Development Committee Meeting AGENDA
November 15, 2023
9:30 am – 11:00 am

TOPIC	FACILITATOR	ACTION	TIME
1. Welcome and Call to Order	John Bayne		3
2. Prayer/Poem/Positivity	Amanda Smith-Socaris		2
3. Approval of September 13, 2023 minutes	John Bayne	Approve	3
4. Q3 dashboards	Meghan Parsons	Presentation	15
5. Development Committee scorecard	John Bayne	Discussion	15
6. 2024 goal & initiatives	Meghan Parsons	Presentation	15
7. Understanding Generosity report	John Bayne	Discussion	15
8. Committee member recruitment	John Bayne	Discussion	5
9. Goals/action items review & member report out	John Bayne	Discussion	15
10. Potential next meeting dates January 2024, TBD Friday, April 16th, 8:30 am–10:00 am Friday, September 6th, 8:30 am–10:00 am Friday, November 1st, 8:30 am–10:00 am	John Bayne		
11. Adjourn	John Bayne		

Next Meeting:
TBD
Opening Prayer/Poem/Positivity: TBD
RSVP to Kate Paterson at kate.paterson@foodbankst.org

Development Committee Meeting
September 13, 2023
2:30 pm – 3:30 pm via Zoom

Member	In Attendance	Unable to Attend
John Bayne (Chair)	X	
John Alexander	X	
Joe Thomas	X	
Alison Wolfe	X	
Julie Monahan		X
Anis Fadul		X
Amanda Smith-Socaris	X	
Jamie Kaffenbarger (Vice Chair)	X	
Krista Niles-Updyke	X	
Ex-Officio		
Mark Bordeau	X	
Mary Pat Dolan	X	
Staff		
Meghan Parsons	X	
Kate Paterson	X	
Mary Jane Bray	X	

1. **Welcome and Call to Order** – John Bayne called the meeting to order at 2:30 pm.

2. **Opening Prayer/Poem/Positivity –** John quoted the Elton John song *Mona Lisas and the Mad Hatters*, "I thank the Lord there are people like you".

3. **Approval of May 5, 2023 Minutes**

Amanda Smith-Socaris made a motion to approve the May 2023 minutes. Krista Niles-Updyke seconded. All were in favor. None opposed.

4. **CEO Introduction**
Mark Bordeau introduced himself to the Committee and expressed his happiness to be with the Food Bank.

5. **Q2 Dashboards (Meghan Parsons)**
Meghan referenced Q2 dashboards but they were not reviewed in the interest of time.

6. **2024 Fundraising Plan and Revenue Budget**
Meghan reviewed possible major changes to the 2024 budget which is currently being prepared. Some of those factors are:
   - Proposed pre-approved emergency food allocation to help us not have to go to the BOD if agencies run out of food
   - Increase in ham and turkey requests/costs
   - Increased wholesale food, more requests coming
   - Increased Healthy Harvest, also compensating for the reduced Nourish NY
   - Increased School Food Centers costs

- Potential insurance increases of 8-10%
- New Truck (funding requests submitted)
- Reduced funding NNY/HPNAP, state budget numbers

The possibility of reallocating some funds (SIF) over to the Emergency Food Money will be discussed at BOD meeting.

Meghan reviewed "A perfect Storm of Concerns" for fundraising in 2024, including:

- Request for food highest ever
- Household savings tapped out
- Low income tough times
- Student loans payments beginning again
- Possible government shut down
- Food inflation remains stubborn
- Looming recession
- Election cycle
- "pandemic over"
- HPNAP Legislative Appropriation not guaranteed
- Donors pulling back nationally
- Catholic Charities Settlement Announcement
- 2022 poverty increased by 4%

The current fundraising YTD is 65% to budgeted goal. Fundraising has the potential to come in around $5M in 2023. Because 40% of fundraising occurs in Q4, final numbers are hard to predict. A 2024 projected number of $4,612,275 is proposed, which is a 4.5% increase over the 2023 budget.

The Committee discussed whether it is better to set a high "stretch" fundraising goal or a more moderate goal. The increased food need was discussed, as was the need to raise money to meet that need. It is important to tell the story of the dire need to the public and to steward donors. It was agreed that the impact of the settlement, when it is known, has the possibility of limiting our ability to raise funds.

After further discussion, all agreed to a proposed target of $4.8M for 2024. John thanked the Committee for the excellent discussion and adjourned the meeting at 3:30 pm.

Action Items	Responsible	Due Date
Roughly estimate the monetary impact of the itemized proposed changes to the 2024 budget	Meghan	

Next Meeting:
November 15, 2023
Opening Prayer/Poem/Positivity: Amanda Smith-Socaris
RSVP to Kate Paterson at kate.paterson@foodbankst.org

Minutes respectfully submitted,

Kate Paterson
Executive Assistant to the President/CEO

food bank of the Southern Tier

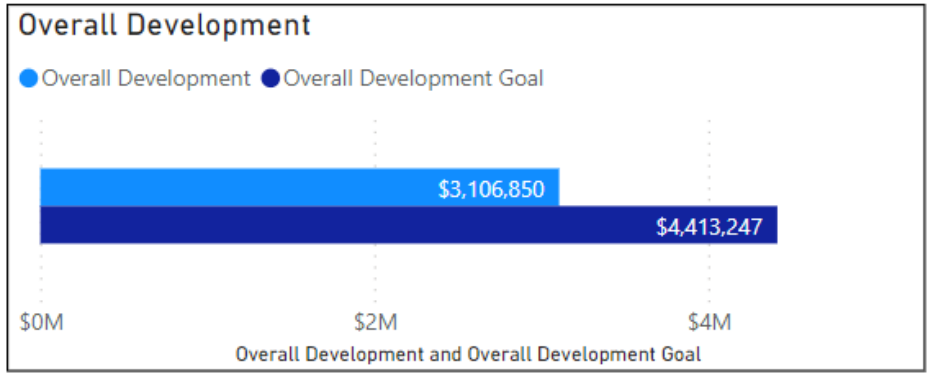
Development Committee

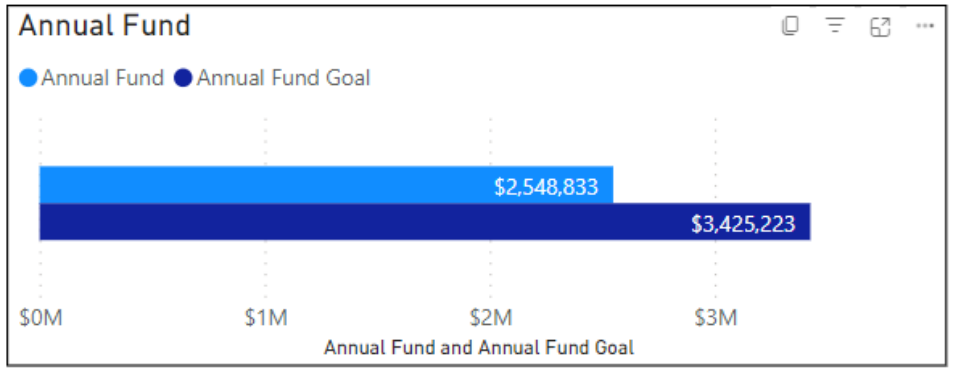
Q3 2023 Dashboards – Dollars, Donors

Meghan Parsons, CDO

Dollars

Revenue 70% to goal overall; 74% annual fund





2023 Planned Solicitations Progress			
Fundraiser Name	Number Planned Asks	FY Amt Expected	New gifts and commitments to date
Nancy Webster	27	$828,656	$407,106
Mary Jane Bray	20	$533,007	$286,509
Katherine R. Strawser	14	$244,500	$180,500
Total	**61**	**$1,606,163**	**$874,115**

Number of Actions with Donors

BY ACTION FUNDRAISER, TYPE

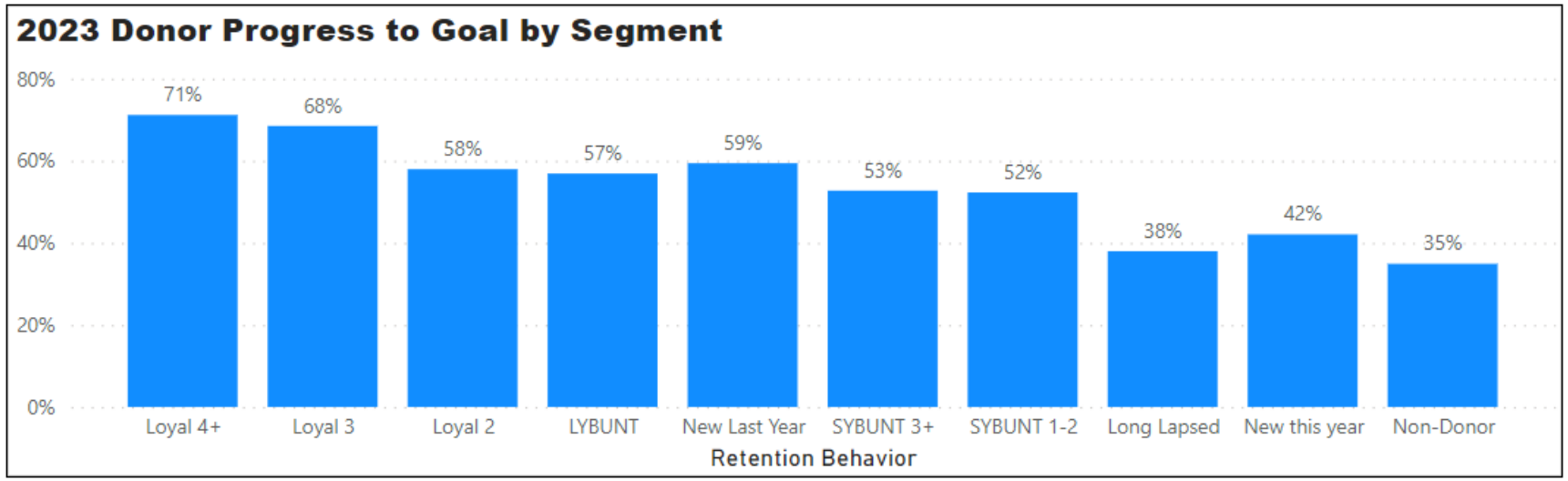
Action Fundraiser	Visit Request	Action	Move	Solicitation	Stewardship - TY Call	Total
Mary Jane Bray	264	400	144	23	247	**1,078**
Nancy Webster	32	400	67	31	39	**569**
Katherine R. Strawser	55	362	11	18	9	**455**
Meghan Parsons	4	14	4		1	**23**
Total	**355**	**1,176**	**226**	**72**	**296**	**2,125**

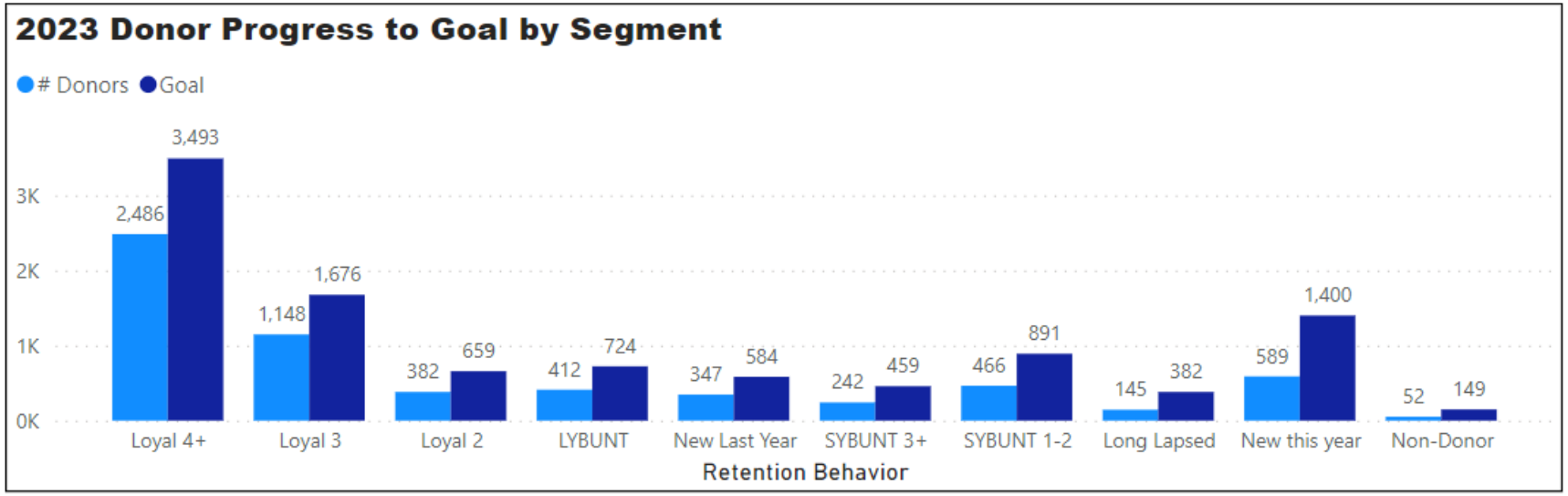
Annual Fund Giving by Gift Level

Year	2023				
Gift Amount Range	FY # Donor Goal	FY Total Giving Goal	# Donors	Average Gift	Total Giving
$100,000+	1	$100,000	3	$108,093	$324,278
$75,000+	1	$75,000	0	$0	$0
$50,000+	1	$58,653	8	$44,458	$355,666
$25,000+	5	$164,030	7	$27,718	$194,026
$12,000+	8	$125,248	13	$14,320	$186,162
$5,000+	75	$499,275	34	$6,423	$218,396
$2,500+	98	$313,012	52	$2,954	$153,621
$1,000+	550	$727,650	305	$1,175	$358,448
$500+	615	$377,610	385	$537	$206,859
$250+	1,140	$364,800	742	$276	$204,921
$100+	3,180	$432,480	1,917	$127	$242,633
$50+	2,115	$124,785	1,278	$55	$70,019
$35+	450	$17,100	308	$36	$11,179
$25+	1,175	$30,550	524	$26	$13,481
$.01+	1,002	$15,030	619	$15	$9,145
Total	**10,416**	**$3,425,223**	**6,195**	**$411**	**$2,548,833**

Donors

Donor retention strong – 67% to overall goal





Board and Non-Board Committee Giving

Board/Non-Board Committee	# Members	Giving Hard and Soft credit	Number Donors	% Num Donors to Goal
Board	14	$65,501	10	71%
Non-Board Committee	13	$59,500	6	46%
Total	27	$125,001	16	59%

SCHOOL OF
PUBLIC POLICY
DO GOOD INSTITUTE

UNDERSTANDING GENEROSITY:

A LOOK AT WHAT INFLUENCES VOLUNTEERING AND GIVING IN THE UNITED STATES

NOVEMBER 2023

DR. NATHAN DIETZ | DR. ROBERT T. GRIMM JR.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Recent reports about the state of the philanthropic sector have suggested that America is experiencing a generosity crisis. In 2021, the formal volunteer rate - the percentage of adults who do unpaid work through or for an organization - experienced its largest decline since the U.S. government began collecting data on volunteering. In 2022, for only the third time in the last forty years, the total amount donated to charity declined after adjusting for inflation. Yet, leading indicators of these results were detected several years earlier: the percentage of people donating to charity has declined steadily since the early 2000s, and the formal volunteer rate decreased during the early 2010s.

