

Transparency and Trust in Government (2007-2014): A Comparative Study

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Abstract

In a 2000 report entitled “Trust in government. Ethics measures in OECD countries,” OECD Secretary-General Donald J. Johnston emphasized the fact that public ethics are considered as a keystone of good governance. Moreover, public ethics are a prerequisite to public trust, which is in turn vital not only to any public service, but also to any society in general. At the same time, transparency reforms have flourished over the last few years and have several times been designed as a response to public distrust. Therefore, ethics, transparency and trust are closely linked together in a supposed virtuous circle where transparency works as a factor of better public ethics and leads to more trust in government on the citizens’ side. This article explores the links between transparency and levels of trust in 10 countries between 2007 and 2014, using open data indexes and access to information requests as proxies for transparency. A national ranking of transparency, based on requests submitted by citizens to the administration and open data indexes, is then proposed. Key findings show that there is no sharp decline of trust in government in all countries considered in this article, and that transparency and trust in government are not systematically positively associated. Therefore, this article challenges the common assumption, mostly found in the normative literature, about a positive interrelation between the two, where trust in government is conceived as a beneficial effect of administrative transparency.

Keywords

Transparency, freedom of information, open data, trust in government, public administration

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1. Introduction

The link between transparency and ethics seems rather straightforward: as organizations are held accountable and citizens have access to information, which may directly affect their lives, transparency enhances the ethical nature of public institutions (Rawlins, 2009). In this sense, the exposure of public actions is supposed to eliminate the problem of moral hazard (Stasavage, 2003). Based on first reflections developed by famous philosophers of the 18th century, such as Rousseau, Kant and Bentham, inspiring actors of the French revolution, transparency has been gradually thought as a fundamental right and a moral imperative for citizens to get access to information detained by the authorities. Following Bentham's idea of the Public Opinion Tribunal (see Bozzo-Rey, 2011), Sullivan (1965) affirms that "each person has a right to true information in matters which affect him [and] has a right to participate in decisions which affect him". Therefore, the moral essence of transparency lies in the fact that citizens have a right to information, which in turn allows them to evaluate the relevance of the processes and the decisions taken by public organizations. The European Commission fully agrees with this idea, as highlighted by its transparency portal, which is designed to help the citizens to "be better informed and better prepared to follow and participate in the EU decision-making process, to enjoy [their] rights and to play [their] role as a European citizen to the full."³

If transparency has mainly been conceived as a moral imperative for democratic institutions towards their citizens, organizations themselves have also come to realize that transparency leads to solid bottom-line benefits in terms of reputation, possibly gaining more trust on the people's side. Starting from this assumption, transparency and trust have been associated positively by many governments, as exemplified by Obama's memorandum on transparency and open government, in which he insists on working together for implementing a system of transparency and ensuring public trust.⁴ In the United Kingdom (UK), the governmental website dedicates a page to transparency issues, saying that it is necessary to strengthen people's trust in government.⁵ More generally, the OECD promotes transparency as a remedy for trust, correlating positively both concepts with economic growth.⁶ Nevertheless, according to the academic literature, this optimistic view is not empirically proven and remains mostly normative.

This article will first provide details about the definitions of transparency and trust. Second, it will explore the relationship between the two concepts, in the light of current research on the topic. Finally, using open data indexes and access to information requests as proxies for transparency, the article will investigate into the relationship between disclosure of information, implication of the citizens and their level of trust, and present our key findings and limitations.

2. Transparency

Just like many other notions in Public Administration research, transparency is a polysemous and multifaceted concept, considered by some prominent scholars as more often invoked than defined, and more often preached than practised (Heald & Hood, 2006). In other words, it can have diverse meanings according to the context and the exact wording of its definition. It is also made up of different dimensions, which may depend upon the type of transparency addressed.

³ Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/transparency/index_en.htm [15.01.2016]

⁴ Available at: https://www.whitehouse.gov/the_press_office/TransparencyandOpenGovernment [18.01.2016]

⁵ Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/topics/government-efficiency-transparency-and-accountability> [20.12.2015]

⁶ Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/governance/transparencytrustandgrowth.htm> [12.01.2016]

This preliminary remark is necessary for the sake of this article, as we will focus on two specific forms of transparency and embrace a particular approach accordingly.

