A Less Charitable Nation: The Decline of Volunteering and Giving in the United States

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Introduction

While the United States recently experienced record highs in total volunteer hours and charitable dollars given to community organizations, these seemingly positive numbers mask a troubling trend: fewer Americans are engaging in their community by volunteering and giving than in any time in the recent past. Immediately following the terrorist attacks of September 11, the volunteer rate surged to a peak level and stayed there for three straight years. After this record high in volunteering, the national rate of American volunteering declined and continued to slide throughout the decade from 2004 to 2015 while the percentage of Americans making charitable donations dropped similarly between 2000 and 2014.

The importance of recognizing and addressing this decline in Americans participation in their community cannot be overstated. While people, organizations and communities all rely on the work provided by volunteers, volunteering also generates (for example) indirect positive benefits for communities and for volunteers themselves. Over the years, studies[1] have shown that regular volunteering promotes strong emotional, mental, and even physical health (particularly for older adults);[2] encourages other types of civic participation; discourages antisocial behavior; and promotes socioeconomic achievement, especially by encouraging educational advancement among high school and college students.

Volunteer work also helps to strengthen communities by encouraging people to work together to solve pressing problems. The term "social capital" is frequently used to describe the resource that people generate through positive interactions that helps to keep communities and societies prosperous and productive. Social capital is distinguished from other forms of capital, such as economic (physical resources including tools and technology) or human (personal resources including education and skills), in that the benefits of social capital are only available in and through relationships with others. At the same time, social capital makes it easier for people to

[1] Wilson, John. "Volunteering." *Annual Review of Sociology* 26, no. 1 (2000): 215-240. See also https://www.thebalancesmb.com/unexpected-benefits-of-volunteering-4132453.
[2] Grimm, Robert; Spring, Kimberly; and Dietz, Nathan, Corporation for National and Community Service, Office of Research and Policy Development (2007). *The Health Benefits of Volunteering: A Review of Recent Research,* Washington, DC 20525. Available at https://www.nationalservice.gov/pdf/07_0506_hbr.pdf.

use their membership in social networks to secure benefits, including human capital and economic capital.[3]

Social capital can be characterized by studying the occurrence of interactions between individuals – especially how, and how often, they engage in civic and social affairs. Social capital networks give rise to group norms that can facilitate action, cooperation, trust, and reciprocity with others; norms that lead to positive ties among individuals and groups and stimulate more pro-civic actions. Communities rich in social capital produce greater pro-civic attitudes and subsequently a greater desire to be active in community affairs. On the other hand, communities with less engaged individuals can expect detrimental outcomes such as greater social isolation, less trust in each other, and poorer physical and mental health.[4]

In the 2000 landmark publication *Bowling Alone*, social scientist Robert Putnam describes declining social and civic engagement in American life throughout the mid- to late twentieth century – but observed that volunteering, which grew more prevalent during this period, may be the only prominent exception to this rule. Robust government data collected since that time reveals that national volunteer rates have declined dramatically since the early 2000s, especially in recent years. In the first part of our paper, we find America's decline in volunteering was particularly prevalent in: (1) states with the highest historical reserves of social capital; (2) rural and suburban areas (more so than in urban areas); and (3) metropolitan areas with higher levels of socioeconomic distress and a less well-developed nonprofit sector.

In the second half of our paper, we explore how demographic and societal changes in the United States could be leading less Americans to engage in volunteering and giving. As part of that analysis, we introduce new measures of what we call volunteer and donor retention and acquisition rates using two-year panel data. We find (1) the decline of religious participation among Americans appears to be an important trend given the rather unique position religious organizations play in engaging, retaining, and acquiring volunteers and donors; (2) delays and declines in what some characterize as the traditional markers of adulthood are discouraging charitable behaviors; and (3) the growth of Baby Boomer retirements is leading more older adults to – at least temporarily – drop out of community engagement. Building on our earlier metropolitan area analysis, we underscore one of the traditional functions of nonprofits by finding that communities with lower levels of small and large nonprofits are generally experiencing lower giving and volunteering rates.

Ultimately, we find that America is changing in profound ways and those transformations tend to make an individual less anchored to their community and less likely to participate in charitable behaviors such as giving and volunteering. To turn the tide, we will need to develop new and innovative policies and approaches that incorporate the new reality of 21st-century America.

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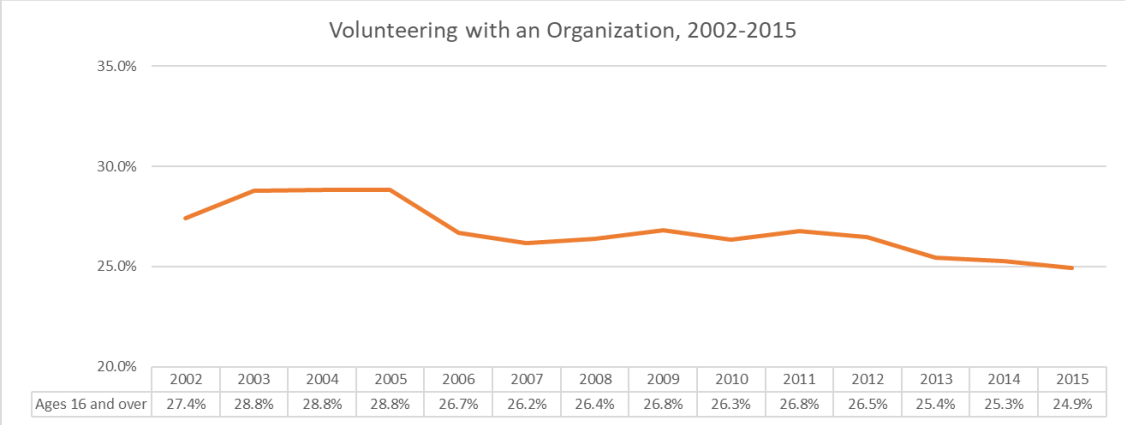
[3] Portes, Alejandro. "Social capital: Its origins and applications in modern sociology." *Annual Review of Sociology* 24, no. 1 (1998): 1-24.

