

**The Social Dynamics of Contributory Behaviours:
A Synopsis of Key Findings from a Multi-Year National Study**

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Acknowledgement

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A. Introduction

The nonprofit and voluntary domain in Canada was discovered in the mid-1990s. It had long been in existence but as an implicit and largely invisible part of Canadian society. “Discovery” took place in a variety of ways: the domain became a focus of attention, and eventually of special initiatives and funding, by government; interest by the media rose and initiatives to increase volunteering, giving and civic participation (contributory behaviours) multiplied; academic interest in the domain expanded, and public interest in the role and consequences of contributory behaviours in our society grew. We can only speculate as to why the discovery occurred when it did but at least three factors stand out: the sector was newly identified by government as a potential offset for reductions in budgets and public services that were occurring then; Canadians may have been concerned with how the swing to a more conservative worldview and market exchange-based values that occurred throughout the 1980s and early 90s was fraying the social fabric; and a handful of leaders in the sector had begun to seek concerted action by, and visibility for, nonprofit and voluntary organizations as a whole.

B. The Nonprofit Sector Knowledge Base Project

The NPS Knowledge Base Project was initiated in 1997 with the stimulus of several beliefs: that the contributory behaviours of volunteering, giving, and participating are bellwether indicators of how individuals view and are connected to their social milieu, that these behaviours constitute an essential ingredient in our social order and the quality of life, and that the deep paucity of information on these behaviours had to be remedied if we were, as a society, going to understand and bolster them. And so, the NPS Knowledge Base Project began with three goals:

- to construct a detailed and accurate picture of the extent and character of volunteering, charitable giving, and civic participation in Canada;

- to identify the circumstances and forces (social dynamics) that favour or instigate volunteering, giving, and civic participation, and to understand the pathways by which individuals come to engage in these behaviours;
- and establish a vision for long-term development of an information infrastructure, involving ongoing data flows and analysis, for the nonprofit and voluntary sector.

The strategic intelligence we expected to come out of the NPS Knowledge Base Project was intended to be directly useful to government, to volunteer and charitable organizations, as well as to researchers and interested Canadians generally. We also intended it to be rigorous, detailed and empirical, i.e., based on robust quantitative analysis of large-scale survey data.

C. Challenges

The project faced a number of challenges:

- only a thin and partial base of knowledge about volunteering /giving/participating existed, with little in the way of effective theory or conceptual framework buttressing it; worse, there was little evidence of convergence in research on the sector toward a consensus on “explaining” these behaviours and their correlates
- there were few reliable datasets to provide the raw materials for analysis; new data, and data-generating instruments, would have to be created, and preferably in an integrated fashion
- in building both a conceptual framework and a corpus of data, there was a need to recognize the potential importance of such “soft” factors as values and ethos, worldview, and regional subcultures, beyond the standard suite of

sociodemographic characteristics routinely used in quantitative studies in the social sciences.

- topics for research were to be chosen not only for their inherent interest and value but in a sequence that would help illuminate information needs and help point where the path of information development should lead.

When work began in 1998, the Project undertook to produce 15 specific studies in two distinct streams; one was to focus on the incidence, distribution, patterns and correlates of volunteering, charitable giving, and civic participation using very large national datasets (in fact, the largest anywhere) principally produced by Statistics Canada; the other was to examine the state of the nonprofit and voluntary sector, assessing how its organizations were faring and what information was needed to undertake that assessment as an ongoing activity. Seven years later, the project has completed 53 studies and research reports, with another 13 in preparation. (All these 66 studies and reports are listed in the appendix, “Studies and Reports from the Nonprofit Sector Knowledge Base Project”.) The present report, summarizing the principal results of the work, has been prepared to encourage broadened discussion of the state of knowledge about contributory behaviours, about organizations in the nonprofit and voluntary sector, and about building a formal knowledge base, or information infrastructure, for this domain of Canadian society.

The concept of formal knowledge base is not common coin but in its concrete form it is centrally important in the functioning of Canadian society. As conceived currently, our social order comprises four sectors: the market economy sector, the public or state sector, the nonprofit/voluntary/civic (community) sector, and the household sector. For each of the market economy, state, and household sectors, there are sophisticated statistical information systems, long in development and still undergoing refinement, which provide “strategic intelligence” for purposes of public information and managing the public household. These information systems consist of arrays of national surveys and systems to extract information

from administrative records, using standardized definitions and measurements, to provide systematic, integrated information according to a known set of parameters and rules about their respective sectors. They provide an unparalleled depth of insight into how the respective components of Canadian society — individuals and households, governments, firms, and organizations — function. For the market economy, the System of National Accounts constitutes a formal knowledge base; for the state sector, it is the Public Accounts; for the household sector, the formal knowledge base consists of a known set of large-sample surveys such as the LFS and GSS in combination with the national quinquennial and decennial censuses and supplementary censuses such as Vital Statistics and the Divorce Registry. The nonprofit and voluntary sector is the only one of the four for which no formal knowledge base has been constructed — for the simple reason it has not been recognized previously as a distinct or consequential sector. The Nonprofit Sector Knowledge base Project was initiated specifically in response to that lacuna.

D. Some Important Generalizations from our Findings

While many of the findings summarized in the next section are discrete and self-standing, some are interconnected and support a number of significant inferences or generalizations about contributory behaviour that will be components in an overall picture of the nonprofit and voluntary sector. We would note that statistics from the 2004 CSGVP on the incidence and magnitude of volunteering and giving show significant divergence from figures for the preceding 20 years; we comment on this later in the report.

1. The largest part of giving and volunteering are performed by a small proportion of the population and that proportion appears to be shrinking slowly.
2. The overall incidence of volunteering shows signs of being flat at best or in a very slow decline of perhaps 1-1½% per year, while the volume of time

being contributed by Canadians manifests two diverging trends: the large number of incidental or occasional volunteers appears to be rising, and they are contributing less, while the much smaller component of committed volunteers are contributing rising amounts of time. The incidence of giving may have risen slightly since 2000 but the volume of charitable dollars contributed, most of all large-donation givers, has risen significantly. The nonprofit and voluntary sector is experiencing ongoing polarization in these and other ways.

3. This small subpopulation of contributors is quite identifiable with a common set of distinctive sociodemographic characteristics; they also embrace a particular set of values, or ethos that includes explicit acknowledgement of and support for the common good.
4. Giving and volunteering are extremely multiform behaviours; they also vary sharply across regions due in part to differences in regional cultures; and religious affiliations also make a very large difference in rates, levels, and forms of contributory behaviour.
5. There are identifiably different styles of giving and volunteering.
6. Supportive attitudes by Canadians toward nonprofit and voluntary organizations have been weakening.
7. Canadians' direct personal giving, helping, and caring appears to be expanding while for the majority, volunteering through organizations is flat or slowly declining. Institutional means of achieving the collective good, in other words, may be in declining favour among Canadians.
8. The multiplex forms of and variations in contributory behaviours can be adequately grasped and explained only with multivariate analytical tools;

non-multivariate tools, which are how most commonly used in the nonprofit and voluntary sector, are now known to produce results that are simplistic and incomplete, sometimes even misleading.

E. What We Found About Volunteering, Giving, and Participating Behaviours

The more than fifty completed studies and reports from the NPS Knowledge Base Project contain a host of findings, some of which are large-scale and fundamental while others are more in the form of supporting details. This synopsis itemizes the core findings that we believe express defining facts about the contributory behaviours that lie at the heart of the nonprofit and voluntary sector, many of which are little known or recognized.

Before moving to substantive matters, there is an important technical issue that we must address. Volunteering has been subject to detailed national surveys in Canada since 1987, and charitable giving since 1969. There has been ongoing continuity in all the volunteering surveys up to the 2003 General Social Survey — comparable survey design and content, and results that were by and large consistent or clustered. The same holds true of giving statistics, especially those from the Survey of Household Spending. The 2004 CSGVP, however, produced results that differed significantly from all previous surveys — unusually large increases in the rates of volunteering (up from 27% to 45%) and giving (up from 78% to 85%) per volunteer and a large rise in median dollars donated per donor. There is reason to believe that part of the large increase in rates may be anomalous and due to a combination of change in the survey's design, and several of its questions.

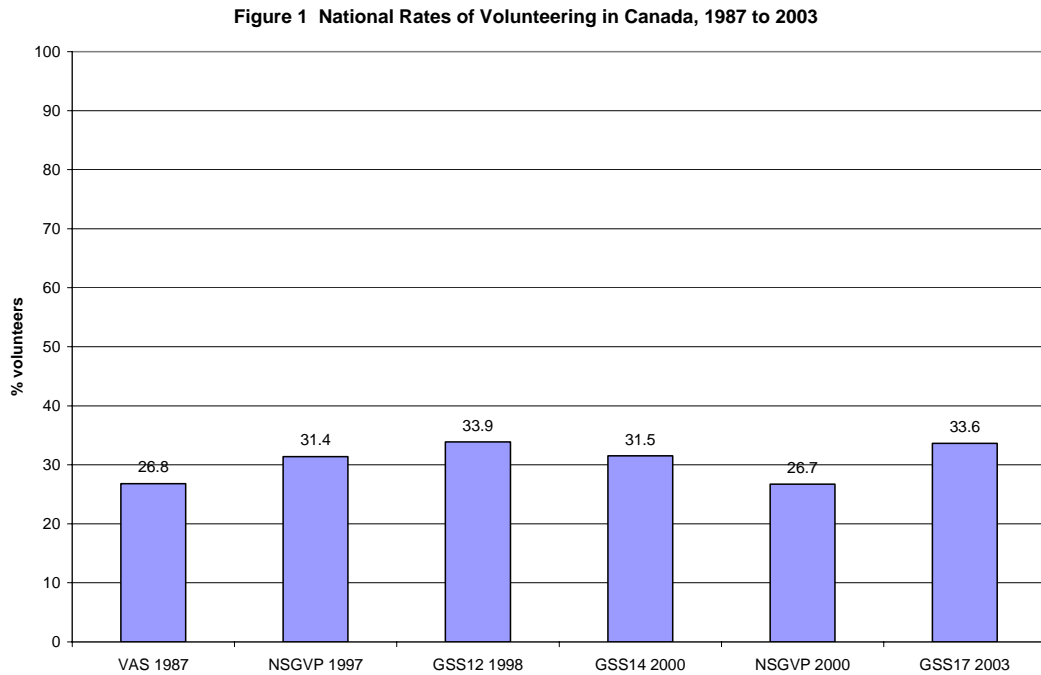
For example the increase may partly have been a change in the introduction to the questions in the interview schedule for 2004, where for the first time volunteering was identified as including unpaid help for organizations that often is not strictly considered volunteering by many individuals (i.e., schools, religious organizations and sport organizations). Another reason may simply be the active

promoting of volunteering in many organizational contexts including schools, governments, and employers, and the rising awareness of its value among the population. Whatever the change in the incidence of volunteering, it has not altered the basic dynamic that underlies this behaviour; in our multivariate analyses, we have found that patterns of volunteering across the life cycle, and the patterns of correlates of active volunteers, are unchanged from 2000. It will not be known until several more iterations of the CSGVP have been conducted whether these changes are artifacts or real in the population. For this reason, this report covers findings based on data from surveys during the 1987-2003 period and only selectively includes 2004 CSGVP statistics on the grounds that they are of unknown comparability.