First of all, being transparent is mostly defined as being visible. Transparency is frequently opposed to opacity and secrecy, a position already defended by philosophers of the 18th century, mainly as a reaction against political absolutism which prevailed at the time (Hood, 2006). The debate about the integrity of the state and the fight against conspiracy is still vivid nowadays, and administrative secrecy remains a key issue in contemporary governance. Transparency is often linked with accountability, in the sense that secrecy prevents any administration to disclose information, therefore making it unaccountable to the general public because information and actions are deliberately hidden (Florini, 1998). In a normative perspective, transparency is then considered as a desirable good. The proactive disclosure of information by the government is labelled as “active transparency” (Meijer, Curtin, & Hillebrandt, 2012). It involves all forms of deliberate communication about government decisions and activities, including press statements, information published on websites, brochures, official journals, etc. Such a restrictive definition is insufficient, because “disclosure, alone, can defeat the purpose of transparency. It can obfuscate, rather than enlighten” (Rawlins, 2009). This last remark is in line with a recurrent critic of administrative transparency: the overload of information may turn the desirable goal of availability into a nightmare for the recipients of that information (Brin, 1998; Curtin & Meijer, 2006). Therefore, one should also pay attention to other types of transparency.

Secondly, freedom of information has growingly been perceived as a fundamental human right. The idea was inscribed in the United Nations Charter in 1948, positively associated with peaceful coexistence and democracy, but was more related to the right to seek and pass on information. Regarding access to documents, a recommendation on access to documents was passed by the Council of Europe in 1981 (Birkinshaw, 2006). However, at the country level, Sweden had already adopted a legislation on the matter in 1766, in parallel to the transition from Swedish absolutist to liberal bourgeois rule (Erkkilä, 2012). Finland enacted a transparency legislation in 1951, followed by the Freedom of Information (FOI) law in the United States in 1966. FOI laws gained popularity and even gained ground in 100 countries (McIntosh, 2014). They allow citizens to submit requests to the administration in order to have access to documents, following procedures specific to each country. This different kind of transparency is called “passive”, as information is not proactively released by the authorities. Nevertheless, the idea of counteracting secrecy remains essential on the citizens’ side. According to Pasquier and Villeneuve (2007), documentary transparency enables “the public [to have] a legally guaranteed right of access to information held by the government, the main objective being to force public authorities to disclose what they would rather keep secret.”

3. Trust

So far, trust has mainly been addressed as a psychosocial aspect. Studied in diverse scientific fields (human sciences, philosophy, psychology, management, etc.), it is usually considered as having a positive impact on social relations (Giddens, 1984). In spite of the consensus about beneficial effects of trust, there is no commonly agreed definition. In this respect, Blomqvist (1997) affirms that “there is still a good deal of conceptual confusion [and] there has been *no real conceptual development* regarding trust, although, in some studies a definition of trust is given and in others merely implied.”

Research has focused on ties between individuals (interpersonal trust) and relationships between them, while studies connecting public administration to trust have remained rather rare (Bouckaert, 2012; Edelenbos & Klijn, 2007). Recently, there has been a growing interest for trust between public authorities and stakeholders in charge of carrying out public tasks, due to the new organizational forms observed and the limits of coordination mechanisms between these actors (Fivat & Pasquier, 2014). It involves a bilateral kind of trust (*inter partes*) which would bolster cooperation. However, research on trust and institutions has traditionally been centred on relationships between an organization and the citizens (Bouckaert & Van de Walle, 2003; Carter & Bélanger, 2005; Hardin, 2013). In this perspective, trust is unilateral, because it is exclusively regarded from the citizens' side and directed towards public institutions. As direct relations between the citizens and institutions often remain sporadic, there is no need to consider a reciprocal, *inter partes* relationship between the two. Moreover, if trust has mainly been thought as a relation between the citizens and public entities, it may also be possible to raise the issue of institutional trust (Zucker, 1986). In this sense, citizens can have trust in principles emanating from institutions, which ensure social interactions, such as trust in justice.

As mentioned above, the definition of trust is still depending on the context, the type of relationship and the dimensions considered in the study. The same issue arises with measurement of the citizens' level of trust in government. According to Fivat and Pasquier (2014), dimensions used to conceptualise inter-organizational trust could also be used to measure citizens' trust in government. Following preliminary work from Sako and Helper (1998), trust is based on expectations and divided into three dimensions:

1. Competence (is the other party capable of doing what he says it will do?);
2. Contractual (will the other party carry out its contractual agreement?);
3. Goodwill (will the other party make an open-ended commitment to take initiatives for mutual benefit while refraining from unfair advantage taking?).

These dimensions are considered by Sako and Helper (1998) as three different types of trust, because they refer to diverse expectations. However, other approaches distinguish trust from perceived trustworthiness, focusing on specific factors, including ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995), or other dimensions such as reliability, predictability and fairness (Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998). Unfortunately, most institutions (e.g. the European Union) do not take all these dimensions into account and usually question citizens about their general level of trust in government.⁷ In spite of this lack of precision, this article will deal with data from supranational institutions and consider trust as a unidimensional variable. This approach will allow us to compare the evolution of levels of trust with passive transparency in the countries covered by this study.