A closer look at the recent history of generosity in America will help us understand the state of generosity in the country today. If we focus on donations of time (volunteering) and donations of money (giving) to charitable organizations, which are two of the most common forms that generosity traditionally takes, we can say that the decision to give or volunteer is likely to depend on personal circumstances, social connections and community characteristics. These two measures - "formal" volunteering, through or for organizations (including schools and congregations), and making gifts of $25 or more to charitable organizations - are only two of the many activities that could be considered generosity. The survey contained several follow-up questions about volunteering, but due to space limitations, only the single yes/no question about giving was included, which prevents us from analyzing measures of generosity such as percentage of income donated. In this report - the first of two in this series - the primary data source, the Current Population Survey Supplement on Volunteering (CPS Volunteer Supplement), enables us to measure the influences of personal, social and community characteristics on the decision to give time or money to philanthropic causes.

The CPS, the U.S. government's official survey for labor force statistics, added a special series of questions each September between 2008 and 2015 on volunteering and giving. By design, CPS samples are very large (more than 90,000 adult respondents from more than 60,000 households nationwide) and geographically diverse, with a representative sample of households from every state. Because the survey includes questions about a wide variety of personal, family, and household characteristics, and also identifies the general location of the household, we can use CPS data to measure *micro-level* influences (personal, family and household characteristics) and *macro-level* influences (characteristics of the state or metropolitan area) on the decision to volunteer or donate money.

In this report, we use multilevel modeling methods, which allow us to estimate the influences of our micro-level and macro-level variables, controlling for all other factors. Previous studies have used multilevel methods, along with CPS data, to study volunteering, while they have most often been used to study giving in cross-national contexts. In this report, we use the same set of micro-level and macro-level variables in our models of giving and volunteering, using CPS data from 2010-2015 and supplementing it with macro-level data about state characteristics. Multilevel modeling allows us to calculate the independent marginal effect of each of our variables on the probability of giving and volunteering when all other variables are held constant. These marginal effects can tell us which variables have the most influence on volunteering and giving, and also whether any given variable has more influence on giving than on volunteering (or vice versa).

The results of our multilevel models reveal the following about the micro-level and macro-level factors that influence volunteering and giving:

MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

GENDER

Women are more likely to volunteer and to give than men, controlling for all other personal, family, household and state-level characteristics. The "gender gap" during the period 2010-2015 is about 6.3 percentage points for volunteering and about 7.6 percentage points for giving.

RACE AND NATIONAL ORIGIN

The CPS surveys allow respondents to "check all that apply" from a list of five categories that denote race or national origin. Among people who identify with only one racial category, White adults are most likely to give and to volunteer, all else being equal; the racial differences in participation rates (marginal effects) are larger for giving than for volunteering, and the differences in participation rates are greatest for those who identify only as Asian. Multiracial adults (those who identify with more than one racial category) are about as likely to give as those who identify only as White, and are more likely to volunteer.

LATINO ETHNICITY

Independently from the race and national origin question, the CPS allows people to self-identify as Latino (or Hispanic). Latinos are less likely to volunteer and to give than non-Latinos, controlling for other factors. The gap is 9 percentage points for volunteering and 8 percentage points for giving, but the differences increase in size with educational attainment: the difference in participation rates between Latinos and non-Latinos is largest among college graduates.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Our results support the claim, made in previous studies, that **educational attainment is the single strongest predictor of volunteering**. Compared to those without high school diplomas, college graduates are 19.4 percentage points more likely to volunteer, on average. The difference in giving is 32.5 percent, but age is actually a stronger predictor of giving than educational attainment.

PARENTHOOD

Parents - adults who are living with their own children under age 18 - are more likely to give and volunteer than non-parents. **This is the only micro-level variable that has a larger effect, controlling for other factors, on volunteering (8.1 percentage points) than on giving (4.4 percentage points).**

MARITAL STATUS

People who are married and living with their spouses are more likely to volunteer and give than those who have never been married. The difference is much larger for giving (15.7 percentage points) than it is for volunteering (4.5 percentage points). Compared to those who have never married, those who are divorced, separated or widowed are more likely to give, and about as likely to volunteer.

LABOR FORCE STATUS

On average, **people who work part time have higher volunteer rates than people who work full time** (the difference is 6.5 percentage points) but are about as likely to give. **Those who are unemployed are more likely to volunteer (4.6 percentage points) than people who work full time**, controlling for other factors - particularly educational attainment - but are significantly less likely to give (7.4 percentage points). Those who are not in the labor force - a subgroup that includes those who are retired or otherwise not looking for work - are much less likely to give (10.7 percentage points) than those who work full time, controlling for other factors, especially age. However, they are only slightly more likely to volunteer (0.7 percentage points).

FAMILY INCOME

Both volunteering and giving are more likely among people with higher levels of family income. The difference in volunteer rates between the lowest income bracket (annual income of $35,000 or less) and the highest ($75,000 or more) is 9.7 percentage points, controlling for all other factors. The difference in giving rates is 18.9 percentage points.

URBAN-SUBURBAN-RURAL HOUSEHOLD LOCATION

Across the population, controlling for other factors, people living in rural areas are 2.6 percentage points more likely to volunteer than people living in urban areas, and 2.1 percentage points more likely to volunteer than people in suburban areas. People in suburban areas are more likely to give than people in rural areas (2.3 percentage points) and those living in urban areas.

AGE

Historically, the adult volunteer rate declines during young adulthood, then rises until midlife, after which it declines again as people age. When controlling for other factors, we see the early-adulthood decline (2.4 percentage points), but the volunteer rate actually increases by almost 9 percentage points until ages 65-74, and finally declines at age 75. The giving rate increases steadily over the life cycle; the difference in giving rates between ages 16-24 and ages 75 and over is 34.6 percentage points.

SURVEY YEAR

Overall, controlling for other factors, the volunteer rate declined by 3.2 percentage points between 2010 and 2015, and the giving rate declined by 3.1 percentage points. This is much higher than the actual observed declines in the giving and volunteer rates, without controlling for demographic change in the adult population. These results suggest that **the observed declines in giving and volunteering may have been due less to demographic changes and due more to changes in people's willingness to help others.**

MACRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

A number of the macro-level variables, measured at the state level, are statistically significant in the models for giving and volunteering, although few are significant in both equations.

MULTI-UNIT HOUSING

Within cities or states, multi-unit housing is said to discourage volunteering because the people who live there tend to have looser connections to the community. In fact, the percent of adults who live in multi-unit housing is significant and negative in the volunteering model, controlling for other factors, but not in the model for giving. A one standard deviation (SD) increase in this variable decreases the volunteer rate by 2.3 percentage points, all else being equal.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

The percentage of state residents who are college graduates seems to have more influence on individual giving and volunteering decisions than the percentage of residents who have graduated high school. Educational attainment is not statistically significant in the giving model for the entire population, but for every one-SD increase in the percentage of state residents who are college graduates, the volunteer rate increases by 2.2 percentage points, controlling for other factors, especially the respondent's own level of educational attainment.

POVERTY RATE

Contrary to the hypothesis that generosity is less prevalent in economically deprived areas, the percentage of state residents living below the poverty threshold is significant and positive in the multilevel models for both giving and volunteering. For a one-SD increase in the state poverty rate, the volunteer rate increases by 1.6 percentage points, and the giving rate increases by 2.7 points, controlling for other factors. **These results suggest that people who live in a state with widespread poverty are more likely to respond with generosity, all else being equal.**

PREVALENCE OF LARGE AND SMALL NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Because most nonprofit organizations take in so little revenue that they are not required to file IRS Form 990-EZ, let alone the full Form 990, we include two measures of nonprofit prevalence in our models: large nonprofits (annual gross receipts of $50,000 or more) per 1000 state residents, and small nonprofits per 1000 state residents.

Since small nonprofits are especially reliant on volunteers and small donors for their resources, we would expect their prevalence to have a large impact on individual volunteering and giving. **In fact, the prevalence of small nonprofits only has a significant impact on giving, not on volunteering;** controlling for other factors, a one-SD increase in small nonprofits per 1000 residents is associated with a 2.7 percentage point increase in the giving rate. However, a one-SD increase in large nonprofits per 1000 residents is associated with a 3.3 percentage point decrease in the volunteer rate, and an 8.7 percentage point decrease in the giving rate.

MEDIAN INCOME

Median income is positive and significant in the model for giving, which indicates that people who are living in more affluent states are more likely to give - even after controlling for their own personal and household characteristics, especially education and income. While median income is not significant in the model for volunteering, a one-SD increase in the state's median income is associated with a 5.5 percentage point increase in the giving rate.

PREVALENCE OF CONGREGATIONS

Congregations are also tax-exempt nonprofits, and many are reliant on volunteer work and donated revenue for their resources. The prevalence of congregations is not significant in the model for giving, but a one-SD increase in the number of congregations per 1000 state residents is associated with a slight (0.9 percentage points) increase in the volunteer rate.

INCOME INEQUALITY

The Gini index, which takes on larger values in states with higher income inequality, is negative and statistically significant in the giving model, even after controlling for personal socioeconomic characteristics like family income and education. This indicates that giving to charity is more prevalent in places with less income inequality, although income inequality has no significant effect on volunteering. A one-SD increase in the state Gini index is associated with a decrease of 1.5 percentage points in the giving rate.

SOCIAL CAPITAL / PHILANTHROPIC CULTURE

This index, which was originally created for use in Robert Putnam's Bowling Alone, is positive and significant in the multilevel model of volunteering for all adults. As anticipated, if not predicted, it is not significant in the giving model - indicating that macro-level measures of social capital, or philanthropic culture, influence the decision to volunteer but not the decision to donate money. A one-SD increase in the state social capital index is associated with an increase of 1.6 percentage points in the volunteer rate.

PREFERRED CITATION

Dietz, Nathan, and Grimm, Robert T., Jr. 2023. "Understanding Generosity: A Look at What Influences Volunteering and Giving in the United States" Research Report: Do Good Institute, School of Public Policy, University of Maryland.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Do Good Institute at the School of Public Policy provides hands-on learning experiences, immersive programs and events, research and supportive resources to develop the next generation of nonprofit leaders, social innovators and civic-minded changemakers. Across campus, students engage in hands-on, project-based and research-focused social impact, philanthropy, and leadership courses, giving them needed skills to make a difference, taught by a growing group of respected scholars and accomplished practitioners. The Institute and its faculty engage in civic research to better understand and share the importance of volunteering, giving, and other community-based actions.

To learn more visit dogood.umd.edu.

Many thanks to the Generosity Commission for their generous investment which helped make this research possible.

The Generosity Commission is a group of leaders from across the charitable sector committed to celebrating and supporting Americans' spirit of generosity as expressed through everyday giving, volunteering, and other forms of civic engagement. Launched in October 2021, it is an independent project of Giving USA Foundation™ whose mission is to advance research, education, and public understanding of philanthropy.

Through research and conversation, the Generosity Commission will contribute to national understanding about how individual givers and volunteers are reimagining generosity in powerful and positive ways, strengthening our society and democracy in the process.

The Generosity Commission will conclude its work in 2024 with recommendations for all sectors to support and enable everyday giving and volunteering. Ultimately, the Generosity Commission seeks to foster a culture of individual and collective generosity in the face of the social and economic challenges our society faces today.

For more information, visit **www.thegenerositycommission.org**.

INTRODUCTION

Several alarming statistics about a potential decline in American generosity were released during the first months of 2023. In late January, AmeriCorps - the federal agency for national service and volunteerism - reported that the percentage of American adults who performed volunteer work through or for an organization declined by seven percentage points between 2019 and 2021. While the percentage of Americans volunteering informally - helping or working with their neighbors, friends, and communities outside of organizations - held steady during this time period, the 2021 decline in the formal volunteer rate was the largest ever recorded.[1] In mid-June, the Giving USA Foundation released Giving USA 2023[2], which revealed that the total amount given to charity declined, controlling for inflation, by more than 10 percent in 2022. This was only the third time in the last forty years that total giving declined from the previous year in current dollars.

Not everyone agrees that the declines in participation rates represent an irreversible crisis in generosity: the national adult volunteer rate tends to rise and fall slightly over the long term[3], and the 2022 decline in total giving amount occurred right after the 2021 total reached an all-time high. However, recent trends in participation rates for both giving and volunteering have been negative: giving rates have declined precipitously between 2000 and 2018[4], and the national formal volunteer rate for all American adults ages 16 and over also declined much more often than it increased during the period 2002 through 2015, bottoming out at 24.9 percent in 2015.[5]

If the latest data, collected during the COVID-19 pandemic period, suggest that generosity in America has declined, what can the recent past teach us about why we are where we are today? The overall goal of this study - which will be published as two reports, this being the first - is to take a closer, deeper look at the state of generosity in America during the decade of the 2010s. This report focuses on giving money and volunteering, two activities that unquestionably meet the definition of philanthropy as "private giving for public purposes,"[6] and (along with group membership) the main "communal activities" that fit the definition of civic engagement.[7]

With this report, we hope to learn more about these recent trends by estimating the effects of the individual and geographic variables that are likely to influence both giving and volunteering in the United States. Much of the data we use comes from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly labor-force survey that is administered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U.S. Census Bureau. The CPS has several advantages over other high-quality data sources on giving and volunteering: each supplement contains large national and statewide samples every year and collects data for a wide variety of household-level, family-level and individual-level variables.

Every September between 2008 and 2015, the CPS included a supplemental survey on volunteering (the Volunteer Supplement) that contained questions about giving to charitable organizations and volunteering with an organization (formal volunteering). Generosity can take many forms in addition to these activities - especially activities that don't involve organizations at all - but we focus on these because they have been consistently measured over a relatively long time period on an official government survey.

Our study builds on a 2007 report published by the Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS)[8] that identifies a number of geographic variables that could help explain why volunteer rates varied across major metropolitan areas during the mid-2000s.[9] The 2007 report compared volunteer rates in the 50 largest metropolitan areas, as calculated from the CPS Volunteer Supplement, with aggregate demographic and socioeconomic data collected from other sources. Although the 2007 report used aggregate data, the results suggest several ways in which the behavior of people might be affected by the physical and structural characteristics of the place where they live. For instance, the report found that volunteer rates are higher where the number of nonprofit organizations per 1000 residents (especially small ones that rely on volunteers) is higher, and volunteering is less frequent when it takes longer for people to commute to work, and presumably to also volunteer outside the neighborhood.