1. Volunteering rates show no long-term direction of change.

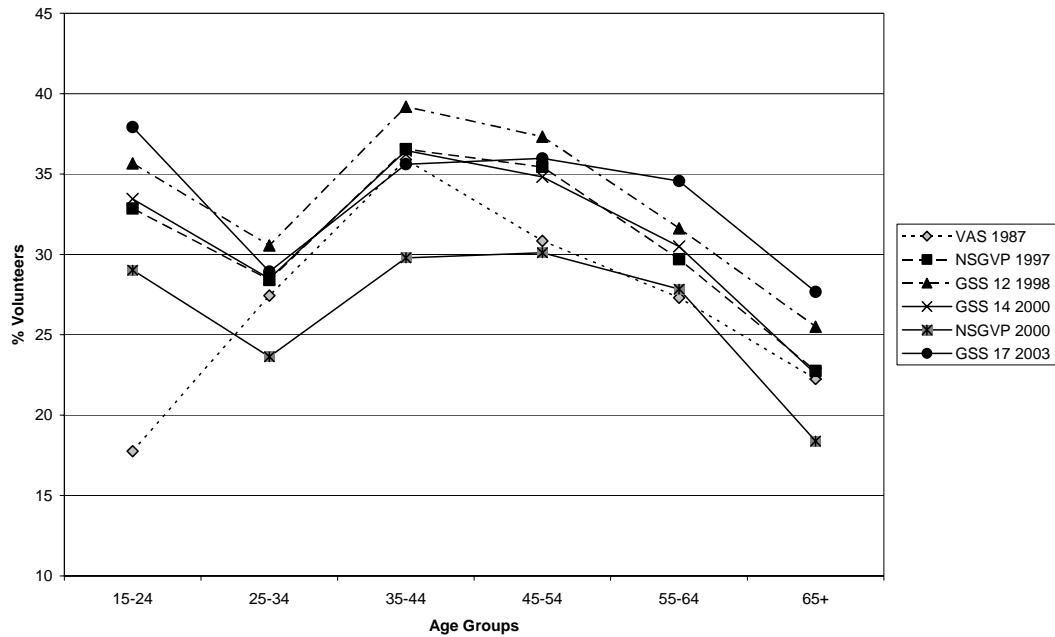
The incidence of volunteering in Canada appears to be flat; multiple analyses show no unequivocal evidence of any long-term trend up or down, nationally and regionally. In the sixteen years from 1987 to 2003, between one-quarter and one-third of adult Canadians served as volunteers for various nonprofit and charitable organizations. As Figure 1 shows, the level of participation has fluctuated over that period. The rate lay at 27% in 1987, 34% in 1998, and 27% again in 2000. It stood at 34% again in 2003, and 45% in the 2004 CSGVP. (We have noted in the report “An Assessment of Statistics Canada Surveys Concerned with Volunteering, Charitable Giving and Civic Participation, 1987-2004” a number of reasons why we believe the 2004 CSGVP rate to be an anomaly. We would also note that this rate includes the growing incidence of mandatory volunteering in schools; by the generally accepted definition of volunteering as freely-chosen action in support of nonprofit volunteer organizations, mandatory volunteering must be enumerated separately as a different type of volunteering from the “standard” kind). This suggests either that volunteering follows an up-and-down pattern over time, driven by changes in the supply of and demand for volunteers, or that there is a less explicable pattern of ‘variation about the mean’ which would lie at about 30%. But

one of our studies, done in 2000 and based on re-interviewing a subsample of 350 1997 NSGVP respondents, showed a “quit” rate (ending of volunteering) of 18% and a “start” rate of 11%, giving a net loss of 7% over a 2½-3 year period.



Changes in the level of volunteering are fairly evenly spread across the full span of volunteer types. When we plot the level of volunteering across regions for each of the survey data sources we have available, the profiles for the six surveys tend to be similar, except for the regional differences in volunteering. (The one minor exception is in B.C., where the levels of volunteering across the six surveys do show a slightly greater spread over time (between 26% and 39%) than do other regions.)

Figure 2 Volunteering Across the Life Cycle, 1987 to 2003



An even more strongly consistent pattern is evident when we examine the patterns of volunteering over the life cycle. We know from studies in other countries that participation in volunteering follows a pattern that is closely tied to specific stages in the life cycle. The data for Canada reflect this same life cycle pattern and do so consistently over time, even though the absolute magnitude level of volunteering varies from one time period to the next. Volunteering is high among the youngest adults (age 15 to 24), when participation in school activities and various youth-oriented organizations provides the context for many to participate as volunteers. When young adults start families and careers during the 25 to 34 year age period, the level of participation declines quite significantly as time and energy are devoted more to personal circumstances than to circumstances in their wider social milieu. Of particular importance as this stage is the presence of pre-school children in the home, a factor that has repeatedly been shown to reduce the chances an individual will participate as a volunteer.

Among the next two age groups in the life cycle pattern (age 35 to 44 and 45 to 54), volunteering rates are sharply higher, often the highest point in the life span. At

these ages, careers have stabilized in some measure, families are well established, and children are growing beyond infancy and entering school. At this stage in the life cycle, two elements converge: parents probably have more time for, and interest in, being involved in organizations that reflect their own interests, while at the same time, their children are becoming involved in child-oriented organizations that often require parental participation as volunteers.

After age 55, volunteering moves into steady decline. At this stage in life, the influence of children's involvement in organizations wanes and outside interests probably become narrower. Some evidence from studies of organizational membership across the life cycle suggest that where middle-aged individuals (aged 35 to 54) tend to belong to several organizations simultaneously, although for relatively shorter time spans, older individuals tend to belong to fewer organizations but for longer time spans. This could reduce the amount of volunteering older individuals undertake. At the same time, careers are beginning to wind down, retirement looms or has actually begun, and participation in work-related organizations and perhaps even in personal interest or recreational kinds of organizations may be declining. Although the data we've examined do not provide evidence to support the contention, but it may also be the case that once retired, when both raising children and the work world are no longer major parts of an individual's life, there is a distinct shift in interests, pursuits and preoccupations that result in less participation in nonprofit organizations, perhaps because of more emphasis on personal retirement activities. In addition, these are also the ages when physical limitations can increasingly play a role in restricting the range of activities individuals can and want to participate in.

Thus while the incidence of volunteering shows short-run variation, the overall the pattern of volunteering, whether viewed across regions or across age groups, shows variation only within a narrow range — it remains relatively consistent from year to year. Whether this pattern holds true beyond the 1987-2003 period will remain for future surveys to document.

2. Amounts of time volunteered show fluctuations without clear long-term change — yet.

The average hours volunteered per volunteer also show no consistent long-term trend. Instead, average hours change with changes in rates of volunteering but in the opposite direction. When rates of volunteering rose from 27% in 1987 to 31% in 1997, average annual hours declined from 171 to 149 per volunteer. When rates fell again to 27% in 2000, average hours per volunteer rose to 162 annually.* This pattern may indicate that as the supply of volunteers rises, all volunteers tend to reduce the hours they work. Then when the supply declines, all volunteers tend to increase their hours. However, there is another explanation for the trend in hours volunteered that may be more consistent with the apparent tendency for the rate of volunteering to fluctuate around a mean level in the longer term. A large component of the fluctuations will be individuals who volunteer for relatively short duration (weeks or months rather than years) and who work relatively few hours when they do volunteer. Combined with a cadre of volunteers who are active over the long-term and work more hours consistently over time, this would produce the observed pattern over time of average hours volunteered. An influx of short-term volunteers will cause the rate of volunteering to rise but at the same time, the low hours they volunteer reduce the overall annual average hours. When the short-term volunteers leave the volunteer labour force, rates fall but hours rise because the long-term, higher-hours volunteers represent a larger proportion of the volunteer labour force. Thus the trend over time for average hours volunteered may be due more to the ebb and flow of short-term low-hour volunteers than to real changes in the amounts of time individual volunteers devote to volunteering. There is, however, one long-term trend in hours volunteered that may be cause for concern. The 2003 General Social Survey's Cycle 17 provides information on the proportion of volunteers who worked various amounts of time each month in the previous

* In 2004, the CSGVP reported that while the volunteering rate was 45% of the adult population, and mean hours per volunteer remained steady at about 165, the median hours volunteered annually per volunteer fell from 72 in 2000 to 61 in 2004.

year. When annual hours from the other surveys are converted to a similar metric, the data show that the proportion of volunteers in the highest category — those who volunteered two days per month or more — declined fairly steadily from 29% in 1987 to a low of 22% in 2003. This may indicate a long-term trend where the pool of committed long-term volunteers is slowly being replaced by individuals whose attachment to volunteering is more short-term, episodic, and involving fewer hours of volunteer activity each year.

3. Volunteering is not a homogeneous phenomenon.

It is conventional to think and speak of volunteering and the voluntary sector as unitary, homogeneous phenomena. They are not, in a great many respects. Volunteering varies significantly across geographic and sociodemographic dimensions, perhaps most of all among regions and provinces. The national rate of volunteering obscures extensive provincial and regional variation, which had a span between a low of 19% in Quebec in 2000 and a high of 42% in Saskatchewan.

As with the incidence of volunteering, the amount of time volunteered also varies greatly across regions, from lows of 139 hours in Alberta, 154 in Saskatchewan and 159 in Quebec to a high of 206 hours in Newfoundland. These regional differences have had a generally stable rank order for at least the past several decades.

The relative standings of provinces, whether in terms of rates or levels, change little over time. Given the extent of interprovincial differences, for all intents and purposes, the national rate is an artifact that conveys only modestly useful information, given that intra-country variation is significantly greater than some inter-country variation.