4. Linking the two concepts

In the normative literature, trust is usually treated as a beneficial effect of transparency, assuming that both concepts mutually reinforce each other (Brown, Vandekerckhove, & Dreyfus, 2014). Many FOI laws find some of their legitimacy in the increase of trust, as it is the case in Switzerland: “the principle of freedom of information [...] contributes to keeping the public informed by allowing all citizens access to official documents, thereby increasing

⁷ See for instance Standard Eurobarometer 80 (2013). Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/eb/eb80/eb80_first_en.pdf [13.01.2016]

confidence in the state and authorities.”⁸ In the European Union (EU), the link between transparency and trust has been formally established in the adoption process of the Maastricht Treaty (Lenaerts, 2004). On this occasion, it has been said that “the Conference considers that transparency of the decision-making process strengthens the democratic nature of the institutions and the public’s confidence in the administration.”⁹ Therefore, increased trust in the government has been a key driver for implementing documentary transparency (Worthy, 2010). This assumption is underpinned by the idea that information asymmetry between the state and the citizens must be reduced to empower the citizens. With more information available, the latter will be able to better evaluate the institutions and make more informed decisions about policy choices. However, understanding seems at least as important as availability of information, because less understanding may lead to less trust (Strathern, 2000).

According to Zand (1971), trust is not an emotion or a global feeling, but rather the regulation of one’s dependence on another, in a relational perspective. It is necessary, since trust rests on an incomplete exchange of information (Blomqvist, 1997). This remark makes a study between transparency and trust relevant. Indeed, if one has trust in a particular organization or system because of a lack of knowledge, resulting from the asymmetry of information, what happens if greater transparency reduces the gap? According to Hardin (2013), current low levels of government trustworthiness in the citizens’ perceptions are the direct consequence of this lack of knowledge. However, as mentioned by Möllering (2013), “the reason Hardin gives for why citizens should be unable to trust government is exactly the reason why they have a need to trust government: their lack of knowledge.” The debate between the two authors suggests that transparency and trust do not have a linear relation and that a degree of uncertainty is necessary for trust to exist. One could therefore suppose that full secrecy would lead to mistrust, while full transparency would create a situation of constant distrust, but such hypotheses remain to be shown empirically. Moreover, this debate leads to two main questions (Fivat & Pasquier, 2014):

1. Does greater transparency lead to greater trust? In other words, does more information disclosed by the state increase government trustworthiness and citizens’ trust in the government?
2. Or did transparency emerge as a remedy for the lack of trust in the government? Is it working as an *ex post* mechanism of control, because of initial low levels of government trustworthiness?

According to the perspective adopted, the study of the relationship between transparency and trust in government will probably strongly differ and lead to divergent conclusions. This article will address the two questions, using data from the European barometers for EU member states and OECD for other countries, as there is no standardized dataset for all countries.

5. Access to information requests

This section is based on a study carried out by Pasquier and Holsen (2009). According to the authors, the current praise for access to information (ATI) laws results from a global campaign from journalists, civil society groups and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs). A “transparency revolution” has been growing in the last few decades because of two main motivations: the increase of the public bodies’ accountability towards their citizens (and

⁸ Available at: <http://www.edoeb.admin.ch/oeffentlichkeitsprinzip/00887/00888/index.html?lang=en> [04.01.2016]

⁹ All details about the Conference and the annexes to the Maastricht Treaty are available at: <http://aei.pitt.edu/2944/1/2944.pdf> [17.11.2015]

possibly generate greater trust in the government) and the empowerment of the citizens, who would make better informed decisions (and possibly participate more in the political process).

Even though ATI laws vary in the different countries that have adopted such a legislation, and processes can take diverse forms, the main objectives often present similarities. Governments claim that the public can obtain information and use it to verify that they work in the citizens' interests. From a philosophical point of view, Bentham directly connects secrecy with conspiracy and thus affirms that public officials will be less tempted to misuse power because of external monitoring (Hood, 2006). Despite such a support, coming from both the governments and the citizens, one can notice that, in some countries, there has been relatively low usage of the new legislative instruments so far. Table 1 shows how ATI requests have evolved over the last few years in 10 countries.

