To Give or Not to Give:
An Examination of Charitable Behaviour in Canada

by

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Abstract

This study examines the factors that influence charitable behaviour in the Canadian context. Using the 2013 General Social Surveys on Social Identity and Giving, Volunteering, & Participating, I examine how variations in one's human, social, and cultural capital influence the decision to volunteer and give. I find that all three forms of capital are important predictors of charitable behaviour. In particular, I find that education, network size, belongingness, trust, goodwill, valuing arts and culture, religiosity and political interest are significant determinants of both volunteering and giving. Across all models of giving, volunteering, and hours volunteered, organizational participation is the strongest predictor of charitable engagement. Finally, I investigate self-reported reasons for charitable engagement, and find that the majority of individuals cite altruistic reasons rather than economic motivators. My paper contributes to the understanding of what factors influence charitable behaviour, which provides insights to resource-constrained organizations seeking to optimize volunteer and donor recruitment. On a larger scale, the findings of my paper can be used to inform policy that seeks to increase charitable engagement in Canada.

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Introduction

The charitable contributions of Canadians play a critical role in improving the well-being of communities. In the past decade, more than 75% of Canadians reported making an annual donation and more than 35% reported volunteering at least once a year (Turcotte, 2016). The rates of charitable engagement seem encouraging at first glance, but the rate alone does not offer a complete perspective on charitable giving in Canada. Over the years, there has been a slight but steady decline in the percentage of Canadians who engage in some form of annual giving. While the downward trend in charitable engagement raises an apparent cause for concern for resource-constrained organizations that depend on the benevolence of others, the ramifications of lower giving extend far past the non-profit sector. Emerging research has also shown that charitable behaviour contributes to social cohesion by building reciprocity and trust within communities, implying that the decline in volunteering and giving is an important consideration for all (Wu, 2011).

My paper seeks to provide a comprehensive portrayal of the factors that motivate the decision to give in Canada. Building on socio-psychological theories that study charitable behaviour, I will leverage the 2013 General Social Survey on Social Identity (GSS-SI) and the 2013 General Social Survey on Giving, Volunteering, and Participating (GSS-GVP) to investigate how human, social, and cultural capital are associated with one's propensity to engage in charitable giving. The aim of my paper is three-fold. Firstly, I investigate the factors that are associated with one's propensity to engage in volunteering and giving. Then, I assess the relevance of human, social, and cultural capital in predicting the hours spent volunteering each month and the number of organizations one participates in. Finally, I conclude my analysis with an examination of the motives behind charitable behaviour.

In Part I, I begin with a literature review of past research on the determinants and motivators of charitable behaviour. After situating the contributions of my paper in the existing literature, I discuss the dataset, variables and methodological approach in Part II. The results of this paper are

presented in Part III, and robustness and model fit are detailed in Part IV. Finally, in Part V, I discuss the findings of my models and offer insights into drivers and motivators of charitable behaviour.

Moving beyond a preliminary understanding of the profile of who gives in Canada, my paper will offer insights into the psychological pressures that drive giving, as well as the situational contexts where charitable behaviour is likely to occur. The findings of my paper will largely be beneficial to charities and other non-profit organizations seeking to optimize their recruitment of donors and volunteers. In particular, by deepening the understanding of the associations between human, social, and cultural capital and charitable behaviour, my paper unveils insights into how to best attract and retain potential donors and volunteers. Extending past the non-profit sector, the findings of my paper are also of use to policymakers seeking to enhance charitable engagement and encourage prosocial behaviour at large.

Part I: Review of Literature

Charitable behaviour can be differentiated into the contribution of two key resources: money and time. Donating, which I will use interchangeably with monetary giving, refers to the contribution of personal funds or goods to a charitable organization. Whereas donation encompasses the monetary dimension of charitable behaviour, volunteerism refers to the giving of time and labour. Though there exists contention on what activities constitute volunteering, the prevailing definition is Wilson and Musick's (2007) conceptualization of volunteerism as a prosocial behaviour in which individuals provide "help to others, a group, an organization, a cause, or the community at large, without expectation of material reward" (p. 3). To address the ambiguity in the types of activities associated with volunteering, it is common to dissect volunteering into formal and informal categories. While formal volunteerism refers to the provision of unpaid labour for official charities or organizations, informal volunteerism broadly encompasses any unpaid help that is provided by individuals to other

people (Lee & Brudney, 2012). As informal volunteering is more loosely defined and thus harder to measure, I limit the scope of my paper to the study of formal volunteering and monetary giving.

1.1 The Determinants of Charitable Behaviour

The profile of who gives and volunteers is well studied in Canada. Since the first National Survey on Giving, Volunteering, and Participating in 1997, researchers have been able to access a breadth of data that characterizes donors and volunteers and tracks changes in charitable behaviour over time (Hall, 2001). Using data from the 2013 GSS-GVP, Turcotte (2016) provides a comprehensive characterization of individuals who volunteer and donate. Key insights from his paper are that the age group with the highest rate of volunteerism is youth between the ages of 15-19, donors over the age of 55 tend to donate the highest amount, and more women than men are engaged in both types of charitable behaviour. Furthermore, Reed and Selbee (2001) look at differences in volunteering at a regional level. They find that volunteerism is highest in the Prairies and lowest in Quebec.

While understanding the demographic characteristics of volunteers and givers offers insights into trends in charitable behaviour, a key limitation in this approach is that little thought is given to how these characteristics influence the decision on if and how to give. Thus, the literature has evolved from solely studying demographic characteristics, such as sex, province, and age, to also incorporate the effect of social factors and behavioural attributes in the analysis of charitable engagement. One such approach has been undertaken by the researchers Lee and Chang (2008). They explore whether givers can be distinguished from non-givers in the Taiwanese context using demographic, psychographic, and attitudinal variables. In their paper, extrinsic determinants are defined as sociodemographic characteristics like age, income, and marital status, while intrinsic determinants refer to psychographic attributes like feelings of social responsibility, empathy and familiarity with a charity. After employing a probit regression, they find that intrinsic characteristics are better predictors

for volunteering, while extrinsic characteristics are better predictors of monetary donation (Lee & Chang, 2008).

Lee and Chang's paper offers a valuable contribution to the literature on charitable behaviour as it develops an approach to capturing the psychological factors that underpin the decision to give. However, it is important to note the limitation in the applicability of their research. Given the expansive differences in social, political, and cultural norms, the Taiwanese context may not be an appropriate comparison group to charitable behaviour in Canada. Furthermore, the researchers determine intrinsic values through telephone surveys administered by trained interviewers. While the use of trained interviewers mitigates concerns relating to biases in self-reported data, the measurement of psychological factors such as one's empathy and sense of social responsibility is a difficult feat to accomplish, and usually requires comprehensive consultations and testing with psychologists. Thus, adequately measuring intrinsic characteristics remains a significant challenge in the literature on charitable behaviour.

In light of the constraints in capturing psychological and attitudinal traits, a new approach to understanding the determinants of charitable behaviour has been developed. In a marriage of psychological theories with econometric techniques, researchers have employed statistical modeling to analyze and interpret demographic data through the lens of the social resource theory. Under Wilson and Musick's (1997) conceptualization of the social resource theory, the decision to volunteer is determined by variations in the level and type of human, social and cultural capital. In this model, human capital encompasses the resources and attributes that allow individuals to be productive, such as education and health. Furthermore, social capital encompasses the networks of relationships among people that enable society to function effectively, and it is measured by indicators for the size of one's social network and the degree of belongingness that individuals feel in their community. Finally, cultural capital represents how much the respondent values helping others, and it is measured through

religiosity. Wilson and Musick employ linear regression to estimate the impact of the three resource types on volunteering and find positive relationships for all forms of capitals.

Since its inception, the social resource theory has been applied in a multitude of studies on the determinants of charitable behaviour. However, a noteworthy departure from Wilson and Musick's original approach has been the incorporation of maximum likelihood estimation into the analysis. Using data from the 2001 U.S. Survey on Volunteering and Giving, Lee and Brudney (2012) employ a bivariate probit regression to investigate the likelihood of formal and informal volunteering as a result of social and human capital. Their study finds that social capital has a positive effect on both types of volunteering, while human capital only increases the likelihood of formal volunteering.

The determinants of charitable behaviour have also been investigated in the Canadian context. Most notably, Selbee (2004) examines the likelihood of being a volunteer, and then looks to differences in the likelihood of volunteering among subgroups defined by religion, gender, region, and ethnicity. Partitioning variables from the 2000 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating into indicators of social, human, and cultural capital, Selbee employs logistic regressions to determine how well the social resource theory predicts volunteerism in Canada. He finds that while human capital and social capital, particularly the dimension of social networks, are important drivers of volunteering, the effect of cultural capital is inconclusive.

1.2 Motives for Charitable Behaviour

While the social resource theory offers a useful framework through which to ascertain the factors that inform an individual's decision to give, another dimension of the literature on charitable behaviour is understanding *why* people give. This question has especially captivated the interest of behavioural economists, who observed that despite the predictions of traditional economic theory, individuals do not always behave as rational utility maximizers. Lise Vesterlund (2016) brings to light

the divergence from theory that has been observed in the linear public good game, where participants are placed into groups and asked to distribute their endowment between a private or public account with linear payoffs. In this game, the efficient outcome occurs when all individuals contribute their full endowment to the public account; however, self-interested individuals known as 'free-riders' contribute little to nothing, thereby reducing the individual's return from the public good. As contributing to the public good is costly for the individual and one should expect others to act selfishly, the equilibrium outcome is to contribute nothing (Vesterlund, 2016). Surprisingly, researchers consistently observe that participants do not choose the optimal equilibrium strategy and donate positive amounts to the public account (Isaac & Walker, 1988).

In light of the incongruencies in theoretical predictions and experimental findings, economists have theorized two key motives behind giving: pure altruism and impure altruism. Pure altruism is regarded as giving for the sake of improving the wellbeing of others. As an altruist is motivated by their desire to increase social welfare, Vesterlund (2016) explains that giving by other people or institutions acts as a perfect substitute for giving by the altruist. Thus, a transfer from the government to the non-profit sector should result in the altruist reducing their contribution by the size of the transfer. The second motive for giving is impure altruism, which has been coined by Andreoni (1990) as "warm glow" giving. Unlike pure altruism, individuals motivated by warm glow experience a private benefit from giving. While the altruist cares about the size and impact of their donation on the recipient, Andreoni (1990) speculates that individuals motivated by warm glow feel good simply from the act of giving. Thus, the amount given by others should not impact the amount donated by an individual who is motivated by solely warm glow.

In order to discern the extent to which pure and impure altruism motivate giving, economists have studied the behaviour of individuals under different specifications of the public good game. In one specification, Issac and Walker (1998) find that contributions to the public account increase with

the number of participants, so long as the ratio between the public and private return (marginal per capita return) is not too large. This finding is consistent with the idea that giving is motivated by altruism, as altruistic individuals will feel a need to donate more as the population grows. In another specification of the linear public good game, Palfrey and Prisbrey (1997) manipulate the return from giving by varying the return of the private good across individuals. In their specification, individuals only know their own cost of contributing to the private good, while all players are aware of the return from the public good. They find that contributions decrease with the cost of giving, suggesting that giving is primarily explained by warm glow rather than altruism.

Generally, researchers have noted that applying slightly different designs to the public good game yields different conclusions on the prevalence of impure versus pure altruism. While the lack of a clear conclusion may serve as a point of frustration to some, the findings suggest that environmental setup plays a significant role in the decision to give. In particular, in addition to internal motivators of giving like altruism, environmental factors such as the visibility of the deed and social pressure seem to also play an integral role in motivating one to give (Vesterlund, 2016). To investigate the effect of visibility in motivating giving, Rege and Telle (2004) conduct a one-shot public good game where participants are asked to announce their contribution. They find that the value of the contribution increases when it is publicly announced. Furthermore, social pressures have been found to be a significant motivator for giving. Notably, the effect of social pressure on giving has been observed in the dictator game, where individuals are given an endowment which they can split with a recipient. Hoffman et al. (1996) observe that when neither the dictator nor recipient are aware of each other's identity, the size of the endowment decreases. In another adaptation of the dictator game, Bohnet and Frey (1999) find that contributions are highest when participants engage in a one-on-one interaction. Both studies suggest that social distance lessens the amount donated.

Ultimately, the experimental work on the motives behind giving highlights a range of possible factors rather than one definitive driver of charitable behaviour. While the dictator and public good games mimic real environments where individuals face decisions on charitable behaviour, a key limitation of the controlled laboratory setting is that it does not wholly encompass the factors and considerations that one might encounter when deciding whether to give. Thus, while the conclusion seems to be that it is not possible to derive inference on motives for giving, Bardsley (2008) postulates that the merit of the literature lies in its ability to construct reasonable assumptions in well-defined environments.

1.3 Contributions to the Literature on Charitable Behaviour

My paper contributes to the literature on charitable behaviour in four key aspects. Firstly, I employ a unique dataset to model the decision to engage in charitable behaviour. While the literature on charitable behaviour in Canada has primarily relied on the GSS-GVP, my paper presents a novel approach by using the GSS-SI. In doing so, my paper overcomes a substantial challenge in the existing literature: capturing strong indicators for social and cultural capital. Past literature has relied on proxies for social capital, such as using household size and length of time spent in a community as indicators for network size. Capturing the effect of cultural capital has also presented a significant challenge in the literature, as most studies have relied solely on religiosity as an indicator for one's cultural capital. By using the GSS-SI, my paper constructs powerful indicators for social and cultural capital, including direct measures for one's social network size, sense of belongingness, trust, and shared values.

Another substantial gap in the literature has been the exclusion of virtual networks in the characterization of social capital. There is a multitude of research that confirms that social media has exponentiated the density and expansiveness of social networks, suggesting that the inclusion of virtual

networks is integral in the analysis of one's social capital (Orouji & Karimi, 2017). Thus, I remedy this gap by including an indicator for social media use in my representation of social capital.

Furthermore, while the literature on charitable behaviour has been concerned with understanding the decision to volunteer and give, there exists a knowledge gap in studying the effort that individuals expend on charitable engagement. The lack of research on the degree of effort and resources that individuals expend presents a fundamental gap because it omits a deeper investigation of the secondary choices involved with charitable activity. To remedy this limitation, I examine the hours that individuals spend volunteering in a month. There also exists a significant relationship between organizational involvement and the decision to volunteer and give. Thus, I investigate the number of organizations that individuals choose to participate in through the framework of the social resource theory.