4. Distinguishing characteristics of active volunteers.

One of the basic goals of our research was to identify the characteristics that distinguish between those who had volunteered significant time during the preceding twelve months from those who had not. To this end, we examined multivariate models of the likelihood of volunteering that contained a broad range of social and demographic factors associated volunteering. Since these models were not meant to identify the causes of volunteering but rather to identify as many of the distinguishing characteristics as possible, they include a variety of factors, both causes and correlates of volunteering. To sharpen the contrast between the two groups, we focused on active volunteers — those whose annual volunteer hours were at or above the national median of 66 hours. The correlates of active volunteers, grouped in clusters of descending importance, include:

(i) Forms and aspects of giving and caring:

- civic participation
- informal helping
- giving decile
- social participation
- informal giving
- planned giving
- secular giving

(ii) Household characteristics

- children ages 6 to 17 present
- marital status: married

(iii) Religion-related factors

- religious affiliation and frequency of attendance
- level of religious donations

(iv) Education

(v) Occupation

- occupation
- hours worked per week

(vi) Early life experiences

- student government participation
- religious youth group participation
- volunteering as a youth
- having positive volunteer role model(s)
- youth sports team membership

(vii) Self-evaluation of life situation

- positive satisfaction
- positive health status
- positive control in life

(viii) Motivation

- feeling re: owing the community
- having personal interest

The mix of these factors that identify volunteers varies by region and community size, suggesting that there are slightly different social dynamics in different contexts that foster and sustain volunteering.

While the descriptive or correlational model of volunteering sought to identify any and all characteristics associated with being a volunteer, we also constructed models that included only characteristics that were theorized to be causes of volunteering. In addition, our analysis focused not just on active volunteers, but on

all volunteers, ages 18 or older. A wide range of factors were found to affect the likelihood of being a volunteer:

A. Continuous Interval-Scale Predictors

(i) strong positive effect variables

- age
- civic participation
- informal direct helping

(ii) moderate positive effect variables

- religious attendance
- youth experiences, including volunteering, canvassing, helped by others, role models and parents who volunteered
- satisfaction with life
- level of education

(iii) weak positive effect variables

- household income
- hours of paid work
- voting behaviour
- years resident in the community
- children ages 6 to 12 in the household

(iv) weak negative effect variables

- children ages 0-5 in the household
- children ages 18+ in the household

B. Categorical Nominal Scale Predictors

There are two social category variables, region and religion, that exert considerable impact the effects of the continuous predictors (interaction effects) on the likelihood of being a volunteer:

- (i) The likelihood of being a volunteer is higher in the Prairie provinces than elsewhere in Canada.
- (ii) The impact of civic participation is higher for people of “Other” religions than among Catholics, Protestants or those with no affiliation.
- (iii) The positive effect of attending religious services is stronger among Protestants than all other religious affiliations.
- (iv) The positive effect of education is weaker among Catholics than all other affiliations.

There are also a number of factors that have essentially no effect on being a volunteer, including:

- gender
- marital status
- immigrant status
- ethnicity
- religiosity
- children ages 13-17 in the home

These findings support the hypothesis that the probability of volunteering can be explained in significant measure by the particular set of social resources an individual possesses; this will be discussed further below.

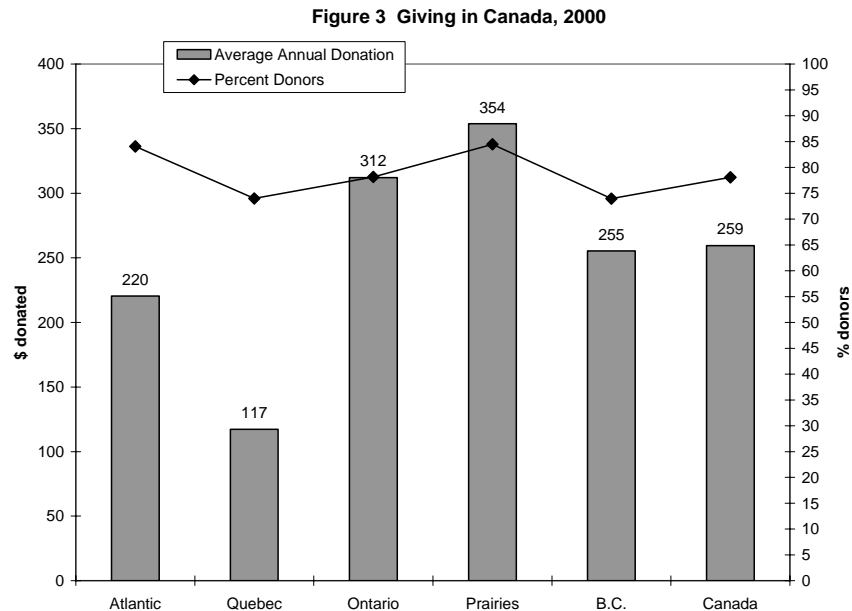
5a. According to some surveys, the incidence of giving appears to be rising; according to others, it is in long-term decline. These seeming contradictions can

be traced to differences among data sources (SHS; NSGVP; income tax returns), types of giving (religious; secular) and types of givers (incidental; committed).

Unlike the data for volunteering in Canada where we have six national surveys that independently yet by and large comparably assess the levels of participation, only the 1997 and 2000 NSGVP and 2004 CSGVP surveys assess in detail the nature of charitable giving by individuals, distantly followed (in terms of detail) by the Survey of Household Spending. Some information on the proportion of Canadians who made donations is also available from the 2003 General Social Survey, but only the three NSGVP/CSGVP surveys contain information on the amount of money individuals donate to identifiable charities and nonprofit organizations.

Charitable giving in Canada is extensive; in both 1997 and 2000, 78% of Canadians ages 15 and older made at least one donation during the year. Giving rates in 2000 were highest in the Prairie and Atlantic provinces where about 84% of the population made charitable donations. Giving was least extensive in Quebec and B.C. where 74% made a contribution. On average, donors gave a total of \$259 to charities and nonprofits in 2000, an increase of \$20 over 1997. Annual amounts given were highest in the Prairie provinces (\$354) and lowest in Quebec (\$117).

The Survey of Household Spending generates arguably the most reliable data on aggregate household gift and charitable giving but provides very few data on the sociodemographic traits of those households. Income tax returns also provide data on receipted charitable giving but by only about 25% of tax filers, again with few accompanying social characteristics.



The most recent data on charitable giving in the 2004 CSGVP show large changes from earlier surveys. The incidence of giving was stable at 78% in 1997 and 2000, while the average donation rose from \$239 to \$259 per donor. In 2004 the incidence hit 85% with the average (mean) donation at \$407 per donor. Even more dramatic was the increase in total dollars donated, which rose from \$4.4 billion to \$4.9 billion between 1997 and 2000, then almost doubled to \$8.6 billion in 2004. The sizable changes indicated by the 2004 figures probably have more to do with changes in the design of the CSGVP than any real change in charitable giving in the Canadian population as a whole. The 1997 and 2000 NSGVP were supplements to the ongoing Labour Force Survey with sample sizes of approximately 18,000 and 15,000 respondents respectively. The 2004 CSGVP was a stand-alone survey with a sample size of 22,000 respondents. A significant consequence of the increased sample size was more accurate data on both household income and charitable giving at the high end of the donor distribution, resulting in higher average donations and much higher total dollars donated. For example, the highest household income was \$500,000 in the 2000 sample, and four times higher at

\$2,000,000 in 2004; the largest donation in the 2000 sample was \$33,500, while in 2004 it was \$98,000. The larger 2004 sample clearly provided much improved coverage of individuals at the high end of the donor distribution and the household income distribution, which would push up the average and total giving statistics for 2004.

5b. Generosity levels and trends among Canadian households that have been tracked since 1969 in the Statistics Canada Survey of Household Spending show a different picture from that of the NSGVP.

Analysis spanning more than three decades reveals that

- The proportion of households annually reporting giving money gifts and charitable donations rose from 90% in 1969 to a high of 92% in 1982, and thereafter declined steadily to 75% in 2004
- The value of all giving rose from 2.1% to 3.4% of disposable income in 1996.
- The proportion of households making contributions to charities fell from 78% in 1969 to 68% in 2004. This decline was substantially due to a large drop in giving to religious organizations.
- As a proportion of disposable income, giving was highest in B.C. and the Prairie provinces, and lowest in Quebec; overall, this figure has been flat for 3 decades.
- Among households reporting giving (money) gifts and donations in 1996, the lowest income quintile spent an average of 6.8% of disposable income; the highest quintile spent 4.5%. In 2003, the figure was 3.5% for both top and bottom quintiles.

- Thus, over more than 3 decades, total giving (i.e., gifts plus donations) as a proportion of disposable income has been on the rise, but this is due entirely to an increase in money gifts given directly to persons outside the household; the proportion of total giving going to charitable contributions has dropped from 61% in 1969 to 34% in 2004.
- Income tax return-based statistics show that the proportion of tax filers reporting charitable donations has fallen over the past decade from above 30% to 25% currently.

5c. Distinguishing characteristics of above-the-median charitable donors.

Although charitable giving is widespread in Canada, a large proportion of donors actually give very small dollar amounts each year. In 2000, for example, 50% of donors gave \$72 or less over a 12-month span, and the figure in 2004 was slightly above \$100. In order to identify the factors associated with more substantial levels of giving, we compared high-level givers, *viz.*, those who gave more than the median of \$73, to those who were nongivers. Some of the detailed findings are outlined below.

Continuous Predictors (Interval Scale):

(i) Strong effect variables

- engaging in informal helping
- household income
- frequency of religious attendance
- age

(ii) Weaker effect variables

- civic participation
- education

- children 6 to 12 in household
- following current events

All these have positive effects on the likelihood of being a high-level giver.

There are also two effects which show that

- the positive effect of income gets smaller as years of residence in community increases: among those who have lived in a community only a short time, income has a stronger effect on the probability of being a high-level giver than among those who have lived there longer. This may occur because the longer a person lives in a community, the more involved they become and the greater the incentive to give, regardless of income.
- the effect of religious attendance gets smaller as life satisfaction rises. Among those with self-assessed less than satisfactory lives, involvement in a religious community or congregation has a larger impact on being a high-level giver than it does among those who are more satisfied with their lives. In other words, religious participation increases the likelihood of high level giving more strongly among the less satisfied than among the more satisfied. If religious participation encourages an outward-looking concern for others, and low satisfaction implies inward-looking concern for oneself, then religious attendance will move the unsatisfied toward high-level giving to a greater degree than it will move the clearly satisfied, less inwardly-focused individuals.

Categorical Predictors

A number of categorical variables define social groups across which the average probability of being a high-level giver varies. Of principal importance are religion, region, and gender. In combination with factors such as youth experiences,

ethnicity, occupation and years of residence, these factors produce specific social categories for whom the probability of being a high level giver differs from other Canadians.