[4] Social capital even promotes positive outcomes at the national level: more than two decades' worth of research on international economic performance has shown that nations where social capital is plentiful tend to have more prosperous communities, economies, and even healthier residents. See Knack, Stephen, and Philip Keefer, "Does social capital have an economic payoff? A cross-country investigation." *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 112, no. 4 (1997): 1251-1288; and Alesina, Alberto, and Paola Giuliano, "Culture and institutions." *Journal of Economic Literature* 53, no. 4 (2015): 898-944.

Annual Volunteer Hours and Charitable Donations to Nonprofits Hit Historical Highs While Fewer Americans Actually Volunteer and Give

We recently published research with worrisome implications for American civil society.[5] The research outlined a significant gap between young adults' historically high interest in helping others and actual volunteering among young adults as well as a very significant decline in volunteering among adults age 25 and over.[6] As Figure 1 illustrates, the national volunteer rate for all American adults ages 16 and over[7] has also declined much more often than it has increased in the last fifteen years. Shortly after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the volunteer rate reached its historical peak (28.8 percent) for three straight years. The national volunteer rate suffered its first large and statistically significant decline in 2006 (falling to 26.7 percent). The volunteer rate never rose above 27 percent or below 26 percent between 2006 and 2012 – including in the years during the Great Recession – but then the volunteer rate declined, bottoming out at a fifteen-year low of 24.9 percent (2015). This decline has had a substantial impact on the size of the volunteer workforce: if the volunteer rate had not declined at all between 2004 and 2015, over 9.8 million more Americans would have volunteered in 2015.

Figure 1: National Adult Volunteer Rate (Ages 16 and Over), 2002-2015



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Ages 16 and over	27.4%	28.8%	28.8%	28.8%	26.7%	26.2%	26.4%	26.8%	26.3%	26.8%	26.5%	25.4%	25.3%	24.9%

Surprisingly, despite the drop in participation, the total amount of hours contributed by volunteers (ages 16 and over) to community organizations has not declined. Instead, total volunteer hours given to community organizations recently hit an all-time high. Figure 2 shows the total amount of hours contributed by volunteers to all the organizations where they serve. This national total remained remarkably consistent between 2006 and 2010, fluctuating between 8.0 and 8.1 billion hours, before reaching a peak of 8.7 billion hours in 2014.[8]

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[5] Grimm, Robert T., Jr., and Nathan Dietz. 2018. "Good Intentions, Gap in Action: The Challenge of Translating Youth's High Interest in Doing Good into Civic Engagement." Research Brief: Do Good Institute, University of Maryland. Available at http://ter.ps/gapinaction.

[6] It is important to note that the volunteer rate for youth and young adults under age 25 has not changed much in the same period.

[7] We report statistics for the 16-and-over population, even though the CPS collects data from respondents who are 15 years old, to follow the convention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). In the annual brief series, *Volunteering in the United States*, BLS defines adult volunteers as people ages sixteen or older who did work through an organization in the previous twelve months for which they were not paid. BLS imposes a minimum age of 16 because, in most states, residents must be 16 to work for pay without their parents' permission.

[8] In the CPS Volunteer Supplement, volunteers are asked to report the hours that they spent volunteering during the previous year in up to seven organizations. The annual total for each organization was based on the respondent's

Figure 2: Total Hours Volunteered, 2002-2015

Trends for charitable giving show a similar paradox: the total amount of money contributed by individuals has increased in recent years, even though the percentage of individuals who annually make charitable donations has declined. According to the most recent *Giving USA* report, total charitable donations from all sources rose in 2017 to an all-time high of $410.02 billion.[9] As seen in Figure 3, Indiana University's Lilly Family School of Philanthropy[10] recently reported the share of people giving to charity has declined from 66.8 percent in 2000 to 55.5 percent in 2014 (the most recent year for which data are available).

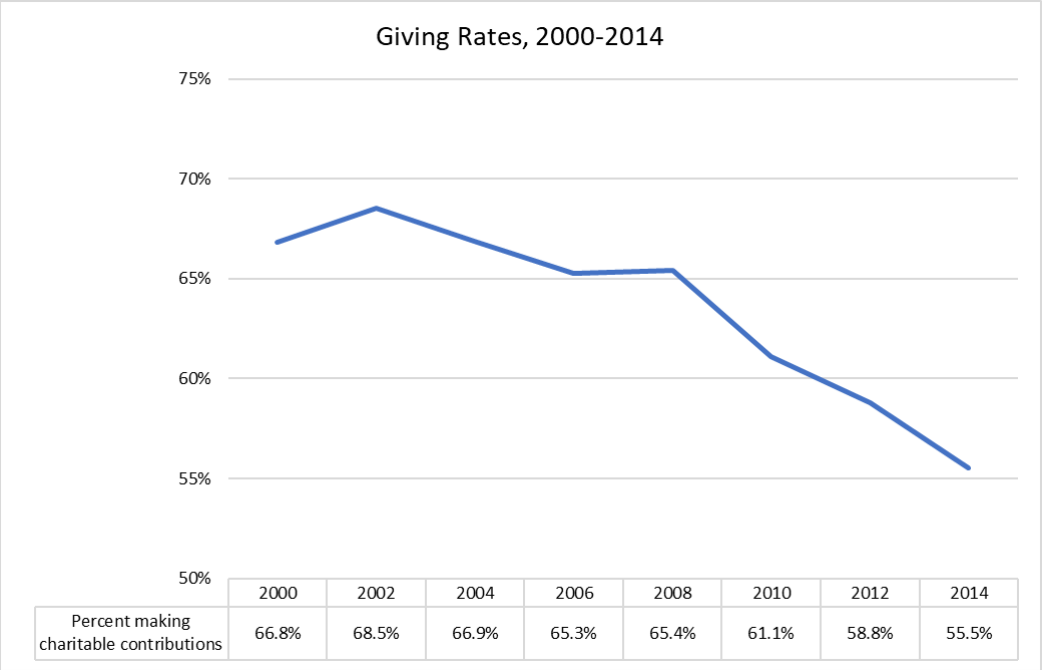
In the meantime, as seen in Figure 4, the average amount given by families who donated to charity increased (in real dollars) from $2,041 in 2000 to $2,514 in 2014. If more recent data exhibits a continuation of this trend from 2014 to the present, it will further explain how the total amount contributed to charitable organizations could reach a new record high every year from 2014 to 2017 while the percentage of Americans donating remains low.