Table 1. Evolution of the number of ATI requests (absolute numbers), 2007-2014

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Canada*	29,182	31,487	34,041	35,154	41,641	43,194	55,145	60,105
Ireland	1,044	1,666	1,913	1,849	1,490	2,192	1,724	2,002
UK	32,978	34,950	40,548	43,921	47,141	49,464	51,889	46,806
U.S.	N/A**	605,491	514,541	597,415	644,165	651,254	704,394	714,231
Germany	1,265	1,548	1,358	1,557	3,280	6,077	4,736	8,673
Switzerland	249	221	232	239	466	506	469	575
India	171,398	263,261	329,728	529,274	416,641	629,960	811,350	834,183
Mexico	94,723	105,250	117,597	122,138	123,293	131,154	147,148	149,918
New Zealand	812	897	809	920	992	1,236	2,374	1,207
Australia	38,787	29,019	27,561	21,587	23,605	24,764	24,944	28,463

* In Canada and India, requests are based on the fiscal year, running from April 1 to March 31; in the United States, fiscal year runs from October 1 to September 30; in New Zealand and Australia, from July 1 to June 30. All other collected data are calendar-year based.

** There is no data for the United States in 2007, because new reporting requirements were introduced in 2008, limiting FOIA annual reports only to access requests that involve use of the FOIA. In 2007, the number of requests reported peaked at 21,758,651.

The number of ATI requests depicted above excludes requests made by phone, email, etc. and those submitted at subnational levels, using for instance ATI state / cantonal laws in federal states. A typical example can be found in Switzerland, where cantons have adopted transparency laws at different times. Bern was the first to legislate on the matter (the law was adopted in 1995), then followed by 14 cantons between 2001 and 2011 (Meilland, 2013), while a transparency law at the federal level (Ltrans) has been voted in 2004 and enforced two years later. In some decentralized states, ATI legislation exists at subnational levels and would certainly give another picture of passive transparency.

A brief analysis of the data show that there has been a global increase of requests submitted in all countries considered in this article, but at a different rate. The only exception is Australia, where the number of requests was higher in 2007 compared to 2014, though it is increasing again since 2011. In some countries, there is a constant increase for the whole period 2007-2014, whereas others have witnessed a more or less slight decrease in the last 2-3 years. For instance, requests submitted in New Zealand almost doubled between 2012 and 2013, but the

administration received in 2014 almost the same amount as in 2012. In the UK, there were 5,000 requests less in 2014 compared to the year before, while the amount of requests had been constantly growing since 2007.

Explanations about the usage of ATI laws vary according to the context. Institutional and historical factors, together with timing issues, may help to better understand why citizens have welcomed and used ATI laws in diverse ways. In Switzerland, the recent character of the law leads to a poor level of publicity and knowledge, and does not attract much interest in the population (Pasquier & Holsen, 2009). Moreover, the Swiss political system of “concordance” (consensus system) and semi-direct democracy, including referendum and popular initiative rights, provides citizens with other avenues to information. The consultative system and “militia” politics (Parliamentarians are not professional politicians, and keep a professional activity) are also important factors. This unique feature of the Swiss system has an impact on citizens, especially journalists, who are more likely to use the Ltrans for professional purposes: they seem to use it less frequently than their British fellows, who have additionally been trained to do so (Pasquier & Holsen, 2009). Legislation in Switzerland does not allow citizens to have access to documents completed before the enforcement of the law, while a retrospective law is in place in other jurisdictions such as the UK, Australia and Scotland. On a more practical level, individuals have sometimes experienced difficulties filing a request or have complained about deficient instructions, in particular in the Indian countryside (Roberts, 2010). Some hypotheses have been explored theoretically about ATI requests in some countries, especially Switzerland and the UK (Pasquier, 2009; Worthy, 2010), but a systematic study on the matter is still missing. Nevertheless, effects of novelty, citizens’ focus on local issues, and a lack of awareness, due to insufficient promotional measures, have been raised by scholars as crucial factors (Hazell, Worthy, & Bourke, 2009; Holsen, 2012; Roberts, 2010).

6. Levels of trust in government

Trust in government is increasingly seen as a key component of democracy. In this sense, contemporary literature assumes that any government need citizens’ trust if it is to work well (Hardin, 1999). As a result, institutions have focused more and more on the levels of citizens’ trust in government. In the United States, polls about public trust in government date back to 1958, while European surveys have emerged more recently. In both cases, though, the preoccupation is driven by the same factors: electoral considerations and satisfaction with the government, but also the confidence of investors and consumers, and the success of governmental policies which require cooperation and compliance from the citizens.¹⁰ As there is a growing feeling of decline of trust in the public sector (Van de Walle, Van Roosbroek, & Bouckaert, 2008), this article addresses the level of trust in government in ten countries for the period 2007-2014.