Other Findings:

- Having been in a youth group in their early years increases the likelihood that Catholics are high givers, while having been in a religious youth group does the same for those who currently profess no religious affiliation.
- Catholics of Canadian, French or other ethnicity are less likely to be high givers than Catholics who are of British extraction or those of all other religions regardless of ethnicity.
- Catholics with blue collar occupations are less likely to be high-level givers than are Catholics in all other occupational categories and all other religions in all occupations.
- Despite the points above, Catholics in the Prairie provinces are more likely to be high-level givers compared to other religious groups on the Prairies, and compared to all religious groups elsewhere in Canada.
- White collar workers tend not to be high-level givers relative to other occupational groups, but this is less true of women in white collar occupations and women who are not in the labour force.
- Men and women are equally likely to be high givers, except in Quebec, where women are less likely to be high givers relative to men.
- In Quebec only, having lived in the community for a relatively higher number of years increases the likelihood of being a high-level giver.

- And finally, participation in civic organizations tends to increase the probability of high-level giving among managers, and among those who are not in the labour force.

There are three other categorical variables that increase the likelihood a person is a giver:

- being a volunteer currently
- having had a positive volunteering role model as a youth
- having had parents who were volunteers

Variables that do not affect giving include:

- religiosity
- social participation/interaction with family and friends
- control in life
- health status
- immigrant status
- marital status
- voting behaviour

The logistic model in total accounts for 61% of the variation in the probability of being a high-level giver. The continuous predictor variables account for 85% of this explained variation, while the categorical predictors account for the remaining 15%.

5d. Patterns of giving to different types of organizations.

In the NSGVP surveys, the wide range of nonprofit and charitable organizations that receive donations from the public are grouped into twelve broad types based on

the International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations (ICNPO) developed by the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project. Some of the pertinent characteristics of organizations which receive charitable donations can be summarized thus:

- A majority of donors (69%) make at least one donation annually to health-related organizations. This is followed successively by social service (48%), religious (41%), education and research (24%), philanthropic intermediary (18%), and culture and recreation (17%) organizations.
- The remaining six types of organizations all receive donations from 7% or fewer of donors.
- The amount of money donated to each type of organization does not quite follow the pattern above. Religious organizations, which rank third in the percentage of donors, received almost half (49%) of all monies donated in 2000, amounting to 2.4 billion dollars.
- The other types of organizations received substantially smaller proportions of total dollars donated. Health organizations received 20%, social services 10%, and philanthropic intermediaries 7%. The remaining 8 types of organizations combined received about 14% of all dollars donated, with no one type receiving more than 3.4%.

5e. Religious giving is the dominant form of giving in Canada.

Although Canadians make substantial contributions to a wide variety of nonprofit and charitable organizations, a very large share of total giving, both in terms of the number of donors, the proportion of donations, and of dollars donated, goes to religious organizations. In fact, 41% of donors gave money to a religious organization. This is the third highest proportion, after health and social service organizations (69% and 48% of donors respectively). More indicative of the centrality of religious giving in Canada, however, is the fact that religious organizations received half (49%) of all the money donated to all organizations in

2000 (51% in 1997). In response to the marked role of religious giving in Canada, we have examined the character of this phenomenon in some depth. In particular, we examined the characteristics that predict (i) the likelihood of making any donation to a religious organization, (ii) the amount of money actually donated to such organization, and (iii) the proportion of each person's total charitable giving that went to religious organizations. The important points of these analyses can be summarized thus:

(i) the Religious Giver (predicting who makes donations to religious organizations):

- is more likely in Atlantic and Quebec vs. Prairies and Ontario, less likely in B.C.
- increases with church attendance and religiosity
- increases with income
- increases with civic participation (organization membership or participation)
- is not tied to a particular religious affiliation
- does not depend on gender or marital status

(ii) the proportion of donated dollars that go to religious organizations:

- increases with church attendance, with a smaller effect for religiosity
- increases with age (especially at older ages)
- increases with civic participation
- is highest among conservative Protestants, followed by mainstream Protestants, and in turn by Catholics and Other Religions, and lastly, no religious affiliation
- income, gender, immigrant status are not important determinants of religious giving

The amounts of money donated to religious organizations increase with

- church attendance, and to a lesser extent with religiosity
- household income
- civic participation
- education
- religion: Conservative Protestants give more than all other religions, and mainstream Protestants give more than Catholics and other religions
- volunteering

Traits that have little effect on the amount of money donated to religious organizations are:

- gender
- marital status
- age
- ethnicity
- occupation
- most youth experiences except youth religious group

5f. Planned giving: committed and high-level givers.

Charitable giving is a phenomenon made up of several very different components, dominated by planned giving.

- The population of charitable givers comprises three distinct groups. Half are incidental givers (those giving below the median, currently slightly more than \$100 annually) who account for about 5% of total dollars donated. The other 95% of charitable dollars are donated by two distinct types: committed givers who give a significant amount in repeated donations throughout the year (most often to their place

of worship), and high-level givers who make one or several donations of very large amounts. This latter group in 2004 accounted for about 7% of all donors but 54% of all funds donated. A common element in the giving by these latter two groups is intentionality and planning. In other words, not surprisingly, planned givers donate far more in the course of a year than do incidental givers.

- Religious donors — individuals who give at least 50% of their charitable dollars to religious organizations — constitute 25% of donors but account for 47% of all dollars donated. Their average annual giving totals \$750, compared with non-religious donors' average of \$218.
- High-level donors — those comprising the top 5% — account for 43% of all donated dollars; 54% of their donated dollars go to religious organizations, while the bottom half (45%) of all donors give only 17% to religious organizations. In interesting contrast, the bottom half give 41% to health organizations relative to the top 5% giving only 11% to health organizations. This pattern is likely due to incidental givers responding to the extensive and popular fundraising activity of health organizations (large-prize draws, in addition to canvassing), which planned givers do not favour.
- People who make bequests, about 4% of the adult population, contribute three times more annually to charities than those who do not make bequests — \$1200 versus \$369.
- Planned givers were distinguished by (in descending order) being older, better educated, years residing in their current home, and a higher incidence of voting; the odds of being a planned giver are highest among conservative Protestants. Planned givers did not differ in terms of their household income, gender, church attendance frequency, ethnicity, or early life experiences.

- Total dollars given to charitable organizations annually has been rising significantly in recent years, reaching about \$8½ billion in 2004. The increasing level of donated funds can be attributed in part to the growing number of charities and the expanding use of fundraising technology (the number of donations totalled 95 million in 2004) and in part to revised income tax regulations permitting the tax-advantageous donating of stocks and bonds.

6. The extent and distribution of civic and social participating.

In addition to volunteering and charitable giving, individuals also contribute to the welfare of their communities and to society more generally is through participation in community affairs. This includes but is not limited to participation or membership in organizations of many kinds (civic participation), ongoing interaction with family, friends and neighbours (social participation), and voting in federal, provincial and municipal elections (one form of political participation). We found that:

- Civic participation was stable at 50% of the adult population in 1997 and 2000.
- Civic participation is highest in the Prairie provinces (Saskatchewan in particular, 60%) and is uniquely low in Quebec (43%)
- The low rates in Quebec are largely due to relatively low rates of participation among francophones (32%), and in particular, very low participation in religious organizations (4%)
- The pattern in Quebec suggests a civic infrastructure that is no longer buoyed by extensive religious participation, particularly among young francophones
- Elsewhere in Canada, civic participation is highest among those over 45 years, of age, higher education, and upper level occupations.

- Participation was highest, about 20%, in work-related organizations such as unions and professional associations.
- These were followed by participation in sport and recreation organizations (18%) and religious organizations (13%).
- Participation was lowest in political organizations (3%).
- As with civic participation, the average level of reported social participation was lowest in Quebec and highest in the Prairie provinces.
- In 1997, 81% of Canadians had voted in at least one of the most recent federal, provincial or municipal elections. By 2000, this had fallen to only 75% of the voting-aged population.

7. There are significant variations in contributory behaviours across the spectrum or hierarchy of occupational categories.

- Occupations at the top of the hierarchy are more likely to donate, and donate more money. They also donate a larger proportion of household income than white and blue collar workers.
- Professionals and upper-level managers tend to donate regularly to particular organizations, while white and blue collar workers show greater variety in the organizations they support.
- As well, people in occupations at the top of the hierarchy are generally more likely to volunteer than those at the bottom. The one exception is professionals in the physical and applied sciences who volunteer at the same rate as white and blue collar workers.
- Managers and blue collar workers tend to volunteer for culture and recreation organizations, while professionals tend to volunteer for education and research organizations.

- Across all occupation groups, the hours devoted to volunteering are much the same.
- There are also significant variations in the contributory behaviours of people of different religious persuasion, with highest levels exhibited by conservative Protestants followed successively by mainstream Protestants, Roman Catholics, Other Religion, and No Religion. It is conjectured that this pattern is rooted in worldview differences that are part of the core assumptions and creed or theology of each religion.

8. Patterns of volunteering and giving appear at first glance to be different for foreign-born Canadians relative to native-born, but when duration of life lived in Canada and mode of contributing are taken into account, the differences largely disappear.

- Relatively recent immigrants to Canada are slightly less likely to participate in formal contributory behaviours like giving or volunteering.
- Participation among established (longer duration-of-residence) immigrants is substantially higher than those who are new to Canada.
- As with native-born Canadians, greater participation is seen among immigrants with high education, occupations and income.
- When formal and direct forms of helping and giving are combined, participation by immigrants is essentially the same as for native-born Canadians.

9. Our researches have multiple strands that when considered together suggest that a single broad dynamic of contributing and engagement underlies multiple types of contributory behaviour. To a significant extent, the same

factors or variables that account for one type of contributory behaviour also account for other types in regression models, with the main difference between types of contributory behaviours being the relative importance of some of these factors

Broadly, the factors that affect contributory behaviours can be grouped into those that have strong effects (the principal cluster), those that have weaker though still significant effects (the secondary cluster), and those that have little or no impact.

Principal cluster: the variables that have strong effects on both volunteering and giving are:

- civic participation
- religious affiliation and religious attendance
- household income, education and occupation
- the respondent's age and the presence of children ages 6 to 17 in the household
- other forms of contributory behaviour
- positive experience of, or exposure to, civic engagement as a youth

Secondary cluster: the variables that have some, but less, impact on volunteering and giving are:

- region and community size
- gender and ethnicity
- years of residence in the community
- satisfaction with life and following the news

The variables that had no significant effect on either volunteering or giving comprise:

- religiosity (how strongly religious respondent considers self)
- immigrant status (i.e., foreign-born)
- social participation
- health status and marital status

10. There is a modest portion of Canada's adult population that engages in significant and disproportionate amounts of two, or all three, of giving, volunteering, and participating — the civic core of Canadian society.

- In 2000, 5.4% of Canadians accounted for 67% of hours volunteered, 9.5% accounted for 67% of all dollars donated to charities, and 21% accounted for 65% of civic organization participation.
- Taken together as the full core, these individuals represent 29% of Canadians and account for 85% of hours volunteered, 78% of dollars donated, and 71% of civic participation.