The Do Good Institute (DGI) extended this research in a 2018 report, "Where Are America's Volunteers?,"[10] that examined whether recently observed declines in volunteer rates may have been influenced by community-level factors. Like the 2007 CNCS report, "Where Are America's Volunteers?" uses data measured at the state and metropolitan area levels to identify possible reasons for the differences we see in volunteer rates.

However, the use of aggregate data makes it hard to tell whether these differences are due to *compositional* effects (which are related to the characteristics of the people living in these places) or *contextual* effects (which are related to characteristics of the places themselves).[11]

This study builds on both prior reports by using a multilevel modeling approach, which allows us to estimate the influence of both *micro-level* variables (characteristics of the person who responds to the survey) and *macro-level* variables (characteristics of the place or community where the respondent's household is located). A multilevel model would help us avoid the units-of-analysis problem that afflicts the CNCS and DGI reports, in which the absence of micro-level variables makes it hard to tell how much influence the macro-level variables really have. Multilevel modeling allows us to estimate the influence of various individual-level and geographic variables on both giving and volunteering - which will tell us how much of the overall variation in giving and volunteering can be attributed to the micro-level and macro-level factors, respectively.

Several studies have capitalized on the availability of micro-level and macro-level data to study generosity and philanthropic behaviors. While micro-level analyses of giving and volunteering are common, macro-level analysis - especially when cross-national data are available - has helped researchers understand how and why volunteering[12] and giving[13][14][15] rates vary across geographic contexts. American studies that focus on state-level differences in giving rates[16][17] are the closest analogues to the CNCS and DGI macro-level studies, but multilevel models of giving to charity have been used to study generosity internationally[18] and within the U.S.[19] Robert Putnam used a multilevel model in his well-known study of the influence of community diversity on social capital,[20] but the studies that have influenced our own analysis most directly are the studies by Rotolo and Wilson, which use multilevel analysis and the CPS Volunteer Supplement to examine state-level[21] and metropolitan-area level[22] influences on volunteering.

Micro-level and macro-level influences are not the only types of factors that can influence generosity. Some studies incorporate *meso-level* variables,[23] which measure the influences of groups, organizations, social networks or other institutions, into the analysis. Both meso-level and macro-level variables can be described as measures of how connected individuals are to their community. With meso-level variables, the interpersonal connections are more direct; macro-level variables describe the social or philanthropic culture[24] of the community. Our study of generosity will take full advantage of the size and diversity of CPS data by using variables measured at all three levels. In this report, we will focus on the creation of multilevel models that include micro-level and macro-level variables. In the second report, we will add meso-level variables to the analysis to further examine the social determinants of generosity.

MOTIVATIONS FOR GENEROSITY AND PHILANTHROPIC BEHAVIOR

Historically, economists have had a difficult time explaining why, in general, people donate time and/or money to charitable causes, given that donors do not benefit from these activities as they would from market transactions. In recent years, though, economists have begun to incorporate ideas from other social science disciplines into their own framework. Andreoni (2006)[25] and Bénabou and Tirole (2006)[26] each offer several explanations of how and why economically rational actors might behave unselfishly. Although Andreoni[27] argues that charitable behavior may actually be consistent with self-interest, either in the present (wealthy fans of classical music who donate to the symphony orchestra) or the future (those who donate to medical research that they might someday need), Bénabou and Tirole[28] go further by identifying three distinct ways in which people can get utility from donations of time and money: intrinsic motivation, self-image, and social esteem. Their explanations have many common elements with lists of motivations for donating money;[29] for donating blood;[30] and for donating time (volunteering).[31]

Intrinsic motivations – motivations that are not influenced by external forces in any way – are often seen as a "last refuge" by economists,[32] but other social scientists use terms like "values" or "altruism" to describe these motivations. *Self-image* refers to factors that explain why charitable behavior makes people feel better about themselves. This category of motivations includes factors that are described as the "joy of giving,"[33] "impure altruism,"[34] or the "warm glow" of giving.[35] Similarly, volunteer motivations sometimes refer to concepts such as "enhancement" and "protection," which describe the benefits to one's ego from volunteering.[36] Finally, the term *social esteem*, which describes how social norms and public expectations can encourage prosocial behavior, is present in other lists of motivations under other names, such as "reputation"[37] and "perceived expectations."[38]

Many factors that influence generosity and prosocial behavior operate indirectly, by working through social connections and/or being influenced by personal characteristics. Wilson (2000)[39] uses the categories "human capital" and "social resources" to classify these indirect influences, and argues that they are often the primary reasons why people volunteer, whereas values do a better job of explaining why volunteers find meaning in their work. In his influential review essay, Smith[40] develops his "dominant status theory" that explains how a cluster of personal characteristics that reflect high socioeconomic status help to give people the "social background" that encourages volunteering.

These authors argue that "social resources" and "dominant status" are associated with volunteering because they are also associated with strong and vibrant social networks. Such networks encourage or stimulate charitable activities in several ways: by influencing the likelihood of whether or how you are asked to volunteer,[41, 42] or donate money;[43] by making people aware of the need for donations;[44] by providing opportunities for reciprocity;[45] and through family channels, such as the parental influence on the decision to donate blood.[46] While any or all of these mechanisms might help to explain why people act with generosity, the question of how social factors influence giving and volunteering is less well understood. Only a few empirical studies[47, 48] directly compare the results of models that predict giving and volunteering to see whether micro-level, macro-level and meso-level variables might have different effects on generosity based on the form of activity being studied.

MODELING STRATEGY

One primary inspiration for our empirical models is a multilevel analysis on volunteering published in 2014 by Rotolo and Wilson.[49] Like previous research by CNCS and DGI, Rotolo and Wilson used the CPS Volunteer Supplement, which was conducted every September between 2002 and 2015, as their source for data on generosity. During the 2002-2015 period, the CPS Volunteer Supplement survey began by asking respondents two primary questions about their activities in the preceding twelve months:

This month, we are interested in volunteer activities, that is activities for which people are not paid, except perhaps expenses. We only want you to include volunteer activities that (you/NAME) did through or for an organization, even if (you/he/she) only did them once in a while. Since September 1st of last year, (have you/has NAME) done any volunteer activities through or for an organization?

Sometimes people don't think of activities they do infrequently or activities they do for children's schools or youth organizations as volunteer activities. Since September 1 of last year, (have you/has he/has she) done any of these types of volunteer activities?

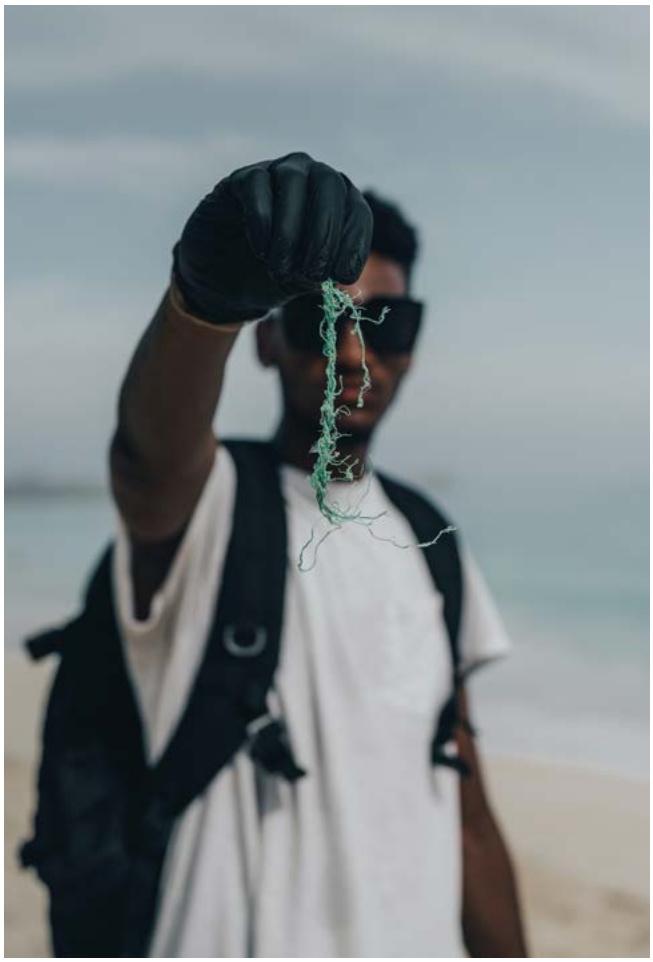
The respondent was counted as a volunteer if he or she answered "yes" to either of these two questions.

In 2008, a question about giving to charity was added:

During the (previous year), did [you or anyone in your family] donate money, assets, or property with a combined value of more than $25 to religious or charitable organizations?

This question is the first of several questions about charitable contributions that have been included on the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), a nationally representative longitudinal study that has collected data from a national sample of families and households for more than forty years. The PSID data are used for the landmark Philanthropy Panel Study (PPS), which has been conducted by Indiana University's Lilly Family School of Philanthropy since 2002. Given space limitations for the CPS Volunteer Supplement, none of the PPS follow-up prompts, including questions about the amount contributed or the type of organization receiving the contribution, were added along with this question.

Because we want to maximize comparability in the results, we use the same specifications of the multilevel models for each measure of generosity (volunteering and giving). Both multilevel models contain *micro-level* variables, mostly taken from the CPS, that describe the survey respondent, the respondent's family, or the respondent's household, and *macro-level* variables, taken from non-CPS data sources, that describe the state where the respondent's household is located.



In Rotolo and Wilson's model, the macro-level variables were measured at the level of the metropolitan statistical area (metropolitan area, metro area, or MSA) in which the household is located. The goal of the current study was to extend the Rotolo-Wilson analysis in several ways:

- To use more recent CPS data (their analysis used CPS data from 2006-2008; we use data from 2010-2015);
- To add micro-level and macro-level variables that have been used in previous studies;
- To use state-level data for the macro-level variables, so we could include people living in rural (nonmetropolitan) areas in the analysis; and
- To estimate similar models of giving (donating money) and directly compare the results with those for volunteering (donating time).

After collecting data for our macro-level variables at the metropolitan area level, we were able to reproduce the Rotolo-Wilson model specification and estimate their volunteering model with data from the 2010 CPS Volunteer Supplement. We added macro-level variables to the basic Rotolo-Wilson model that, according to previous work published by CNCS and DGI, have been shown to be associated with volunteer rates in metropolitan areas, and collected data for all variables for states and metropolitan areas for the years 2010 to 2015 from the same sources.

Both of our models were estimated using the Stata command `melogit`, which is designed for multilevel models where the dependent variables are binary, as the giving and volunteering variables are in the CPS.[50] We calculated marginal effects for each variable, which represent the value of a one-unit increase in the variable on the probability of volunteering or giving, when all other variables are held constant at their means.

MODEL SPECIFICATION: MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

To form our expectations about the effects of the micro-level variables on volunteering, we rely heavily on a series of annual briefs, called "Volunteering in the United States,"[51] which were published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) between 2002 and 2015. The "BLS briefs" present demographic differences in volunteer rates that are calculated from the September CPS Volunteer Supplement, which at that time were produced annually. Wherever possible, we use the coding strategy found in the BLS briefs for our models.

While the BLS briefs are primary sources for our expectations for the micro-level variables in our models, several extensive reviews of the literature, including the book-length literature review by Musick and Wilson[52] and review articles by Smith[53] and Wilson,[54] corroborate these expectations and suggest explanations for the empirical results we see. For our giving models, we rely heavily on the two-part series of articles published by Wiepking and Bekkers[55, 56] that provide a comprehensive review of the empirical literature on giving. The studies we reviewed vary widely in their data sources (only a few use the CPS supplements) and, more generally, in their measurement strategies, but they can still help us form our expectations about the influence of these variables.

GENDER

Many, but not all, empirical studies of generosity find a so-called "gender gap" that suggests that women volunteer and give at higher rates, controlling for other factors. A 2009 study of the volunteer habits of older adults[57] states that, according to conventional gender roles, "Volunteer work is primarily seen as women's work". The CPS statistics published in the BLS briefs ("Volunteering in the United States") consistently show a higher volunteer rate for women than men. Wiepking and Bekkers[58] report that studies tend to show that women also give money at higher rates than men, although the size of the gender gap in giving depends heavily on how well the models control for other factors.

RACE, NATIONAL ORIGIN, AND ETHNICITY

During this time period (2010-2015), the CPS labor force survey asked all respondents to report whether they identified with each of five designations of race or national origin: White or Caucasian, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, and/or Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. In addition, all respondents were asked a single yes/no question to measure the concept that the CPS calls "ethnicity": "(Is/Are) (Name/you) Hispanic?" People can answer "yes" to this question regardless of how many racial or national origin groups they identify with. We use the term "Latino" to refer to people who answer "yes" to the CPS ethnicity question.

The volunteer rates published in the BLS briefs tend to support the expectations of the dominant status model,[59] which predicts that volunteering and giving rates are generally lower for non-White racial groups and people of Latino ethnicity. However, Wilson[60] shows that these estimated differences frequently vary by data source, model specification, and type of volunteering and giving studied. A recent study by Indiana University's Lilly Family School of Philanthropy[61] supports this point by showing that donations of money by racial and ethnic groups tends to vary by channel (giving to organizations, peer-to-peer giving, responding to crowdfunding requests, etc.) and type of recipient organization.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Educational attainment has been called the "most consistent predictor of volunteering,"[62] and is also a key element of the "dominant social status" associated with greater propensity to volunteer.[63] Bekkers and Wiepking[64] call educational attainment a "ubiquitous correlate" of charitable giving, but also mention several studies where the statistical relationship between educational attainment and giving disappears after controlling for factors such as income, wealth and age.

PARENTHOOD

The CPS questions about the family structure of sampled households allow us to identify adults who are living with their own children ages 18 and under, which we use to define parents. The consensus within the literature is that children's activities bring many opportunities for parents to volunteer, but that the demands of raising children – especially young children – can discourage volunteering.[65, 66] Many studies on giving[67] show a positive relationship between parenthood and donating money, perhaps because having children activates or strengthens prosocial values; expands social networks, which leads to increased solicitations for giving; and increases awareness of needs, which encourages giving.

MARITAL STATUS

The BLS briefs consistently show that married adults living with their spouses volunteer at higher rates than single people or those who have been widowed, divorced or separated. However, several studies[68, 69, 70] argue that changes in family composition and household dynamics (marital status as well as parenthood) can discourage volunteering, at least initially, even when they encourage volunteering in the long run. Like the literature on volunteering, many studies on giving treat these decisions as household characteristics, where married couples make (or appear to make) joint decisions about how much time and/or money each spouse contributes to charity.[71]

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

We use the standard four-category BLS coding scheme to represent labor force participation: working part-time, working full-time, unemployed, or not in the labor force. Most studies on volunteering[72] find that people who work for pay are more likely to volunteer, because work helps people integrate into social environments, and also exposes them to more requests to volunteer. However, the finding[73] that part-time workers volunteer more often, and serve more hours, than full-time workers illustrates that volunteer commitment can be constrained by available free time. Most studies also show that people who are unemployed, retired, disabled, or otherwise out of the labor force volunteer less often than those who are working, perhaps because of constraints imposed by age, health, and economic and social dislocation. Because the workplace may offer people more opportunities to give, the expectation would be that people who work would also be more likely to donate money. However, the empirical literature[74] suggests that wealth seems to have more influence over this decision than employment income does.