Before going deeper in the analysis of the data, a conceptual clarification should be made about trustworthiness, trust and confidence. Trustworthiness, like trust, is in essence relational, but in a more limited sense. It does not need any call for trust and rests upon the assurance of potential trusters that they will not be betrayed by the trusted party (Levi & Stoker, 2000). Trust differs from trustworthiness in the sense that it refers to a judgment which reflects beliefs about the trustworthiness of the government. Confidence also differs from trust, as developed in a report from Adams (2005). Though often used interchangeably with trust, confidence is more often linked with reason and facts, while trust partially involves faith (Shaw, 1997). In this article,

¹⁰ Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/gov/trust-in-government.htm> [12.01.2016]

the concept of trust is used as the notion includes asymmetry of information and is also used in the datasets considered for our study. In the case of Gallup polls and their use by the OECD, trust and confidence are mixed up, as trust is measured through a rate of confidence in government.

Table 2. Evolution of trust in government, 2007-2014 (in %)

	2007	2014	2007-2014
Canada*	64	46	-18
Ireland	32	23	-9
UK	30	31	+1
U.S.	39	35	-4
Germany	40	48	+8
Switzerland	63**	75	+12
India	82	73	-9
Mexico	42	33	-9
New Zealand	59	63	+4
Australia	53	45	-8

* Data for non-EU member states come from OECD reports, based on Gallup polls. The question asked is “Do you have confidence in national government?” Data refer to those who answered “yes”. In Eurobarometers’ surveys, the question is formulated in these words: “Do you tend to trust the government?” Data refer to those who answered “tend to trust”.

** 2006

These are the only data about trust in government which allow to carry out a comparative study on a yearly basis. Other datasets exist, but do not include all countries considered in this article or do not have surveys conducted every year. For instance, the *World Values Survey* (WVS) dataset remains fragmented. Data is available for multiple year periods and covers only 25 OECD countries, excluding Ireland. It seems difficult to compare the data, since the answer scale differs strongly from one dataset to the other.¹¹ However, general tendencies can be drawn from these polls. As depicted in table 2, but also in other surveys, there is no global decrease of trust in government in the world for the period 2007-2014. Strong variations, depending on the context, remain the norm in a comparative perspective. Just to give an example, trust in government in Germany has risen from 40% to 48% between 2007 and 2014, or from 22.7% to 44.4% between 2006 and 2013 according to the WVS. On the contrary, in Mexico trust in government has dropped by 9 percentage points between 2007 and 2014, and by 5.2 points between 2005 and 2012 according to the WVS.

Since trust is a volatile concept, studied from various angles, it seems impossible to give a precise explanation of the variations shown above. A global analysis of trust would involve economic, political, social and individual factors. Determinants of trust are numerous but never investigated in the surveys carried out on a large scale. Moreover, in strongly polarized bipartisan systems, such as the United States, identification with a party plays a significant role in the way citizens tend to trust the government or not (Levi & Stoker, 2000). The analysis could even be extended to individuals in a strong presidential system or authoritarian regimes.

¹¹ Wording of the WVS question is: “how much confidence do you have in the government?” with four different choices of answers: a great deal / quite a lot / not very much / not at all. Edelman Trust barometer includes a nine-point scale, ranging from “do not trust at all” to “trust them a great deal”.

Therefore, a comprehensive study of trust levels requires national analyses, because context matters enormously. For instance, contextual events such as the Vietnam War or the 9/11 in the United States have impacted trust in government in a specific way. Though it may be possible to isolate a variable in a comparative perspective, such as the financial crisis, it remains difficult to study trust in all its components across all countries. The main key finding that we would like to draw from this issue is the fact that no global decrease of trust in government has been observed in the last few years, but that levels of trust in government strongly vary according to the states considered.

7. Disclosure, access to information, and trust in government

This section deals with the association between transparency and trust in government. Using the data presented so far, it aims to give an answer to the questions mentioned above: does more administrative transparency bring about more trust from the citizens? And does transparency result from low levels of trust in government? These two questions show the ambiguity of the relationship between the two concepts. On the one hand, it is hypothesised that transparency has an effect on trust, always perceived by practitioners as being positive (Grimmelikhuijsen, 2012). On the other hand, trust in government can also be a driver, not only an objective, depending on the theoretical approach selected (Bouckaert, 2012). In this sense, initial levels of trust can foster transparency reforms.

It has already been said that this article addresses primarily passive transparency, focusing on access to information requests under ATI laws. Though this parameter can be used as a proxy, one may also take into account the active form of transparency, a concept closer to the notion of disclosure. Both types of transparency are part of a bigger movement towards openness, resulting from a need to reduce information asymmetry between the administration and the population in an information society (Pasquier, 2013). This objective becomes even more crucial with the development of new technologies. In this context, many interests groups and organizations, like *Open Government Data*,¹² promote the free access to information about administrations online. Several governments have responded to this movement with the creation of open data portals, where datasets are made available to the public. This kind of active transparency attracts most attention from the citizens, the civil society and the governments together. Open government, including open data, can also be used as a proxy to measure transparency, though transparency itself does not include participation in all definitions (see Meijer et al., 2012). In order to do so, two other datasets will be considered in this article: the *Global Open Data Index (GOD)*,¹³ although there is no data available for New Zealand in 2015, and the OECD survey on open government data (OECD, 2015), despite the fact that only OECD countries appear on the list, thus excluding India.