An even smaller group of Canadians are those who are active in two or more of these areas. This primary core represents 6% of Canadians who account for 42% of all hours volunteered, 35% of dollars donated, and 20% of civic participation.

The small size of the primary core, or even the core group as a whole, challenges the image of giving, volunteering, and civic participation as widely practiced in Canadian society.

Nationally, the primary civic core showed measurable shrinkage between 1997 and 2000, according to NSGVP data.

11. There is a syndrome, or complex of traits, that characterizes people who are within the civic core. Some of the more important features of this syndrome are:

- high occupational status
- high education
- high income
- strong religious orientation
- multiple forms of direct personal generosity and caring
- embrace values of support for the common good
- commitment to their communities

12. The size of the primary civic core varies widely across provincial boundaries, from the largest, at 13%, in Saskatchewan to the smallest, at 5%, in Quebec. In other words, contributory behaviours are much more polarized, or concentrated within a small portion of the population, in Quebec than elsewhere.

13a. Citizens can contribute money or time and effort to others through a charitable or nonprofit organization or may make their contribution directly or personally to an individual or family or group. The findings cited up to this point apply to formal giving and helping via organizations. Although a relatively low proportion of Canadians act as volunteers formally through organizations each year (27% in 2000), a substantially larger proportion (77%) provide assistance directly to relatives, friends and neighbours without being affiliated with a formal group or organization. Several aspects of the pattern of direct helping, outlined below, are notably different from those of formal volunteering.

- Where Quebec has considerably lower rates of formal volunteering compared to all other regions in Canada, the level of direct helping is on a par with B.C., and is actually higher than in Ontario.

- Quebec has the highest proportion of the population who engage only in direct helping.
- The Prairies have the highest rates of both formal volunteering and direct helping.
- Ontario has an average level of volunteering and the lowest level of direct helping in 2000.

These patterns suggest that there are distinct regional styles of helping and giving to others, and these various ways of providing assistance need to be considered when examining the totality of contributory behaviour in Canada.

13b. A similar situation exists when we consider formal and informal means of making charitable donations. When both methods of giving are examined, the regional differences in giving essentially disappear — about 91% of Canadians make formal or informal donations. But again, there are regional variations that point to different styles of giving.

- Individuals in Ontario show a preference for formal means of giving.
- Individuals in the Atlantic Provinces show no preference for one method over the other.
- Individuals in Quebec and B.C. show a preference for giving through informal methods.

While regional and community differences in the incidence of volunteering and giving are considerably reduced when the sum of formal and informal modes is examined, differences in the mix, or composition, of total caring and contributing remain. Our analyses have shown that for both volunteering and charitable giving,

people in the Prairie region exhibit a relative preference for the formal mode while in Quebec there was a relative preference for the informal mode. In B.C., the latter was true for giving but not volunteering, and individuals in the Atlantic provinces show almost no preference for either mode of giving. When we examine the effects of community size, we find that there may be a slight preference for informal giving, but not informal volunteering, in large urban centres.

14. Beyond regionally distinctive styles of contributory behaviour, persistent differences in the composition of contributory behaviours points to the existence of “styles” in the form of identifiable, enduring combinations of elements, some more clearly evident and distinctive than others, associated with key social variables of gender, age, language and socioeconomic status.

Women who volunteer favour health, social service and religious organizations while men favor sports and recreation organizations; women favour tasks involving social contact and caregiving such as helping the sick, while men favour tasks involving physical and skill-using activity such as volunteer firefighting or coaching. Younger adults favour sports and recreation organizations for volunteering while older adults favour community service organizations; upper-SES volunteers are inclined to decision-making and managing functions as volunteers while lower-SES volunteers gravitate to more basic support activities such as canvassing. And Francophones, who have a high probability of being Catholic, favour informal giving and caring and disfavour volunteering for religious organizations, a style that is the opposite of Anglophone Protestants.

15. Early life experiences are among the most powerful formative influences on contributory behaviours.

In our separate analyses of various aspects of contributory behaviour (volunteering, giving, civic participation), we sought to identify the social and demographic characteristics that distinguish active participants from non-participants. In doing so we repeatedly found that variables reflecting the early life experience with social

and civic engagement were strong predictors of various forms of adult contributory behaviour. A systematic examination of the role of early life experiences in this regard clarifies some of the connections. Some of the more important findings were:

- individuals with any of nine types of early life experience were almost twice as likely to volunteer as adults compared with those with no experience
- average hours volunteered are significantly higher for those having some form of early life experience, with involvement in student government or youth religious groups having the strongest effects
- having early life experiences involving helping and participating significantly increase the chances of making charitable donations as adults
- the wider the range of early life experience, the higher the level of civic participation later in life
- multivariate analysis shows that even when controls are introduced for socio-demographic characteristics, most early life experiences retain their direct positive effects on giving and volunteering. Thus the effects of early experiences do not arise simply because they are more or less prevalent among different social groups in Canada but because they actually predispose individuals to greater participation as donors and volunteers.
- It is clear from this research that an effective way to enhance civic engagement among adults is to promote their exposure to giving and volunteering and their participation in organizations when they are young. The exposure to, and experience of contributory behaviour as children has long-lasting effects through adulthood.

16. Why they do it: reasons and motives for volunteering and giving (or not) are not yet being measured adequately in our national surveys.

In the search for the factors and dynamics that generate contributory behaviour, interest in “motives” and “reasons” has long been central. The question of why people volunteer or donate to charities is obviously important for organizations and organizers in the voluntary sector since both activities are central to their ability to provide the goods and services that are their purpose. The question is also of general interest to social science since both behaviours reflect, in a very specific way, an individual's values and connection to their social milieu. Some of the pertinent findings about why people volunteer or donate to charities, as well as why they do not volunteer or donate, are these:

- Among the seven reasons for volunteering that respondents in the NSGVP survey could choose from, one was cited universally (“belief in the cause espoused by the voluntary organization” — 96%) and based on discontinuities in the distribution of prevalence, the other reasons lay in two clusters. The first consisted of “using skills and experience” (78%), “personally affected” (67%), and “explore own strengths” (54%); the second consisted of “fulfilling religious obligation” (29%), “having friends who were volunteers” (25%), and “enhancing job opportunities” (22%). There did not appear to be much substantive commonality among the reasons within each of the clusters. The extremely high response levels to the top three indicate that they fail to discriminate and likely do not carry sufficiently specific meaning.
- Only one dimension stood out in the full set of reasons: an instrumental self-orientation (“using own skills”, “exploring own strengths”, “improving job opportunities”) versus an other-directed orientation (“helping a cause”, “personal experience”, “for religious beliefs”).

- Of all the correlates of the reasons given for volunteering, age was the most prevalent differentiating trait: instrumental and self-oriented reasons were most often cited by younger people, and other-oriented and religious belief reasons were most often cited by older volunteers. Religious affiliation had only a modest effect, with conservative Protestants most likely to say they volunteered for religious reasons and/or because they were personally affected.
- Reasons for not volunteering were much simpler: “not having the time” and an “unwillingness to commit” were clearly dominant. It is significant that there was no apparent substitutability or buyoff phenomenon among volunteers.
- The several correlates of not volunteering included (i) distinctive response patterns among Quebeckers, who cited “not being asked” and “not knowing how to volunteer” with lower than average frequency and citing “financial cost”, “having no interest”, and “being unwilling to make a commitment” with above-average frequency; and (ii) older individuals citing health problems and a variety of reasons having to do with social withdrawal or feeling they had completed their time of responsibility to society.
- The principal reasons for giving to charitable organizations were “compassion for people in need” and “believing in the organization’s cause”. Only one person in nine said they made their donations with the intention of benefiting from the tax credit. More than half of all respondents cited 4 reasons or more for their charitable giving, indicating a somewhat more multifaceted motivational base than for volunteering.
- Among the correlates of charitable giving, these stood out: Protestant religious affiliation, engaging in planned or intentional giving, age, and

involvement as a youth in volunteers activities. Once again, Quebec residents showed a distinctly different pattern of features.

- The reasons non-givers offered for not making charitable donations fell into two clusters: (i) “preferring to use their money in other ways” or “saving for their own needs”, or (ii) “uncertainty that charitable organizations would use their money prudently”. The latter was found disproportionately more among middle-aged and better-educated respondents.

The complexity of the patterns in the reasons for participating or not suggest that rather than assuming that contributory behaviour is the simplistic result of discrete “reasons” or motives, what is needed is a more thoroughgoing understanding of the full decision-making process, including ascertaining the extent and nature of explicit deliberation.

17. The social reasoning underlying contributory behaviours.

In response to some of the issues of heterogeneity, particularly in the reasons people gave for giving and volunteering (or not), we carried out a follow-up study using a subsample of 350 respondents from the 1997 NSGVP sample. These in-depth, open-ended interviews provided a much more detailed understanding of the context and motives that surround contributory behaviours.

Among volunteers, for example, we found a typology of volunteers based on “bundles” of social reasoning. The basic reasons are captured in the labels we applied, and were, in approximate descending order of prevalence,

- (i) fulfilling a personal interest (instrumentalists)
- (ii) helping others (altruists)
- (iii) issue-oriented for social change (idealists)

- (iv) supporting children's activities (families)
- (v) sociability (connectors)
- (vi) building community (supporters)

While many volunteers talk about a variety of reasons for volunteering, the majority of volunteers often offer several reasons, with one specified as the primary and others as secondary for their actions. Multiple reasons are tacked on and become part and parcel of the main one, or are entangled in the benefits people experience in the volunteer activity. We found a strong and fundamental pattern of reasons given in pairs with one related to self-interest and the other altruistic. It is not possible to say one predominates: they occur together coequally.

18. Non-contributors: traits of those who neither volunteer nor donate.

Most of our research focused on identifying the characteristics of those individuals who participate, either in general or actively, in various forms of contributory behaviour. In doing so, comparisons are drawn between these people and those who are either less active or who do not participate at all. However, in none of these do we explicitly focus on the relatively small proportion of Canadians who participate in neither of the major forms of contributing — volunteering and giving. These disengaged individuals make up 18% of the Canadian population aged 25 or older. Following are some of the more important attributes of this group:

- disengagement is lowest in the Prairie and Atlantic provinces relative to the rest of Canada
- disengagement rises monotonically as household income declines
- disengagement is highest among those with no religious affiliation, followed by Catholics, and lowest among Protestants

- it is higher among those at the bottom of the occupational status hierarchy than those at the top
- it is higher among those with non-British heritage

The research suggests that several factors combine to typify those who are disengaged. The principal ingredients are a lower level of economic resources and a particular worldview mediated by culture and religion.

