, collective efficacy, and civic values, with a limited effect on the socioemotional dimension of GC. Membership of religious organizations had a limited impact on GC, in particular on the socioemotional side (only on civic values and trust). Finally, membership in political organizations was associated with higher scores in all dimensions of GC measured, with more limited effect on socioemotional one. These findings confirm the importance of organizations' membership in promoting youth GC; the differences that were found, however, suggests that some organizations more than others, in particular volunteers and to a lesser extent students' and political ones may contribute to the development of GC, in particular on the socioemotional side. More research is needed to examine in details which processes support the development of GC in these organizations. Is through offering concrete opportunities to experience diversity (values, networks, religions, socioeconomic background, etc.) within the organizations? Or is through the opportunities that these organizations offer to enlarge and diversify online and offline network of their members? Or is the chance that they provide of being active and engage civically within the organization that contribute to the development of GC? These processes may be prominent in some organizations, but their specific roles in relation to GC development is not yet fully disentangled.

Our findings confirmed the positive association between organizational membership and opportunities for international contacts and of cross-border contact with GC. They support the idea that the opportunities to get in contact with cultural diversity are a booster of GC contributing to expanding not only views and perspectives but also the meaning of transnational identification (Mazzoni et al. 2018) to social and political components of GC.

Overall, our results confirmed that organizations are very important educational contexts for the development of GC, that could complement and integrate schools' and higher education institutions' efforts in this direction. Associational experiences, in particular in voluntary organizations, can thus be considered authentic playgrounds to develop a global perspective. A period of service within civic and volunteer organizations may be an effective strategy to promote tolerant attitudes and openness to diversity. Programs like service-learning (Aramburuzabala, MacIlrath, & Opazo, 2019) could contribute to this aim and could be incorporated in high schools and higher education institutions. Given the racist drift that is pervading many European countries in these last years³, with restrictive and intolerant politics towards migrants in the Italian context, the idea that volunteer and students' organizations can become outposts of resistance and resilience for young people who are against intolerance, may be encouraging.

Some limitations of this study should be addressed regarding the cross-sectional and correlational nature of the research design. A further development, which could clarify the causality of the relationships evidenced in the present study, would require the adoption of a longitudinal design. Moreover, the research did not clarify the specific process that could contribute to strengthen GC in different organizations. Further examination of possible mediating effects of interpersonal network diversification, concrete experience with diversity, and quality of participation on the relationship between organizational membership and GC could contribute to theory development and provide recommendations for practice. Future research on organizations aimed at creating opportunities for young people to volunteer or work abroad in projects that benefit local communities may contribute to this aim.

Despite the above limitations, our results add evidence to the importance of civic engagement from early stages of life as a booster for the development of citizenship skills and confirm that belonging to organizations and engaging civically can contribute to positive outcomes regarding openness to diversity and GC. These results encourage also the development of partnership between civic organizations and educational institutions that can work together to provide significant experiences for the education of global citizens.

NOTES

1. The data can be accessed here: <http://doi.org/10.6092/unibo/amsacta/6202>
2. Reliability scores of the scales used in the CATCH-EyoU international study are reported in this section.
3. The political scenario in 2019 in Europe and in Italy confirms the legitimization of political ideologies that discriminate people coming from different parts of the world, in particular the migration flow from African states.

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