The GOD includes 122 states and takes into account 13 variables to establish its ranking. All these variables, such as national statistics and legislation, consists of the same 9 dimensions, including for example openly licensed, machine readable, free and up to date information. States obtain a certain percentage according to how well they perform in the 9 dimensions. The OECD survey focuses on the following categories: data accessibility and availability on the national data portal, and governments' efforts to support data re-use. Countries' score is calculated on 0 (lowest) - 1 (highest) scale. Tables 3 and 4 show how the countries considered in this article score on both rankings.

¹² Available at: <http://opengovernmentdata.org/> [14.01.2016]

¹³ Available at: <http://index.okfn.org/place/> [14.01.2016]

Table 3. Global Open Data Index (2015), in %

Country	Score	Rank (out of 122)
UK	76	2
Australia	67	5
U.S.	64	8
Mexico	58	13
Canada	55	17
India	55	17
Germany	49	26
Switzerland	47	29
Ireland	46	31

Mean: 57.4%

GOD average: 33.3%

Table 4. OECD Open government data Index (2015), on 0 (lowest) - 1 (highest) scale

Country	Score	Rank (out of 30)
Great Britain*	0.83	3
Australia	0.81	4
Canada	0.79	5
U.S.	0.67	9
Mexico	0.66	10
New Zealand	0.59	15
Germany	0.55	16
Switzerland	0.48	21
Ireland	0.43	22

* Data only available for Great Britain and not the U.K.

Mean: 0.65

OECD average: 0.58

Although there are a few differences in the rankings, a comparison of these two datasets shows that the UK / Great Britain and Australia are considered particularly committed to openness, while Germany, Switzerland and Ireland (in the same order) score especially low compared to the other countries selected in this article. As these data focus only on active transparency, which means proactive disclosure of information, one may also take into account passive transparency data presented above and compare them with GOD and OECD indexes. With respect to the number of requests submitted to the administration in 2014 (per 1000 inhabitants), U.S. government agencies have received 2.24, Canada 1.69, and Australia 1.21. At the same time, Germany and Switzerland's scores remain low, at respectively 0.11 and 0.07. One may wonder if countries such as the U.S., Australia, Canada and the UK have reached their stated goal of creating a "culture of transparency", while others have failed to do so, have not striven to achieve it, or have not identified it as a fundamental issue. Other factors mentioned above, related to contextual particularities, lead us to leave this debate open.

Now turning to trust in government, how does this variable covariate with transparency? Once again, national particularities seem to play an enormous role, since data vary significantly from one state to another. For instance, there has been a sharp decrease of trust in government and a dramatic increase of requests submitted to the administration in Ireland between 2007 and 2014, whereas Switzerland and Germany have experienced greater trust in government and a sharp rise in requests over the same period of time. The same analysis would apply to the 7 other countries, with more or less strong variations according to the states considered. Therefore, it appears impossible to draw an association, whether positive or negative, between the evolution of levels of trust in government and the total number of ATI requests (passive transparency) in a comparative perspective. Data for all countries are summed up in table 5.

Table 5. Evolution of trust in government (percentage points) and number of ATI requests per 1000 inhabitants (in %), 2007-2014

Country	Trust in government	ATI Requests
Canada	-18	+92.0
Ireland	-9	+79.2
UK	+1	+35.2
U.S.	-4	+12.6*
Germany	+8	+450.0
Switzerland	+12**	+133.3
India	-9	+42.9
Mexico	-9	+42.1
New Zealand	+4	-33.9
Australia	-8	+326.7

* 2008-2014

** 2006-2014

Regarding the relationship between transparency and trust in government, data presented in table 5 will help to answer the two questions put forward by Fivat and Pasquier (2014). First, data do not prove that greater transparency (both in terms of active and passive transparency) generate greater trust in government in all states considered here. As already raised above, trust in government certainly depends on other factors – institutional, historical, and political – but transparency is most of the time presented as having a positive impact on trust in government. However, data show that even in some countries where transparency has been enhanced, trust in government has declined significantly. Indeed, Mexico and India have experienced a sharp increase in requests submitted to the administration, and score relatively high in open data indexes, but levels of trust in government have dropped by 9 percentage points in both countries between 2007 and 2014. Based on this observation, the interpretation which can be drawn is rather general: effects of transparency on trust in government should not be overestimated.