19. Tax incentives have only modest effects on charitable giving for the majority of donors.

It is orthodoxy in the nonprofit sector that charitable giving is strongly responsive to tax incentives. While this is undoubtedly true for the extremely small number of Canadians who make large donations, it is less clear that tax incentives materially affect the contributory behaviour of the large majority of donors who give modest and intermediate amounts to charities. In 2000 for example, the average donor gave \$259 dollars to charity, which would have reduced their taxes only by about sixty-six dollars. Rather than simply accepting that tax policy has a major impact on giving, our research examined the intentions and behaviour of charitable givers with regard to tax relief for their donations. We summarize the main findings here:

- only 13% of respondents said they make donations because of the tax credit
- 41% of those who ostensibly donate because of the tax credit will not, in fact, be claiming their credit
- only 46% of donors were going to claim a tax credit
- while 49% said they would give more if there were a better tax credit, half of these people did not intend to claim their tax credit

- multivariate analyses of the connection between giving and tax policy indicate a high degree of heterogeneity in tax-receipted donative behaviour, with only a small proportion of donors being responsive to the incentive of lowered tax costs
- those whose giving is occasional, in response to solicitation, and modest in size, are least likely to respond to tax incentives
- at the other end of the spectrum is the small proportion of donors whose giving is planned, recurring, and in significant amounts will be most likely to respond to incentives.

20. There is a distinctive ethos associated with contributory behaviours.

The ethos — the ideals, values and beliefs — that are embraced by individuals who engage in such behaviours as volunteering and charitable giving constitutes an unmapped area in the study of contributory behaviour. Employing a national survey that contained a large number of questions on values, ideals, and beliefs, we compared the ethos of volunteers to non-volunteers and givers to non-givers. The findings indicate that a significant proportion of volunteers and some givers do exhibit a distinct ethos.

It is those who practise each form of contributory behaviour with considerable frequency, and therefore probably commitment, who are most strongly characterized by the ethos. Bringing together the findings from the analyses of both volunteering and giving, the components of this ethos can be identified. These, we would argue, reflect a coherent and interrelated set of values, ideals, perceptions and beliefs and thus constitute an ethos that is distinctive to active volunteers and givers. The elements in this ethos are:

- Recognition of the existence and importance of a civic or communal good of some kind.
- Belief that individuals have a responsibility to support and contribute to the common good, over and above the standard obligations of citizenship and regardless of the responsibilities regarding the common good that might be delegated to organizations or institutions such as governments or churches.
- A worldview that is notably (a) rather more universalistic or cosmopolitan than particularistic, (b) inclusive, (c) trusting, and (d) more prosocial than individualistic.
- A worldview that sees individuals and their social milieu as interconnected rather than separated.
- A basic belief in the importance, and the present existence, of social justice.

Our analysis indicates that (i) the full ethos of both volunteers and givers consists of both a limited set of strongly differentiating values and beliefs and a large number of mildly differentiating values, but that (ii) this ethos characterizes principally people who manifested a higher or more generalized level of prosociality. While little difference in values was found between volunteers and non-volunteers, or givers and non-givers, substantial differences were found between active (i.e., frequent) contributors (volunteers and givers) and non-contributors, and between formal and direct helping volunteers, and people who were neither. In addition, even when socio-demographic variables were accounted for in the logistic models, values continued to have clear and significant effects in differentiating contributors from non-contributors. Arguably, the presence of this ethos among individuals who are higher-frequency (i.e., more strongly committed) contributors and who also engage in direct personal acts of caring and helping is indicative of something more

than just prosociality; we believe the evidence points to a syndrome of generosity intermixed with civic engagement and concern for the common good.

21. The social dynamics that are associated with or give rise to contributory behaviours can be expressed in the form of a causal model in which the factors that affect volunteering or charitable giving can be organized into relevant groups as follows:

- Resources:
 - Economic resources:
 - household income
 - hourly earnings
 - hours worked per week

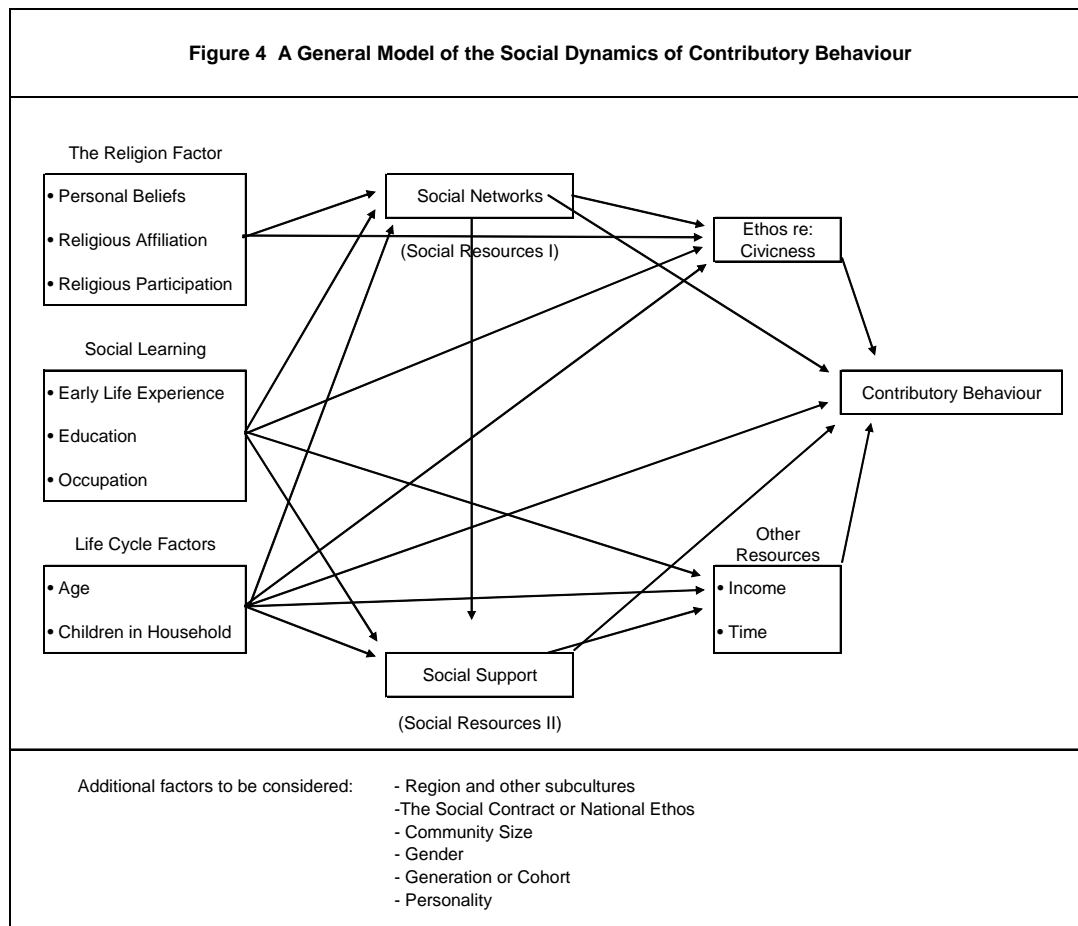
 - Human capital resources:
 - age
 - education
 - occupation
 - health

- Social connectivity resources:
 - social networks based on membership in organizations
 - social networks based on personal relations
 - religious affiliation and attendance
 - years resident in the community
 - family contributory and children in the household

- Socialization and social learning:
 - experience in organizations as a youth
 - exposure to role model as a youth

- Personality traits:
 - possessing an ethos that includes elements listed in #18 above
 - self-versus other-directed
 - satisfaction with life
 - source of control in life

In addition, the relative importance of these factors in promoting volunteering and giving tends to vary by gender, region and community size. In schematic form, the dynamics of contributory behaviour are set out in Figure 4.



22. More on heterogeneity in contributory behaviours.

Although a single, broadly-conceived dynamic underlies the types of contributory behaviour we have examined, there is evidence of more heterogeneity among both givers and volunteers than is generally assumed, and this has important consequences for understanding these types of behaviour. Of particular relevance is heterogeneity based on the types of nonprofit and voluntary organizations individuals support, either through giving or volunteering. These organizations differ in a number of ways but one significant dimension involves the span of benefit of the services an organization provides. On one side are organizations where the span of benefit is narrow and largely restricted to the members of the organization (member-benefit). On the other side are organizations where the span of benefit is broad and directed at an unrestricted clientele who are not necessarily members (client-benefit). Our research has shown important differences among givers and volunteers for these types of organizations.

Among volunteers, for example, we found that:

- people who volunteer for health organizations (typically client-benefit) differ significantly from those who volunteer for culture and recreation organizations (typically member-benefit)
- volunteers for health organizations are very much like those who volunteer for social service organizations (another client-benefit type)
- volunteers for health organizations are also much like volunteers for religious organizations, suggesting that health volunteers are a secular version of religious volunteers.

Among givers, heterogeneity is perhaps less pronounced than among volunteers, but the distinction between giving to member-benefit and client-benefit

organizations is also important, along with a third category of tithing in support of a religious organization.

Another source of heterogeneity is associated with different styles of contributory behaviour. For example, we repeatedly found evidence of regional differences based on a differential emphasis on helping others through formal organizations versus helping others through informal and direct action.

23. Social embeddedness, a concept newly developed in the NPS Knowledge Base Project, is an extremely strong correlate of contributory and civic behaviours.

We have formulated the concept and probed the phenomenon of social embeddedness as a measurable trait of individuals with considerable potential explanatory power; it comprises a number of dimensions, the four principal ones being (i) social connectivity (extent of relationships and interactions with specified types of individuals and organizations), (ii) social anchoring (extent of espousing basic beliefs and ideals, which are usually but not always religious, and co-celebration of those beliefs with like-minded individuals), and (iii) social continuity (measured by such things as duration of residence in current neighbourhood, length of time with current employer, and length of time with spouse or partner), and (iv) a sense of attachment or belonging to social units such as family and/or community.

Initial results from one line of research show that embeddedness plays a significant role in accounting for elevated levels of both self-evaluations of health and satisfaction with one's life. In another line of research, where variables representing embeddedness are combined with sociodemographic characteristics in multivariate models predicting various forms of contributory behaviours, the link with embeddedness is particularly strong:

- In a logistic regression model comparing volunteers and nonvolunteers (total explained variation = 23%), embeddedness accounts for more than half the variation explained by the model.
- In a model comparing non-givers to those who donate at or above the national average of \$259 (total explained variation = 73%), embeddedness accounts for 29% of the explained variation.
- In a model comparing those in the civic core to those outside the core (total explained variation = 30%), embeddedness accounts for 55% of this variation.
- In a model comparing those who participate in civic organizations to those who do not (total explained variation = 25%), embeddedness accounts for 59% of the explained variation.

These levels of explained variation are unusually high and indicate that social embeddedness may hold unusually high explanatory power.