Finally, studies on charitable behaviour have often grappled with either examining the factors that are associated with giving or with understanding why people decide to give. While a significant portion of empirical research on charitable behaviour has focused solely on the former, experimental work has focused on the latter and sought to uncover the mechanisms that motivate one to give. My paper seeks to unite these two areas by incorporating an analysis of the motives behind giving into an empirical study of the determinants of charitable behaviour. As discussed in Section 1.2, discerning the motives for giving is a difficult feat which is often investigated in controlled laboratory settings. While it is not possible to perfectly isolate the causes of charitable behaviour, my paper will approximate potential motives by analyzing the reasons that individuals reported for volunteering and giving. In combining the questions of what drives people to give and why, my paper introduces a new analysis of why different forms of capital, particularly social and cultural capital, could serve as determinants of charitable behaviour.

Part II: Description of Data and Models

2.1 Dataset

To investigate the determinants of volunteering and giving, I use both the 2013 General Social Survey on Social Identity (GSS-SI) and the 2013 General Social Survey on Giving, Volunteering, and Participating (GSS-GVP). The GSS-SI was conducted between June 2013 and March 2014 and has a sample size of 27,534 respondents. The GSS-GVP was conducted between September and December 2013 and has a sample size of 14,714 respondents. Both surveys exclude Yukon, Nunavut, and the Northwest Territories, and all respondents were aged 15 and over. Data collection was performed through computer assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) and electronic questionnaires administered at the household level.

I leverage the GSS-SI to study one's likelihood of engaging in volunteering and giving, the hours that individuals spend volunteering each month, and the number of organizations that individuals are involved with. Due to limitations in the data available through the GSS-SI, I consult the GSS-GVP to supplement my analysis with a deeper investigation into the reasons why people volunteer and give. The combination of two separate datasets is a sound approach due to three main reasons. Firstly, both sets of respondents were surveyed during 2013-14, controlling for time-based variability between samples. Secondly, both surveys employ an identical stratified sampling procedure, ensuring congruency in the data collection approach. Finally, by employing the appropriate survey weights in my analysis, I ensure that both samples effectively represent a similar population. Thus, I combine insights from both datasets in my analysis.

2.2 Description of Variables

Dependent Variables

The first set of dependent variables that I study consist of indicators for volunteer and giver status. Table 2.1 depicts the summary statistics for the dependent variables. Note that for all descriptive tables, the number of observations reported are unadjusted by survey weights, while the percentages reported are adjusted by survey weights. Table 2.1 depicts that the percentage of volunteers in the sample is 35.5%, while the percentage of givers in the sample is 75.2%.

Table 2.1 Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables

	Observations	Total Sample (%)
Volunteer	27,486	
No	17,516	64.46
Yes	9,970	35.54
Giver	27,419	
No	6,784	24.8
Yes	20,635	75.2
Hours Volunteered	9,902	
Very Low (<1 hr/month)	973	10.67
Low (1 - <5 hrs/month)	2,931	30.32
Moderate (5 - <15 hrs/month)	3,426	34.19
High (15+ hrs/month)	2,572	24.81
Number of Organizations	27,396	
0	9,484	34.45
1	7,211	27.47
2	4,945	18.4
3	2,998	10.43
4	1,581	5.67
5	740	2.25
6	302	0.94
7	90	0.27
8	34	0.07
9	11	0.05

The second set of variables that I examine consists of the hours volunteered in the past month and the number of organizations an individual is involved in during the past year. The hours individuals spent volunteering in the past month is given as a categorical variable ranging from less

than an hour a month to more than fifteen hours a month. I define volunteering less than an hour a month as "Very Low", volunteering one to five hours a month as "Low", volunteering five to fifteen hours a month as "Moderate," and volunteering more than fifteen hours each month as "High". Figure 2.1 depicts that the majority of respondents indicated that they volunteered a moderate amount of time in the past month.
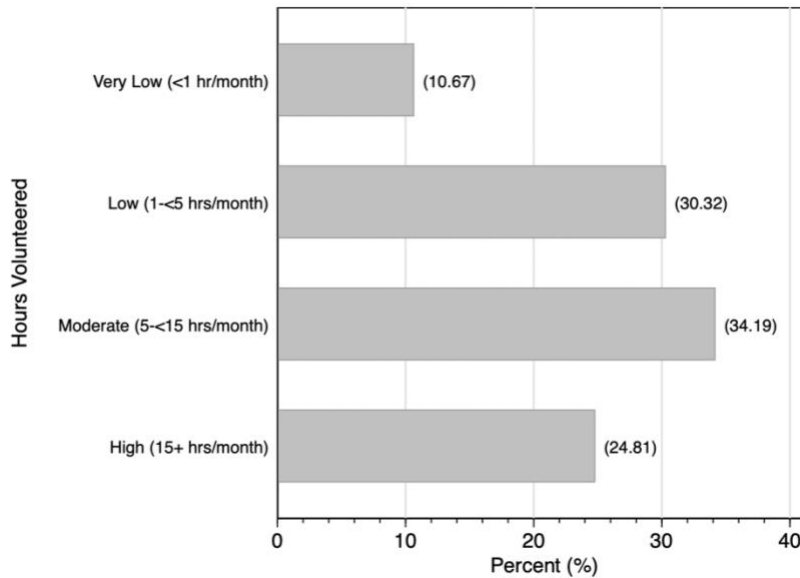
Figure 2.1: Hours Spent Volunteering in the Past Month

Figure 2.2 depicts the number of organizations respondents participated in. The number of organizations participated in ranged between 0 and 9, with an average value of 1.38 organizations.
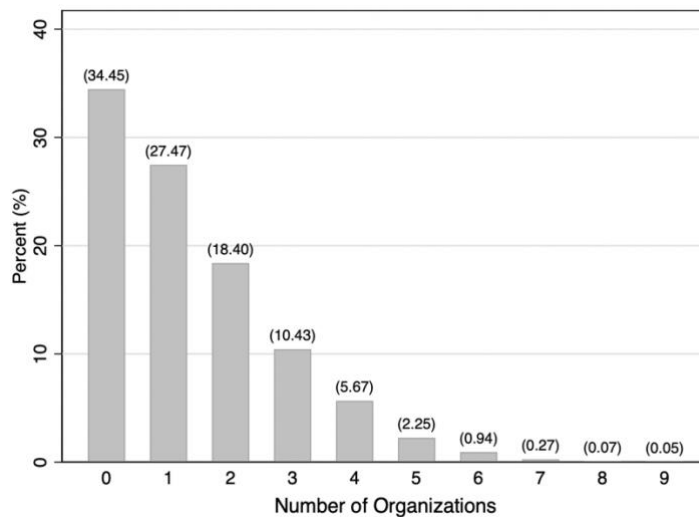
Figure 2.2: Number of Organizations Involved in During Past Year

The independent variables are grouped into four categories: demographic controls, human capital, social capital and cultural capital. I will now discuss the control variables and the different forms of capital in greater detail.

Demographic Controls

I include indicators for sex, region and minority status in my model to control for gendered, regional and racial differences in charitable behaviour. Table 2.2 depicts that women make up a larger portion of volunteers and givers. In respect to regional differences, Ontarians and individuals in the Atlantic region report higher levels of charitable behaviour: more people identify as givers and volunteers in these regions than not. In Quebec, a higher proportion of people engage in giving rather than volunteering, while the opposite holds true for individuals residing in the Prairie regions and British Columbia. The final demographic control is minority status, which encompasses Indigenous peoples and all individuals who are non-Caucasian in race. Individuals who identified as belonging to a minority group account for a smaller portion of givers and volunteers in the sample. This difference is most pronounced for giving, as only 18.5% of people who identified as belonging to a minority group also reported giving.

Table 2.2: Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Controls by Total Sample, Volunteer Status and Giver Status

	Observations	Total Sample (%)	Volunteer Status (%)		Giver Status (%)	
			Non-volunteer	Volunteer	Non-giver	Giver
Sex	27,534					
Male	12,613	49.39	51.74	45.13	58.98	46.18
Female	14,921	50.61	48.26	54.87	41.02	53.82
Region	27,534					
Atlantic region	4,395	6.8	6.16	7.94	6.65	6.86
Quebec	5,301	23.18	27.86	14.73	22.92	23.3
Ontario	7,187	38.82	37.71	40.74	37.49	39.24
Prairie region	7,359	17.67	15.74	21.2	19.02	17.19
British Columbia	3,292	13.53	12.53	15.4	13.92	13.41
Minority	27,270					
No	20,219	79.78	79.55	80.23	74.73	81.46
Yes	7,051	20.22	20.45	19.77	25.27	18.54

Human Capital

Human capital, which encompasses an individual's ability to perform productive labour, is expected to increase volunteerism and giving through two main avenues. Firstly, individuals with higher levels of human capital tend to possess more advanced skills and qualifications, making them attractive to agencies seeking volunteer work. Secondly, higher levels of human capital are associated with greater returns in the labour market, thereby empowering people with the economic flexibility to donate (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

My paper leverages four indicators for human capital: age, education, income, and health status. Human capital theory literature postulates that age encompasses the accumulation of knowledge, experience and abilities. Empirical work has demonstrated a significant relationship between age and the accumulation of human capital, notably through a rise in human capital between childhood to adulthood, and then a slight decline into older ages (Becker, 2002). With respect to charitable engagement, aging is expected to increase the likelihood of giving, primarily due to the accumulation of economic resources. The relationship between aging and volunteering remains less clear: the negative health impacts of aging stifle one's physical ability to perform labour, while the accumulation of skills, experiences and free time during retirement increase one's competency and availability to volunteer.

The remaining human capital indicators offer more direct interpretations. It can be expected that education, which is associated with improved skills and higher returns in the labour market, will be positively related to both dimensions of charitable behaviour. Income, which measures pre-tax income group, is treated as a proxy for human capital as it reveals social status and is associated with increased perceptions of one's skills and competencies.[1] There is consensus in the literature that higher levels of income are associated with an increased propensity to give. Finally, health, which is measured

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[1] Research suggests that wealthier individuals have greater odds of being asked to volunteer due to the effect of social status cues (Smith, 1994).

through self-reported ratings of general health status, is primarily expected to increase one's ability to volunteer.

Table 2.3 provides descriptive statistics for the human capital indicators by total sample, volunteer status, and giver status. The highest percentage of volunteers falls into the 15-24 age group, while the highest percentage of givers falls into the 45-54 age category. As expected, there are greater proportions of givers and volunteers at higher levels of income, although this difference is less pronounced for volunteers. Finally, a higher proportion of volunteers and givers have university diplomas and report excellent or good health than their non-charitable counterparts.

Table 2.3: Descriptive Statistics of Human Capital Indicators by Total Sample, Volunteer Status and Giver Status

	Observations	Total Sample (%)	Volunteer Status (%)		Giver Status (%)	
			Non-volunteer	Volunteer	Non-giver	Giver
Age	27,534					
15 to 24 years	3,740	15.58	13.63	19.05	26.87	11.86
25 to 34 years	3,407	16.81	17.9	14.85	19.17	16.08
35 to 44 years	4,417	16.02	15.55	16.9	14.08	16.67
45 to 54 years	4,733	18.11	18.02	18.29	14.9	19.17
55 to 64 years	5,164	15.75	16.36	14.66	12.27	16.87
65 to 74 years	3,726	10.23	10.02	10.62	7.53	11.08
75 years and over	2,347	7.5	8.53	5.64	5.19	8.26
Education	27,335					
Less than high school diploma	4,281	14.86	16.12	12.59	22.67	12.29
High school diploma (or equivalent certificate)	7,135	26.78	28.36	23.82	30.81	25.43
Trade certificate	2,125	8.17	8.81	7	9.3	7.77
College/CEGEP/other non-university Diploma	5,265	20.03	20.08	19.94	17.21	20.97
University diploma below BA level	1,060	3.61	3.3	4.18	2.48	3.99
Bachelor's degree	4,755	17.52	16.04	20.28	12.72	19.11
University degree above BA level	2,714	9.03	7.28	12.2	4.8	10.44
Income	20,541					
No income	1,855	8.83	8.03	10.16	15.34	6.78
Less than $ 5,000	741	3.67	2.94	4.96	5.22	3.18
$ 5,000 to $ 9,999	827	4.35	4.37	4.33	6.62	3.64
$ 10,000 to $ 14,999	1,403	6.91	7.28	6.24	8.65	6.36
$ 15,000 to $ 19,999	1,228	5.29	5.59	4.75	6.43	4.94
$ 20,000 to $29,999	2,530	11.32	12.4	9.45	12.62	10.87
$ 30,000 to $ 39,999	2,624	12.44	13.55	10.52	11.96	12.6
$ 40,000 to $ 49,999	2,186	10.36	11.11	9.08	9.11	10.76
$ 50,000 to $ 59,999	1,756	8.84	8.71	9.08	7.46	9.29
$ 60,000 to $ 79,999	2,419	12.3	11.9	13	8.17	13.58
$ 80,000 to $ 99,999	1,238	6.35	6.03	6.92	4.02	7.09
$ 100,000 or more	1,734	9.33	8.1	11.51	4.4	10.92
Health	27,189					
Poor	793	2.43	2.99	1.43	3.48	2.07
Fair	2,497	8.5	9.71	6.34	10.17	7.95
Good	7,552	26.67	28.1	24.05	27.2	26.47
Very Good	10,295	38.92	37.22	42.01	36.41	39.75
Excellent	6,052	23.48	21.99	26.16	22.74	23.76

Social Capital

Social capital broadly encompasses the networks formed between individuals and groups that facilitate co-operation and allow society to function effectively. A large body of literature has found that social connectedness is strongly associated with altruistic behaviour such as charitable engagement (Putnam, 2005; Mesch et al., 2006). While the work on volunteering and giving has primarily focused

on network size as an indicator for social capital, this approach solely captures the magnitude of one's social capital. In order to capture the quality and connectivity of one's social networks, I include measures of trust and belongingness in my analysis.