INCOME

The "basic" monthly CPS labor force survey questionnaire includes a question about family income, which may vary within households that contain multiple families. This measure is not included in the BLS briefs, but we use categorical variables representing income brackets in each equation to account for possible curvilinear relationships between family income and volunteering and giving.

Most studies of giving[75] show that those with higher income are more likely to contribute larger amounts of money. The claim that people with higher income are more likely to be donors has received less support, although more recent scholarship[76, 77] has found evidence that those with higher income (and those affected by policy changes that affect after-tax income) are more likely to give. In the volunteering literature, the claim that people with higher income tend to volunteer fewer hours because of higher opportunity costs receives qualified support.[78] However, other studies[79] suggest that higher income increases the likelihood of volunteering, at least for some groups, perhaps because people with higher income have stronger social networks that lead to more opportunities for volunteering.

URBAN-SUBURBAN-RURAL HOUSEHOLD LOCATION

The CPS sample design guarantees a statistically representative sample from every state (plus Washington, DC). In addition, each state's sample contains households from urban, suburban and/or rural areas, if all such areas exist for a given state. Most households located in metropolitan areas can be identified as urban or suburban; nonmetropolitan households are classified as rural. Smith[80] suggests that large cities should have lower volunteer rates than suburban or rural areas, while Wilson[81] argues that suburban and rural residents may differ from each other – and from city dwellers – in their motivations for volunteering. More recently, Grimm and Dietz[82] use CPS trend data to show that while volunteer rates are lower in urban areas than in suburban or rural areas, the gap decreased in size between the mid-2000s and mid-2010s because volunteer rates have declined faster in rural and suburban areas. While urban-suburban-rural trends in giving rates have received less attention, a 2010 report by the Association of Fundraising Professionals and the Center on Philanthropy at Indiana University[83] shows that rural residents are significantly less likely than urban residents to donate money, controlling for other personal and household factors.

REGION

To control for perceived differences in the philanthropic culture across America,[84] which are also important in the Canadian context,[85] we include control variables for the four main Census regions: East, Midwest, South, and West. The CPS data tend to show that the Midwest and West regions have the highest volunteer rates, followed by the East and South regions. An influential study by Clerkin *et al*.[86] finds that giving patterns by transplanted North Carolina residents differ by the resident's home state, controlling for other factors.

AGE

A large number of studies show that older people are more likely to give, at least until they reach one of the oldest age groups.[87] In both the United States[88] and Canada,[89] volunteer rates tend to rise after age 20, reach their highest point at ages 35 to 44, and then begin to decline. The rise in volunteer rates at midlife can be attributed to adults settling into their community, building and strengthening their social networks and career, and interacting with more community institutions after having children. The decline in volunteer rates tends to be associated with retirement, diminished physical capabilities, and loss of connections with established social networks. However, the late-in-life decline in the volunteer rate has diminished in size since the mid-1970s.[90] To account for the expected curvature in the relationship between age and the likelihood of volunteering, we include in each equation a series of indicators representing age groups.

YEAR

Finally, we include a series of indicators for the year in which the data were collected. The period covered by the data, 2010-2015, was a period of overall decline in the volunteer rate, so these indicators can address the question: How much of this decline was due to compositional effects (changes in the characteristics of the population) and contextual effects (changes in the places where people live), and how much was due to other, unmeasured characteristics of the population that were specific to a given time period?

MODEL SPECIFICATION: MACRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

Besides the micro-level variables discussed above, our multilevel models also contain several macro-level variables that describe the place where the respondent's household is located. These variables are measured at the state level, which maximizes our ability to use all the available survey data while also capturing geographical variation within the survey sample. Most of our macro-level variables were included in the 2007 CNCS report[91] that examined the correlation between volunteer rates and four categories of demographic and socioeconomic factors within the nation's largest metropolitan areas.

Although the 2007 report differs from our analysis in important ways - the macro-level variables were measured for metropolitan areas, only volunteer rates were analyzed, the variables did not vary over time, and the analysis relied only on bivariate correlations - the report's conclusions still help to guide our expectations for the models we analyze here. In 2007, volunteer rates in major metropolitan areas were significantly associated with:[92]

1. residents' attachment to their community, measured by homeownership rates, multi-unit housing rates, and population density;
2. commuting times, which reflect traffic-related time delays associated with routine travel, as well as time and energy for community engagement;
3. socioeconomic characteristics including percentage of residents who have high school educations or better, percent with college degrees, percent living in poverty, and percent unemployed; and
4. a community's capacity to provide civic opportunities, measured by the number of large and small nonprofit organizations per 1,000 residents.

For this study, we added several other variables to the original 2007 CNCS list of macro-level variables, mainly those used in the multilevel model of Rotolo and Wilson (2014).[93] In their study, the authors used a multilevel model to estimate the influence of social heterogeneity (racial diversity, income inequality, and racial segregation) on volunteering within metropolitan areas, controlling for micro-level factors. Since the measures of racial diversity and income inequality used in this are also available at the state level,[94] we have added these to our model, to test the robustness of the original Rotolo-Wilson results. Wherever possible, we collect annual data from the period 2010 to 2015 from the same data sources used in previous research. Table 1 contains details about the definitions, measurement, and expectations for the macro-level variables in our models.

TABLE 1: MACRO-LEVEL VARIABLE DEFINITIONS AND HYPOTHESIZED EFFECTS:

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE	VINTAGE	CNCS AND DGI	ROTOLO & WILSON	HIGHER VALUES OF VOLUNTEERING AND GIVING ARE ASSOCIATED WITH:
Homeownership	Percent of housing units that are inhabited by the homeowner	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Higher homeownership rates
Multi-Unit Housing	Percent of housing structures that contain more than one housing unit	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Lower percentages of homes in multi-unit structures
Commuting Time	Mean travel time to work (in minutes) of workers aged 16 years and over who did not work at home	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Lower average commuting times
Percent with HS Education	Percent of adults aged 25 and over who have a high school diploma or the equivalent	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Higher percentages of residents with HS degrees
Percent with College Education	Percent of adults aged 25 and over who have a college degree (BA or BS)	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes	Yes	Higher percentages of residents with college degrees
Unemployment Rate	Based on annual average of seasonally adjusted monthly county-level unemployment rates	Local Area Unemployment Statistics (LAUS), Bureau of Labor Statistics	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Lower unemployment rates
Poverty Rate	Percent of residents with annual income at or below the poverty level	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes	Yes	Lower poverty rates
Population Density	Estimated population divided by estimated size of land mass	Census population estimates + Census 2010 (for land area)	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Less densely populated areas
Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	Number of 501(c) tax-exempt organizations with more than $50,000 in gross receipts, divided by population and multiplied by 1000	IRS Exempt Organizations Master File (EOMF)	2010-2015	Yes	Total nonprofits per 1000 residents	More large nonprofits per 1000 residents
Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	Number of 501(c) tax-exempt organizations with $50,000 or less in gross receipts, divided by population and multiplied by 1000	IRS Exempt Organizations Master File (EOMF)	2010-2015	Yes		More small nonprofits per 1000 residents
Median Income	Median household income (not adjusted for inflation)	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)	Yes		Higher median income
Congregations per 1000 Residents	Number of congregations, divided by population and multiplied by 1000	2010 Religious Congregations and Membership Study - available on ARDA website	2010	Yes	Yes	More congregations per 1000 residents
Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	Calculated as the likelihood that two randomly chosen individuals from the population do not share the same racial background	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)		Yes	Lower index values (more homogeneous populations)
Gini Index of Income Inequality	Measures the the amount of dispersion in the distribution of household income	American Community Survey	2010-2015 (single year)		Yes	Lower index values (less income inequality)
Putnam Social Capital Index	State-level Comprehensive Social Capital Index, based on 14 indicators of civic and associational activities	Published in Bowling Alone; available on Bowling Alone website (http://bowlingalone.com/?page_id=7)	Various years	Yes (in 2018 DGI report)		Higher index values

In addition to the CNCS and Rotolo-Wilson studies, which use CPS supplement data to measure volunteering, we rely on other studies to guide our expectations about the influence of these macro-level variables, particularly on giving.

HOMEOWNERSHIP

We expect the homeownership rate to be more closely associated with volunteering than with giving, controlling for individual, household and other community-level influences. In places where more people own the homes they live in, residents may feel more invested and connected to their communities and to each other, which increases social interactions among neighbors and encourages volunteering.[95] However, we also expect community characteristics to have less influence on the decision to give than on the decision to volunteer, because the giving decision is affected more by internal motivations.[96]

MULTI-UNIT HOUSING

Based on prior research, we expect that people living in places where large numbers of residents live in multi-unit dwellings would be less likely to volunteer. In such places, residents may find it harder to form strong ties with others in their community because staying anonymous is so easy, and because the transient population is so large.[97] Like the influence of homeownership rate, we would expect a negative relationship between the multi-unit housing rate and the giving rate, all else being equal, but potentially a smaller effect than on the volunteer rate.

COMMUTING TIME

As with other indicators of urbanization such as the multi-unit housing rate, we would expect people to be less likely to volunteer in places where routine travel usually involves traffic-related time delays that reduce the time available for community engagement. To the extent that long commutes reduce the "sense of community" that is associated with willingness to give to charities,[98] we would expect giving rates to be lower in places where people need to spend more time, on average, traveling to and from work.

EDUCATION LEVEL

In addition to measuring the individual's own level of educational attainment, we add variables that measure the percentage of residents with high school degrees (or the equivalent) and bachelor's degrees. Of the two measures, the percent with college degrees is probably more widely used, because it is more frequently associated with higher volunteer rates.[99] Two studies that use state-level data[100, 101] find a positive association between the per-capita amount given to charity and the percent of residents with college educations. However, in a multilevel model where the macro-level variables are measured at the state level, Rotolo and Wilson[102] "find no relationship between the proportion of university graduates in a state and the individual likelihood of volunteering, taking individual level education into account."[103]

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

Although the unemployment rate was not correlated with the volunteer rate in the 2007 CNCS analysis of metropolitan area data, it was significant in a multilevel model that examined the relationship between volunteering and economic dislocation.[104] While other studies[105] have found that volunteer rates are lower in neighborhoods and cities with high levels of economic deprivation, the empirical relationship between joblessness and giving rates is not as clear.[106] The unemployment rate is not significant in the model of state-level giving estimated by Gittell and Tebaldi[10] and is explicitly excluded from the model estimated by Brown and Rooney.[108]

POVERTY RATE

The percentage of families (and people without families) with income below the poverty line has been much more widely used as a measure of economic deprivation than the unemployment rate has been. In Rotolo and Wilson's multilevel mode of volunteering,[109] the metropolitan area poverty rate is negative and statistically significant in the equation for overall volunteering and secular volunteering, but significant and positive in the equation for religious volunteering. The poverty rate is negative, but statistically insignificant, in a state-level giving model,[110] and is also insignificant in a multilevel model of contributions to nonprofit theaters.[111] However, a study of organization-level measures of giving based on individual gift transactions,[112] such as total contributions, total number of donors, and donor retention rate, finds that the poverty rate is negative and statistically significant for all equations.

POPULATION DENSITY

As with multiunit housing, the population density (people per square mile of land) should be negatively associated with volunteer rates, because intra-community ties to other individuals tend to be weaker. Several studies that use field experiments find that acts of helpfulness are more frequent in less densely populated communities.[113] In addition, an analysis of county-level giving rates[114] finds that household giving to religious organizations tends to be higher in less densely populated counties.

LARGE NONPROFITS PER 1000 RESIDENTS AND SMALL NONPROFITS PER 1000 RESIDENTS

The 2007 CNCS study of volunteer rates in metropolitan areas found that volunteer rates tend to be higher in metro areas where nonprofit organizations are more prevalent. This is consistent with institutional theory,[115] which argues that more volunteers are mobilized in places where the nonprofit sector has a stronger presence. As Rotolo and Wilson state:

> **The essential point here is that a strong voluntary sector is important not only for those affiliated with or members of nonprofit organizations, such as voluntary associations and churches: even nonmembers will be more aware of opportunities to get involved where nonprofits are abundant.**[116]

Bielefeld *et al.*,[117] who estimate a multilevel model of giving, hypothesize that nonprofits per capita should be included as a state-level variable in their model, because most nonprofits are supported by local donations. Although this hypothesis is not supported, we test it here by including large and small nonprofits per 1000 residents in our own multilevel giving models.

However, the 2007 CNCS report found that the prevalence of small nonprofits (with gross receipts of $50,000 or less)[118] is more strongly associated with volunteer rates than the prevalence of larger nonprofits, which may not be as reliant on donated contributions of money or time as smaller nonprofits are. Because of this, we include distinct measures of large and small nonprofit organizations per 1000 residents in our empirical models.

MEDIAN INCOME

Many observers seem to feel that volunteer rates should be higher in places where the average level of socioeconomic status (SES) is higher. To create a place-based measure of SES, most scholars tend to use aggregate measures of educational attainment. Median household income, one commonly used alternative, for the metropolitan area has the expected positive sign in a multilevel model of volunteer rates, but is not statistically significant.[119] In state-level models of giving where the amount per donor is the dependent variable, average adjusted gross income[120] and the natural log of per-capita personal income[121] have been found to be significantly associated with higher per-capita giving among those who claim tax deductions for charitable contributions on their itemized tax returns.

CONGREGATIONS PER 1000 RESIDENTS

In most parts of the country, religious organizations are the most common type of organization for people to volunteer with. The number of congregations per 1000 state residents is significant and positive in a multilevel model of individual volunteering decisions.[122] A model of giving at the state level[123] that includes multiple measures of religiosity (percent Roman Catholic, percent evangelical Protestant, percent mainstream Protestant) finds that none of them are statistically significantly associated with the average amount donated to charity by itemizers. However, an analysis[124] that uses different dependent variables (number of donors, number of contributions, donor retention) measured at the organization level finds that these variables are significant and consistent with the expectations of the earlier study.

BLAU INDEX OF RACIAL HETEROGENEITY

This index – which takes on values of zero when everyone in a community identifies with the same racial group, and larger values in more diverse communities – is used as a key metropolitan-area measure of racial diversity in the multilevel model estimated by Rotolo and Wilson.[125] In this article, the authors summarize studies that show that social heterogeneity and income inequality tend to be negatively associated with social trust and organizational memberships, and thus should also be negatively associated with volunteering. An earlier study by the same authors[126] shows that race heterogeneity is negatively associated with volunteering in a multilevel model with state-level and individual-level data. Although this index measure is not used as often in the giving literature, generalized trust has been shown to be positively associated with donations to organizations of various types,[127] and social and interracial trust (combined in one measure) is positively associated with the likelihood of giving for secular causes.[128] Given these results, we hypothesize that people from more racially diverse places - where the Blau index takes on larger values - should be less likely to volunteer and to give to charity.