Figure 3: Percentage of Americans Making Charitable Contributions

answer to the number of weeks they volunteered at the organization, the average number of hours they served during the weeks in which they volunteered, and the total number of hours (which was usually estimated by the product of the reported week-per-year and hours-per-week quantities). In 2011, to preserve respondent privacy, the U.S. Census Bureau began to "topcode," or censor, very large values of the hours-per-week and hours-per-year variables. The totals in Table 2 use average values for the topcoded observations, which were provided by the Census Bureau, to correct the censored values in the public-use dataset. Details about this procedure, and the average values provided by the Census Bureau, are available from the authors upon request.

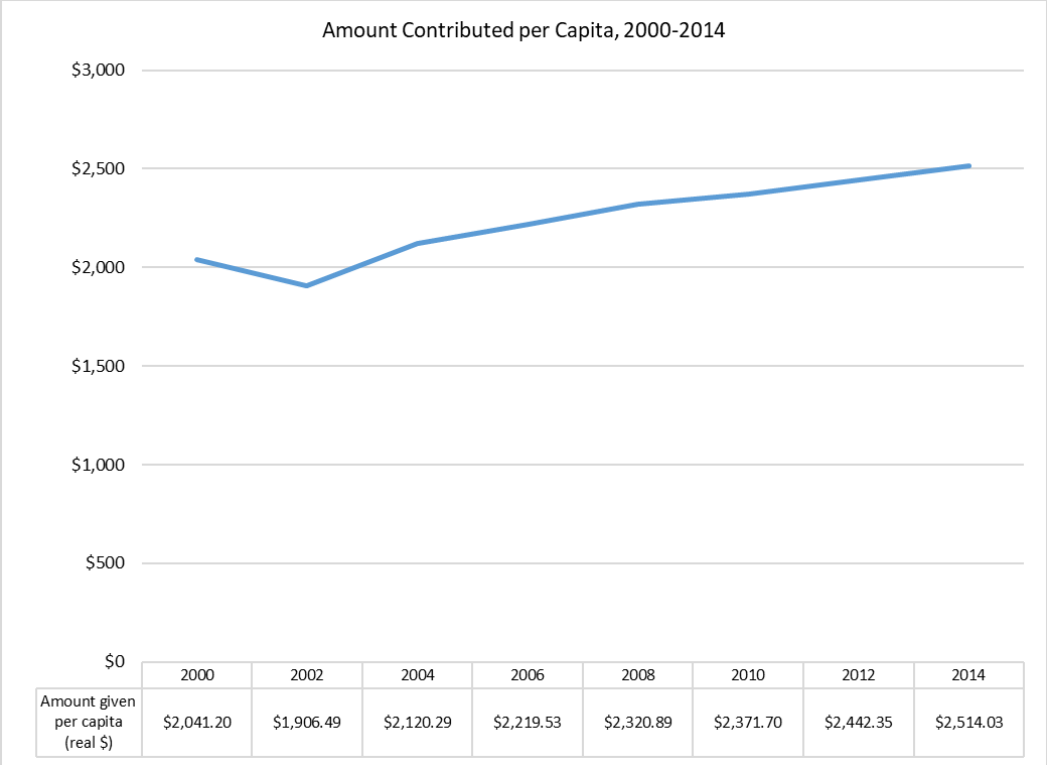
[9] See the infographic at https://givingusa.org/tag/giving-usa-2018/ for more topline results from *Giving USA 2018: The Annual Report on Philanthropy for the Year 2017*. *Giving USA 2018*, which is published by the Giving USA Foundation, and researched and written by the Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy, is available online at www.givingusa.org.

[10] Osili, Una, and Sasha Zarins (2018). "Fewer Americans are giving money to charity but total donations are at record levels anyway." *The Conversation*, July 3. Available at https://theconversation.com/fewer-americans-are-giving-money-to-charity-but-total-donations-are-at-record-levels-anyway-98291.



	2000	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012	2014
Percent making charitable contributions	66.8%	68.5%	66.9%	65.3%	65.4%	61.1%	58.8%	55.5%

Figure 4: Amount Contributed per Donor Family, 2000-2014



	2000	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012	2014
Amount given per capita (real $)	$2,041.20	$1,906.49	$2,120.29	$2,219.53	$2,320.89	$2,371.70	$2,442.35	$2,514.03

Even though these two "bottom line" measures of volunteering and giving – total dollars and volunteer hours contributed – have increased slightly in recent years, fewer Americans are participating in their communities by giving and volunteering. This decline has persisted since Robert Putnam first chronicled the decline in civic participation in *Bowling Alone*, and is consistent with the claim that social capital has continued to diminish in recent years. Many hoped that the events around 9/11 would spark a long-term civic renewal in the United States; however, our research suggests that did not come to pass.

The analysis in *Bowling Alone* also suggested that volunteering was an exception to the general rule of declining participation. However, follow-up research[11] attributed these results to the extraordinarily high participation rates of older adults. Many of these older adults were members of the cohort labeled the "Long Civic Generation" – and others have called the "Greatest Generation" – that has made lasting positive contributions to American society throughout their long lives.

Without discounting the "Long Civic Generation's" positive influence on civil society, the recent declines in civic participation are certainly due to other factors besides generational replacement. These changes have been relatively slow to emerge, but what we observe at the national level only hints at what might be happening within communities across the country. We take a closer look at possible explanations for the decline in the national adult volunteer rate by examining changes over time across states and metropolitan statistical areas (metro areas or MSAs), and at changes in population subgroups defined by socioeconomic and demographic characteristics.

Our primary data source for volunteer statistics is the Current Population Survey (CPS) Volunteer Supplement, which was conducted every September by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U.S. Census Bureau between 2002 and 2015. Among the many strengths of the CPS is its broad geographic coverage: the 55,000 households surveyed each year include representative samples of all 50 states plus the District of Columbia, and significant representation in most of the nation's metropolitan areas. We use CPS data pooled over four intervals – 2004-2006, 2007-2009, 2010-2012 and 2013-2015 – to calculate volunteer rates for all 50 states (plus the District of Columbia) and 215 metropolitan statistical areas (MSAs).