To capture the magnitude of one's social capital, I include indicators for employment status, marital status, the presence of children, network size, and social media. As social capital increases with one's network size, it is expected that all of these indicators will be positively associated with charitable behaviour. Being employed and having a partner are expected to increase one's social network through the enrichment of personal and professional circles, specifically through the union of new friend groups, family members, colleagues and other social circles.[2] In a similar vein, having children has also been shown to increase one's social network, although this effect is conditional on the child's age. It is believed that the presence of children under the age of five stifles parents' ability to grow their social network due to the substantial constraint on free time. However, once children turn six and enter school, parents are drawn into new areas of participation and see growth in their social networks (Lee & Brudney, 2012). While the indicators for employment status, marital status, and the presence of children offer unique methods of approximating the effects of professional and personal networks, I also capture one's aggregate network through the variable network size. This variable reflects the total number of contacts reported, including family, friends, and others. Finally, I include social media use as a proxy for one's virtual network.

Trust is a precursor for the ability to form social bonds with others, proving itself to be an integral dimension of social capital. Experimental work on altruistic behaviour has revealed that trust is often associated with reciprocity and a willingness to do good for others.[3] Thus, I expect that higher

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[2] One of the many effects of industrialization has been the intertwinement of social networks and the workplace. Research has also shown that employed people are more likely to be approached by organizations soliciting volunteers and donations (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

[3] One such experiment is Berg et al.'s (1995) trust game. In this game, Player A decides how much of their endowment to transfer to Player B. The experimenter triples the size of the transfer, and then Player B decides whether to return any

levels of trust will be positively associated with participation in charitable activity. The first two indicators for trust in my analysis are trust in people in general, and trust in people who speak a different language. While the former reveals one's general sense of trust in others, the latter depicts the trust individuals have in people with different identities. Trust in people who speak different languages is especially relevant in the multicultural Canadian context, as it highlights the ability to form bonds with people from dissimilar backgrounds.[4] Furthermore, I also include indicators for the perceived likelihood of a lost wallet being returned by a neighbor and stranger. The confidence that individuals have in their neighbors is telling of the strength of one's social network, as it reveals the faith individuals have in their direct community. On the other hand, the trust individuals have in strangers offers insight into one's perspective on the general honesty of others.

The final dimension of social capital that I include in my analysis is belongingness. It has been well documented that belongingness is a universal human need and is at the core of the desire to form relationships with others. There is a clear link between social inclusion and prosocial behaviour; however, the effects of social exclusion are contingent on whether the exclusion is implicit or explicit. Notably, explicit social exclusion such as rejection has been found to increase charitable behaviour, while implicit exclusion such as ignoring has been found to have no such effect (Lee & Shrum, 2012).[5] To investigate the effects of belongingness on charitable engagement, I include measures for sense of belongingness in one's local community, experience with discrimination, minority status, and organizational participation. In recognition of the variation in the type of groups individuals are involved in, I include four separate categories of organizational involvement: shared activity such as

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of the endowment to Player A. Research has found a correlation between survey responses indicating higher trust in others and greater reciprocity in the trust game (Alós-Ferrer & Farolfi, 2019).

[4] Putnam's (2007) controversial paper finds a relationship between ethnically diverse neighborhoods in the U.S. and lower levels of trust, altruism, and community cooperation, as well as fewer reported friendships among residents.

[5] Lee and Shum (2012) postulate that explicit social exclusion threatens one's relational needs. Thus, explicitly excluded individuals are driven to prosocial behaviour, likely through the desire to bolster self-esteem and confidence.

sports, shared sense of sociocultural identity such as religious or ethnic association, shared political identity such as support for political parties or union involvement, and other. I expect that belongingness in one's local community and all types of organizational involvement will be positively associated with volunteering and giving. In light of the research on explicit social exclusion, I expect to observe a positive association with engagement in charitable behaviour and experiencing discrimination.[6]

Table 2.4 provides the descriptive statistics for social capital. More givers and volunteers report having a partner, being employed, and having children between the ages of six to seventeen than their non-charitable counterparts. The mean social network size is 1.50 times larger for volunteers than non-volunteers, and 1.17 times larger for givers than non-givers. Interestingly, social media use is higher in volunteers than non-volunteers, but lower among givers than non-givers. Across all metrics of trust, givers and volunteers report higher levels of trust in others than non-givers and non-volunteers. Finally, more charitable individuals than non-givers and non-volunteers report a very strong sense of belongingness, having experienced discrimination, and participating in an organization.

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[6] Optimal distinctiveness theory regards social identity as a comprise between the desire to feel similar to others while still maintaining a sense of individuality and uniqueness. It is postulated the group loyalty and belongingness tends to be strongest within groups that differ from the general population but are still large enough to contain internal diversity, such as ethnic and racial minority groups (Chandra, 2004).

Table 2.4: Descriptive Statistics of Social Capital Indicators by Total Sample, Volunteer Status and Giver Status

	Observations	Total Sample (%)	Volunteer Status (%)		Giver Status (%)	
			Non-volunteer	Volunteer	Non-giver	Giver
Social Networks						
Employed	27,427					
No	11,384	38.03	38.96	36.27	43.99	36.02
Yes	16,043	61.97	61.04	63.73	56.01	63.98
Partner	27,486					
No Partner	12,085	38.9	39.41	37.93	53.29	34.16
Married/Common Law	15,401	61.1	60.59	62.07	46.71	65.84
Child(ren) Under 5	27,534					
No	24,981	89.68	89.33	90.32	90.8	89.32
Yes	2,553	10.32	10.67	9.68	9.2	10.68
Child(ren) Between 6-17	27,534					
No	23,756	84.64	86.49	81.26	88.76	83.29
Yes	3,778	15.36	13.51	18.74	11.24	16.71
Network Size (Mean)	25,121	47.85	40.44	61.17	42.46	49.59
Used Social Networking Site	23,588					
No	7,603	30.02	31.98	26.75	25.48	31.42
Yes	15,985	69.98	68.02	73.25	74.52	68.58
Trust						
Trust in People - General	27,015					
No	12,485	46.47	51.71	36.95	54.57	43.79
Yes	14,530	53.53	48.29	63.05	45.43	56.21
Trust in People - Other Language	25,583					
Cannot Trust at All	1,130	4.22	5.05	2.71	7.47	3.14
Can Trust A Bit	2,219	9.39	10.32	7.74	12.66	8.31
Can Somewhat Trust	8,851	35.58	38.1	30.97	37.85	34.84
Can Trust	8,828	34.24	31.14	39.89	28.93	36
Can Trust A Lot	4,555	16.57	15.39	18.7	13.09	17.71
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger	26,588					
Not at all Likely	10,643	41.63	46.22	33.37	51.21	38.51
Somewhat Likely	13,483	50.19	46.43	56.96	42.48	52.75
Very Likely	2,462	8.18	7.35	9.66	6.32	8.74
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor	26,918					
Not at all Likely	3,528	13.15	15.03	9.73	19.45	11.09
Somewhat Likely	10,728	41.78	42.28	40.89	44.36	40.99
Very Likely	12,662	45.07	42.7	49.38	36.19	47.91
Belongingness						
Belonging - Local Community	26,531					
Very Weak	1,286	4.91	5.95	3.01	6.95	4.20
Somewhat Weak	3,274	12.99	14.9	9.63	15.79	12.10
Somewhat Strong	12,853	48.84	49.76	47.27	48.1	49.11
Very Strong	9,118	33.26	29.38	40.09	29.16	34.58
Experienced Discrimination	27,244					
No	19,109	69.81	72.88	64.27	72.02	69.07
Yes	8,135	30.19	27.12	35.73	27.98	30.93
Organizational Involvement	27,527					
Not Involved	9,525	34.46	46.8	12.06	51.4	28.79
Shared Activity	5,871	23.89	21.96	27.43	21.09	24.87
Sociocultural Group	9,221	30.38	18.88	51.23	18.4	34.35
Political Group	2,221	8.75	11.01	4.61	8.01	8.97
Other	689	2.53	1.35	4.67	1.09	3.01

Cultural Capital

The concept of cultural capital is attributed to Pierre Bourdieu (1984) who defined it as the "consumption of specific cultural forms that mark people as members of specific classes".[7] Scholars note that cultural capital arises as an extension to one's social capital, specifically through the hobbies, symbols, and values that are distinct to one's social circles. Similar to the effects of social capital, cultural capital is believed to contribute to greater levels of social cohesion and encourage prosocial behaviour. Thus, significant linkages have been observed between participation in cultural activities and charitable behaviour (Jeannotte, 2003).

The first measure of cultural capital in my model is an indicator for whether the respondent has done a favor for their neighbor. This indicator serves to capture goodwill and the value of helping one's neighbor, and I expect it to be positively associated with charitable behaviour. Another key measure of cultural capital is the appreciation of arts and other forms of cultural expression. Participation in the arts, especially in group-based activities such as choir and dance, is regarded as an integral contributor to social cohesion and altruism. Beyond the act of participation, studies have also traced cultural consumption, such as attending performances and frequenting galleries, to higher rates of volunteerism (Jeannotte, 2003). Thus, I anticipate that appreciation for arts and culture will be a significant determinant of charitable behaviour. Furthermore, care for social justice is another important form of cultural capital, as it unites those with similar worldviews and a shared value of empathy. I expect to observe a positive relationship between the concern for social justice and charitable behaviour. The next indicator for cultural capital in my model is a measure for cultural pride, specifically the pride that individuals have in the treatment of others in Canada. Unlike self-pride, which is the pride individuals feel in their accomplishments, the pride individuals feel towards the

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[7] Bourdieu's work illuminated three forms of cultural capital: embodied capital, which refers to the habits formed by individuals; objectified capital, which embodies cultural expression such as art and music; and institutionalized capital, which is the values held by society at large (Jeannotte, 2003).

achievements of the collective is known as vicarious pride (Williams & Davies, 2017). Scholars like Septianto and colleagues (2018) have noted that vicarious pride promotes collaboration among individuals to achieve greater collective gain, thereby encouraging volunteerism and other prosocial behaviours. Thus, I expect to observe a positive association between pride in the treatment of others and charitable behaviour. Finally, I include two additional measures of cultural capital: religiosity and political interest. Wilson and Musick (1997) note that religiosity is associated with the value of helping others, which has direct implications for charitable engagement. On the other hand, political interest captures the value of civic engagement, which has also been shown to be positively related to charitable behaviour (Duke et al., 2009).

Table 2.5 provides descriptive statistics for cultural capital indicators by total sample, volunteer status and giver status. Givers and volunteers represent a larger portion of those who have provided a favor to their neighbor and value arts and culture. When it comes to valuing social justice, fewer volunteers and givers report not caring at all compared to their non-charitable counterparts. At the other end of the spectrum, more non-givers than givers report caring about social justice to a great extent; however, there is no significant difference between non-volunteers and volunteers. Finally, the pride felt in the treatment of others was almost identical between charitable and non-charitable respondents: over 3% of all respondents reported not feeling any pride, while over 23% of all respondents reported feeling very proud in the treatment of others.

Table 2.5: Descriptive Statistics of Cultural Capital Indicators by Total Sample, Volunteer Status and Giver Status

	Observations	Total Sample (%)	Volunteer Status (%)		Giver Status (%)	
			Non-volunteer	Volunteer	Non-giver	Giver
Goodwill - Provided Favor	26,814					
No	8,255	30.42	34.82	22.45	40.77	27.02
Yes	18,559	69.58	65.18	77.55	59.23	72.98
Values Arts & Culture	26,904					
Not at all Important	637	2.51	3.06	1.5	3.64	2.14
Not Very Important	2,322	9.58	10.41	8	12.42	8.66
Somewhat Important	11,940	45.98	46.64	44.86	45.66	46.14
Very Important	12,005	41.92	39.89	45.64	38.28	43.07
Care for Social Justice	25,693					
Not at All	247	1.02	1.18	0.75	1.64	0.8
Small Extent	2,346	9.67	9.85	9.34	10.02	9.52
Moderate Extent	11,349	44.9	44.61	45.44	40.66	46.3
Great Extent	11,751	44.41	44.37	44.47	47.68	43.38
Pride - Treatment of Others	25,934					
Not Proud at all	852	3.52	3.59	3.39	3.52	3.52
Not Very Proud	2,949	11.81	11.34	12.66	11.06	12.05
Somewhat Proud	6,453	24.95	24.28	26.11	22.71	25.67
Proud	9,495	36.15	37.39	33.99	38.88	35.26
Very Proud	6,185	23.57	23.4	23.85	23.83	23.5
Religiosity	26,986					
Not at all	11,906	47.26	53.51	36.04	57.62	43.82
At Least Once/Twice a Year	4,075	16.28	17.02	15.02	16.56	16.22
At Least 3+ Times a Year	2,711	10.33	10.02	10.83	8.29	11.02
At Least Once a Month	2,888	9.75	8.55	11.92	8.14	10.26
At Least Once a Week	5,406	16.39	10.91	26.19	9.39	18.67
Political Interests	27,443					
No	17,240	60.62	66.56	49.85	69.32	57.66
Yes	10,203	39.38	33.44	50.15	30.68	42.34

2.3. Description of Models

This study employs logistic regression to examine the likelihood of volunteering and giving based on different types of capital and demographic controls. The general model for the probability of engaging in either type of charitable behaviour is given as follows:

$$log\left(\frac{\Pr(charitable = 1|Xi)}{1 - \Pr(charitable = 1|Xi)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_i Controls + \beta_j HumanCapital + \beta_k SocialCapital + \beta_l CulturalCapital + \varepsilon$$

To further examine the behaviour of volunteers and givers, I employ an ordered logit model to study the hours spent volunteering each month. Finally, I conclude my analysis with an investigation of the number of organizations joined using a negative binomial model.

Across all models, I restrict the sample size to the number of observations in the full regression with the complete set of demographic controls and capital predictors to allow for comparability

between reduced regressions. After restricting the models, I obtain the following observations: 14,078 observations in the model on volunteering; 14,058 observations in the model on giving; 5,636 observations in the model on hours volunteered; and 14,056 observations in model for number of organizations joined. The unrestricted models can be found in Tables 1A to 4A in the appendix.

Part III: Results

3.1 Model for Volunteering

Table 3.1 reports the odds ratios for the likelihood of volunteering given demographic characteristics and human, social and cultural capital. Column 1 represents the control only model, and columns 2-6 represent reduced models for the demographic controls combined with the various forms of human, social, and cultural capital. The final column depicts the full regression, which will be the main focus of the results.