GINI INDEX OF INCOME INEQUALITY

The Gini index is included in our model to test the hypothesis that individuals living in places with high income inequality (and thus larger values of the Gini index) should be less likely to volunteer or give to charity. Like the Blau index of racial heterogeneity, Rotolo and Wilson added this metropolitan area-level measure to their multilevel model of volunteering[129] after discussing, in their earlier article,[130] the need to study the influence of other forms of inequality and heterogeneity on volunteering. In their model, the Gini index is negative and significant, which confirms the hypothesis that volunteering is expected to be less prevalent in places where income inequality is high. We also expect the Gini index to be negatively associated with giving, following Bekkers,[131] who argues that "Higher GDP, national wealth, and lower levels of income inequality are likely to be associated with higher levels of philanthropy, in part through a higher sense of financial security." However, a multilevel analysis[132] of U.S. counties shows that income inequality does not seem to be associated with household giving.

PUTNAM SOCIAL CAPITAL INDEX

Although this index was originally created by Robert Putnam[133] (2000) more than twenty years ago, it was recently validated by a government project on social capital, [134] and it is still the predictor most closely associated with recent changes in state-level volunteer rates.[135] The index is only available for states, and, due to data limitations, is not reported for Alaska, Hawaii or the District of Columbia.[136] People living in states with higher values on the social capital index should be more likely to engage in philanthropic behavior, due to the reputational damage of not engaging in philanthropy in such areas.[13]

RESULTS: ESTIMATES OF MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

Table 2, below, summarizes the conclusions from the micro-level variables in the volunteering and giving models:

TABLE 2: INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL RESULTS (ESTIMATES OF MICRO-LEVEL EFFECTS):

	MOST LIKELY TO VOLUNTEER	MOST LIKELY TO GIVE
Gender	Women	Women
Race	More than one racial category	More than one racial category
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Non-Latino	Non-Latino
Educational Attainment	Higher education level	Higher education level
Marital Status	Married people	Married people
Parenthood Status	Parents	Parents
Labor Force Participation	People working part-time	People working full-time
Family Income	Higher family income	Higher family income
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Rural households	Suburban households
Age Groups	People in midlife	Older adults
CPS Survey Year	2010-2011	2010-2011

Tables 3 and 4 show the full set of results from both models. Each table contains parameter estimates, standard errors, and marginal effects, which show the substantive impact of the independent variables. For each micro-level variable, the marginal effect represents the difference in the probability of volunteering or giving between being in that category versus being in the reference category, holding all other variables constant at their means. In the "p-value" column, values of less than 0.05 indicate statistically significant parameter estimates; the marginal effects appear in the rightmost columns.

TABLE 3: RESULTS FROM VOLUNTEERING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
Gender	Male			Reference Category		
	Female	0.336	0.007	48.54	<0.001	6.3%
Race	White			Reference Category		
	Black	-0.169	0.013	-12.93	<0.001	-3.2%
	American Indian, Alaskan Native	-0.282	0.037	-7.56	<0.001	-5.4%
	Asian	-0.791	0.019	-40.76	<0.001	-14.9%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander	-0.239	0.078	-3.06	0.002	-4.6%
	More than one race category	0.138	0.029	4.82	<0.001	2.6%
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Latino	-0.482	0.013	-36.40	<0.001	-9.0%
	Non-Latino			Reference Category		
	Less than HS Diploma			Reference Category		
Educational Attainment	HS Grad	0.085	0.013	6.37	<0.001	1.2%
	Some college	0.613	0.013	47.18	<0.001	9.4%
	College grad +	1.154	0.014	85.41	<0.001	19.4%
Own Children under 18	No own children under 18			Reference Category		
	Own children under 18	0.433	0.009	45.98	<0.001	8.1%
Marital Status	Single - Never married			Reference Category		
	Married - spouse present	0.241	0.011	21.19	<0.001	4.5%
	Other marital status	-0.006	0.013	-0.47	0.638	-0.1%
Labor Force Participation	Employed, full-time			Reference Category		
	Employed, part-time	0.350	0.011	32.14	<0.001	6.5%
	Unemployed	0.247	0.017	14.23	<0.001	4.6%
	Not in labor force	0.038	0.009	4.07	<0.001	0.7%
Family Income	Less than $35,000			Reference Category		
	Between $35-$50,000	0.203	0.011	17.94	<0.001	3.3%
	Between $50-$75,000	0.357	0.010	34.78	<0.001	6.0%
	$75,000 and over	0.544	0.010	55.93	<0.001	9.7%

TABLE 3 (CONTINUED): RESULTS FROM VOLUNTEERING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Urban (principal city)	-0.134	0.011	-12.80	<0.001	-2.6%
	Suburban (balance)	-0.109	0.009	-12.35	<0.001	-2.1%
	Rural (nonmetropolitan)			Reference Category		
	Not identified					
Region of the USA	East			Reference Category		
	Midwest	0.040	0.073	0.55	0.585	0.7%
	South	-0.060	0.073	-0.82	0.412	-1.1%
	West	0.057	0.074	0.76	0.445	1.1%
Age Groups	Ages 16 to 24	0.189	0.019	9.84	<0.001	3.6%
	Age 25 to 34	-0.331	0.018	-18.55	<0.001	-6.0%
	Age 35 to 44	-0.032	0.018	-1.81	0.070	-0.6%
	Age 45 to 54	0.026	0.016	1.58	0.115	0.5%
	Age 55 to 64	0.014	0.016	0.88	0.381	0.3%
	Age 65 to 74	0.156	0.016	9.88	<0.001	2.9%
	Age 75 and Over			Reference Category		
CPS Survey Year	Year = 2010			Reference Category		
	Year = 2011	-0.008	0.020	-0.43	0.664	-0.2%
	Year = 2012	-0.063	0.027	-2.37	0.018	-1.2%
	Year = 2013	-0.129	0.034	-3.81	<0.001	-2.5%
	Year = 2014	-0.138	0.038	-3.63	<0.001	-2.7%
	Year = 2015	-0.164	0.043	-3.86	<0.001	-3.2%

TABLE 3 (CONTINUED): RESULTS FROM VOLUNTEERING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
State-Level Variables	Population Density	-0.074	0.116	-0.63	0.526	-1.4%
	Homeownership Rate	-0.050	0.032	-1.58	0.115	-0.9%
	Multi-Unit Housing Rate	-0.123	0.032	-3.86	<0.001	-2.3%
	Commuting Time	-0.011	0.027	-0.42	0.675	-0.2%
	Percent High School Graduates	0.038	0.030	1.24	0.215	0.7%
	Percent College Graduates	0.120	0.033	3.63	<0.001	2.2%
	Poverty Rate	0.086	0.029	2.97	0.003	1.6%
	Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	-0.177	0.072	-2.46	0.014	-3.3%
	Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	0.032	0.034	0.96	0.338	0.6%
	Median Income	0.003	0.069	0.05	0.962	0.1%
	Unemployment Rate	0.006	0.014	0.38	0.701	0.1%
	Congregations per Capita	0.050	0.024	2.11	0.035	0.9%
	Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	-0.029	0.030	-0.98	0.326	-0.5%
	Gini Index of Income Inequality	0.009	0.020	0.43	0.666	0.2%
	Putnam Social Capital Index	0.087	0.036	2.40	0.016	1.6%
Constant	Constant	-2.184	0.060	-36.28	<0.001	

MIXED-EFFECTS LOGISTIC REGRESSION:

N = 509,216

NUMBER OF GROUPS = 48

LOG LIKELIHOOD = -271416.52

INTEGRATION METHOD: MVAGHERMITE

INTEGRATION PTS. = 7

WALD χ^2 (50) = 43345.69

PROB > χ^2 < 0.0001

TEST FOR APPROPRIATENESS OF MULTILEVEL MODEL:

LR TEST VS. LOGISTIC MODEL: (χ^2)(1) = 429.24

PROB > = (χ^2) < 0.0001

RESIDUAL INTRACLASS CORRELATION (ICC): 0.0027618 (STD. ERROR: 0.0006837)

TABLE 4: RESULTS FROM GIVING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
Gender	Male			Reference Category		
	Female	0.308	0.007	46.65	<0.001	7.6%
Race	White			Reference Category		
	Black	-0.187	0.012	-16.17	<0.001	-4.6%
	American Indian, Alaskan Native	-0.444	0.033	-13.36	<0.001	-10.9%
	Asian	-0.615	0.017	-36.96	<0.001	-15.2%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander	-0.170	0.073	-2.33	0.020	-4.2%
	More than one race category	0.045	0.028	1.59	0.111	1.1%
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Latino	-0.322	0.011	-28.65	0.00	-8.0%
	Non-Latino			Reference Category		
	Less than HS Diploma			Reference Category		
Educational Attainment	HS Grad	0.355	0.011	32.60	<0.001	8.4%
	Some college	0.837	0.011	74.91	<0.001	20.3%
	College grad +	1.317	0.012	109.21	<0.001	32.5%
Own Children under 18	No own children under 18			Reference Category		
	Own children under 18	0.177	0.009	19.31	<0.001	4.4%
Marital Status	Single - Never married			Reference Category		
	Married - spouse present	0.635	0.010	62.23	<0.001	15.7%
	Other marital status	0.156	0.011	13.79	<0.001	3.9%
Labor Force Participation	Employed, full-time			Reference Category		
	Employed, part-time	-0.020	0.011	-1.79	0.074	-0.5%
	Unemployed	-0.303	0.016	-18.48	<0.001	-7.4%
	Not in labor force	-0.433	0.009	-49.53	<0.001	-10.7%
Family Income	Less than $35,000			Reference Category		
	Between $35-$50,000	0.302	0.010	30.37	<0.001	7.5%
	Between $50-$75,000	0.464	0.009	49.55	<0.001	11.5%
	$75,000 and over	0.759	0.009	83.11	<0.001	18.9%

TABLE 4 (CONTINUED): RESULTS FROM GIVING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Urban (principal city)	0.004	0.010	0.44	0.663	0.1%
	Suburban (balance)	0.091	0.009	10.72	<0.001	2.3%
	Rural (nonmetropolitan)			Reference Category		
	Not identified					
Region of the USA	East			Reference Category		
	Midwest	-0.054	0.098	-0.56	0.577	-1.3%
	South	-0.160	0.098	-1.63	0.104	-4.0%
	West	0.002	0.098	0.02	0.986	0.0%
Age Groups	Ages 16 to 24	-1.639	0.018	-92.62	<0.001	-34.6%
	Age 25 to 34	-1.362	0.016	-84.02	<0.001	-28.8%
	Age 35 to 44	-1.068	0.016	-66.30	<0.001	-22.2%
	Age 45 to 54	-0.840	0.015	-56.69	<0.001	-17.3%
	Age 55 to 64	-0.579	0.014	-41.19	<0.001	-11.6%
	Age 65 to 74	-0.164	0.014	-11.39	<0.001	-3.2%
	Age 75 and Over			Reference Category		
CPS Survey Year	Year = 2010			Reference Category		
	Year = 2011	0.052	0.021	2.51	0.012	1.3%
	Year = 2012	-0.002	0.028	-0.06	0.954	0.0%
	Year = 2013	-0.027	0.037	-0.74	0.456	-0.7%
	Year = 2014	-0.057	0.041	-1.39	0.165	-1.4%
	Year = 2015	-0.126	0.046	-2.77	0.006	-3.1%

TABLE 4 (CONTINUED): RESULTS FROM GIVING MODEL - MICRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX)
State-Level Variables	Population Density	-0.074	0.153	-0.48	0.631	-1.8%
	Homeownership Rate	0.046	0.037	1.24	0.216	1.1%
	Multi-Unit Housing Rate	0.054	0.042	1.27	0.205	1.3%
	Commuting Time	-0.048	0.031	-1.52	0.129	-1.2%
	Percent High School Graduates	0.019	0.033	0.56	0.573	0.5%
	Percent College Graduates	0.051	0.042	1.23	0.220	1.3%
	Poverty Rate	0.110	0.029	3.81	<0.001	2.7%
	Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	-0.353	0.090	-3.90	<0.001	-8.7%
	Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	0.109	0.038	2.87	0.004	2.7%
	Median Income	0.221	0.073	3.02	0.003	5.5%
	Unemployment Rate	-0.001	0.014	-0.10	0.921	0.0%
	Congregations per Capita	0.048	0.032	1.52	0.129	1.2%
	Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	0.071	0.039	1.82	0.069	1.8%
	Gini Index of Income Inequality	-0.062	0.021	-3.00	0.003	-1.5%
	Putnam Social Capital Index	0.064	0.048	1.34	0.181	1.6%
Constant	Constant	-0.458	0.073	-6.29	<0.001	

MIXED-EFFECTS LOGISTIC REGRESSION:

N = 501,609

NUMBER OF GROUPS = 48

LOG LIKELIHOOD = -290578.61

INTEGRATION METHOD: MVAGHERMITE

INTEGRATION PTS. = 7

WALD χ^2 (50) = 81825.11

PROB > χ^2 < 0.0001

TEST FOR APPROPRIATENESS OF MULTILEVEL MODEL:

LR TEST VS. LOGISTIC MODEL: (χ^2)(1) = 895.95

PROB >= (χ^2) < 0.0001

RESIDUAL INTRACLASS CORRELATION (ICC): 0.0053551 (STD. ERROR: 0.001395)

In addition to the results in Tables 3 and 4, we also estimated the giving and volunteering models for several subgroups of the population, defined by race or national origin, ethnicity, and educational attainment.

THE SUBGROUPS ARE DEFINED AS FOLLOWS:

VARIABLE	MOST LIKELY TO VOLUNTEER
Race or National Origin	White (only)
	Black or African American (only)
	American Indian / Alaskan Native (only)
	Asian (only)
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander (only)
	More than one race category
Ethnicity (Latino or Hispanic[138] - could be any race or national origin category)	Latino
	Non-Latino
Educational Attainment	Less than a High School Diploma
	High School Diploma or Equivalent
	Some College
	College Graduate (at least a BA/BS)

The results of these models are presented in Tables 6, 7 and 8, which can be found between the Conclusion and Bibliography sections. These tables present the marginal effects for all micro-level and macro-level variables after both equations have been estimated on each population subgroup. Marginal effects that are bolded, and red indicate that the difference between the listed category and the reference category is statistically significant. Our discussion of the effects of the micro-level variables will focus on the categories defined by each variable, and will also note whether there were identifiable differences across subgroups defined by race or national origin, ethnicity, and educational attainment.

GENDER

The "gender gap" that we expect to see in volunteering and giving is present for the adult population, and for all subgroups except for those who identify only as Native Hawaiians / Pacific Islanders. Overall, controlling for other micro-level and macro-level variables, the volunteer rate for women exceeds the rate for men by about 6.3 percentage points, and the women's giving rate exceeds the men's giving rate by 7.6 percentage points.