The absence of direct association between the two does not mean that there is no positive impact of transparency policies, but they remain relatively low compared to other factors. At the same time, one could also argue that transparency has no significant effect on trust in government, as shown by previous experiments (Grimmelikhuijsen, 2012). Secondly, is transparency considered as a remedy for declining trust in government? Data presented in this article tend to prove that trust in government is not declining on a large scale, leading us to refute this argument. Other factors have played a crucial role in the enforcement of transparency rules, once again based on historical and institutional roots. The need for more accountable and

participatory governments, the growing perception of access to information as a fundamental human right, now supported by the development of new technologies, have all contributed to the global praise for transparency. Therefore, trust in government should not be always seen as an objective or supposed beneficial effect of transparency, because such an effect is still to be proven empirically. However, other studies suggest that the relationship between transparency and trust in government could be investigated in another perspective: benefits to opening government data are better appreciated among citizens who have a higher level of initial trust in government.¹⁴ In this sense, trust should not be regarded primarily as an effect of transparency, but rather as a determinant of perceived transparency on the citizens' side.

8. Key findings

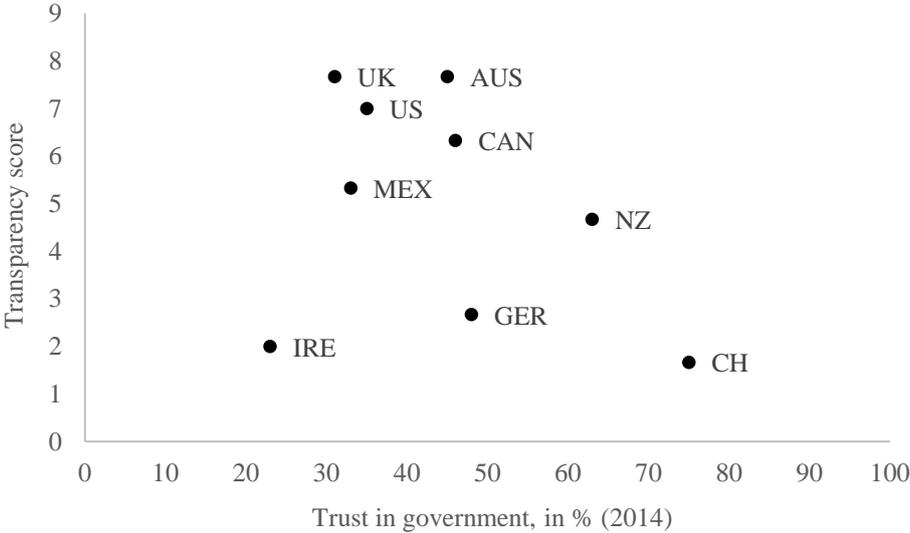
In this article, data about requests submitted to the administration, and indexes of open government data have been merged for the first time. To our knowledge, there was no general dataset about requests for all the states where data is available, and no attempt to compare this data (considered as passive transparency) with active transparency. Proactive disclosure of information, including open data, was measured here with the two indexes developed by the OECD and the GOD. In spite of different methodologies and various categories, results of the rankings appeared somewhat similar. In terms of ATI requests (per 1000 inhabitants), the U.S., Canada and Australia are the top-3 countries, way ahead than other countries, which have adopted a legislation recently, especially Germany and Switzerland. Based on this observation, we are able to establish four categories. The first one, where countries have adopted FOI laws a long time ago and which score relatively high on both open data indexes, include the U.S., Canada and Australia. The second category refers to the states that have adopted FOI legislation quite recently, but have experienced a sharp increase of requests and also belong to the best nations in terms of release of public sector data (the UK, India, and Mexico). The third category includes only New Zealand, where the FOI law was enacted in 1982, but where the number of requests has remained limited so far. In the OECD index, New Zealand scores just above the OECD average. The last bunch of countries is composed of Ireland, Germany and Switzerland. Although Ireland had already adopted a FOI law in 1998, all three states still have a relatively recent legislation about transparency. The total amount of requests does not reach more than 0.45 per 1000 inhabitants, way behind the other countries (apart from New Zealand), and they also score relatively poorly in the open data rankings.