Historical Trends in State Volunteering, 2004 to 2015

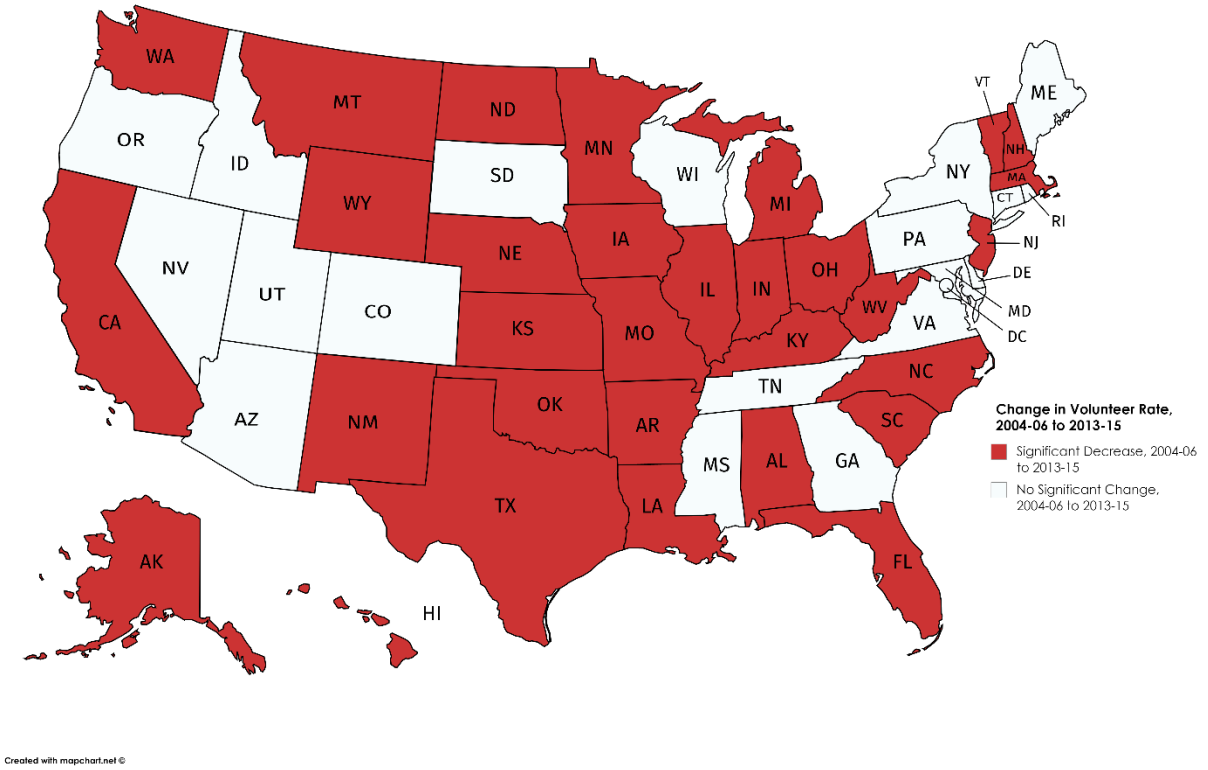
The state results contain part of the explanation for the changes we see in the national volunteer rates. These volunteer rates, along with notes indicating whether the observed changes are statistically significant, can be found at an online appendix.[12] As seen in Figure 5, the volunteer

[11]Goss, Kristin A. "Volunteering and the long civic generation." *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 28, no. 4 (1999): 378-415.

[12] See the referenced appendix at this address:
https://www.publicpolicy.umd.edu/sites/default/files/UMD_Do%20Good_Americas%20Volunteers_Appendix%20of%20Tables%26Charts.pdf
Between 2004-2006 and 2007-2009, for example, the period where the national volunteer rate fell off its historic peak levels, the volunteer rate declined in 15 states by a statistically significant amount, and only increased significantly in Nevada. Meanwhile, between 2010-2012 and 2013-2015, the period that ended with the national rate at its lowest point, the volunteer rate declined significantly in 11 states without increasing significantly anywhere. The Appendix to *Where Are America's Volunteers?* also contains details about the CPS sample design, the measurement of volunteering, and the significance tests used to determine whether an observed increase or decrease in volunteering was statistically significant.

rate declined significantly in 31 states between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, without increasing by a statistically significant amount in even one state.

Figure 5: State Changes in Volunteer Rates, 2004-2006 to 2013-2015



Although the national trend line would certainly predict declines in the volunteer rate, why has the volunteer rate decreased significantly in some states and not in others? Our search for explanations included looking at the relationship between volunteering and overall social capital as determined by a state's value on the Comprehensive Social Capital Index (based on 14 indicators of civic and associational activities).[13] The Index was originally developed by Putnam, but is still considered highly reliable compared to alternative state-level measures.[14]

Figure 6 is a scatter-plot, a special graph that illustrates the relationship between two variables – in this case, volunteering and social capital. Scatter-plot graphs provide a visual sense of how state volunteer rates (as measured with pooled CPS data from 2004 through 2006) are related to the presence of a characteristic (in this case, social capital) within each state. The graph in Figure 6 has a solid line that represents the general relationship between state volunteer rates and state values on the Comprehensive Social Capital Index. Scatter-plots also contain dots that show how accurately this general trend describes the data for each of the 50 states plus D.C.; the stronger the relationship, the closer the dots are to the trend line. Figure 6 shows that the

[13] The Index is available for download on the Research page of the *Bowling Alone* website: http://bowlingalone.com/?page_id=7.
[14] Social Capital Project (2018), "The Geography of Social Capital in America," SCP Report No. 1-18 (April). Prepared by the Vice Chairman's Staff of the Joint Economic Committee at the request of Senator Mike Lee. Available at https://www.lee.senate.gov/public/index.cfm/tagged?id=B109CC4F-BA12-43C2-BB70-356F0D1B3A2E.

comprehensive social capital index is highly correlated with the 2004-2006 volunteer rate at the state level,[15] even though states like Utah have a higher volunteer rate than their index score might suggest, and states like North Dakota, Nevada, and New York have lower volunteer rates than their index scores would predict.