The gender gap is typically a little larger for giving than it is for volunteering for most subgroups, with Latinos and college graduates being the main exceptions. Also, the size of the gender gap varies by population subgroup; for both volunteering and giving, the gender gap is smaller for Asians than it is for other racial subgroups. The gender gap for volunteering increases in size as educational attainment increases; the gender gap for giving is largest for people with high school education and/or some college, but no college degree.

RACE AND NATIONAL ORIGIN

Among people who identify with only one race or national origin category, those who identify as White have higher giving and volunteer rates than those who identify with other categories, all else being equal. However, multiracial respondents (those who identify with more than one race or national origin category) with at least some college (or a college degree) are more likely to volunteer than those who identify as White (only) with the same level of education, controlling for other factors.

As Table 6 shows, the difference in volunteering and giving rates between people who identify as White (only) and people who identify as Black (only) is fairly consistent across groups defined by educational attainment. This is also true for Latinos - but for Asian-only respondents, the gap grows larger as educational attainment increases; it's highest for college graduates. The difference in volunteer rates and giving rates between Latinos and non-Latinos also grows larger as educational attainment increases.

ETHNICITY (CENSUS DEFINITION)

Those who identify as Latino are less likely to volunteer and to give than non-Latinos within each of the four educational attainment categories. This difference in participation rates increases with educational attainment for both volunteering and giving: that is, it's largest for college graduates, and smallest for people without high school diplomas. Latinos who identify as Asian (only) or American Indian / Alaskan Native (only) are more likely to volunteer than Latinos who identify with other race or national origin categories. Meanwhile, multiracial Latinos (those who identify with more than one race or national origin category) are more likely to volunteer and to give than Latinos who identify with only one category.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

The largest marginal effect in Table 3 is the difference in volunteer rates between college graduates and those without high school educations, which supports the claim that education is the single most important predictor of volunteering. Educational attainment also has a sizable influence on giving, although age - as measured by the difference in giving rates between those aged 16 to 24 and those aged 75 and over - has a larger effect. For all groups defined by race and national origin and by Census ethnicity (Latino/non-Latino), volunteer rates and giving rates both tend to increase as education levels increase, controlling for other factors. The peak differences (between people without high school diplomas and people with college degrees) are smaller for Latinos than for non-Latinos.

PARENTHOOD

Across all subgroups (defined by race and national origin, ethnicity and educational attainment), parents are more likely to volunteer than non-parents. This gap is also present in giving rates, except for those who identify as Black (only), American Indian / Alaskan Native (only), or with more than one category. The size of the participation gap, for volunteering and giving, does vary by subgroup. It is larger for those who identify as White (only) than for those in other categories; the effect of parenthood on giving tends to vary less by race/national origin categories, but also tends to be smaller for each category.

The effect of parenthood on giving and volunteering is smaller for Latinos than for non-Latinos. The effect of parenthood on volunteering increases by educational attainment; the effect of parenthood on giving also increases slightly by educational attainment, but the differences between educational groups are much smaller for giving than they are for volunteering.

MARITAL STATUS

Across almost all subgroups, married people are more likely to volunteer and to give than people who have never been married. The exception is for volunteering, where this difference is not significant for the American Indian / Alaskan Native (only), and Asian (only) subgroups. Across all subgroups, the "marriage difference" (difference in participation rates between those who are currently married and living with their spouse, and those who are single and have never been married) is larger for giving than for volunteering. However, the marriage difference in volunteering is negative (and significant) for people who identify as Asian (only): single Asian people are more likely than married Asian people to volunteer, though the difference is positive for giving, as it is for all other subgroups.

For both volunteering and giving, the size of the marriage difference is largest for people with high school diplomas, but without college degrees. People who have been divorced, widowed or separated are generally more likely to volunteer than people who have never been married. This difference is also positive and significant for giving, but only for those in the White (only), Black (only) and multiracial subgroups.

LABOR FORCE STATUS

Across all subgroups, people who work part time have higher volunteer rates than people who work full time, as expected. This difference is especially large for those who identify as White (only), with more than one race or national origin category, and for college graduates. In contrast, people who work part time are about as likely to give than people who work full time. However, among those who identify as Black (only), Asian (only), and those with a high school education or less are significantly less likely to give than those who work full time.

Population-wide, those who are unemployed are actually more likely to volunteer than people who work full time, controlling for other factors (particularly educational attainment), but are significantly less likely to give. Those who are not in the labor force - a subgroup that includes those who are retired or otherwise not looking for work - are much less likely to give than those who work full time, controlling for other factors, especially age. However, they are slightly more likely to volunteer, and not being in the labor force has a large positive impact on volunteering for the White (only) and Asian (only) subgroups, all else being equal.

FAMILY INCOME

The income effect - people with greater family income are more likely to volunteer and to give - is more consistently present for giving than for volunteering. For most subgroups, the income effect on volunteering and giving is smaller than the effect of higher educational attainment. For both giving and volunteering, the income effect is strongest for those in the White (only) and multiracial subgroups, and is slightly weaker for those in the Black (only) and Asian (only) subgroups. The income effect on volunteering is strongest for people with college degrees and people without high school diplomas; the income effect on giving is weakest for people without high school diplomas.

URBAN-SUBURBAN-RURAL HOUSEHOLDS

Overall, volunteer rates are higher in rural areas than they are in urban or suburban areas, while giving rates are highest in suburban areas than in urban areas or rural areas. The pattern for White (only) respondents mirror what we see in the population overall; we also see this pattern for Black (only) and Latino respondents, but only for volunteering. Among Black (only) respondents, giving rates are highest in suburban areas, and higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Meanwhile, among Latino respondents, there are no significant differences in giving rates by urban-suburban-rural household location. Among Asian (only) respondents, giving and volunteer rates are lowest in rural areas, and highest in suburban areas.

The overall population pattern for volunteer rates - that they are higher in rural areas than in urban or suburban areas - holds across all educational attainment subgroups, controlling for other factors. Except for college graduates, giving rates are higher in the suburbs than in rural areas; college graduates who live in rural areas are more likely to give than college graduates in urban areas area. For those with some college, giving rates are significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas, all else being equal.

AGE

The marginal effects indicate that the adult volunteer rate tends to follow an S-shaped curve - a drop from ages 25-34, followed by an increase in midlife, followed by a decline for those older than that - but with two differences from the population pattern. Controlling for other factors, volunteer rates are highest from ages 16-24 and not in midlife; we also see an increase for ages 65-74 before the decline for the 75-and-over subgroup. This is generally what you see in all subgroups defined by educational attainment, considering the fact that many people in the 16-24 age group are still in school, and across subgroups defined by race, national origin, and ethnicity. Among Asian (only) and Latino respondents, the volunteer rate declines more steadily, with no "bump" for the 65-74 age group. The effect of age on giving is easier to summarize: the giving rate increases steadily with age within all subgroups, though the rate of increase is more muted for Asian (only) respondents.

SURVEY YEAR

Controlling for other factors, including demographic changes, the national volunteer rate declined significantly in 2012 and 2013. The rate declined by 3.2 percentage points between 2010 and 2015. This is the trend we see among the White (only) and non-Latino subgroups. However, the Black (only) subgroup saw an increase in volunteer rates from 2011-12, and no subsequent decline, while Asian (only) respondents saw an immediate decline in 2011, followed by a larger decline afterward. Within the other race and national origin subgroups, the volunteer rate did not decline significantly during this time period. Within educational subgroups, the 2015 decline, in particular, seems to have been driven by those with some college experience, or college degrees.

Controlling for other factors, the population-wide adult giving rate increased between 2010 and 2011, then reverted to 2010 levels in 2012, and declined further in 2014 and 2015. The national giving rate declined by 3.2 percentage points (controlling for other factors) between 2010 and 2015, and this pattern also appeared in the trends for the largest subgroups (White only and non-Latino). However, giving rates within the Black (only) subgroup increased in 2011, stayed at that level in 2012 before declining in 2013, and did not decline further in 2015; controlling for all other factors, the 2015 giving rate was about the same as it was in 2010. Giving rates were stable during this time period for all educational subgroups, except among high school graduates with no college, where they declined in 2014 and 2015. Giving rates were also generally stable for Latinos and other subgroups defined by race and national origin.

RESULTS: ESTIMATES OF MACRO-LEVEL VARIABLES

Together, the macro-level variables account for a tiny amount of the explained variation in volunteering and giving, but the results have substantive significance nonetheless. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for a multilevel model indicates the percentage of explained variation that can be explained by the macro-level variables, compared to the micro-level (individual, family and household) variables.[139] Table 5 contains the ICC estimates for the giving and volunteering models for the entire adult population, and also for the models estimated for each of the subgroups defined by race, national origin, ethnicity, and educational attainment.

TABLE 5: INTRACLASS COEFFICIENTS FOR ALL MODELS OF VOLUNTEERING AND GIVING

VARIABLE	ALL ADULTS	VOLUNTEERING	GIVING
	All Adults	**0.3%**	**0.5%**
Race or National Origin	White (only)	0.3%	0.6%
	Black or African American (only)	0	0.9%
	American Indian / Alaskan Native (only)	0.4%	0.4%
	Asian (only)	0.6%	0.6%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander (only)	0	0
	More than one race category	0	0
Ethnicity (Latino or Hispanic[138] - could be any race or national origin category)	Latino	0.4%	0.6%
	Non-Latino	0.3%	0.5%
Educational Attainment	Less than a High School Diploma	0.4%	0.4%
	High School Diploma or Equivalent	0.1%	0.5%
	Some College	0.3%	0.4%
	College Graduate (at least a BA/BS)	0.3%	0.5%

For the adult population, the ICC values are less than 1 percent for both the giving and volunteering models, indicating that the micro-level variables explain almost all the individual-level variances. These ICC values are lower than those that are reported in studies that use cross-national data to estimate multilevel models,[140] probably because the CPS allows us to include such a rich specification of micro-level variables. However, for some subgroups, the ICC values are statistically indistinguishable from zero, which suggests that the state-level variables essentially contribute nothing to the explained variation. This is the case for giving and volunteering for those who only identify as Native Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders, and for people who identify with more than one race and national origin category. For respondents who only identify as Black, it is also true for volunteering.

Our expectations were that these macro-level variables would generally have less impact on giving than on volunteering, as suggested by authors like Jones,[141] who argues that social connections influence the likelihood of volunteering more than the likelihood of giving, and that giving is more influenced by intrinsic motivations. Table 4 suggests that, if anything, the macro-level variables influence giving more than volunteering, although these variables only explain a tiny amount of variation in both models. The results from our multilevel models also allow us to test this proposition for each of our macro-level variables: does each one influence volunteering more than, or less than, giving? In Tables 2 and 3, the macro-level variables are all standardized to make it easier to use the marginal effects to make these comparisons. The effect size represents the effect of increasing the variable value by one standard deviation.

Together, the results of the macro-level variables add a great deal to the story told by the multilevel models of volunteering and giving, even if they collectively account for only a tiny fraction of the variance explained by these models.

POPULATION DENSITY

This variable, which was omitted from the model specifications used by Rotolo and Wilson, was negative in both equations, as hypothesized, but not statistically significant in either one. This was true for all the population subgroups, except for Latinos, where population density was statistically significant and negative in the giving equation. This suggests that people who identify as Latino are less likely to give to charity if they live in states where more of the population lives in big cities.

HOMEOWNERSHIP RATE, MULTI-UNIT HOUSING

Both of these variables are conceptually related to population density, in that states with large cities also have large concentrations of people living in apartments instead of stand-alone housing, and these people are more likely to be transient or have looser connections to the community. Like population density, the percent of adults who live in owner-occupied dwellings is not significant in either the giving or the volunteering model for any subgroup. However, the percent of adults who live in multi-unit housing is significant and negative in the volunteering model for all groups except those who identify only as Asians or Native Hawaiians / Pacific Islanders, and multiracial people (who identify with more than one race or national origin category). Multi-unit housing has mixed results in the giving equations: it is positive and not significant for the overall adult population, and negative and significant for people without high school diplomas and Asian-only adults - but positive and significant for multiracial adults.

COMMUTING TIME

We would expect this variable to be statistically significant in the volunteering model, but not necessarily in the giving model, because volunteering is much more likely to require travel from home. However, commuting time is not significant in either model (giving or volunteering), although it is negative in the giving model for people with a high school diploma, or less education than that. For these adults, the longer they commute to work, the less likely they are to donate money.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Empirical studies of giving and volunteering are more likely to use the percent of residents with college degrees, rather than the percent with at least a high-school education, as a macro-level measure of educational attainment. In fact, the percent of residents with high school degrees is not significant in the models for volunteering and giving, except among people who identify as Black (only), where it is significant and negative in both models. If economic needs tend to be more pervasive in states with less-educated populations, this result may suggest that Black adults are likely to give or volunteer in response to these needs.

As expected, the percent of residents with college degrees is significant and positive in the volunteering model (controlling for the respondent's own educational attainment). This result holds for all levels of educational attainment and for the largest subgroups - non-Latinos, White (only) or Black (only) - defined by race, national origin or ethnicity. This variable is only significant and positive in the giving model for a few subgroups: those with college degrees or some college, people who only identify as Black or Asian, and multiracial adults.

POVERTY RATE

The percentage of state residents living below the poverty threshold is significant and positive in the multilevel models for both giving and volunteering. Contrary to the hypothesis that generosity is less prevalent in economically deprived areas, these results suggest that people who live in a state with widespread poverty are more likely to respond with generosity, all else being equal. Both results hold for the largest population subgroups (those who identify only as White, and those who do not identify as Latino) and also for Latinos. In addition, college graduates and people with high school diplomas (but no college) who live in high-poverty states are more likely to give money to charity.

PREVALENCE OF NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

The prevalence of nonprofit organizations was significant and positive in the multilevel Rotolo-Wilson model of volunteering, where the macro-level variables were measured for metropolitan areas. We used large and small nonprofits per 1000 state residents in our models, expecting them to influence volunteering and giving in different ways.

The results are surprising: Controlling for all other factors, people in states with large numbers of large nonprofits per 1000 residents are less likely to volunteer and to give. This result is very robust, appearing for the largest population subgroups and for most, if not all, educational subgroups. Although most "large" nonprofits, as defined here, are not ultra-wealthy in terms of assets, it does suggest that people are less likely to give and volunteer in states with concentrations of nonprofits large enough to file IRS Form 990 or 990-EZ.

Our expectation was that both giving and volunteering should be more likely in states where the prevalence of small nonprofit organizations, because nonprofits of this size are so reliant on the resources provided by volunteers and individual donors. We find that small nonprofits per 1000 state residents is significant and positive in the giving equation, but not the volunteering equation. The result for giving holds for the largest subgroups defined by race, national origin and ethnicity (White-only and Non-Latino), as well as for Asian-only adults.

MEDIAN INCOME, UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

The median state income, as well as the annual average state unemployment rate, were included in both models as macro-level measures of socioeconomic status and economic health. The unemployment rate, which has not been consistently associated with generosity in previous studies, is not significant in either model - except that the giving rate for Latinos is higher in states with high unemployment, controlling for other factors.