In models 1-3 and 5-7, sex and minority status were significant predictors of volunteering. Holding all other variables constant, the full model depicts that women were 18.7% more likely to engage in volunteerism, and those belonging to a minority group were 26.6% less likely to volunteer than Caucasian Canadians. There were also significant regional differences in volunteering: compared to Ontarians, Quebecers were close to half as likely to volunteer, while those in the Prairie regions had 1.22 times greater odds of volunteering. While regional differences in volunteering between Ontario, British Columbia, and Atlantic provinces were not significant in the full model, model 6 suggests that those in Western and Atlantic Canada were more likely to volunteer than Ontarians. Models 1, 2, and 5 also suggest that Atlantic Canadians are likelier to volunteer than Ontarians.

With the exception of age, all of the human capital indicators proved to be significant predictors of volunteering. As expected, higher levels of education were associated with greater odds of volunteering, although only by a 3.9% increase in probability. The full model also depicts that there is an association with better health and volunteering: an increase in health rating was linked to 1.06

Table 3.1: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Volunteering

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.347***	1.248***	1.359***	1.34***	1.223***	1.366***	1.187***
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)
Region							
Atlantic Region	1.145*	1.178**	1.09	1.13	1.19**	1.145*	1.14
	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.10)
Quebec	.404***	.401***	.434***	.465***	.522***	.464***	.584***
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)
Prairie Region	1.186***	1.262***	1.183**	1.179**	1.2**	1.198***	1.217**
	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.09)
British Columbia	1.12	1.13	1.13	1.09	1.06	1.212**	1.12
	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.11)
Minority	.845**	.801***	.833***	0.94	.807***	.692***	.734***
	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)
Human Capital							
Age		1.038**					0.99
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Education		1.114***					1.039**
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Income Group		.954***					.961***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		1.151***					1.064**
		(0.03)					(0.03)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.006***				1.003***
			(0.00)				(0.00)
Employed			.839***				1.02
			(0.05)				(0.07)
Partner			1.138**				1.118*
			(0.06)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Under 5			.862*				.78**
			(0.07)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.445***				1.377***
			(0.10)				(0.11)
Used Social Networking Site			1.188***				1.147**
			(0.07)				(0.08)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.401***			1.254***
				(0.08)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.078**			1.02
				(0.03)			(0.04)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.176***			1.112**
				(0.06)			(0.06)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.07			0.96
				(0.05)			(0.05)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.287***		1.196***
					(0.05)		(0.05)
Experienced Discrimination					1.205***		1.09
					(0.07)		(0.07)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					4.33***		3.692***
					(0.35)		(0.31)
Sociocultural Group					10.174***		7.346***
					(0.79)		(0.61)
Political Group					1.599***		1.497***
					(0.21)		(0.19)
Other					12.866***		10.34***
					(2.08)		(1.64)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.516***	1.227***
						(0.09)	(0.09)
Values Arts & Culture						1.191***	1.095**
						(0.05)	(0.05)
Care for Social Justice						.92*	.86***
						(0.04)	(0.04)
Pride - Treatment of Others						.897***	.903***
						(0.02)	(0.03)
Religiosity						1.399***	1.23***
						(0.03)	(0.03)
Political Interests						1.793***	1.362***
						(0.10)	(0.09)
Constant	.643***	.316***	.412***	.248***	.071***	.179***	.044***
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Observations	14078	14078	14078	14078	14078	14078	14078
Pseudo R^2	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.17	0.09	0.21

Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)

times greater odds of volunteering. Although the literature suggests that wealthier individuals are more likely to be asked to volunteer, the model indicates that wealthier individuals had lower odds of engaging in volunteering. Particularly, an increase in income group was associated with a 3.9% decrease in the odds of volunteering. While age was not found to be significant in the final model, the control and human capital only model did uncover a slight positive association with aging and volunteering.

The effects of social capital have been disaggregated into network effects, trust, and belongingness. The variable network size was found to be highly significant in all models, indicating that there is a positive association between larger network sizes and the odds of volunteering. For every additional member of one's network, the odds of volunteering increased by .3% in the full model. Having a partner was also associated with greater odds of volunteering, as individuals with a partner were 1.12 times more likely to volunteer. In alignment with the findings of previous literature, the effects of having children were mixed. Parents who have children under the age of five were 22% less likely to volunteer, while parents with children between the ages of six and seventeen were 38% more likely to volunteer. As expected, social networking use was associated with volunteering, suggesting a positive relationship between virtual networks and charitable behaviour. Individuals who reported visiting a social network site were 14.7% more likely to volunteer than those who did not use social media. Though not significant in the full model, employment status was found to be negatively associated with volunteering in the demographics and network size only model.

Concerning the effects of trust, only general trust in others and perception of a stranger returning a lost wallet were found to be significant in the full model. As hypothesized, both indicators once again suggested a positive relationship between trust in others and likelihood of volunteering. Compared to individuals who reported not trusting others in general, trusting individuals were 1.25 times more likely to volunteer. Furthermore, in reference to not trusting strangers at all, an increase

in one's perception of the honesty of strangers was associated with 1.11 greater odds of volunteering. Both the reduced model in column 4 and the full model did not uncover a significant relationship between trusting a neighbor to return a lost wallet and volunteering.

The last dimension of social capital, belongingness, was found to be an extremely important predictor of charitable behaviour. Most notably, organizational involvement was found to be a highly significant predictor for volunteering. Compared to not being involved in any organization, individuals who belonged to a group with a shared activity were 3.69 times more likely to volunteer; those who belonged to a sociocultural group were 7.35 times more likely to volunteer, and individuals who participated in a political group were 1.5 times more likely to volunteer. The most significant effect across all models was observed for individuals who belonged to the organizational category of "other," as those individuals were 10.34 times more likely to engage in volunteering. Another noteworthy indicator was the sense of belongingness individuals felt in their local community. As expected, local belongingness was associated with higher odds of volunteering. The full model depicts that an increase in one's sense of belongingness improved the likelihood of volunteerism by 19.6%. Although experiencing discrimination was not found to be significant in the full model, a positive association between discrimination and volunteering was observed in model 5, supporting the findings of previous literature.

All of the indicators for cultural capital were found to be significant predictors of volunteering. The largest effect is attributed to the indicator for political interest, as individuals interested in politics were 36.2% more likely to volunteer. Individuals who performed a favor for their neighbor and more religious individuals had similar odds of volunteering, as they both were 1.23 times more likely to engage in volunteering. Finally, an increase in one's value of arts and culture was associated with a 1% increase in the probability of volunteering. Contrary to the hypothesis in Section 2.2, caring about social justice and feeling pride in the treatment of others were negatively associated with volunteering.

An increase in one's care for social justice was associated with a 16% decrease in the likelihood of volunteering. Similarly, an increase in the level of pride one felt in the treatment of others in Canada was associated with a 9.7% decrease in the odds of volunteering.

3.2 Model for Giving

Table 3.2 reports the odds ratios for the likelihood of being a giver given demographic characteristics and human, social and cultural capital. Holding all other variables constant, the full model depicts that women were almost twice as likely to give than men. In comparison to Ontarians, Quebecers were more likely to give by 1.4 times. Furthermore, a negative association between belonging to a minority group and giving was observed: the full model predicts that individuals in a minority group were 22.2% less likely to give.

With the exception of health status, all human capital indicators were significant and positively linked with giving. Age had the most significant effect, as every ten-year increase after the age of twenty-four was associated with a 24.6% increase in one's likelihood of giving. As predicted, higher levels of income and education were also linked to increased odds of giving. In particular, an increase in one's income bracket was linked to 1.07 times greater odds of giving, while an increase in educational level was associated with 1.05 times higher odds of giving. Though health was insignificant in the full model, the demographic and human capital only model in column 2 depicts a significant and positive effect with better health and giving.

Concerning the effects of network size, the full model uncovers a positive association with larger network sizes and increased odds of giving. For every additional contact in one's social network, the odds of giving were expected to increase by .2%. In line with the findings of previous literature, being employed, having a partner, and having children between six to seventeen were also all positively linked to giving. Individuals who were employed and partnered were 1.38 times more likely to give in

Table 3.2: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Giving

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.677***	1.901***	1.848***	1.66***	1.623***	1.74***	1.932***
	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.13)
Region							
Atlantic Region	0.93	0.99	0.91	0.86	0.93	0.92	0.96
	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.10)
Quebec	0.93	0.95	0.95	1.10	1.10	1.156*	1.399***
	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.13)
Prairie Region	0.93	0.93	0.90	0.90	0.92	0.93	0.88
	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)
British Columbia	0.90	0.87	0.90	0.87	0.86	0.96	0.87
	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.09)
Minority	.698***	.847**	.758***	.8***	.71***	.598***	.778***
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)
Human Capital							
Age		1.232***					1.246***
		(0.03)					(0.03)
Education		1.13***					1.051***
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Income Group		1.094***					1.073***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		1.094***					1.01
		(0.04)					(0.04)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.003***				1.002***
			(0.00)				(0.00)
Employed			1.43***				1.379***
			(0.09)				(0.11)
Partner			2.414***				1.38***
			(0.16)				(0.11)
Child(ren) Under 5			0.94				1.17
			(0.09)				(0.13)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.272***				1.201**
			(0.11)				(0.11)
Used Social Networking Site			.838***				1.07
			(0.06)				(0.08)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.218***			1.03
				(0.08)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.19***			1.092**
				(0.04)			(0.04)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.264***			1.11
				(0.08)			(0.07)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.301***			1.143**
				(0.06)			(0.06)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.133***		0.99
					(0.04)		(0.04)
Experienced Discrimination					1.11		1.216***
					(0.08)		(0.09)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					2.106***		1.785***
					(0.16)		(0.15)
Sociocultural Group					3.124***		2.307***
					(0.25)		(0.21)
Political Group					2.185***		1.485***
					(0.24)		(0.17)
Other					6.218***		4.596***
					(1.59)		(1.16)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.715***	1.328***
						(0.11)	(0.09)
Values Arts & Culture						1.275***	1.158***
						(0.06)	(0.05)
Care for Social Justice						.902**	0.93
						(0.05)	(0.05)
Pride - Treatment of Others						1.01	1.062*
						(0.03)	(0.04)
Religiosity						1.292***	1.208***
						(0.03)	(0.03)
Political Interests						1.637***	1.598***
						(0.10)	(0.11)
Constant	3.02***	.355***	1.282**	.527***	1.06	.585**	.029***
	(0.19)	(0.06)	(0.13)	(0.08)	(0.15)	(0.13)	(0.01)
Observations	14058	14058	14058	14058	14058	14058	14058
Pseudo R^2	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.15

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

the full model, while those who had children between six to seventeen were 1.20 times as likely to give. Interestingly, no significant effect was observed for having children under the age of five across all models, suggesting that having young children does not substantially impact one's likelihood of giving. Another notable finding was that although social media use was not significant in the full model, there was a negative association between using a social networking site and giving in model 3, opposing the earlier predictions of this paper.

As expected, higher levels of trust were associated with an increased likelihood of giving. Although positive associations between all trust indicators and giving were observed in the demographic and trust only model in column 4, only two of the trust indicators were significant in the full model. In particular, an increase in the level of trust felt towards people who speak a different language was linked to 9.2% higher odds of giving, and an increase in the level of trust felt in a neighbor returning a lost wallet was linked to 14.3% higher odds of giving.

Belongingness was also found to be positively associated with giving. Most notably, individuals who reported belonging to an organization had significantly higher odds of giving than those who were not involved in any organization. Individuals who participated in a group with a shared hobby were 1.79 times more likely to give; individuals in a sociocultural group were 2.31 times as likely to give; and individuals who joined a political organization were 1.49 times as likely to give. The probability of giving was largest for individuals who belonged to the organizational category of 'other': according to the full model, those individuals were 4.6 times more likely to give than people who were not involved in any organization. The final significant social capital indicator for giving was discrimination. As noted in previous literature, experiencing discrimination increased one's odds of giving, particularly by 21.6%. Though belongingness in one's local community was not significant in the full model for giving, a positive association was observed in model 5.

As for the effects of cultural capital, every indicator was found to be a significant predictor for giving with the exception of caring about social justice. The largest effect was observed for political interest, as individuals who reported being interested in politics were associated with having 1.6 times higher odds of giving. Furthermore, providing a favor for a neighbor was linked to 1.33 times higher odds of giving; an increase in one's value of arts and culture was associated with 1.16 times higher odds of giving; and an increase in one's pride in the treatment of others was found to heighten one's odds of giving by 1.06 times. Religiosity was also found to be an important predictor of giving: an increase in one's level of religiosity was associated with a 20.8% increase in the probability of giving. The only indicator for cultural capital that was associated with decreased odds of giving was care for social justice, although this relationship was only significant in model 6.

3.3 Model for Hours Spent Volunteering

To investigate the secondary decisions involved in volunteering, I compare the effects of demographic controls and human, social, and cultural capital on the hours spent volunteering each month. The results of the ordered logit model are provided as odds ratios in Table 3.3, and the full model is depicted in column 7. Holding all else constant, the odds of volunteering for more than one hour a month were 14.5% lower for women than men. In respect to regional differences, individuals in Quebec and the Prairie regions had lower of odds of volunteering larger amount of times compared to Ontarians. Particularly, the probability of volunteering a high amount of time (fifteen hours or more a month) as opposed to moderate, low, and very low amounts of time was 21.4% lower in Quebec and 15.6% lower in the Prairie regions than in Ontario. Another significant association between demographic controls and hours spent volunteering was observed for minority groups: individuals who identified as belonging to a minority had 1.27 times greater odds of volunteering high amounts of time as opposed to moderate to very low amounts of time.