Figure 6: Relationship Between Social Capital Index (from Bowling Alone) and State Volunteer Rate, 2004-2006

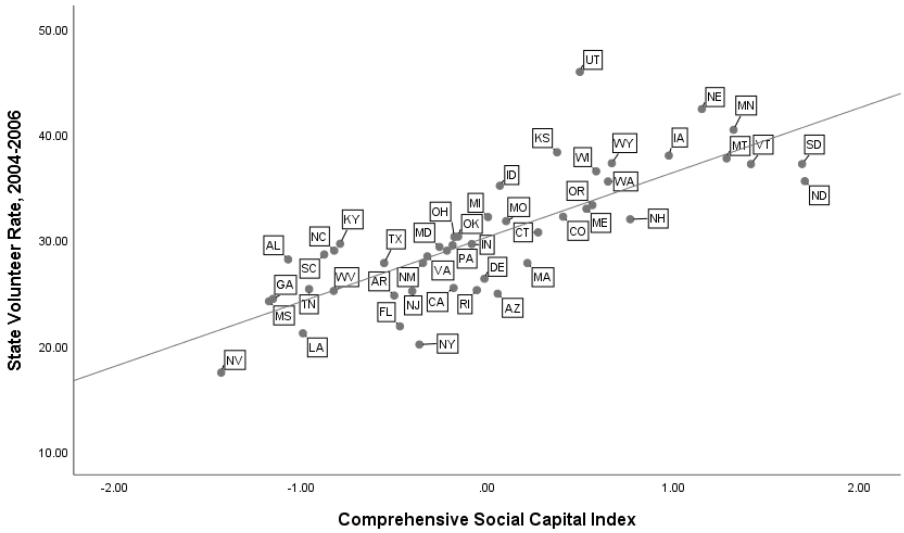
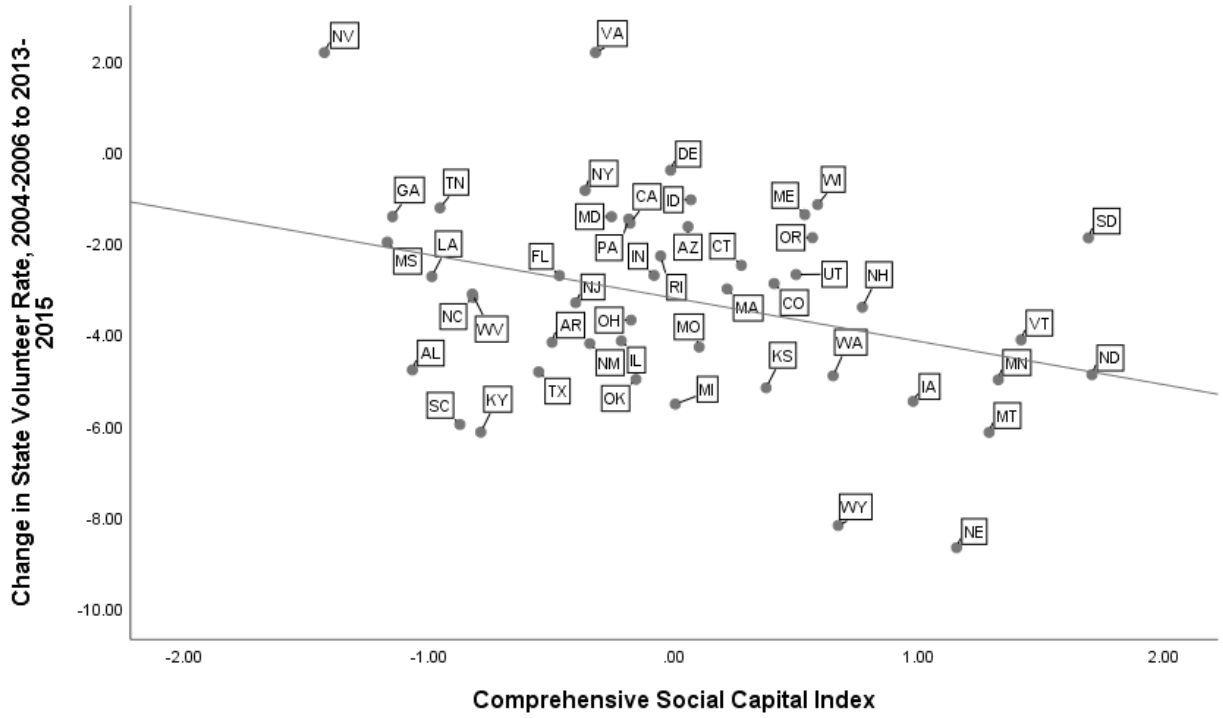


Figure 7 shows that social capital is also related to the *change* in volunteer rates between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015. The changes in volunteer rates are negatively associated with the social capital index values. In other words, the higher the level of social capital in a state, the greater the decline in its volunteer rate. The correlation portrayed in Figure 7 is not, however, as strong as the one in Figure 6. The volunteer rate in North Dakota, Massachusetts, Florida, and Mississippi declined about as much as the national trend would have predicted, but there are many exceptions to the general trend. In high social capital states, including Wyoming and Nebraska, the volunteer rate dropped even more than the national trend would have predicted. Meanwhile, Virginia, and Nevada, which have below-average values on the social capital index, were the only states where the volunteer rate appeared to increase[16] – which would not have been predicted by the relationship in Figure 7.

[15] By comparison, the correlation between the index scores and the 2013-2015 volunteer rate is only slightly lower than the correlation with the 2004-2006 volunteer rate, which demonstrates the continued relevance of the index.
[16] For both states, the observed increases were not statistically significant.

Figure 7: Relationship Between Social Capital Index and Change in Volunteer Rate, 2004-2006 to 2013-2015