24. Comparing countries in terms of giving and volunteering: the case of Canada and Australia.

A collaboration with Professor Mark Lyons of the University of Technology, Sydney, and the Australian Bureau of Statistics was undertaken to compare the characteristics of giving and volunteering in Canada and in Australia, two nations with comparable political and social structures.

Findings about giving using 1997 data for the two countries:

- the rate of giving is slightly higher in Canada (78%) than Australia (69%) but the size of annual donations is smaller (\$241 versus \$331)

- women are slightly more likely than men to donate in both countries
- people over 55 are more likely to donate in Canada than in Australia
- in Canada, people living outside big cities are more likely to donate than those in cities; the reverse is true in Australia.

Findings about volunteering using 2000 data for the two countries:

- the rate of volunteering is higher in Australia (32%) compared to Canada (26%), while hours volunteered are insignificantly higher in Canada at 165 versus 160 per year respectively
- in both countries, women are slightly more likely to volunteer than men
- in both countries the presence of school age children (5-17) in the home substantially increases the likelihood of volunteering
- in both countries, rates of volunteering rise steadily with education and household income
- the patterns of volunteering over stages of the lifecycle are virtually identical

Aside from a handful of minor differences, the patterns of volunteering and giving are remarkably similar in the two countries, but some important caveats must be noted.

All cross-national comparisons of social phenomena face a number of potential difficulties and this is especially the case when the comparison is based on quantitative data from national surveys. The problems range from minor issues such as differences in sample design and survey methodology, through more

important issues such as the equivalence of questions and classifications, and ultimately to intractable issues such as information that is not comparable or available in one country or the other, or to fundamental cultural differences in definitions, meanings, or interpretations.

The Canada-Australia comparison has encountered difficulties at all three levels. Among issues relating to sample design and survey methodology, some can be resolved, albeit with loss of information, while others cannot. The survey on volunteering in Australia, for example, covers individuals 18 years of age and older while the Canadian surveys include those aged 15 and older. Although comparable populations can be examined by limiting at the analysis stage the Canadian samples to those 18 and over, this excludes the volunteering behaviour of an age group in Canada that has the highest rate of volunteering (36% in 2000). In another instance, the Australian survey on charitable giving limits its question on giving to donations made in the last 3 months, while the Canadian question refers to the 12 months preceding the survey. As a consequence, it is impossible to generate truly reliable and comparable estimates of the dollar value of total annual charitable giving by individuals.

Issues involving the equivalence of survey questions and response classifications also exist. For example, the organizations for which Canadians volunteer or to which they make charitable donations are classified by type based on the International Classification of Non-Profit Organizations. The Australian surveys use a similar but not identical classification system. In consequence, comparisons across countries can be made only by substantially collapsing the classifications in both countries into a much smaller set of organizational categories, with a resulting loss of detailed information about the types of organizations individuals support in each country.

The most serious issue that arises in the Canada-Australia comparison is the absence of substantive information for one country or the other that is important for

understanding of the dynamics of contributory behaviour. One example of this is the absence of information on the religious affiliation of individuals in the Australian surveys. Given the central role of religion in differentiating and explaining contributory behaviours in Canada, the lack of this information in the Australian data severely limits our ability to account for differences between the two countries. In Australia, giving one's time to religious organizations is not considered volunteering.

These features of data from the two countries place limits in the comparisons that can be made; they do not entirely negate the benefits that can be gained from such comparisons but they do, however, reduce the level of usable detail that can be included in the comparison and ultimately constrain both the explanations and generalizations that the cross-national comparisons are intended to produce.

25. Public support for voluntary and charitable organizations and their activities shows signs of weakening.

- Income tax return-based statistics show that the proportion of tax filers reporting charitable donations has fallen over the past 15 years from above 30% to 25% currently.
- Between 1969 and 2004 the percentage of households making contributions to charities fell from 90% to 68%; most of this decline occurred during the 1990s.
- National surveys indicate Canadians' attitudes towards charitable organizations have shown a rise in levels of disaffection between 1997 and 2000; the proportion who "did not like the way requests for donations are made" rose from 39% to 44%; the number who felt "there are too many organizations soliciting support" rose from 62% to 64%; and the number

who felt that “charity and voluntary organizations improved their communities” declined from 94% to 91%.

- Other trends in charitable giving suggest a decline in public support between 1997 and 2000: the total number of annual donations fell by 5%; the number of annual donations per donor fell 8%; the median dollars donated fell 4%; and the rate of giving among university graduates, the most affluent portion of the population, fell 7%.
- The non-response rate to the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating rose from 22% in 1997 to 37% in 2000, and higher in 2004.

26. Design and content of surveys of giving, volunteering, and participating.

To date, the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating has gone through three iterations. While changes in question content and wording must be made judiciously to preserve continuity over time, there are areas of query that could be improved through revisions of the surveys’ design and content, such as the following:

- (i) Considerable information is collected on volunteers themselves, but not enough is collected about the organizations in which they volunteer. The lack of this information makes it difficult, for example, to distinguish volunteers for member-benefit versus external (client) benefit organizations, or to identify the span of benefit produced in the community by the organization.
- (ii) Information is required on the contributory behaviour of other household members, specifically spouses and partners, in order to identify patterns of household engagement that are complements to the behaviours of individual respondents in the surveys.

- (iii) The surveys examine in depth just two forms of contributory behaviour — formal volunteering and formal giving. More complete information is also desirable for other forms of contributory behaviour, both formal and informal, in order to speak to the question of styles of contributory behaviour. These include more detailed data on:
- informal helping
 - giving blood
 - community activism
 - political participation
 - memberships in voluntary associations
 - informal giving
 - tithing in support of a place of worship
- (iv) Our research on volunteering over stages of the lifecycle has identified a stable life cycle profile. Rates of volunteering start high among 15 to 24 year olds, declines to a low among 25 to 34 year olds, rises again to a peak among 35 to 54 year olds, and then progressively declines after age 55. The evidence for this pattern is strong — five surveys (NSGVP and GSS) between 1997 and 2003 show very similar life cycle profiles. But the question remains whether this actually represents the pattern of volunteering individuals go through as they age. To answer this and other questions about contributory behaviour over the life course requires a longitudinal component in the NSGVP which would most cost-effectively be achieved by including an event history component in the survey.

With there now being multiple sources of data on giving and volunteering from Statistics Canada surveys, there is a need for increased coordination:

- Seven surveys provide information on rates of volunteering: the Volunteer Activity Survey 1987, National Survey of Volunteering, Giving, and

Participating 1997, 2000, and 2004, and the General Social Surveys in 1998, 2000, and 2003. Five surveys provide information on hours volunteered: the Volunteer Activity Survey 1987, The National Survey of Volunteering, Giving, and Participating 1997, 2000, and 2004, and the General Social Survey 1998.

- Differences in question format across surveys may limit the comparability of information on volunteering, particularly between the NSGVP/CSGVP and GSS questionnaires.
- Extensive information on charitable giving is available from five sources: NSGVP 1997 and 2000, and CSGVP 2004, the annual Survey of Household Spending (SHS), and tax data from the Canadian Customs and Revenue Agency. Limited information is also available from GSS 2003 and the National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations.
- Nationally representative surveys such as NSGVP/CSGVP, GSS and SHS are relatively accurate sources of data on the incidence of charitable giving for individuals or households, while tax data greatly under-estimate the number of low-level donors and the giving levels of high-income tax filers.
- None of these sources by themselves demonstrably provides accurate estimates of the total dollar value of giving annually. The national surveys do not adequately capture data on the relatively few individuals who donate extremely large amounts to charities, while the tax data exclude small donors who do not claim their donations on their taxes.

27. The extremely heterogeneous and nuanced character of contributory behaviours can be captured adequately in statistical analysis only with multivariate techniques; we have found repeatedly that lesser techniques such as

bivariate contingency table analysis (cross-tabulations) are simplistic and often downright misleading when applied to contributory behaviours.

When we want simply to describe the relationship between two characteristics of a population, the appropriate information is the bivariate or zero-order relationship between the variables that measure the two characteristics. This relationship describes the total association between the two characteristics. For example, if we look at religion and the probability of being a volunteer, we find that Catholics are substantially less likely to volunteer than are Protestants. However, it can be very misleading to take this relationship as being indicative of the influence or impact of religion on volunteering. The problem arises when we attempt to account for or explain this difference in volunteering in terms of differences in religion. Since the bivariate relationship includes the effects of any and all factors that are correlated with both religion and volunteering, it misestimates the true relationship between the two.

This problem can only be resolved through the use of multivariate analytical techniques. In multivariate analysis, it is possible to eliminate the spurious component of the total association — that part of the bivariate correlation that is due to common causes, correlation between causes, and predetermined correlation. The result is a more accurate estimate of the relationship between two variables. In the case of religion, the inclusion of factors such as frequency of attendance, age, ethnicity, years of residence, and community size reduces the magnitude of the effects of religion substantially. More than half the bivariate difference between religions is due to factors completely unrelated to a particular religious affiliation.

A second reason for the necessity of multivariate analysis is that it can clarify how a particular variable affects contributory behaviour. The issue here is not that the bivariate relationship misestimates the true relationship, but rather that our understanding of the relationship is improved by a multivariate approach. An example is the strong relationship between self-reported religiosity and hours

volunteered: as religiosity increases, hours volunteered increase sharply. This might suggest that those who are more committed to their religious beliefs (more religious) are more willing to give time as volunteers. However, when we control for the effect of frequency of church attendance, the effect of religiosity falls to zero. A logical explanation is that religiosity increases the frequency of church attendance, and the more frequently one attends the more often one will be asked to help out, either with the church or with associated volunteer organizations. If this is the case, differences in hours volunteered are not due to difference in religiosity per se; instead, the influence of religiosity is indirect, through its effect on attendance, and it is differences in attendance that directly affect the hours volunteered.

F. Seeing the Bigger Picture

The research we have summarized here arose from a desire to construct both a more finely-grained understanding of giving, volunteering and civic participation, and appreciation of the broader context within which it can be situated. Using very large datasets and rigorous analytical techniques, we have strived to develop a stronger base for making inferences and generalizations, and in the long run, for building explanations. The work speaks in part to deep issues in social science, such as the relative importance of ethos versus incentives, and altruism versus self-interest, in the choices and behaviours of individuals. It is also directly pertinent in varied ways to the nonprofit sector and public policy by providing strategic intelligence on trends, on behaviours and the dynamics that give rise to them, and on trait profiles and decision-making that are directly relevant to financial and human resources concerns.