As shown above, data about trust in government over the last few years do not indicate a tendency towards a sharp decline in all countries, though often highlighted in the normative literature. Only half of the states considered in this article have experienced a decrease, while the other half has seen an increase for the period 2007-2014, with Switzerland gaining up to 12 points according to the OECD (2006-2014). An analysis of both data about trust in government and sets of countries mentioned above show no direct association. Indeed, while the UK, India, and Mexico belong to the same "transparency group", levels of trust in government change completely among the three countries: trust in government has gained 1 point of percentage in the UK and dropped by 9 points in both India and Mexico. The same phenomenon is observed in the group formed by the U.S., Canada, and Australia, where trust in government has strongly decreased in Canada, but has not dropped dramatically in the U.S. A comparison between the evolution of requests submitted by citizens to the administration and trust in government (2007-2014) also tends to prove that there is no association between both variables at the international

¹⁴ Pew Research Center, April 2015, "Americans' views on open government data". Available at: <http://www.pewinternet.org/2015/04/21/open-government-data/> [23.01.2016]

level (see table 5). For instance, the number of requests in Canada has gained 92%, compared to 35.2% in the UK, but trust in Canada has decreased and grown in the UK. At the same time, New Zealand has experienced greater trust in government, but the number of requests has dropped by almost 34% (it is the only country to have a negative ratio).

In a comparative perspective, each country can be assigned a rank based on how they perform compared to other states in the two transparency dimensions, active and passive. India cannot be included in the following graph, since it does not appear in the OECD index. Data for New Zealand in the GOD comes from the 2014 index. For instance, on a 1-9 scale, Canada receives 8 points because it has the second highest number of ATI requests per 1000 inhabitants compared to other countries (in 2014), 7 points as it scores third in the OECD index, and 4 points as it is only ranked sixth in the GOD index. As a result, Canada scores on average 6.33 points. In comparison, Australia and the UK are the countries with the highest score (7.67) and Switzerland the lowest (1.67). The graph below situates countries according to their transparency performance and their level of trust in government in 2014. It confirms that there is no linear relation between transparency and trust in government, as no general tendency can be drawn.



9. Limitations and discussion

First of all, data used in this article come from various sources, as data about trust in government come from Eurobarometer surveys and from Gallup polls (published in OECD reports), while data about transparency come from two indexes and our own comparative dataset on ATI requests. As such, this study is not based on a single dataset and a unique population. Secondly, other factors, which have a potential effect on trust in government, are not considered in this study. They include interest and participation in politics, political preferences and party affiliations (Citrin, 1974), evaluation of the economy, homicide rates, international affairs, and political scandals (Chanley, Rudolph, & Rahn, 2000). Moreover, these factors are related to contextual issues and restrict the scope to regional or national studies. Consequently, it seems difficult to draw any association between transparency and trust in government, or even isolate the relationship between the two concepts, as a single dataset, including exogenous variables, is lacking.

Other limitations involve definitions issues. Indeed, measurement of transparency heavily depends on the dimensions considered. Until now, most measurements have only included one dimension of transparency, active (through experiments, e.g. Grimmelikhuijsen (2012), or open data rankings) or passive (ATI requests). In a comparative perspective, we have tried in this article to merge ATI requests and open data indexes. However, both previous studies and ours do not take into account forced transparency (Pasquier, 2011), a different kind of transparency based on whistleblowing acts. Though such acts remain rather rare, they may have an effect on trust in government and should be looked at more closely in further research. The robustness of the data about trust in government can also be questioned, since figures vary from one survey to another. In this case, Gallup polls have been preferred for countries outside the EU but members of the OECD, and Eurobarometers have been selected for EU member states. However, alternative sources exist, such as the Edelman trust barometer,¹⁵ or surveys conducted by the media.¹⁶ For instance, data about trust in government in the U.S. in 2014 can vary from 35% down to 24%. Moreover, questions asked do not distinguish trust from confidence. They do not consider the dimensions of perceived trustworthiness (competence, probity, benevolence), but keep it rather simple with one encompassing question. Such a question remains vague and may lead to confusion, as a result of its high level of abstraction.

In conclusion, the positive association between transparency and trust in government should not be overestimated. Although it is necessary to take all limits mentioned above into consideration, a study based on data from international and national institutions lead us to challenge the common normative assumption, which always postulates a positive effect of transparency on trust in government. Further research could build on this preliminary result. It may create an index of transparency, including existing data about both active and passive transparency. With respect to trust in government, research could be conducted at the national level, but a comparison remains a perilous enterprise, due to contextual differences. At this stage, we can only assert that transparency does not have a significant impact on trust in government (compared to other factors), or does not play any role at all. A deeper study on the relationship between the two concepts, able to isolate such a relationship, will prove necessary to assess the true effect of administrative transparency on trust in government.

¹⁵ Available at: <http://www.edelman.com/> [25.01.2016]

¹⁶ See for instance the New York Times' article "The Long Decline of Trust in Government, and Why That Can Be Patriotic", which is based on data from ABC/Washington Post, CBS/New York Times, CNN, Gallup, A.N.E.S. and Pew Research Center. Available at: http://www.nytimes.com/2015/07/04/upshot/the-long-decline-of-trust-in-government-and-why-that-can-be-patriotic.html?_r=0 [17.01.2016]

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