Median income is positive and significant in the model for giving, which indicates that people who are living in more affluent states are more likely to give - even after controlling for their own personal and household characteristics, especially education and income. This result is present for the largest population subgroups; Latinos in highly affluent states are more likely to donate money, but also to volunteer, controlling for other factors.

PREVALENCE OF CONGREGATIONS

As with the prevalence of secular nonprofit organizations, we would expect people in states with more congregations per 1000 residents to be more likely to volunteer and to donate money, controlling for other factors. This variable is positive in both models, as hypothesized, but statistically significant only in the volunteering model. Congregations per 1000 state residents has a significant influence on volunteering for almost all subgroups defined by race, national origin, ethnicity, and educational attainment. However, the positive influence of this variable is much smaller than the negative influence of the large nonprofits prevalence measure. Although this variable is not significant in the giving equation, it is significant (and positive) for all educational groups except high school graduates with no college experience, and is also significant and positive for those who only identify as White.

RACIAL HETEROGENEITY

Based on previous research, we would expect the Blau index of racial heterogeneity to have a negative sign in our models, which would indicate that volunteering and giving should be more prevalent in places that are less racially diverse, all else being equal. The Blau index is negative and significant in the Rotolo-Wilson multilevel model of volunteering with secular organizations in metropolitan areas, even after controlling for income inequality and neighborhood-level measures of racial segregation. In our models for volunteering or giving, racial heterogeneity is not statistically significant, except for certain subgroups. It is negative for volunteering for college graduates (of all racial and ethnic subgroups) and for those who only identify as Black. However, it is positive for people without high school diplomas (including students under age 18), which indicates that generosity is more likely for such people when they live in racially diverse states.

INCOME INEQUALITY

Following Rotolo and Wilson, we would expect the Gini index to be negative in the models for volunteering and giving. We find that the index is negative in the giving model, indicating that giving to charity is more prevalent in places with less income inequality, even after controlling for personal socioeconomic characteristics. Although the giving result is robust, appearing in the models for most population subgroups, income inequality has no significant effect on volunteering, contrary to the findings of Rotolo and Wilson.

PUTNAM'S SOCIAL CAPITAL INDEX

This index, which was originally created for use in Robert Putnam's *Bowling Alone*, is positive and significant in the multilevel model of volunteering for all adults. As anticipated, if not predicted, it is not significant in the giving model - indicating that macro-level measures of social capital, or philanthropic culture, influence the decision to volunteer but not the decision to donate money. Putnam's index is significant and positive for people who identify only as White, for those who do not identify as Latino, and for people who have high school degrees but no college experience. However, it is significant and negative in the giving models for those who identify only as Black or as American Indian / Alaskan Native.

CONCLUSION

The use of multilevel modeling gives a much clearer answer to the question of what factors play the largest role in encouraging or discouraging volunteering with an organization and making a gift worth $25 or more to charity - two of the most common philanthropic activities. In both of our models, micro-level variables - characteristics of the survey respondents, their families, and their households - explain almost all of the variation in the individual-level CPS survey data, which is what other multilevel studies using the CPS Volunteer Supplement data have found.[142]

Because the CPS Volunteer Supplement has been used much more often to study volunteering than to study giving, our results considerably extend the conclusions of previous research. Not surprisingly, because of the size and diversity of the pooled 2010-2015 CPS dataset, almost all of the micro-level variables are statistically significant in both the giving and volunteering models. However, the marginal effects of these variables - in general, the difference in the probability of giving or volunteering from being in one category rather than the reference category, holding all other variables constant - tell us where the "gaps" in participation are largest. There are gender gaps for both forms of generosity, and gaps associated with race and ethnicity, but the variables that affect both giving and volunteering the most are age and educational attainment. Age is the most important predictor of giving money, while educational attainment is the most important predictor of volunteering.

One of the most important micro-level variables in our model specification is the survey year. The CPS allows us to measure a wide variety of micro-level and macro-level variables, but the Volunteer Supplement only contains questions about generous behavior: it does not allow us to measure attitudes toward generosity or willingness to help others. If we think of the year variables as proxy measures for these unmeasured factors, we can see that changes in these unmeasured variables are important contributors to the declines in participation rates we see. Controlling for all the measurable micro-level and macro-level factors that we have included in our models, the volunteer rate declined by 3.2 percentage points, and the giving rate declined by 3.1 percentage points, between 2010 and 2015. Given that the actual volunteer rate only declined by half that amount (1.4 percentage points), and the actual giving rate only declined by 0.7 percentage points, this suggests that Americans became less willing to act with generosity during this time period, perhaps in spite of demographic changes that usually stimulate more generosity.[143]

Compared to the micro-level variables in our models, the macro-level variables (measures of state characteristics) explain very little variation in our measures of whether individuals donated money or volunteered their time to organizations. However, because of the statistical power of the pooled CPS dataset, our results illustrate some surprising and important aspects of how geography, place and philanthropic culture influence individual-level decisions about generosity. Because not many studies use the same data source to directly compare multilevel models of giving and volunteering, we have little scholarship that directly compares the influence of community factors and social connections on the giving decision versus the volunteering decision. The intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) give us part of the answer, suggesting that the macro-level variables in our models explain slightly more variation in giving than in volunteering, although this difference is minuscule.

More generally, unlike the micro-level variables, which are almost always statistically significant in both models, several of our macro-level variables appear to influence giving or volunteering, but not both forms of generosity. The two exceptions - the state-level poverty rate and the prevalence of "large" nonprofit organizations per 1000 state residents - are both surprising because of what they imply. The poverty rate is positive in both models, indicating that people are more inclined to be generous in states where a larger percentage of residents have pressing economic needs, controlling for other factors, including their own circumstances. And giving and volunteering both appear to be less common in states where there are more nonprofits with gross receipts of $50,000 or more. A recent study[144] suggests that many non-donors do not contribute money because they feel that wealthy donors should contribute more, and because they suspect that nonprofits misuse donations. Although we did not expect to find results that are consistent with these conclusions, the real surprise is that they apply to volunteering as well as giving.

In addition to our main findings, which are based on data that covers nearly the entire U.S. population,[145] we have also produced estimates of both models for key population subgroups, defined by race, national origin, (Latino) ethnicity, and educational attainment. These subgroup results add needed context to the population results, which may not be accurate descriptions of the behavior of every community in the U.S. The sheer number of results that emerge from this subgroup analysis make it difficult to characterize them overall, but the subgroup analysis indicates how robust the main results are, or whether they are driven by particular subgroups. It also suggests areas where the subgroups may differ from one another: respondents who identify with two or more racial categories are more likely to volunteer than those who only identify as White; macro-level variables seem to have very little effect on volunteering for those who identify as Black (only) and those who are multiracial; and the survey-year effects are very different for White-only and non-Latino respondents, indicating that any potential decline in willingness to act generously, which is implied by the population-wide findings, is likely to be concentrated in the largest subgroups.

The results of our multilevel analysis add to our understanding about how the observed levels of generosity depend on macro-level factors (characteristics of the state, in this case), observable micro-level factors, and other variables that cannot be measured directly with the CPS Volunteer Supplement. In our second report, we will add meso-level variables to our analysis to understand how social connections help explain generosity. This analysis will also explore the relationship between different types of generosity. If people engage in one type of behavior that could be considered generous - or civic or philanthropic - how much more likely are they to engage in other forms of generosity?

TABLE 6: MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING AND VOLUNTEERING, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates				CHARITABLE GIVING: 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates			
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)
Gender	Male	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Female	3.7%	4.5%	6.9%	8.2%	5.5%	7.5%	8.0%	5.2%
Race	White	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Black	-2.3%	-2.4%	-3.1%	-3.2%	-1.0%	-5.1%	-4.7%	-4.0%
	American Indian, Alaskan Native	-3.6%	-4.8%	-5.0%	-4.6%	-7.5%	-10.9%	-10.8%	-7.8%
	Asian	-4.8%	-10.7%	-11.9%	-20.9%	-9.0%	-13.5%	-11.7%	-12.8%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander	-1.6%	-4.7%	-1.2%	-9.3%	-5.2%	-3.7%	-0.6%	-5.0%
	More than one race category	1.5%	1.2%	3.4%	2.8%	3.2%	-0.2%	0.7%	1.2%
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Latino	-5.2%	-6.4%	-7.1%	-12.1%	-4.4%	-6.4%	-7.9%	-10.8%
	Non-Latino	Reference Category				Reference Category			
Own Children under 18	No own children under 18	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Own children under 18	1.4%	5.9%	8.6%	11.4%	2.7%	2.8%	3.6%	4.6%
Marital Status	Single - Never married	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Married - spouse present	3.1%	5.3%	6.9%	3.8%	13.3%	17.8%	16.0%	8.8%
	Other marital status	-0.8%	0.9%	1.8%	-1.5%	4.0%	4.4%	4.6%	1.7%
Labor Force Participation	Employed, full-time	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Employed, part-time	5.1%	4.3%	6.7%	8.5%	-2.5%	-1.2%	-0.2%	1.0%
	Unemployed	4.2%	3.1%	4.9%	4.2%	-8.5%	-8.5%	-6.2%	-5.2%
	Not in labor force	1.7%	-0.6%	0.1%	-0.5%	-10.5%	-11.0%	-10.3%	-7.2%
Family Income	Less than $35,000	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Between $35-$50,000	2.1%	1.8%	2.5%	3.0%	4.9%	7.1%	7.3%	7.1%
	Between $50-$75,000	4.0%	4.3%	4.8%	5.3%	7.1%	11.1%	10.9%	11.8%
	$75,000 and over	9.0%	6.6%	7.8%	9.7%	12.0%	17.3%	18.0%	16.5%

TABLE 6 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING AND VOLUNTEERING, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates				CHARITABLE GIVING: 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates			
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Urban (principal city)	**-0.8%**	**-2.6%**	**-2.5%**	**-3.2%**	-0.9%	0.5%	**1.0%**	**-1.0%**
	Suburban (balance)	-0.4%	**-2.2%**	**-1.6%**	**-3.6%**	**1.3%**	**2.8%**	**2.7%**	0.4%
	Rural (nonmetropolitan)	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Not identified	Reference Category				Reference Category			
Region of the USA	East	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Midwest	-1.1%	0.3%	0.5%	3.0%	-0.8%	-2.0%	0.6%	0.2%
	South	-1.8%	-1.2%	-2.3%	0.5%	**-5.5%**	-3.8%	-1.8%	-1.7%
	West	-1.0%	0.6%	0.0%	3.4%	-1.1%	-1.2%	2.6%	0.1%
Age Groups	Ages 16 to 24	**10.3%**	**-1.5%**	**-2.0%**	**-3.7%**	**-27.9%**	**-41.0%**	**-34.8%**	**-20.2%**
	Age 25 to 34	0.9%	**-6.6%**	**-7.0%**	**-8.7%**	**-27.6%**	**-34.1%**	**-26.9%**	**-17.6%**
	Age 35 to 44	**2.2%**	**-4.0%**	**-1.4%**	0.7%	**-23.3%**	**-28.7%**	**-21.3%**	**-11.2%**
	Age 45 to 54	0.5%	**-3.7%**	-1.2%	**4.3%**	**-22.1%**	**-23.2%**	**-16.2%**	**-7.3%**
	Age 55 to 64	0.1%	**-3.0%**	**-1.3%**	**3.2%**	**-15.7%**	**-16.5%**	**-10.6%**	**-4.5%**
	Age 65 to 74	0.5%	0.1%	**2.6%**	**6.6%**	**-5.7%**	**-5.3%**	**-2.8%**	0.0%
	Age 75 and Over	Reference Category				Reference Category			
CPS Survey Year	Year = 2010	Reference Category				Reference Category			
	Year = 2011	0.9%	-0.1%	0.1%	-1.2%	0.5%	-0.1%	1.5%	1.8%
	Year = 2012	-0.2%	**-1.4%**	-0.9%	-1.5%	0.3%	-2.0%	0.8%	0.1%
	Year = 2013	-0.4%	**-2.0%**	**-2.4%**	**-3.6%**	0.1%	-2.3%	-0.7%	-0.3%
	Year = 2014	-0.6%	**-2.4%**	**-2.4%**	**-3.1%**	-0.8%	**-3.3%**	-1.4%	0.1%
	Year = 2015	-0.9%	**-2.6%**	**-3.2%**	**-3.7%**	-2.7%	**-5.8%**	-2.3%	-1.0%

TABLE 6 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING AND VOLUNTEERING, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates				CHARITABLE GIVING: 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates			
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) SOME COLLEGE (NO DEGREE)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) COLLEGE GRADUATE (AT LEAST A BA/BS)
State-Level Variables	Population Density	-1.6%	-0.2%	-3.0%	0.0%	-4.0%	-4.1%	2.4%	-0.7%
	Homeownership Rate	-0.5%	-0.6%	-1.1%	-0.6%	0.4%	0.6%	1.2%	0.0%
	Multi-Unit Housing Rate	**-1.4%**	**-1.9%**	**-2.1%**	**-2.9%**	**2.1%**	0.3%	0.8%	-0.8%
	Commuting Time	-0.7%	-0.1%	-0.2%	-0.5%	**-2.4%**	**-2.1%**	-0.9%	-0.9%
	Percent High School Graduates	0.5%	-0.1%	-0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	1.3%	0.2%	-0.8%
	Percent College Graduates	**1.5%**	**1.5%**	**2.6%**	**3.3%**	**2.7%**	0.7%	**2.6%**	**3.9%**
	Poverty Rate	1.2%	0.4%	**2.1%**	1.0%	2.1%	**3.1%**	0.4%	**2.6%**
	Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	-1.6%	**-2.7%**	**-3.5%**	-2.5%	**-8.7%**	**-9.2%**	**-5.6%**	**-6.2%**
	Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	0.4%	-0.3%	0.8%	-1.5%	2.0%	**2.9%**	-0.1%	1.7%
	Median Income	1.4%	-1.4%	2.2%	-0.7%	**5.9%**	**9.8%**	0.1%	**4.1%**
	Unemployment Rate	0.3%	-0.2%	-0.1%	0.7%	0.2%	0.2%	-0.2%	0.8%
	Congregations per Capita	-0.2%	0.4%	**1.3%**	**2.3%**	**1.9%**	0.9%	**1.7%**	**1.5%**
	Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	0.1%	-0.1%	-0.9%	**-1.9%**	**1.8%**	1.2%	1.1%	-1.1%
	Gini Index of Income Inequality	0.2%	0.3%	-0.8%	-0.2%	**-2.4%**	-0.6%	**-1.7%**	**-1.7%**
	Putnam Social Capital Index	1.1%	**2.0%**	0.8%	1.7%	-1.0%	0.4%	0.8%	0.7%
Constant	Constant	Reference Category				Reference Category			