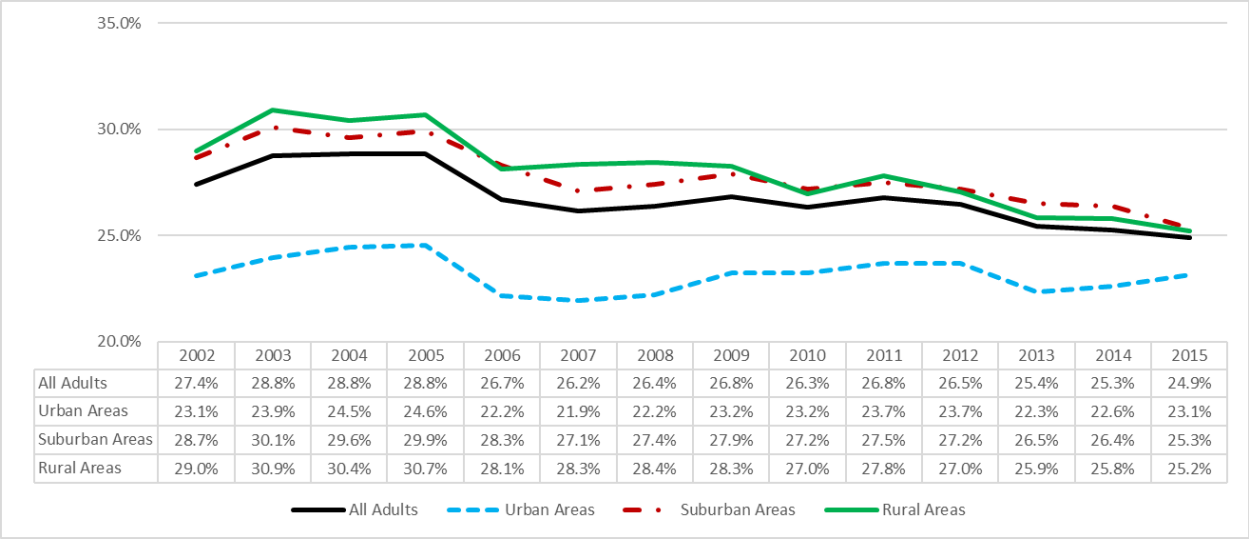


Figures 6 and 7 suggest that differences in social capital are part of the story behind why some states experienced significant declines in their volunteer rates between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, while other state volunteer rates did not change significantly. Notably, Figure 7 shows that the decreases in volunteering tended to be larger in states with a higher stock of social capital. This result is surprising since we might predict that areas with more social capital would be more likely to weather a national decline in community engagement. This result is typified by high social capital states that experienced substantial and significant declines in their volunteer rates between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, such as Wyoming (where the volunteer rate dropped from 37.3 percent to 29.1 percent), Montana (where the rate dropped from 37.7 percent to 31.6 percent), and North Dakota (35.6 percent to 30.7 percent).

These three states also have another common feature: large numbers of their residents live in rural areas (as opposed to suburbs or major cities). In fact, across all states, three variables are closely related: (1) declines in the volunteer rate are significantly associated with (2) the size of the rural population and with (3) the social capital index scores. All three relationships are statistically significant: states with larger rural populations tend to have higher scores on the social capital index (r= 0.395); states with higher social capital tend to experience larger declines (or smaller increases) in their volunteer rate (r = -0.338); and states with larger rural populations also tend to have larger declines in their volunteer rates (r = -0.478). Together, these results provide part of the explanation for the decline in the annual American volunteer rate: the parts of the country with the largest rural populations and the most social capital were likely to experience the steepest declines in the adult volunteer rate.

The trend lines in Figure 8 illustrate the connection between the rural and national volunteer rates. In recent years, the volunteer rate among residents of rural areas has declined even more than the volunteer rate for all adults. In the mid-2000s, rural residents volunteered at slightly higher rates than suburban residents, and the volunteer rate for both populations was much higher than the volunteer rate for residents of urban areas.[17] By 2015, the gap between the suburban and rural volunteer rates had disappeared. Even more strikingly, the gap between the urban volunteer rate and the rural/suburban rates had begun to close quickly.

Figure 8: Volunteering with an Organization, 2002-2015: Urban-Suburban-Rural Breakdowns



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
All Adults	27.4%	28.8%	28.8%	28.8%	26.7%	26.2%	26.4%	26.8%	26.3%	26.8%	26.5%	25.4%	25.3%	24.9%
Urban Areas	23.1%	23.9%	24.5%	24.6%	22.2%	21.9%	22.2%	23.2%	23.2%	23.7%	23.7%	22.3%	22.6%	23.1%
Suburban Areas	28.7%	30.1%	29.6%	29.9%	28.3%	27.1%	27.4%	27.9%	27.2%	27.5%	27.2%	26.5%	26.4%	25.3%
Rural Areas	29.0%	30.9%	30.4%	30.7%	28.1%	28.3%	28.4%	28.3%	27.0%	27.8%	27.0%	25.9%	25.8%	25.2%

Historical Changes in Volunteering Among Metropolitan Areas, 2004-2006 vs. 2013-2015

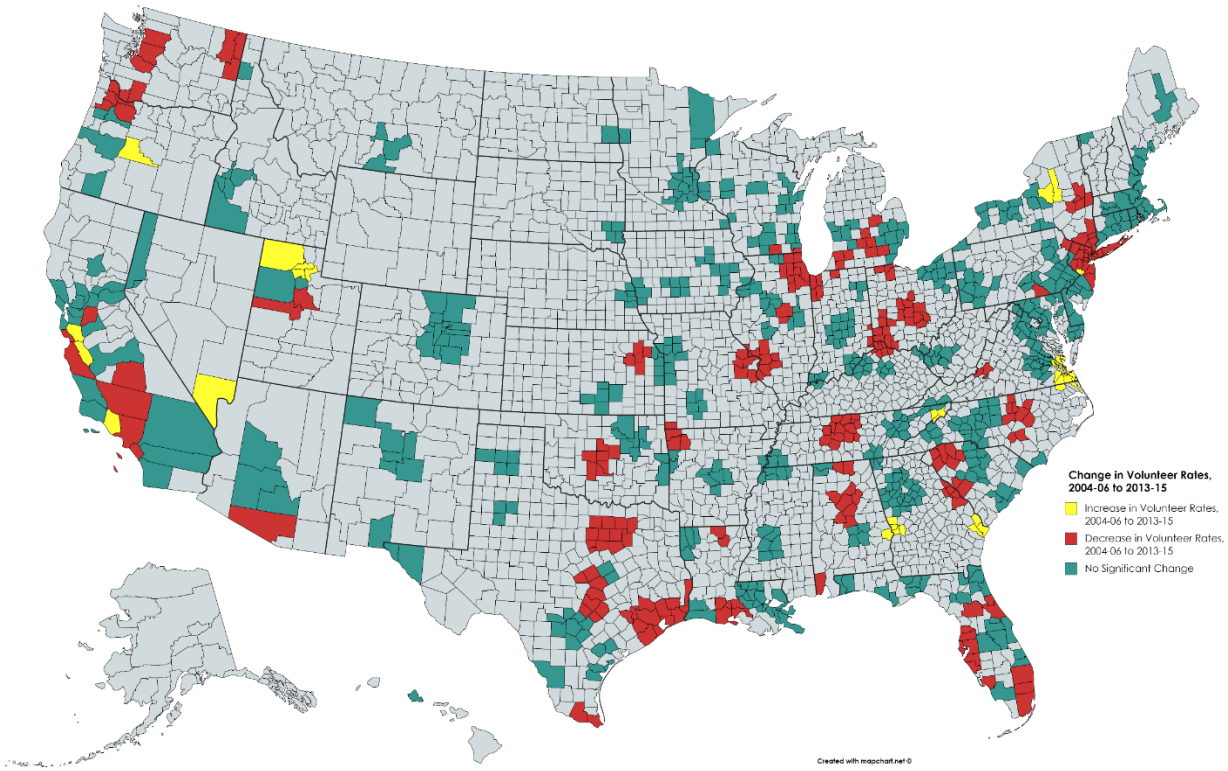
Although the rural volunteer rate has declined significantly in recent years, it can only serve as a partial explanation for the national decline given the size of rural America (only about 13 percent of American adults lived in rural areas in 2015). Most of the adult population is located in metropolitan areas, with the majority of metro-area residents living in suburban areas. Between 2004 and 2015, the suburbs also experienced a large drop in volunteering: the 2015 rate (25.3 percent) was almost five percentage points less than the 2003 peak of 30.1 percent.