Table 3.3: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Hours Volunteered Per Month

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	0.97	.874*	0.98	0.98	0.93	0.96	.855**
	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)
Region							
Atlantic Region	1.08	1.08	1.06	1.05	1.04	1.04	1.00
	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)
Quebec	.727***	.685***	.758**	.716***	.788**	.81*	.786**
	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.10)
Prairie Region	.776***	.835**	.784***	.764***	.8***	.775***	.844*
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)
British Columbia	0.94	0.91	0.93	0.94	0.95	1.02	0.99
	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.11)
Minority	1.361***	1.395***	1.376***	1.391***	1.368***	1.251**	1.274**
	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.13)
Human Capital							
Age		1.216***					1.152***
		(0.03)					(0.03)
Education		1.02					1.037*
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Income Group		.922***					.944***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		0.98					.918**
		(0.04)					(0.04)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.004***				1.003***
			(0.00)				(0.00)
Employed			.692***				0.88
			(0.05)				(0.07)
Partner			1.08				0.89
			(0.09)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Under 5			.585***				.675***
			(0.07)				(0.09)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			0.97				1.00
			(0.09)				(0.10)
Used Social Networking Site			0.88				1.03
			(0.07)				(0.09)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				0.89			.858*
				(0.08)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.03			0.99
				(0.05)			(0.05)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.03			0.99
				(0.07)			(0.06)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.144**			1.03
				(0.07)			(0.07)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.376***		1.312***
					(0.07)		(0.07)
Experienced Discrimination					1.12		1.06
					(0.08)		(0.08)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					1.492***		1.517***
					(0.18)		(0.19)
Sociocultural Group					2.126***		1.894***
					(0.23)		(0.22)
Political Group					0.89		1.00
					(0.23)		(0.26)
Other					3.048***		2.702***
					(0.60)		(0.56)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.393***	1.245**
						(0.13)	(0.12)
Values Arts & Culture						1.184***	1.112**
						(0.06)	(0.06)
Care for Social Justice						0.96	0.96
						(0.06)	(0.06)
Pride - Treatment of Others						0.97	0.99
						(0.03)	(0.04)
Religiosity						1.183***	1.107***
						(0.03)	(0.03)
Political Interests						1.01	0.99
						(0.07)	(0.07)
cut1	.111***	.106***	.096***	.166***	.529***	.306***	0.54
	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.21)
cut2	.7***	.689*	.622***	1.05	3.528***	1.99**	3.803***
	(0.05)	(0.14)	(0.07)	(0.21)	(0.67)	(0.55)	(1.46)
cut3	3.16***	3.223***	2.908***	4.736***	16.744***	9.258***	19.17***
	(0.23)	(0.64)	(0.34)	(0.97)	(3.26)	(2.60)	(7.47)
Observations	5636	5636	5636	5636	5636	5636	5636
Pseudo R^2	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.04

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Concerning the effects of the human capital indicators, age and education were positively associated with the odds of volunteering for larger amounts of time. A ten-year increase in age was associated with 1.15 times greater odds of volunteering larger amounts of time than one hour a month, while a one-unit increase in education was associated with 1.04 times greater odds of volunteering for more than one hour a month. With respect to income and health, a negative association was unveiled between both indicators and the time spent volunteering. The odds of volunteering high amounts of time as opposed to moderate, low and very low decreased by 8.2% for every one-unit increase in health status. Furthermore, for every increase in income level, the odds of volunteering for more than one hour a month decreased by 5.6%.

Only two of the network size indicators were found to be significant predictors for the hours spent volunteering. The first notable result was that a one person increase in network size was associated with .3% greater odds of volunteering high amounts of time as opposed to moderate, low, and very low amounts. Secondly, having children under the age of five was linked to a 32.5% decrease in the odds of volunteering higher amounts of time.

Overall, trust was not found to be a relevant predictor in the hours spent volunteering. One slight negative association with general trust in others and time spent volunteering was depicted: a one-unit increase in the trust individuals felt towards others was associated with a 14.2% decrease in the likelihood of volunteering for more than one hour a month.

Of all the social capital indicators, belongingness proved to be the most significant predictor for the hours spent volunteering. Organizational involvement was particularly important, as all types of organizational participation were associated with higher probabilities of volunteering larger amounts of time. Furthermore, every unit increase in sense of belonging in the local community was linked to 1.31 times greater odds of volunteering a high amount of time rather than moderate to very low amounts of time.

All of the significant indicators for cultural capital were found to increase the likelihood of volunteering larger amounts of time per month. The largest effect was observed for the measure of goodwill: individuals who reported providing a favor for their neighbor were predicted to have 25% higher odds of volunteering for more than an hour a month. Stronger values for arts and culture and higher levels of religiosity were found to have similar effects on the time individuals expended on volunteering. Notably, every one-unit increase in valuing arts and culture and religiosity was associated with an 11% increase in the likelihood of volunteering larger amounts of time.

3.4 Model for Number of Organizations Joined

In light of the relevance of organizational participation in charitable behaviour, I investigate how demographic factors and human, social, and cultural capital influence the number of organizations an individual is involved in. Table 3.4 depicts the negative binomial model for the number of organizations involved in, and the full model is provided in column 7. The results are presented in the form of incident ratios, which offers insight into the rate of organizational involvement as measured by the number of organizations joined during the year. Holding all other variables constant, women compared to men were expected to have a 6.7% higher rate of organizational participation. The full model also depicts regional differences in organizational participation. Compared to Ontario, the rate of organizational involvement was 21.1% lower in Quebec, 4.6% higher in the Prairie regions, and 7.7% higher in British Columbia. Another significant indicator was minority status, as individuals who identified as belonging to a minority group were associated with an 11% lower rate of organizational participation.

Human capital was positively associated with the number of organizations that an individual was involved in. For every increase in educational category, the rate of organizational participation increased by 5.1%. Higher income groups were also linked to greater organizational involvement, as

Table 3.4: Estimated Incident Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Number of Organizations Involved In

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.089***	1.076***	1.101***	1.081***	1.049**	1.093***	1.067***
	(0.024)	(0.025)	(0.024)	(0.024)	(0.023)	(0.023)	(0.023)
Region							
Atlantic region	1.002	1.027	0.977	0.986	1.003	1.005	0.996
	(0.034)	(0.035)	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.031)	(0.031)
Quebec	0.652***	0.657***	0.686***	0.704***	0.676***	0.737***	0.789***
	(0.021)	(0.022)	(0.022)	(0.024)	(0.022)	(0.024)	(0.026)
Prairie Region	1.054*	1.077**	1.044	1.047	1.055*	1.050*	1.046*
	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.031)	(0.032)	(0.031)	(0.029)	(0.028)
British Columbia	1.057*	1.059*	1.064*	1.040	1.049	1.088***	1.077**
	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.032)
Minority	0.930**	0.933**	0.933**	0.997	0.906***	0.863***	0.890***
	(0.029)	(0.030)	(0.029)	(0.031)	(0.027)	(0.026)	(0.028)
Human Capital							
Age		1.018**					1.003
		(0.007)					(0.008)
Education		1.081***					1.051***
		(0.007)					(0.006)
Income Group		0.998					1.011***
		(0.004)					(0.004)
Health		1.094***					1.060***
		(0.013)					(0.012)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.003***				1.002***
			(0.000)				(0.000)
Employed			0.985				0.954*
			(0.024)				(0.025)
Partner			1.084***				0.956**
			(0.027)				(0.022)
Child(ren) Under 5			0.959				0.933**
			(0.032)				(0.031)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.094***				1.036
			(0.032)				(0.028)
Used Social Networking Site			1.060**				1.068***
			(0.025)				(0.024)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.202***			1.117***
				(0.032)			(0.028)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.072***			1.042***
				(0.014)			(0.013)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.052**			1.003
				(0.023)			(0.020)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.077***			1.023
				(0.021)			(0.018)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.262***		1.143***
					(0.018)		(0.016)
Experienced Discrimination					1.283***		1.184***
					(0.030)		(0.027)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.291***	1.196***
						(0.034)	(0.032)
Values Arts & Culture						1.102***	1.052***
						(0.017)	(0.016)
Care for Social Justice						0.993	0.973*
						(0.017)	(0.016)
Pride - Treatment of Others						0.952***	0.956***
						(0.010)	(0.010)
Religiosity						1.162***	1.142***
						(0.008)	(0.008)
Political Interests						1.437***	1.288***
						(0.031)	(0.029)
Alpha	0.246***	0.204***	0.205***	0.215***	0.195***	0.108***	0.047***
	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.016)	(0.016)	(0.02)	(0.013)	(0.012)
Constant	1.584***	0.783***	1.210***	0.826***	0.708***	0.654***	0.241***
	(0.037)	(0.051)	(0.044)	(0.052)	(0.037)	(0.053)	(0.026)
Pseudo R^2	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.07
Observations	14,056	14,056	14,056	14,056	14,056	14,056	14,056

Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)

an increase in income bracket was associated with a 1.1% higher rate of organizational participation. Finally, the full model also suggests that heathier individuals tend join more organizations. An increase in one's self-reported health status was associated with a 6% increase in the rate of charitable engagement.

With the exception of having children between six to seventeen, all indicators for one's network size were found to be significant predictors of organizational participation. The rate of organizations joined increased by .2% for every new person in someone's social network. Being employed and having a partner were negatively associated with the rate of organizational participation: both indicators decreased the rate of organizational involvement by approximately 4.5%. Having children under the age of five also had a negative effect on organizational participation, resulting in a 6.7% decrease in the rate of organizations joined. The final indicator for network size, social media use, was positively linked to organizational participation. Compared to people who did not frequent social networking sites, individuals who reported using social media were expected to have a 1.07 times higher rate of organizational participation.

Trust in people in general and trust in people who spoke a different language were positively associated with organizational participation. For every increase in the level of trust in others and trust in people who speak a different language, the rate of organizational participation increased by 11.7% and 4.2%, respectively.

Belongingness, the final dimension of social capital, was also positively associated with organizational participation. An increase in one's sense of belongingness was linked to a 14.3% increase in the rate of organizational involvement. Furthermore, individuals who experienced discrimination were expected to have a 1.18 times greater rate of organizational involvement. The indicator for organizational type was omitted from the model in order to avoid multicollinearity.

All of the indicators for cultural capital were found to be relevant predictors for the number of organizations joined. Being interested in politics was associated with a 28.8% increase in the rate of organizational involvement, representing the largest increase in the model. The value of goodwill was also found to be important in increasing the number of organizations joined: those who reported providing a favor for their neighbor had a rate of organizational participation 19.6% greater than individuals who had not performed a favor for their neighbor. Furthermore, valuing arts and culture and religiosity were associated with greater organizational participation. An increase in one's value of arts and culture and one's level of religiosity was associated with a 5.2% and 14.2% increase in the rate of organizational involvement, respectively. Finally, caring about social justice and feeling proud in the treatment of others were negatively associated with the number of organizations joined. For every increase in care for social justice, the rate of organizational involvement decreased by 2.7%. Likewise, an increase in one's pride in the treatment of others was associated with a 4.4% decrease in the rate of organizational participation.

Part IV: Robustness and Fit

Several approaches to ensuring robustness and goodness of fit are applied throughout this study. Firstly, I employ a correlation test between all of the variables to test for multicollinearity. I observe low correlations between the variables, and a maximum correlation coefficient of 0.42.

As previously mentioned, in order to control for the variability in the sample size created by the addition of new variables with each form of capital, I restrict the number of observations in the results section. Tables 1A and 2A in the appendix depict the unrestricted models for volunteering and giving, and Tables 3A and 4A depict the unrestricted models for hours volunteered and number of

organizations joined. There exist some slight differences in the results of the reduced models.[8] Notably, the unrestricted models unveil a larger set of significant predictors in the reduced regressions than in the restricted models. Furthermore, there exist slight differences in the adjusted R-squared values between the restricted and unrestricted models, although the variance does not exceed 1%.

Previous literature assumes both logistic and normal distributions for the charitable behaviour of Canadians. To ensure robustness, I compare the coefficients of the probit, logit, and linear probability models. Table 5A in the appendix depicts the comparison of all three models for volunteering, while Table 6A in the appendix depicts the comparison of all three models for giving. I find that all the models for volunteering and giving yield consistent results. The logit, probit, and linear probability models predict the same set of significant variables, and all of the significant variables are of similar magnitudes.

Although an advantage of the ordered logit model is its ease of interpretability, it is often the case that the parallel lines assumption does not hold. After performing the Brant test, I observe that the parallel lines assumption is indeed violated in the model of hours volunteered. After comparing the original model to the results of the generalized ordered logit model, which relaxes the assumption that slope coefficients are the same across all categories of hours volunteered, I observe that both models predict similar results. However, one notable distinction is that by virtue of assuming different slope coefficients, the generalized ordered logit provides separate estimates across the categories of hours volunteered. Thus, I include the results of the generalized ordered logit model in Table 7A of the appendix. The Stata user-written program gologit2 is employed for the generalized ordered logit analysis (Williams, 2006).

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[8] As the sample size is restricted to the number of observations in the full regression, the restricted and unrestricted models depict identical results when all predictors are included.

Finally, to select between the Poisson and negative binomial specifications for my model on the number of organizations involved in, I test my data for overdispersion. I observe overdispersion in the data, which validates the selection of a negative binomial model. Both the Poisson and negative binomial models predict the same set of significant predictors with highly similar coefficients, and the results of both models are depicted in Table 8A.

Part V: Discussion

5.1 Insights on Volunteering and Giving

A key finding of this study is that there are significant demographic differences in the charitable behaviour of Canadians. The results of both the volunteering and giving models suggest that women have higher odds of engaging in charitable behaviour than men. This finding is consistent with previous literature on charitable engagement. As an explanation for gendered differences in philanthropy, researchers have turned to psychological studies which find that women tend to display higher degrees of empathy and a stronger sense of moral obligation (Mesch et al., 2011). Interestingly, the model on hours spent volunteering uncovered a negative association between being a woman and the time spent volunteering each month. This suggest that although women are more likely to engage in charitable behaviour in the first place, men are more likely to spend greater amounts of time volunteering. Furthermore, one notable regional difference between volunteering and giving was observed. In comparison to Ontarians, Quebecers were more likely to give but less likely to volunteer. One study postulates that lower volunteerism in Quebec can be linked to lower parental involvement in the French-language school system compared to the English system, and the fact that Quebecers spend less time in religious institutions than those living in other parts of Canada (Riga, 2017). Finally, an interesting result was that while belonging to a minority group was linked to lower odds of volunteering and giving in the first place, the volunteers that belonged to a minority group were more likely to volunteer for larger amounts of times. Studies on charitable engagement in America found

that Black Americans are less likely than Caucasian Americans to be approached by organizations seeking volunteers and donors, leading to lower rates of volunteerism and giving (Wilson et al., 2000).[9] Further studies have shown that Black households give 25% more of their annual income than white households, suggesting that lower rates of charitable engagement among people of colour are more likely to be explained by differences in participatory barriers rather than intrinsic attributes (Reid, 2019). Similar systemic barriers may be driving differences in charitable behaviour between Caucasian Canadians and people of colour, meriting further research.