Beyond the handful of generalizations cited at the outset of the paper, our trawl for elements in the social dynamics that give rise to volunteering and giving and participating has not only provided fresh knowledge but also found factors believed from other studies to be important, not to be so — income, years of residence, and being married, for example — and our work provides little support

for the long-prevalent “status dominance” theory of volunteering. Of all the outcomes of this research, several have particular significance, namely the pervasive influence of context and the powerful force exerted by worldview and social learning in contributory and civic behaviours. The work also points to two large questions, one explicit and the second implicitly: is there a syndrome or a subculture of volunteering, giving, and participating?, and can contributory and civic behaviours be fostered and cultivated, and ultimately, increased?

It is our hope that the research will be useful to the nonprofit sector in varied ways, perhaps especially in how it might help make the case for the sector’s value and significance: instead of basing claims on the inferred scale of its economic contribution, as in the current practice, an alternative is emerging — showing how volunteers and givers are connected to their communities and to wider society, and the positive consequences of their civic activities for individuals, organizations, and communities. It is worth remembering that in the end, this work is at least as much about Canadian society as it is about the nonprofit and voluntary sector.

APPENDIX**Studies and Reports
from the
Nonprofit Sector Knowledge Base Project****A. Towards an Information Infrastructure for the Nonprofit and Voluntary Domain**

1. Publicly Available Data Resources on the Nonprofit Sector in Canada, by Paul Reed and Valerie Howe. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 1998/2001.
2. Caring Canadians, Involved Canadians: Highlights from the 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, with two chapters and general editing provided by Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE, 1998.
3. Canadians and Their Public Institutions, by Frank Graves and Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 1998. Abridged version also published in Optimum, 28, 4, pp. 1-8, 1999.
4. Defining and Classifying the Nonprofit Sector, by Paul Reed and Valerie Howe. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 1999.
5. The Study of Voluntary Organizations in Ontario in the 1990s: A Report to Participating Agencies, by Paul Reed and Valerie Howe. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 1999.
6. Voluntary Organizations in Ontario in the 1990s, by Paul Reed and Valerie Howe. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 1999 (revised 2000).
7. Treatment of the Voluntary Domain in Canadian Official Statistics, by Erwin Dreessen and Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000.
8. Developing Civic Indicators and Community Accounting in Canada, by Paul Reed in collaboration with Armine Yalnizyan. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. Also provided on website of the Centre for Community Enterprise/Canadian Centre for Community Renewal (www.cedworks.com).

9. What Do We Know About the Voluntary Sector?: An Overview, by Erwin Dreessen. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. Also published in Isuma, 2, 2, pp. 11-19, 2001.
10. A Review of the 1997 and 2000 National Surveys of Giving, Volunteering and Participating, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2002.
11. On the Social Architecture of the Civic Economy, by Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Note, 2004.
12. An Assessment of Statistics Canada Surveys Concerned with Volunteering, Charitable Giving and Civic Participation, 1987-2003, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed, 2004.
13. Voluntary Sector Research in Canada Since the Mid-1970s and Mid-1990s, by Warren Dow. Statistics Canada Research Report, 2006.

In Preparation

14. Measuring the Grants Economy in Canada, by Paul Reed.
15. Designing a National Survey of Nonprofit Organizations, by Paul Reed.

B. Understanding the Social Dynamics of Volunteering, Giving and Participating and the People Who Do Them

16. “Civic Participation in Canada: Is Quebec Different?”, by Gary Caldwell and Paul Reed, in Inroads, 8, 215-222, 1999.
17. Canada’s Supervolunteers and Supergivers, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Statistics Canada Research Note, and presentation to United Way National Conference, Ottawa, 1999.
18. Generosity in Canada: Trends in Personal Gifts and Charitable Donations Over Three Decades, 1969-97, by Paul Reed. Statistics Canada Research Report, 1999. Abridged version published as “Generosity: Thirty Years of Giving”, in Canadian Social Trends, 62, pp. 11-13, Autumn 2001.
19. Distinguishing Characteristics of Active Volunteers in Canada, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. Also published in Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 29, 4, pp. 571-592, 2000.

20. Volunteering in Canada in the 1990s: Change and Stasis, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000.
21. Why Canadians Volunteer and Make Charitable Donations (or Don't): A Quantitative Analysis of Data on Self-Reported Reasons, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000.
22. Social Reasoning and Contributory Behaviour: A Qualitative Analysis, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee in collaboration with Anne O'Connell, Rachel Laforest, and Sandy Hitsman. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. (Revised version to be available in 2006).
23. An Initial Summary of Findings and Conclusions from the Nonprofit Sector Knowledge Base Project, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000.
24. Formal and Informal Volunteering and Giving: Regional and Community Patterns in Canada, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. Also published in abridged form in Canadian Social Trends, 63, pp. 16-18, Winter 2001, as "Volunteering and Giving: A Regional Perspective".
25. Patterns of Volunteering Over the Life Cycle, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2000. Also published in Canadian Social Trends, 61, pp. 2-6, Summer 2001.
26. The Civic Core in Canada: On the Disproportionality of Charitable Giving, Volunteering, and Civic Participation, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2001. Also published in Isuma, 2, 2, pp.28-33, 2001 and in a revised and updated version, "The Civic Core in Canada: Disproportionality in Charitable Giving, Volunteering, and Civic Participation", in Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 30, 4, pp. 761-80, 2001.
27. The Geographic and Social Distribution of Contributory Behaviors in Canada, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2001. (To be revised in 2006.)
28. The Religious Factor in Giving and Volunteering, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2001. (Being revised for re-release in 2006.)
29. The Influence of Class, Status, and Social Capital on the Probability of Volunteering, by Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2001.

30. Interpreting the Signals: Change, Uncertainty, and the State of the Voluntary Sector in Canada, by Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2001.
31. Do Volunteers Have a Distinctive Ethos?: A Canadian Study, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2002. Also published by Kluwer/Plenum Press, New York and Amsterdam, in an international anthology, The Values of Volunteering, edited by Paul Dekker and Loek Halman, 2003.
32. Is There a Distinctive Pattern of Values Associated with Giving and Volunteering?: The Canadian Case, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2002.
33. Early Life Experiences and Other Factors in the Social Dynamics of Civic Behaviour: Findings from a Series of National Studies in Canada, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2002.
34. Volunteers Are Not All The Same: The Case of Health Organizations, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee, in Voluntary Health Sector Working Papers 2002, Vol. 2, 1-26. Ottawa: Health Canada, 2002.
35. Volunteers Are Not All The Same: Heterogeneity in the Voluntary Sector, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2002.
36. The Other Side of the Coin: Who Are The People Who Neither Volunteer Nor Make Charitable Donations?, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2003.
37. The Social Logic of Contributory Behaviour: Subcultures and Styles of Volunteering, by Rachel Laforest and Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2003.
38. The Impact of Tax Incentives on Charitable Giving: A Social Analysis, by Paul Reed. Paper presented at the Fourth Annual National Forum of the Public Policy and Third Sector Initiative, School of Policy Studies, Queen's University, October 2003.
39. Developing and Using Social Embeddedness As an Explanatory Variable, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2003.

40. Distinguishing Characteristics of Above-the-Median Charitable Donors in Canada, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research report, 2004.
41. Is Volunteering Declining in Canada? An Age-specific and Cohort-specific Analysis of Volunteering Rates, 1987-2003, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed. Statistics Canada Research Report, 2004.
42. Do Tax Incentives Really Make a Difference in Charitable Giving? Why Not?, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2004.
43. Volunteering in Canada: An Application of Social Resources Theory to the Likelihood of Being a Volunteer, and to the Determination of Volunteer Effort, by Kevin Selbee (Ph.D. Thesis). Ottawa: Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Carleton University, 2004.
44. “Responsabilité, don, et bénévolat au cours de la vie”, par Stéphanie Gaudet et Paul Reed. Lien social et politiques, printemps 2004, pages 59 à 67.
45. Strategic Information for Community Organizations on Volunteering and Donating in British Columbia, by Warren Dow. Prepared for Volunteer Canada in collaboration with Statistics Canada. Ottawa: 2004.
46. Strategic Information for Community Organizations on Volunteering and Donating in the Canadian Prairies, by Warren Dow. Prepared for Volunteer Canada in collaboration with Statistics Canada. Ottawa: 2004.
47. Strategic Information for Community Organizations on Volunteering and Donating in Ontario, by Warren Dow. Prepared for Volunteer Canada in collaboration with Statistics Canada. Ottawa: 2004.
48. Strategic Information for Community Organizations on Volunteering and Donating in Quebec, by Warren Dow. Prepared for Volunteer Canada in collaboration with Statistics Canada. Ottawa: 2004.
49. Strategic Information for Community Organizations on Volunteering and Donating in Atlantic Canada, by Warren Dow. Prepared for Volunteer Canada in collaboration with Statistics Canada. Ottawa: 2004.
50. Active Citizens: Who Are They, How Do They Get That Way, And Why Does It Matter?, by Paul Reed. Ottawa: Statistics Canada Research Report, 2005.

51. Making Connections: Social and Civic Engagement among Canadian Immigrants, by Katherine Scott, Kevin Selbee, and Paul Reed. Prepared for the Canadian Council for Social Development. Ottawa: 2005.
52. Patterns of Giving, Volunteering and Participating Among Occupational Groups in Canada, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed. Prepared for Volunteer Canada and the Canadian Medical Foundation. Ottawa: 2006. Available in both abridged and full-length versions.
53. Planned Giving Among Canadians: A National Study, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Prepared for the Canadian Association of Gift Planners, 2006.
54. The Social Dynamics of Contributory Behaviours: A Synopsis of Core Findings from a Multi-Year National Study, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee. Ottawa: 2006.
55. Research Notes on Building an Information Infrastructure for the Nonprofit and Voluntary Domain, by Paul Reed. Ottawa: 2006.

Studies in Preparation

56. Education & Income as Correlates of Contributory Behaviours, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.
57. A Multivariate Picture of the Giving, Volunteering, and Participating of Foreign-Born Canadians, by Kevin Selbee and Paul Reed.
58. A Comparative Study of Contributory Behaviours in Canada and Australia, by Paul Reed, Mark Lyons, and Kevin Selbee.
59. What Can They Be Thinking? Social Reasoning and Contributory Behaviour — A Quantitative Analysis, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.
60. The Links Between Types of Voluntary Organizations and Their Volunteers and Donors, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.
61. Anomalies: Who Are The High-Giving Poor, and Why? Who Are The Low-Giving Rich, and Why?, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.
62. How Large is the Voluntary Sector, Really?, by Paul Reed.
63. Social Embeddedness and Contributory Behaviours, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.

64. On the Social Epidemiology of Contributory Behaviours, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.
65. Developing a New Model for Measuring the Real Value of Volunteering, by Linda Graff and Paul Reed.
66. Civic and Social Engagement in Canada: How Much and By Whom?, by Paul Reed and Kevin Selbee.