We exploit the size and diversity of the CPS sample to further understand the decline in volunteering. Each year, the CPS collects household data from more than 250 of the nation's metropolitan statistical areas (MSAs), the population centers where the nation's largest cities and their suburban surroundings are located. For 215 MSAs, the CPS sample includes 100 or more respondents for both 2004-2006 and 2013-2015.

[17] In the public-use version of the CPS dataset, the exact location of the household is suppressed to protect the privacy of the residents. Most households, however, can be classified as being located in the "principal city" of a designated metropolitan area, in the "balance" of the metropolitan area (i.e., not in a principal city), or in a nonmetropolitan part of the state. We label households in principal cities as "urban," households in the balance of the metropolitan area as "suburban," and households in nonmetropolitan areas as "rural." About 15 percent of CPS residents live in households that cannot be classified as urban, suburban, or rural with the public-use datasets. Please see the Appendix for details about the boundaries of the metropolitan areas used in this analysis.

Between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, the volunteer rate declined by a statistically significant amount in 57 of the 215 metropolitan areas (see Figure 9) while increasing significantly in just 11 metro areas – including Las Vegas, San Jose and Virginia Beach, which are all among the 40 largest metropolitan areas in the country. Meanwhile, the volunteering rate did not change by a significant amount in the remaining 147 metro areas. The patterns of change among MSAs mirrored the results we saw at the state level.[18]

Figure 9: Changes in Volunteer Rates, 2004-2006 vs. 2013-2015, 215 Selected Metropolitan Areas



Significant change is certainly less prevalent among the nation's major metropolitan areas. While 60 percent of states (31 of 51) experienced significant declines between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, nearly 70 percent (147 of 215) of the MSAs experienced no significant change.

To further develop an explanation of why the volunteer rate decreased in some metro area but not others, we borrow a methodology used in a previously published Corporation for National

[18] Between 2004-2006 and 2007-2009, the volunteer rate increased by a statistically significant amount in only three MSAs, while declining significantly in 38 MSAs. Between 2007-2009 and 2010-2012, significant declines and significant increases were about equally common in MSAs (16 increases, 19 declines) – but between 2010-2012 and 2013-2015, significant declines were again much more common than significant increases (30 declines, 5 increases).

and Community Service (CNCS) report[19] that examined the correlation between volunteer rates and four categories of demographic and socioeconomic factors:

> (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

Table 1 contains the complete list of variables used in this analysis, and the expected correlation (based on previous research) between each variable and the likelihood of a decrease in volunteering. These variables have been used to describe or explain the level of social capital within a community. For instance, in communities 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 the frequency, quality, and positive impacts of interactions among neighbors. In contrast, areas with a high rate of multi-unit housing and greater population density may indicate that individuals are less connected to their community. 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.[20] By exploring the relationship between these variables and changes in volunteering, we can learn more about whether, and under what circumstances, changes in volunteering can be associated with community characteristics.

[19] Corporation for National and Community Service, Office of Research and Policy Development. *Volunteering in America: 2007 City Trends and Rankings*, Washington, DC 20525. Available at https://www.nationalservice.gov/pdf/VIA_CITIES/VIA_cities_fullreport.pdf.
[20] Sampson, Robert J., Jeffrey D. Morenoff, and Felton Earls (1999), "Building Social Capital: Spatial Dynamics of Collective Efficacy for Children," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 64, No. 5.

Table 1: Metro Area-Level Socioeconomic and Demographic Factors Used to Predict Change in Volunteer Rate

Variable	Description	Declines in Volunteer Rates Are Associated with:
Homeownership	Percent of housing units that are inhabited by the homeowner	Lower homeownership rates
Multi-Unit Housing	Percent of housing structures that contain more than one housing unit	Higher 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	Higher average commuting times
Percent with HS Education	Percent of adults aged 25 and over who have a high school diploma or the equivalent	Lower 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)	Lower percentages of residents with college degrees
Unemployment Rate	Based on annual average of seasonally adjusted monthly county-level unemployment rates	Higher unemployment rates
Poverty Rate	Percent of MSA residents with annual income at or below the poverty level	Higher poverty rates
Population Density	Estimated MSA population divided by estimated size of MSA land mass	More 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 MSA population and multiplied by 1000	Fewer 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 MSA population and multiplied by 1000	Fewer small nonprofits per 1000 residents
Median Income	Median household income (adjusted for inflation)	Lower median income

Since we are interested in the effects of these variables on the change in volunteer rates, we use data collected in the middle year (2005) of the 2004-2006 interval. We expect these variables to have the same impact on changes in the volunteer rate as they have on the current volunteer rate: when a variable is expected to be positively associated with higher volunteer rates, it should be negatively associated with significant declines in the volunteer rate. In other words, we would expect areas with higher homeownership rates to be less likely to experience declines in volunteer rates.