In alignment with the findings of past literature, human capital proved to be an important driver of charitable behaviour. Most notably, higher levels of education proved to be significantly associated with increased likelihoods of giving, volunteering, and expending more time volunteering. While age was not significant in the full model on volunteering, a positive association was observed between higher ages, giving, and time spent volunteering, validating earlier predictions. One departure from the hypothesis of this paper was that a slight negative association was uncovered between higher levels of income and both models of volunteering. Although past studies on charitable behaviour have generally suggested a positive link between income and volunteerism, a paper by Beatton and Torgler (2017) finds that the time spent volunteering increases after negative income shocks and decreases after positive income shocks. This result aligns with the negative relationship between income and time spent volunteering, suggesting that time constraints at higher income levels may be driving lower volunteerism. Finally, an interesting relationship was observed between better self-reported health and volunteering. While health improvements increased the odds of volunteering, it decreased the time spent volunteering, highlighting a need for further investigation into the relationship between health and charitable engagement.

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[9] This paper also finds a negative relationship between organizational involvement and belonging to a minority group, further substantiating Wilson and colleague's findings.

As hypothesized, significant associations were observed between network size and charitable behaviour. The effects of network size were most significant for predicting volunteering, followed by giving and then hours volunteered. Generally, it was observed that larger social network sizes, having a partner, and having children between the ages of six to seventeen increased the likelihood of both volunteering and giving. Though it was hypothesized that social media use would increase both types of charitable behaviour, I find that virtual networks are only associated with increased volunteerism. Likewise, the effect of children under five was only significant in the volunteering models, pointing to the possibility that time constraints associated with young children reduce volunteerism but not giving. Another key divergence between the two dimensions of charitable engagement was that employment increased the likelihood of giving but not volunteering. This result could be explained by the fact that employment is associated with economic flexibility, which is a more significant consideration for giving than for volunteering. The results of the indicators for network size unveil underlying connections between monetary resources and giving, and time availability and volunteering.

General trust in people and trust in a stranger returning a lost wallet were significant in predicting volunteering, while trust in people who speak a different language and trust in a neighbor returning a lost wallet were significant in predicting giving. The findings align with the hypothesis that higher levels of trust are positively associated with the decision to engage in charitable behaviour; however, a surprising result was observed for the secondary decision of time spent volunteering. Higher levels of trust in others was slightly associated with less time spent volunteering, meriting the need for further investigation into trust and effort expended in charitable activity.

Of all the forms of capital, belongingness proved to be the most significant predictor of charitable behaviour. Across all models, involvement in the organizational categories of "other" and "sociocultural group" had the largest positive effect on giving, volunteering and spending large amounts of time volunteering. A prominent difference between volunteering and giving was that local

belongingness increased only the odds of volunteering, while experiencing discrimination solely increased the odds of giving. Researchers have noted a simultaneous relationship between volunteerism and belongingness, where volunteerism increases sense of belongingness whilst belongingness increases the likelihood of volunteerism (Jeannotte, 2003). There is sparse literature to suggest that monetary giving increases belongingness, offering insight into why belongingness in one's local community was only found significant in the volunteering models. On the other hand, social exclusion such as discrimination has been found to increase charitable behaviour, specifically through the desire to bolster one's self esteem (Lee & Shrum, 2012). The result that discrimination is only significant in the giving model unveils a need for further research into the use of monetary donation as a signalling mechanism.

The final form of capital, cultural capital, was also found to be an important factor in charitable behaviour. As hypothesized, goodwill, valuing arts and culture, and religiosity were all significant determinants of giving, volunteering and hours spent volunteering. Being interested in politics had the largest effect on volunteering and giving, suggesting a substantial relationship between political engagement and charitable behaviour. An unexpected finding was observed for the pride that individuals felt in the treatment of others. While being proud of the treatment of others in Canada increased the likelihood of giving, it decreased the likelihood of volunteering. To further analyze this result, it is worthy to first turn to studies on nationalistic pride and charitable behaviour. One study has depicted a correlation between pride in national identity and the decision to donate to domestic charities, suggesting that pride is positively associated with the behaviour of giving (Hart & Robson, 2019). On the other hand, further research has shown that guilt is a stronger motivator for volunteering, particularly in the sense that volunteering is used as a guilt-reducing mechanism (Basil et al., 2007). Especially in the context of feeling pride in the treatment of others, higher pride can be associated with lower feelings of guilt, suggesting a weaker sense of responsibility for the struggles of

other Canadians. Given the plausibility of this relationship, it could be hypothesized that higher pride in the treatment of others dampens one's need to volunteer as a guilt reducing mechanism.

5.2 Organizational Participation and Charitable Behaviour

Across all models of volunteering, giving, and the hours spent volunteering, organizational involvement is consistently the most significant predictor of charitable behaviour. To further investigate this relationship, I perform a logistic regression on organizational participation and volunteering and giving while controlling for demographic characteristics and capital. I observe that both volunteering and giving are highly significant predictors of organizational involvement, confirming that there is a strong relationship between organizational engagement and charitable behaviour. The results of the logistic regression are depicted in Table 9A of the appendix.

One of the key findings of this paper is that there is congruency between the determinants of volunteerism and organizational involvement. In particular, there was substantial overlap between the significance and magnitude of the indicators for human, social, and cultural capital between both models. Interestingly, the organizational count model confirmed a negative association between organizational involvement and pride in the treatment of others as well as care for social justice, sparking the need for further investigation into why these two areas of cultural capital lower involvement and charitable engagement. Two notable distinctions between the volunteering model and organizational count model were observed. Firstly, higher levels of income were positively associated with the rate of organizational involvement, but negatively associated with the odds of volunteering. As Smith (1994) notes, wealthier individuals are more likely to be approached by organizations soliciting volunteers and members. The caveat in this theory could be that while wealthier individuals may agree to organizational membership, their involvement may be limited to providing financial support and other less time-intensive activities than volunteering. Furthermore, it

was observed that having a partner increased the odds of volunteering but decreased the rate of organizational involvement. This finding merits further investigation, but a possible interpretation can stem from the reasons individuals join organizations or choose to volunteer. Studies have found that organizational involvement has a direct relationship with the desire to experience social inclusion and meet people with similar interests (Hogg et al., 2008).[10] While there also exists an association between the need for social connectedness and volunteering, the goal of meeting others through volunteering is often cited as a secondary reason; a finding which will be discussed later in greater detail. As having a partner contributes to one's sense of social fulfillment, it could be the case that single individuals are more motivated by the prospect of meeting others and are thus likelier to join organizations than they are to volunteer. On the other hand, the positive association between having a partner and volunteering provides further support for the theory that social capital, particularly the dimension of network size, increases charitable engagement. Finally, similarities were also observed in the significant determinants for giving and the rate of organizational participation, although these similarities were not as pronounced as with the volunteering model.

The findings of my paper confirm an association between organizational involvement and charitable engagement, which has also been validated in the existing literature on charitable behaviour (Jackson et al., 1995). While it is not possible to establish a causal link between various forms of capital and charitable engagement using the results of this paper, it is noteworthy to briefly discuss the work that has investigated the causality between associational involvement and charitable behaviour. One theory in this domain of research is that associations, especially religious groups and service clubs, make members aware of others' needs, and provide tangible ways for members to help others (Wood

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[10] According to the uncertainty–identity theory, people have a basic need to reduce uncertainty in oneself. Thus, people join organizations to solidify their place in the world and find others who share similar attributes, thereby reducing their sense of uncertainty through group identification (Hogg et. al, 2008).

& Hougland, 1990; Wuthnow, 1991). Further research also suggests that associational belongingness leads members to internalize values, thereby attaching specific behaviours to one's sense of identity. A pertinent example of this can be seen in religious associations, where biblical stories of selfless behaviour are used to instill a value of helping the less fortunate. Once belonging to an organization becomes entangled with one's sense of identity, the individual may behave in a way that aligns with the values of the group; a mechanism which can ultimately encourage charitable behaviour (Wood, 1981).

5.3 Why Volunteer and Donate? Reasons behind Charitable Behaviour
Thus far, the results of this paper have provided insight into the determinants of charitable behaviour. Now, I will turn to the 2013 GSS-GVP to discuss self-reported reasons for charitable engagement, which offers further insight into the psychological factors at play in the decision to give.

Figure 5.1 depicts the reasons individuals reported for volunteering. Over 92.8% of respondents indicated that a desire to contribute to their community informed their decision to volunteer, highlighting the critical role that social capital holds in charitable behaviour. The overwhelming percentage of respondents who indicated volunteering to contribute to their community also provides evidence of altruistic motive.[11] Though it is not possible to disentangle with certainty whether the intention is one of pure altruism or warm glow, the distribution of results suggest that a combination of factors with both public and private benefit influence one's decision to volunteer. Furthermore, the third highest reason for volunteering is being personally affected by the cause, suggesting there is a private benefit from the act of volunteering. Thus, there is stronger evidence in support of impure altruism as a motivator for charitable behaviour. A third of respondents

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[11] Due to the self-reported nature of the results, it is important to be cognisant of the risk of self-serving bias, the psychological phenomena where individuals distort outcomes to benefit their self-image. Research has found that individuals tend to view their motives for charitable behaviour as more altruistic than the motives of others, highlighting the possibility of an overinflation of altruistic reasons in the results (Carlson & Zaki, 2019).

did report volunteering to support a cause; however, not enough information is available to determine whether personal benefit, social benefit, or a mix of the two, is derived.

The second most frequent reason for volunteering is to use one's skills, which encapsulates the relevance of human capital in the decision to volunteer. Furthermore, approximately half of the respondents indicated volunteering to improve their health and discover their strengths, both of which result in an increase in one's human capital.

Improvements to social capital, specifically one's network size, were also key reasons behind volunteering. 47% percent of respondents reported volunteering to network, which closely aligns with volunteering to find employment opportunities. Social pressure also seems to play an important role in explaining volunteering, with friends and family being cited as motivators for volunteering.

With the exception of religious obligation, no other reasons for volunteering closely relate to cultural capital. As cultural capital captures more indirect associations with charitable behaviour, it is unsurprising that the reasons provided for volunteering do not explicitly encompass one's cultural capital. Though religious obligation was the least common reason for volunteering, this observation can be attributed to the fact that highly religious individuals accounted for a small portion of the sample.
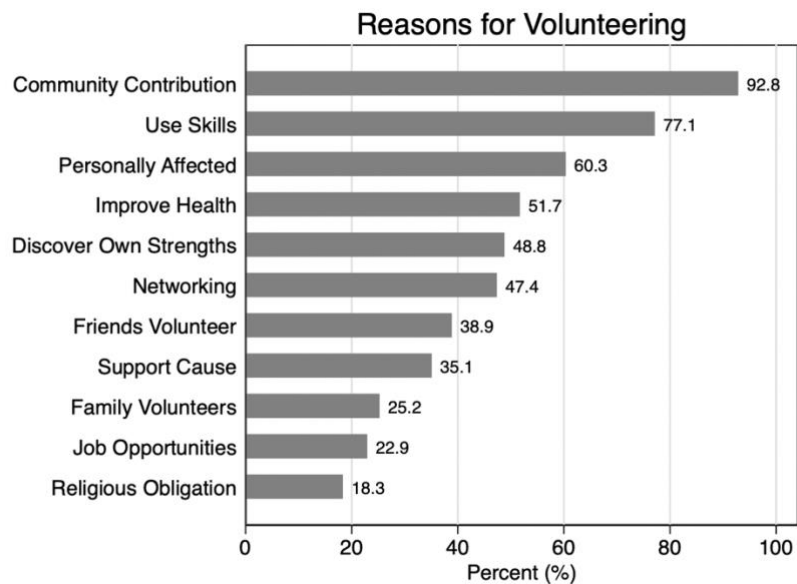
Figure 5.1: Self-reported Reasons for Volunteering

Figure 5.2 depicts the reasons for donating. Compared to the reasons provided for volunteering, the reasons indicated for monetary giving were less applicable to the different forms of capital. It is important to note that this is not necessarily a reflection of the unimportance of capital for monetary giving. Rather, it is likelier to be indicative of the fact that the pre-determined options respondents could select from in the survey responses did not neatly corresponded to the forms of capital.

Almost 92% of respondents reported donating because they felt compassion for the cause, revealing altruistic motivations for monetary giving. Though there is no clear consensus on if compassion more closely aligns with pure or impure altruism, one exemplary study by Crumpler and Grossman (2008) found that compassionate acts are motivated primarily by warm glow.[12] Furthermore, believing in a cause, wanting to contribute to the community, and being personally affected by the issue were also frequent reasons for donating. In contrast, only a quarter of respondents reported donating for tax credits, depicting that economic incentive was the least relevant factor in the decision to give. Donating out of religious obligation was also not frequently reported as a reason for giving, although it was more frequently reported as reason for giving than it was for volunteering. Another noteworthy insight is that 45% of respondents reported giving because they were asked to, which provides additional support for the power of social pressure. This finding also validates the idea that social distance is a relevant factor in charitable behaviour, as the act of personally asking someone to donate increases the closeness and directness of the interaction.

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[12] In Crumpler and Grossman's (2008) experiment, a participant is given the option to donate a portion of their endowment to a charity of choice. The experimenter deducts the amount donated by the participant from the charity, resulting in a net-zero gain from the act of giving. They found that over 60% of participants decided to donate a portion of their endowment to the charity, regardless of being aware of the fact that their donation had no effect on the total earnings of the charity. As pure altruists should only be concerned with increasing net social welfare, there would be no reason to donate any portion of their endowment to the charity. Thus, Crumpler and Grossman posit that participants derive pleasure from the act of donating, supporting the warm glow hypothesis.
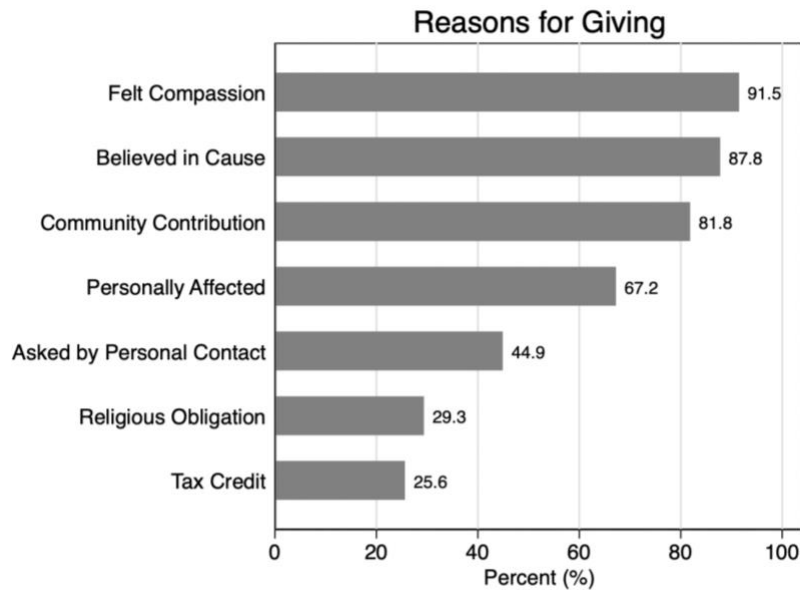
Figure 5.2: Self-reported Reasons for Giving

Concluding Remarks

Against the backdrop of declining volunteerism and giving rates in Canada, the factors that drive charitable behaviour are becoming a prominent topic of interest for non-profit recruiters, policymakers and social scientists alike. The findings of this study confirm the significance of human, social, and cultural capital in motivating charitable behaviour, contributing a Canadian perspective to the existing literature on philanthropic engagement.