TABLE 7: MARGINAL EFFECTS - FORMAL VOLUNTEERING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
Gender	Male	Reference Category							
	Female	6.6%	4.2%	2.6%	4.6%	1.6%	7.8%	3.9%	6.6%
Race	White								
	Black							0.5%	-3.5%
	American Indian, Alaskan Native							2.2%	-7.4%
	Asian							4.2%	-15.9%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander							4.0%	-6.1%
	More than one race category							3.7%	2.4%
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Latino	-9.9%	-3.8%	-0.8%	8.0%	2.1%	-4.7%		
	Non-Latino	Reference Category							
Educational Attainment	Less than HS Diploma	Reference Category							
	HS Grad	1.3%	1.0%	0.9%	-1.7%	-2.6%	-2.8%	1.8%	0.7%
	Some college	9.6%	8.5%	9.3%	3.6%	8.8%	8.4%	8.0%	9.2%
	College grad +	20.2%	16.0%	16.7%	11.0%	16.7%	17.6%	12.2%	20.0%
Own Children under 18	No own children under 18	Reference Category							
	Own children under 18	9.0%	3.4%	5.2%	5.3%	12.4%	6.1%	3.1%	8.9%
Marital Status	Single - Never married	Reference Category							
	Married - spouse present	4.8%	4.1%	4.5%	-4.5%	2.7%	4.2%	2.9%	4.7%
	Other marital status	-0.3%	2.1%	3.4%	-6.3%	-0.3%	-1.4%	0.4%	-0.2%
Labor Force Participation	Employed, full-time	Reference Category							
	Employed, part-time	6.9%	3.7%	3.9%	3.7%	9.4%	8.3%	4.5%	6.7%
	Unemployed	4.1%	4.6%	6.7%	4.8%	16.3%	10.7%	5.6%	4.1%
	Not in labor force	1.0%	-1.9%	-3.1%	1.3%	4.2%	1.6%	2.0%	0.4%

TABLE 7 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - FORMAL VOLUNTEERING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
Family Income	Less than $35,000	Reference Category							
	Between $35-$50,000	3.5%	2.5%	-1.0%	0.4%	-4.3%	3.4%	1.5%	3.6%
	Between $50-$75,000	6.2%	4.4%	5.3%	2.8%	2.8%	5.6%	2.9%	6.3%
	$75,000 and over	10.0%	6.6%	3.0%	8.2%	2.3%	13.1%	6.2%	10.1%
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Urban (principal city)	-2.6%	-1.4%	-2.2%	1.9%	-6.3%	-5.7%	-1.2%	-2.7%
	Suburban (balance)	-2.2%	-1.3%	-1.1%	1.8%	-9.1%	-1.1%	-1.0%	-2.1%
	Rural (nonmetropolitan)	Reference Category							
	Not identified	Reference Category							
Region of the USA	East	Reference Category							
	Midwest	1.0%	0.2%	-2.7%	1.5%	5.8%	-4.5%	0.3%	0.8%
	South	-1.2%	0.1%	1.0%	3.0%	-10.8%	-2.1%	1.6%	-1.0%
	West	1.1%	0.3%	-4.3%	6.3%	5.9%	-3.3%	2.5%	0.8%
Age Groups	Ages 16 to 24	3.5%	2.5%	1.1%	9.8%	10.2%	7.2%	7.0%	3.1%
	Age 25 to 34	-6.7%	-1.5%	-7.5%	-0.2%	6.8%	-1.1%	3.7%	-7.2%
	Age 35 to 44	-0.8%	0.3%	-4.1%	4.9%	6.8%	4.9%	5.4%	-1.2%
	Age 45 to 54	0.2%	1.2%	-3.1%	7.1%	10.3%	5.2%	5.0%	0.1%
	Age 55 to 64	0.1%	1.2%	-3.1%	5.2%	6.4%	5.3%	4.6%	-0.1%
	Age 65 to 74	3.0%	3.4%	-5.8%	4.0%	5.9%	8.3%	3.8%	3.0%
	Age 75 and Over	Reference Category							
CPS Survey Year	Year = 2010	Reference Category							
	Year = 2011	-0.4%	1.5%	-7.3%	1.0%	0.1%	2.2%	-0.9%	-0.1%
	Year = 2012	-1.6%	2.5%	-12.8%	0.8%	3.7%	1.6%	-1.5%	-1.1%
	Year = 2013	-2.8%	1.0%	-12.1%	-0.3%	3.2%	-4.1%	-1.5%	-2.6%
	Year = 2014	-3.1%	2.0%	-13.0%	-0.4%	3.1%	-3.7%	-1.8%	-2.7%
	Year = 2015	-3.6%	2.2%	-14.6%	-1.5%	5.4%	-4.6%	-1.5%	-3.2%

TABLE 7 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - FORMAL VOLUNTEERING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		FORMAL VOLUNTEERING (UNPAID WORK THROUGH OR FOR AN ORGANIZATION): 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
State-Level Variables	Population Density	-1.3%	2.1%	-13.2%	0.3%	1.9%	-1.6%	**-6.0%**	-0.9%
	Homeownership Rate	-1.2%	0.1%	-1.7%	0.8%	-3.0%	-0.7%	-0.9%	-1.0%
	Multi-Unit Housing Rate	**-2.2%**	**-1.8%**	**-3.6%**	-2.2%	-7.4%	-2.1%	**-2.1%**	**-2.2%**
	Commuting Time	-0.1%	0.1%	-1.5%	0.7%	**11.2%**	1.2%	-0.8%	-0.3%
	Percent High School Graduates	1.1%	**-2.1%**	2.1%	0.3%	-2.7%	0.8%	1.5%	0.7%
	Percent College Graduates	**2.3%**	**2.5%**	0.9%	0.4%	1.3%	1.5%	1.4%	**2.3%**
	Poverty Rate	**1.7%**	-0.3%	3.6%	-1.4%	4.4%	2.2%	**4.0%**	**1.3%**
	Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	**-3.2%**	**-4.4%**	0.3%	-2.5%	-15.6%	-1.1%	1.3%	**-3.9%**
	Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	0.4%	1.2%	-1.5%	3.2%	10.8%	-0.4%	0.3%	0.6%
	Median Income	-0.3%	-0.7%	9.5%	-3.1%	3.6%	-2.2%	**6.9%**	-0.4%
	Unemployment Rate	0.0%	1.1%	0.1%	0.4%	0.5%	-1.6%	0.9%	0.1%
	Congregations per Capita	**1.0%**	**1.0%**	-1.9%	-0.9%	1.7%	0.3%	0.7%	**1.0%**
	Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	-0.5%	**-2.5%**	-2.3%	-1.3%	-3.6%	1.5%	0.0%	-0.7%
	Gini Index of Income Inequality	0.0%	-0.2%	2.8%	2.3%	-3.8%	-1.3%	0.0%	0.1%
	Putnam Social Capital Index	**1.8%**	0.6%	-1.6%	0.0%	-0.7%	1.8%	0.1%	**1.8%**
Constant	Constant	Reference Category							

TABLE 8: MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		CHARITABLE GIVING 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
Gender	Male	Reference Category							
	Female	7.5%	8.0%	5.6%	7.2%	3.5%	8.4%	6.3%	7.6%
Race	White	Reference Category							
	Black							-2.0%	-4.5%
	American Indian, Alaskan Native							0.8%	-13.4%
	Asian							3.3%	-15.3%
	Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander							4.5%	-5.0%
	More than one race category							6.8%	0.2%
Ethnicity (Latino Origin)	Latino	-8.1%	-5.4%	2.2%	5.5%	1.5%	-0.4%		
	Non-Latino	Reference Category							
Educational Attainment	Less than HS Diploma	Reference Category							
	HS Grad	9.0%	4.7%	5.0%	5.9%	10.1%	3.2%	5.4%	9.2%
	Some college	20.9%	16.2%	15.1%	16.0%	26.4%	16.5%	14.5%	21.5%
	College grad +	33.3%	26.4%	23.7%	26.4%	34.1%	30.2%	19.3%	34.2%
Own Children under 18	No own children under 18								
	Own children under 18	4.8%	1.2%	4.6%	5.4%	8.8%	2.6%	2.4%	4.5%
Marital Status	Single - Never married	Reference Category							
	Married - spouse present	16.0%	14.5%	13.3%	6.7%	17.7%	13.9%	13.8%	15.5%
	Other marital status	3.7%	7.0%	3.1%	-0.1%	6.2%	2.8%	4.0%	3.7%
Labor Force Participation	Employed, full-time	Reference Category							
	Employed, part-time	0.1%	-3.2%	-3.5%	-5.7%	-4.6%	0.5%	-0.6%	-0.5%
	Unemployed	-7.3%	-9.2%	-5.6%	-6.8%	-0.3%	-1.6%	-5.8%	-7.4%
	Not in labor force	-9.7%	-14.0%	-13.5%	-15.8%	-14.3%	-10.1%	-10.1%	-10.4%

TABLE 8 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		CHARITABLE GIVING 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
Family Income	Less than $35,000	Reference Category							
	Between $35-$50,000	7.9%	5.4%	0.9%	3.3%	1.8%	7.1%	6.0%	7.6%
	Between $50-$75,000	11.8%	10.5%	11.1%	7.1%	5.0%	9.3%	9.2%	11.7%
	$75,000 and over	19.3%	15.3%	13.5%	15.2%	13.1%	17.4%	15.4%	19.0%
Urban-Suburban-Rural Household	Urban (principal city)	0.7%	-2.4%	-1.9%	4.3%	-16.4%	-0.8%	0.2%	-0.1%
	Suburban (balance)	2.1%	2.8%	2.0%	4.8%	-6.7%	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
	Rural (nonmetropolitan)	Reference Category							
	Not identified	Reference Category							
Region of the USA	East	Reference Category							
	Midwest	-0.7%	0.7%	-1.4%	0.1%	-2.9%	-5.4%	-2.8%	-1.2%
	South	-3.9%	-3.0%	-5.9%	2.3%	-22.1%	2.3%	-4.6%	-3.2%
	West	0.6%	-3.4%	-4.5%	5.1%	-14.9%	0.2%	-3.3%	0.1%
Age Groups	Ages 16 to 24	-34.0%	-31.7%	-36.0%	-24.4%	-28.1%	-38.7%	-26.8%	-33.9%
	Age 25 to 34	-28.1%	-25.8%	-27.1%	-24.1%	-19.7%	-28.7%	-19.5%	-28.5%
	Age 35 to 44	-21.9%	-20.4%	-25.9%	-10.3%	-20.9%	-23.1%	-13.6%	-22.0%
	Age 45 to 54	-17.0%	-16.6%	-23.1%	-5.5%	-10.1%	-15.8%	-10.5%	-17.0%
	Age 55 to 64	-11.6%	-9.5%	-10.3%	-1.9%	-8.3%	-10.4%	-5.7%	-11.5%
	Age 65 to 74	-3.3%	0.6%	-8.2%	3.0%	13.8%	-6.4%	1.8%	-3.3%
	Age 75 and Over	Reference Category							
CPS Survey Year	Year = 2010	Reference Category							
	Year = 2011	1.0%	3.5%	5.9%	-0.3%	9.0%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%
	Year = 2012	-0.5%	4.7%	-6.3%	-1.5%	3.7%	2.4%	-0.8%	-0.2%
	Year = 2013	-0.9%	2.3%	-1.7%	-1.7%	8.3%	-4.2%	-1.4%	-0.8%
	Year = 2014	-1.6%	1.3%	-3.9%	-1.8%	15.4%	-1.8%	-0.8%	-1.7%
	Year = 2015	-3.5%	0.4%	-2.6%	-5.0%	26.4%	2.0%	-0.4%	-3.6%

TABLE 8 (CONTINUED): MARGINAL EFFECTS - GIVING, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY

		CHARITABLE GIVING 2010-2015 (pooled) State-level covariates							
VARIABLE	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) WHITE OR CAUCASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) AMERICAN INDIAN / ALASKAN NATIVE (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) ASIAN (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NATIVE HAWAIIAN / PACIFIC ISLANDER (ONLY)	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) MORE THAN ONE RACE CATEGORY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) LATINO ETHNICITY	MARGINAL EFFECT (DY/DX) NOT LATINO ETHNICITY
State-Level Variables	Population Density	-0.6%	-5.9%	-3.7%	-5.0%	-12.6%	-2.3%	**-12.0%**	-0.6%
	Homeownership Rate	0.6%	1.5%	-4.2%	0.2%	6.8%	3.1%	-1.0%	1.1%
	Multi-Unit Housing Rate	1.3%	0.6%	**-7.4%**	-1.9%	1.6%	**4.5%**	-0.4%	1.2%
	Commuting Time	-0.6%	-2.6%	1.6%	-0.6%	6.2%	**-4.1%**	-0.8%	-1.4%
	Percent High School Graduates	0.8%	**-5.0%**	4.8%	0.2%	-7.7%	-1.3%	2.8%	0.4%
	Percent College Graduates	1.0%	**6.5%**	**6.5%**	2.0%	-0.5%	**6.4%**	1.1%	1.6%
	Poverty Rate	**2.2%**	**7.5%**	-2.2%	-0.1%	-11.9%	1.6%	**6.8%**	**2.3%**
	Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	**-8.6%**	-4.1%	2.1%	-8.9%	**-35.8%**	-8.0%	-1.2%	**-9.2%**
	Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	**2.3%**	3.2%	2.1%	**5.6%**	6.6%	0.5%	1.4%	**2.5%**
	Median Income	**5.1%**	**10.5%**	-8.4%	1.0%	-8.1%	4.7%	**11.9%**	**4.9%**
	Unemployment Rate	0.0%	-0.1%	1.8%	0.8%	6.8%	1.7%	**1.7%**	-0.2%
	Congregations per Capita	**1.7%**	-0.8%	1.4%	-0.3%	-0.4%	1.4%	1.1%	1.2%
	Blau Index of Racial Heterogeneity	1.5%	-2.3%	-1.1%	0.6%	8.7%	-2.0%	1.1%	1.4%
	Gini Index of Income Inequality	**-1.3%**	**-7.0%**	2.6%	0.7%	-2.0%	-3.4%	**-2.9%**	**-1.4%**
	Putnam Social Capital Index	2.0%	**-4.3%**	**-9.2%**	0.0%	**12.3%**	-1.9%	-0.9%	1.6%
Constant	Constant	Reference Category							

ENDNOTES

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[118] The 2007 report defined small nonprofits as those with gross receipts of $25,000 or less. Given inflation, as well as changes in the reporting requirements for nonprofits (which now require organizations with gross receipts of $200,000 or more to file the full IRS Form 990 instead of the less burdensome IRS Forms 990N or 990-EZ), we have increased the boundary for small organizations to $50,000 or less in gross receipts. All exempt organizations with gross receipts of $50,000 or more must file either IRS Form 990-EZ or Form 990 on an annual basis.
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[139] Perhaps because of the variation captured by the state-level variables, the regional indicator variables, which were included in each model, are not statistically significant.
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