Previous studies have relied on proxies for social and cultural capital, introducing a degree of separation from the variables and the effect they seek to capture. By employing direct measures for one's social network, sense of belongingness, trust and cultural attributes, my paper contributes a more precise method of studying the relationship between capital and charitable behaviour. Furthermore, there is scant research on the secondary decisions involved in charitable behaviour. To remedy this gap, my paper furthers its investigation into the effort and time individuals expend in charitable activity by studying hours volunteered and number of organizations joined. Finally, a notable contribution to the literature is the additional analysis on the reasons reported for volunteering and giving. As it is

difficult to establish causality between capital and charitable behaviour using empirical modeling, the reasons reported for volunteering and giving strengthen the understanding of the psychological motives behind charitable behaviour.

The results of this study offer support for Wilson and Musick's social resource theory, as I find that all forms of capital are significant predictors of charitable behaviour. The single most significant predictor for giving, volunteering, and hours volunteered was organizational involvement, which captured the attribute of belongingness. I also observe that human capital played an important role in charitable behaviour, specifically one's education. A notable difference in the effects of human capital on charitable activity was seen with income, as higher levels of income increased the odds of giving but decreased the odds of volunteering. In the sphere of social capital, larger network sizes and higher levels of trust were also linked to a higher probability of charitable behaviour, although these effects were more pronounced for volunteering. Finally, goodwill, valuing arts and culture, and religiosity were all significant cultural attributes that increased one's odds of volunteering, giving, and spending more time volunteering.

In light of the significance of organizational involvement, my paper also studies the number of organizations individuals are involved in as a result of one's capital. I observe that there is substantial overlap in the human, social, and cultural capital indicators for the number of organizations involved in and the decision to volunteer.

The findings for the reasons one engaged in charitable behaviour provide further support for the significance of human and social capital, especially for motivating volunteering. The results also shed light into the existence of a simultaneous relationship between capital and charitable behaviour. While human, social, and cultural capital are associated with increasing charitable engagement, individuals report volunteering to grow their network and gain skills, indicating that charitable behaviour also increases one's capital. Another notable observation was that individuals primarily

reported volunteering and giving for altruistic reasons. Rather than pure altruism, it is likelier that individuals were motivated to engage in charitable behaviour by the warm glow effect.

Although the findings of this paper offer a noteworthy glimpse into the charitable behaviour of Canadians, there still exist gaps in the knowledge on charitable engagement. One limitation of this paper is the use of aggregate data. Micro-data access to the 2013 GSS-SI and 2013 GSS-GVP would enhance the depth of the statistical analysis, offering more precise and richer insights through the use of continuous variables for income and other integral indicators. Another benefit of micro-data access would be the ability to investigate what organizations qualified under the category of "other", as this was the most significant category across all models. Further research might also examine how the forms of capital affect different types of volunteering and giving. For instance, substantial distinctions in the relevance of capital can be found between informal and formal volunteering, as well as involvement in different organizational types. Finally, there exists a considerable gap in the research on the secondary decisions associated with volunteering and giving. Deeper behavioural insights can be gained from studying the discrete number of hours spent volunteering and the monetary value of donations. This gap could be narrowed if Statistics Canada modifies future iterations of the GSS-GVP and GSS-SI to allow for the merging of the two datasets. In particular, as the GSS-GVP contains a breadth of data on the secondary decisions involved with charitable behaviour, merging the dataset with the GSS-SI would allow for the application of the novel measures of social and cultural capital to the effort and time expended in charitable engagement. Ultimately, a comprehensive understanding of what motivates charitable behaviour yields immense benefits in not only helping organizations recruit potential volunteers and donors, but it also holds power in encouraging pro-social behaviour to strengthen communities.

Appendix

Table 1A: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Volunteering (Unrestricted Model)

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.318***	1.255***	1.381***	1.326***	1.217***	1.362***	1.187***
	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.07)
Region							
Atlantic Region	1.167***	1.224***	1.11	1.128**	1.234***	1.176***	1.14
	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.10)
Quebec	.48***	.451***	.482***	.549***	.591***	.517***	.584***
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.05)
Prairie Region	1.254***	1.262***	1.227***	1.237***	1.235***	1.265***	1.217**
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.09)
British Columbia	1.141**	1.191***	1.126*	1.06	1.06	1.24***	1.12
	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.11)
Minority	.875***	.808***	.825***	0.98	.869**	.755***	.734***
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.06)
Human Capital							
Age		.974**					0.99
		(0.01)					(0.02)
Education		1.137***					1.039**
		(0.01)					(0.02)
Income Group		.975***					.961***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		1.165***					1.064**
		(0.03)					(0.03)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.006***				1.003***
			(0.00)				(0.00)
Employed			.875***				1.02
			(0.04)				(0.07)
Partner			1.07				1.118*
			(0.05)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Under 5			.868**				.78**
			(0.06)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.404***				1.377***
			(0.08)				(0.11)
Used Social Networking Site			1.168***				1.147**
			(0.05)				(0.08)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.46***			1.254***
				(0.06)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.071***			1.02
				(0.02)			(0.04)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.145***			1.112**
				(0.04)			(0.06)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.118***			0.96
				(0.04)			(0.05)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.29***		1.196***
					(0.03)		(0.05)
Experienced Discrimination					1.32***		1.09
					(0.06)		(0.07)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					4.707***		3.692***
					(0.27)		(0.31)
Sociocultural Group					9.164***		7.346***
					(0.50)		(0.61)
Political Group					1.617***		1.497***
					(0.16)		(0.19)
Other					12.602***		10.34***
					(1.54)		(1.64)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.589***	1.227***
						(0.07)	(0.09)
Values Arts & Culture						1.148***	1.095**
						(0.03)	(0.05)
Care for Social Justice						.947*	.86***
						(0.03)	(0.04)
Pride - Treatment of Others						.921***	.903***
						(0.02)	(0.03)
Religiosity						1.359***	1.23***
						(0.02)	(0.03)
Political Interests						2.037***	1.362***
						(0.09)	(0.09)
Constant	.535***	.264***	.382***	.205***	.062***	.142***	.044***
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Observations	27227	20330	21451	24537	26226	23373	14078
Pseudo R^2	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.17	0.09	0.21

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Table 2A: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Giving (Unrestricted Model)

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.687***	1.982***	1.941***	1.667***	1.662***	1.762***	1.932***
	(0.07)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.13)
Region							
Atlantic Region	0.93	1.03	.883*	.848**	0.96	0.97	0.96
	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.10)
Quebec	0.94	0.97	0.95	1.07	1.10	1.137**	1.399***
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.13)
Prairie Region	.869**	0.90	.888*	.839***	.849***	.892*	0.88
	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)
British Columbia	0.95	0.95	0.92	.87*	0.91	1.01	0.87
	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.09)
Minority	.666***	.853**	.735***	.727***	.667***	.585***	.778***
	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.07)
Human Capital							
Age		1.196***					1.246***
		(0.02)					(0.03)
Education		1.138***					1.051***
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Income Group		1.109***					1.073***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		1.115***					1.01
		(0.03)					(0.04)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.004***				1.002***
			(0.00)				(0.00)
Employed			1.487***				1.379***
			(0.08)				(0.11)
Partner			2.257***				1.38***
			(0.12)				(0.11)
Child(ren) Under 5			0.89				1.17
			(0.07)				(0.13)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.148*				1.201**
			(0.08)				(0.11)
Used Social Networking Site			.795***				1.07
			(0.04)				(0.08)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.18***			1.03
				(0.06)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.171***			1.092**
				(0.03)			(0.04)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.243***			1.11
				(0.05)			(0.07)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.27***			1.143**
				(0.04)			(0.06)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.147***		0.99
					(0.03)		(0.04)
Experienced Discrimination					1.093*		1.216***
					(0.06)		(0.09)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					2.093***		1.785***
					(0.12)		(0.15)
Sociocultural Group					3.207***		2.307***
					(0.19)		(0.21)
Political Group					2.049***		1.485***
					(0.17)		(0.17)
Other					5.034***		4.596***
					(0.89)		(1.16)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.805***	1.328***
						(0.09)	(0.09)
Values Arts & Culture						1.169***	1.158***
						(0.04)	(0.05)
Care for Social Justice						.927**	0.93
						(0.04)	(0.05)
Pride - Treatment of Others						0.98	1.062*
						(0.02)	(0.04)
Religiosity						1.278***	1.208***
						(0.02)	(0.03)
Political Interests						1.681***	1.598***
						(0.08)	(0.11)
Constant	2.73***	.287***	1.273***	.586***	0.98	.722**	.029***
	(0.12)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.01)
Observations	27162	20297	21415	24488	26163	23327	14058
Pseudo R^2	0.02	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.15

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Table 3A: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Hours Volunteered Per Month (Unrestricted Model)

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	0.99	.893*	0.98	1.00	0.95	0.98	.855**
	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
Region							
Atlantic Region	1.146*	1.08	1.10	1.09	1.127*	1.10	1.00
	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.10)
Quebec	.804***	.756***	.74***	.754***	.848*	0.88	.786**
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.10)
Prairie Region	.829***	.838**	.851**	.795***	.844**	.814***	.844*
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.08)
British Columbia	1.03	0.96	1.02	0.99	1.05	1.09	0.99
	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.11)
Minority	1.206***	1.288***	1.274***	1.235***	1.221***	1.22***	1.274**
	(0.08)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.13)
Human Capital							
Age		1.203***					1.152***
		(0.02)					(0.03)
Education		1.01					1.037*
		(0.02)					(0.02)
Income Group		.931***					.944***
		(0.01)					(0.01)
Health		0.98					.918**
		(0.03)					(0.04)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.003***				1.003***
			0.00				(0.00)
Employed			.709***				0.88
			(0.04)				(0.07)
Partner			1.05				0.89
			(0.07)				(0.08)
Child(ren) Under 5			.624***				.675***
			(0.06)				(0.09)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.01				1.00
			(0.08)				(0.10)
Used Social Networking Site			.842***				1.03
			(0.05)				(0.09)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				0.93			.858*
				(0.06)			(0.08)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.02			0.99
				(0.04)			(0.05)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.04			0.99
				(0.05)			(0.06)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.084*			1.03
				(0.05)			(0.07)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.315***		1.312***
					(0.05)		(0.07)
Experienced Discrimination					1.129**		1.06
					(0.07)		(0.08)
Organizational Involvement							
Shared Activity					1.261**		1.517***
					(0.12)		(0.19)
Sociocultural Group					1.877***		1.894***
					(0.16)		(0.22)
Political Group					0.75		1.00
					(0.14)		(0.26)
Other					2.544***		2.702***
					(0.37)		(0.56)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.405***	1.245**
						(0.10)	(0.12)
Values Arts & Culture						1.12***	1.112**
						(0.05)	(0.06)
Care for Social Justice						0.97	0.96
						(0.05)	(0.06)
Pride - Treatment of Others						0.97	0.99
						(0.03)	(0.04)
Religiosity						1.157***	1.107***
						(0.02)	(0.03)
Political Interests						1.02	0.99
						(0.06)	(0.07)
cut1	.116***	.108***	.099***	.154***	.405***	.268***	0.54
	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.21)
cut2	.678***	.689**	.588***	0.90	2.581***	1.624**	3.803***
	(0.04)	(0.12)	(0.06)	(0.14)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(1.46)
cut3	2.979***	3.049***	2.725***	3.988***	11.977***	7.42***	19.17***
	(0.18)	(0.52)	(0.26)	(0.61)	(1.80)	(1.64)	(7.47)
Observations	9819	7509	8319	8987	9608	8748	5636
Pseudo R^2	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.04

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

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Table 4A: Estimated Incident Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics and Human, Social, & Cultural Capital on Number of Organizations Involved In (Unrestricted Model)

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) Full Model
Female	1.060***	1.071***	1.077***	1.061***	1.031*	1.064***	1.067***
	(0.018)	(0.022)	(0.020)	(0.019)	(0.018)	(0.018)	(0.023)
Region							
Atlantic region	0.987	1.024	0.963	0.964	0.981	0.996	0.996
	(0.027)	(0.030)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.026)	(0.026)	(0.031)
Quebec	0.686***	0.681***	0.705***	0.743***	0.700***	0.755***	0.789***
	(0.017)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.020)	(0.017)	(0.020)	(0.026)
Prairie Region	1.085***	1.085***	1.056**	1.071***	1.078***	1.078***	1.046*
	(0.026)	(0.029)	(0.026)	(0.026)	(0.025)	(0.024)	(0.028)
British Columbia	1.081***	1.075**	1.056**	1.047*	1.069***	1.115***	1.077**
	(0.028)	(0.031)	(0.029)	(0.028)	(0.027)	(0.029)	(0.032)
Minority	0.930***	0.922***	0.912***	0.991	0.910***	0.867***	0.890***
	(0.022)	(0.026)	(0.023)	(0.024)	(0.022)	(0.021)	(0.028)
Human Capital							
Age		0.993					1.003
		(0.006)					(0.008)
Education		1.096***					1.051***
		(0.006)					(0.006)
Income Group		1.009**					1.011***
		(0.004)					(0.004)
Health		1.103***					1.060***
		(0.011)					(0.012)
Social Capital - Network							
Network Size			1.003***				1.002***
			(0.000)				(0.000)
Employed			1.024				0.954*
			(0.020)				(0.025)
Partner			1.073***				0.956**
			(0.022)				(0.022)
Child(ren) Under 5			0.940**				0.933**
			(0.027)				(0.031)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.069***				1.036
			(0.026)				(0.028)
Used Social Networking Site			1.063***				1.068***
			(0.021)				(0.024)
Social Capital - Trust							
Trust in People - General				1.235***			1.117***
				(0.026)			(0.028)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.076***			1.042***
				(0.011)			(0.013)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.053***			1.003
				(0.018)			(0.020)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.086***			1.023
				(0.016)			(0.018)
Social Capital - Belongingness							
Belonging - Local Community					1.256***		1.143***
					(0.014)		(0.016)
Experienced Discrimination					1.324***		1.184***
					(0.025)		(0.027)
Cultural Capital							
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.341***	1.196***
						(0.028)	(0.032)
Values Arts & Culture						1.101***	1.052***
						(0.014)	(0.016)
Care for Social Justice						0.995	0.973*
						(0.014)	(0.016)
Pride - Treatment of Others						0.955***	0.956***
						(0.008)	(0.010)
Religiosity						1.166***	1.142***
						(0.006)	(0.008)
Political Interests						1.550***	1.288***
						(0.027)	(0.029)
Alpha	0.364***	0.246***	0.244***	0.306***	0.298***	0.165***	0.047***
	(0.014)	(0.015)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.012)
Constant	1.429***	0.681***	1.155***	0.722***	0.654***	0.567***	0.241***
	(0.026)	(0.040)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.027)	(0.036)	(0.026)
Pseudo R^2	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.07
Observations	27,139	20,286	21,400	24,476	26,144	23,322	14,056

Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)

Table 5A: Comparison of Logit, Probit, and Linear Probability Model Estimates for Volunteering

	Logit Model	Probit Model	Linear Probability Model
Female	.172***	.106***	.032***
	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Region			
Atlantic Region	0.13	0.08	0.03
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.02)
Quebec	-.539***	-.317***	-.089***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Prairie Region	.196**	.12***	.037***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.01)
British Columbia	0.11	0.07	0.02
	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Minority	-.31***	-.181***	-.06***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.02)
Human Capital			
Age	-0.01	-0.01	0.00
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Education	.038**	.022**	.007**
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Income Group	-.039***	-.023***	-.007***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Health	.062**	.034*	.01*
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Network Size			
Network Size	.003***	.002***	.001***
	(0.00)	0.00	0.00
Employed	0.02	0.01	0.00
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Partner	.111*	.069*	.02*
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Child(ren) Under 5	-.249**	-.147**	-.041**
	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Child(ren) Between 6-17	.32***	.188***	.06***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.02)
Used Social Networking Site	.137**	.081**	.021*
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Trust			
Trust in People - General	.226***	.132***	.041***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Trust in People - Other Language	0.02	0.01	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger	.106**	.066**	.019**
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor	-0.04	-0.02	-0.01
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Belongingness			
Belonging - Local Community	.179***	.105***	.032***
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Experienced Discrimination	0.09	0.05	0.02
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Organizational Involvement			
Shared Activity	1.306***	.758***	.222***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Sociocultural Group	1.994***	1.182***	.389***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Political Group	.403***	.215***	.048***
	(0.13)	(0.07)	(0.02)
Other	2.336***	1.39***	.455***
	(0.16)	(0.09)	(0.03)
Cultural Capital			
Goodwill - Provided Favor	.205***	.119***	.034***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Values Arts & Culture	.091**	.055**	.016**
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Care for Social Justice	-.151***	-.087***	-.027***
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Pride - Treatment of Others	-.102***	-.062***	-.018***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Religiosity	.207***	.124***	.04***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Political Interests	.309***	.185***	.058***
	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Constant	-3.113***	-1.836***	-0.064
	(0.29)	(0.17)	(0.05)
Observations	14078	14078	14078
Pseudo R^2	0.21	0.21	0.25

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Table 6A: Comparison of Logit, Probit, and Linear Probability Model Estimates for Giving

	Logit Model	Probit Model	Linear Probability Model
Female	.659***	.381***	.103***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Region			
Atlantic Region	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01
	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Quebec	.335***	.188***	.054***
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Prairie Region	-0.12	-0.07	-0.02
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
British Columbia	-0.13	-0.08	-0.02
	(0.11)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Minority	-.251***	-.145***	-.032**
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Human Capital			
Age	.22***	.128***	.035***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Education	.05***	.028**	.007**
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Income Group	.07***	.041***	.011***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Health	0.01	0.01	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Network Size			
Network Size	.002***	.001***	0**
	(0.00)	0.00	0.00
Employed	.322***	.185***	.057***
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Partner	.322***	.192***	.059***
	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Child(ren) Under 5	0.16	0.08	.032**
	(0.11)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Child(ren) Between 6-17	.183**	.104**	.026**
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Used Social Networking Site	0.07	0.03	0.01
	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Trust			
Trust in People - General	0.03	0.02	0.00
	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Trust in People - Other Language	.088**	.054**	.014**
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger	0.10	.059*	0.02
	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor	.133**	.08***	.02**
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Belongingness			
Belonging - Local Community	-0.01	-0.01	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Experienced Discrimination	.195***	.107**	.031***
	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Organizational Involvement			
Shared Activity	.58***	.343***	.107***
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Sociocultural Group	.836***	.479***	.133***
	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Political Group	.396***	.236***	.083***
	(0.12)	(0.07)	(0.02)
Other	1.525***	.851***	.187***
	(0.25)	(0.13)	(0.02)
Cultural Capital			
Goodwill - Provided Favor	.283***	.159***	.046***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Values Arts & Culture	.147***	.082***	.023***
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Care for Social Justice	-0.08	-0.05	-0.01
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Pride - Treatment of Others	.061*	.036*	.01**
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Religiosity	.189***	.11***	.025***
	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Political Interests	.469***	.269***	.068***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Constant	-3.531***	-2.018***	-0.004
	(0.31)	(0.18)	(0.05)
Observations	14058	14058	14058
Pseudo R^2	0.15	0.15	0.16

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Table 7A: Generalized Ordered Logit Estimates for Hours Volunteered per Month
(Omitted Category: 15+hrs/Month)

	<1 hr/month	1-<5 hrs/month	5-<15 hrs/month
Female	-0.22	-0.135	-0.15
	(0.14)	(0.08)	(0.10)
Region			
Atlantic Region	0.086	-0.003	-0.008
	(0.19)	(0.12)	(0.13)
Quebec	-.377*	-.227*	-0.129
	(0.20)	(0.13)	(0.16)
Prairie Region	-0.18	-0.166	-0.134
	(0.16)	(0.10)	(0.12)
British Columbia	-0.13	0.029	-0.009
	(0.21)	(0.12)	(0.13)
Minority	0.111	.305***	0.201
	(0.17)	(0.11)	(0.14)
Human Capital			
Age	.121**	.124***	.164***
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.04)
Education	0.025	0.034	.048*
	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.03)
Income Group	-.094***	-.049***	-.057***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Health	-0.054	-0.043	-.145***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)
Social Capital - Network Size			
Network Size	.004***	.003***	.003***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Employed	-0.03	-0.136	-0.129
	(0.15)	(0.10)	(0.11)
Partner	-0.127	-0.134	-0.081
	(0.16)	(0.10)	(0.11)
Child(ren) Under 5	-.446**	-.412***	-.339*
	(0.21)	(0.14)	(0.19)
Child(ren) Between 6-17	0.029	-0.049	0.042
	(0.16)	(0.11)	(0.13)
Used Social Networking Site	-0.011	0.064	0.007
	(0.15)	(0.09)	(0.11)
Social Capital - Trust			
Trust in People - General	0.062	-0.124	-.296***
	(0.15)	(0.10)	(0.11)
Trust in People - Other Language	-0.007	-0.02	0.025
	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.07)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger	0.037	-0.019	-0.002
	(0.11)	(0.07)	(0.09)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor	0.042	0.078	-0.071
	(0.11)	(0.07)	(0.09)
Social Capital - Belongingness			
Belonging - Local Community	.231***	.239***	.317***
	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.07)
Experienced Discrimination	-0.06	0.026	0.13
	(0.15)	(0.09)	(0.10)
Organizational Involvement			
Shared Activity	0.21	.398***	.554***
	(0.18)	(0.14)	(0.19)
Sociocultural Group	.638***	.662***	.63***
	(0.19)	(0.14)	(0.18)
Political Group	-0.243	0.001	0.402
	(0.27)	(0.24)	(0.36)
Other	.989***	.74***	1.221***
	(0.37)	(0.22)	(0.26)
Cultural Capital			
Goodwill - Provided Favor	.499***	0.146	0.201
	(0.15)	(0.10)	(0.13)
Values Arts & Culture	-0.027	.133**	0.12
	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.08)
Care for Social Justice	-0.008	-0.064	-0.027
	(0.11)	(0.06)	(0.08)
Pride - Treatment of Others	-0.024	0.021	-0.056
	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.05)
Religiosity	.23***	.097***	.075**
	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Political Interests	0.173	0.031	-0.155
	(0.13)	(0.08)	(0.10)
Constant	0.641	-1.584***	-2.706***
	(0.65)	(0.42)	(0.51)
Observations	5,636	5,636	5,636
Pseudo R^2	0.06	0.06	0.06

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

Table 8A: Comparison of Negative Binomial and Poisson Estimates for Number of Organizations Involved In

	Negative Binomial	Poisson
Female	.065***	.066***
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Region		
Atlantic region	-0.004	-0.004
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Quebec	-.237***	-.238***
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Prairie Region	.045*	.046*
	(0.03)	(0.03)
British Columbia	.074**	.073**
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Minority	-.117***	-.117***
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Human Capital		
Age	0.003	0.003
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Education	.05***	.049***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Income Group	.011***	.011***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Health	.058***	.058***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Social Capital - Network Size		
Network Size	.002***	.002***
	0.00	0.00
Employed	-.047*	-.047*
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Partner	-.045**	-.045*
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Child(ren) Under 5	-.07**	-.069**
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Child(ren) Between 6-17	0.035	0.035
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Used Social Networking Site	.066***	.065***
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Social Capital - Trust		
Trust in People - General	.111***	.111***
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Trust in People - Other Language	.041***	.041***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger	0.003	0.003
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor	0.023	0.023
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Social Capital - Belongingness		
Belonging - Local Community	.134***	.134***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Experienced Discrimination	.169***	.169***
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Cultural Capital		
Goodwill - Provided Favor	.179***	.178***
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Values Arts & Culture	.05***	.051***
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Care for Social Justice	-.028*	-0.027
	(0.02)	(0.02)
Pride - Treatment of Others	-.045***	-.045***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Religiosity	.133***	.132***
	(0.01)	(0.01)
Political Interests	.253***	.253***
	(0.02)	(0.02)
lnalpha	-3.064***	
	(0.25)	
Constant	-1.425***	-1.416***
	(0.11)	(0.11)
Pseudo R^2	14056	14056
Observations	0.07	.

Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)

Table 9A: Estimated Logit Odds Ratios for Effects of Demographic Characteristics, Human, Social, & Cultural Capital and Charitable Engagement on Organizational Involvement

	(1) Demographics	(2) Human Capital	(3) Social Capital: Network Size	(4) Social Capital: Trust	(5) Social Capital: Belongingness	(6) Cultural Capital	(7) All Capital	(8) Full Model
Female	0.99	1.06	1.01	0.99	0.95	1.01	1.04	0.92
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.06)
Region								
Atlantic Region	0.92	1.02	.868**	.885**	.908*	0.93	0.94	0.91
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.08)
Quebec	.64***	.634***	.641***	.733***	.65***	.687***	.76***	.84**
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)
Prairie Region	1.156***	1.131**	1.10	1.146**	1.142**	1.169***	1.05	1.01
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.09)
British Columbia	1.268***	1.311***	1.186**	1.209***	1.251***	1.308***	1.246**	1.2*
	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.12)
Minority	.763***	.706***	.713***	.827***	.732***	.655***	.603***	.657***
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Human Capital								
Age		.936***					.96*	.944**
		(0.01)					(0.02)	(0.02)
Education		1.184***					1.114***	1.1***
		(0.02)					(0.02)	(0.02)
Income Group		1.06***					1.066***	1.076***
		(0.01)					(0.01)	(0.01)
Health		1.18***					1.1***	1.083**
		(0.03)					(0.03)	(0.04)
Social Capital - Network								
Network Size			1.007***				1.005***	1.003***
			(0.00)				(0.00)	(0.00)
Employed			1.203***				0.89	.884*
			(0.05)				(0.06)	(0.07)
Partner			1.147***				0.93	0.89
			(0.06)				(0.06)	(0.06)
Child(ren) Under 5			0.98				0.89	0.91
			(0.07)				(0.09)	(0.09)
Child(ren) Between 6-17			1.154**				1.14	1.02
			(0.07)				(0.10)	(0.09)
Used Social Networking Site			1.124***				1.168**	1.12
			(0.05)				(0.08)	(0.08)
Social Capital - Trust								
Trust in People - General				1.521***			1.392***	1.31***
				(0.07)			(0.09)	(0.09)
Trust in People - Other Language				1.131***			1.071**	1.05
				(0.03)			(0.04)	(0.04)
Return Lost Wallet - Stranger				1.06			1.05	1.01
				(0.04)			(0.06)	(0.06)
Return Lost Wallet - Neighbor				1.146***			1.07	1.08
				(0.04)			(0.05)	(0.05)
Social Capital - Belongingness								
Belonging - Local Community					1.351***		1.248***	1.189***
					(0.03)		(0.05)	(0.05)
Experienced Discrimination					1.612***		1.393***	1.318***
					(0.07)		(0.10)	(0.09)
Cultural Capital								
Goodwill - Provided Favor						1.582***	1.346***	1.229***
						(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.08)
Values Arts & Culture						1.13***	1.04	1.00
						(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Care for Social Justice						1.01	0.95	0.98
						(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Pride - Treatment of Others						.914***	.9***	.92***
						(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Religiosity						1.299***	1.324***	1.216***
						(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Political Interests						2.325***	1.6***	1.41***
						(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.09)
Charitable Indicators								
Giver								1.663***
								(0.12)
Volunteer								4.525***
								(0.34)
Constant	2.157***	.575***	1.394***	.743***	.789***	.618***	.099***	.101***
	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Observations	27265	20357	21477	24569	26262	23402	14092	14046
Pseudo R^2	0.01	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.07	0.11	0.18

*Standard errors are in parentheses (*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1)*

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