Because the volunteer rate increased by a significant amount in only 11 of the 215 metropolitan areas, the variables in Table 1 do not add much to our understanding of why volunteering rates increased between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015.[21] We did discover important differences between the metropolitan areas that experienced significant declines in the volunteer rate between 2004-2006 and 2013-2015, and those areas that did not. Large MSAs – in particular, MSAs with high population density – were more likely to have declines in volunteering. Declines in volunteering were also more likely to occur in metro areas with high poverty and unemployment rates, and less likely to occur in areas where large and small nonprofit organizations were more prevalent. In sum, declines were more likely to occur in metropolitan areas with high population density, in areas with higher levels of socioeconomic distress, and in areas where the nonprofit sector is less well-developed.

[21] These 11 MSAs do well in several measures of civic capacity: seven have above-average proportions of residents with college degrees, and six have above-average median incomes (with San Jose #2), both of which are positively associated with higher volunteer rates. However, six of these MSAs have above-average values for average commuting time to work, and higher commuting times tend to be negatively associated with volunteer rates.

These results support the conclusions from previous research about why volunteer rates are higher in some metro areas than in others.[22] The MSA analysis adds to our understanding of the national decline in the volunteer rate, since it helps explain why volunteering became less popular in (at least some of) the nation's population centers. Although additional research is needed to further strengthen our understanding, the conclusions of the MSA analysis make intuitive sense: in the recent past, volunteer rates tended to decline in MSAs with fewer small and large nonprofit organization, in places where people may be less likely to know their neighbors due to the dense population, and neighborhoods where unemployment and poverty rates are relatively high.

Demographic Explanations for the Overall Decline in Volunteering and Giving

So far, we have uncovered a number of possible reasons for why the national volunteer rate has declined from its highest observed value (28.8 percent in 2003-2005) to the lowest observed value (24.9 percent in 2015). While we find that declines in states and metropolitan areas are associated with particular socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, other changes in the nation's population may also be partially responsible for declines in volunteering. Few observers have speculated about the causes of declines in the giving rate (the percentage of people who give to charitable causes), but the CPS Volunteer Supplement data can be used to study over-time changes in the giving rate as well as the volunteer rate. In 2008, a question was added to the Volunteer Supplement that matches the first prompt used to measure giving in the Philanthropic Panel Study, the module of questions on the Panel Study of Income Dynamics that is the data source for the trends depicted in Figures 3 and 4.

To build on our understanding, we consider four factors that we hypothesize might be related to the recent declines in volunteering and giving:

1) an overall decline in religiosity;
2) delays in the transition to adulthood among individuals age 20 to 40;
3) increased retirements by the Baby Boom generation; and
4) a lack of nonprofit organizations that can host volunteers and solicit donations.

In the statistics we present, we consider changes in the size of various subgroups over time, as well as changes in the volunteer rates and/or giving rates for each subgroup.

We also present statistics on *retention* and *acquisition* for volunteering and giving. Both measures exploit the design of the CPS Volunteer Supplement: because half the households in a given year's sample have taken the same survey the previous year (the other half will take it the following year), we have two years' worth of data for all the individuals who respond to the survey in both years. We define "retention" as volunteering or giving in year 2 by those who have volunteered or donated in year 1; we define "acquisition" as volunteering or giving in year 2 by those who have <u>not</u> volunteered or donated in year 1.[23]

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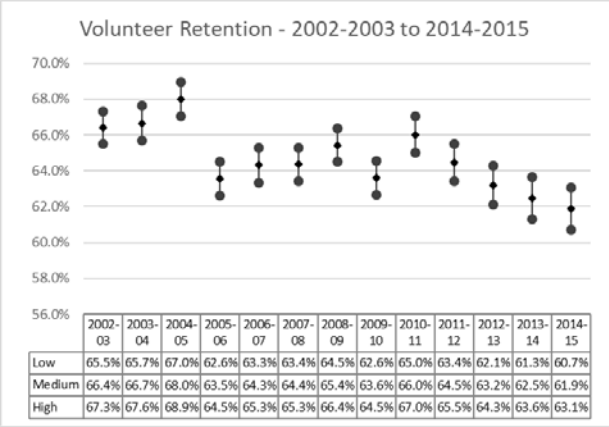
[22] Corporation for National and Community Service, Office of Research and Policy Development. *Volunteering in America: 2007 City Trends and Rankings*, op. cit.

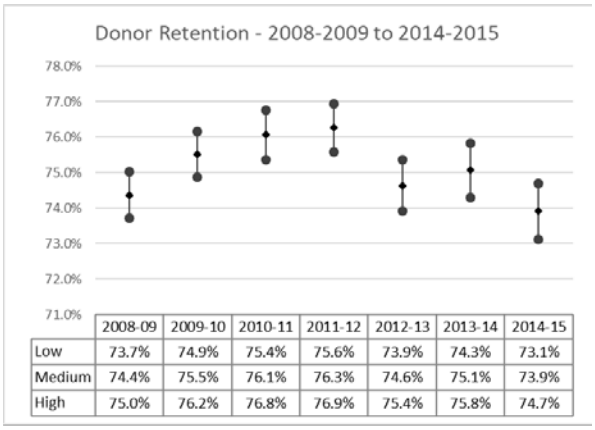
[23] Although retention is used by charities that employ volunteers or collect funds from donors, the term "acquisition" is often used to indicate the "pickup" of a completely new donor or volunteer. Since the CPS does not allow us to measure the complete volunteering or donor history of any respondent, we use the term "acquisition" to refer to the "pickup" of someone who did not volunteer or donate in the previous year – even though the person may have volunteered or donated before then.

The charts in Figure 10 are based on adults who responded to the survey questions about volunteering or giving in both Year 1 and Year 2. The bars around each of the points represent the 95% confidence interval around each retention and acquisition rate; the endpoints of the confidence interval are shown in the data tables for each chart. The charts show that both volunteer retention and volunteer acquisition declined significantly, along with the national volunteer rate, between 2005 and 2006, and that both rates entered a sustained period of annual declines beginning in 2010-2011. By contrast, donor retention (the percentage of Year-1 donors who gave to any charitable cause or organization in Year 2) declined significantly in 2012-2013, and the donor acquisition rate declined significantly for the first time in 2014-2015.

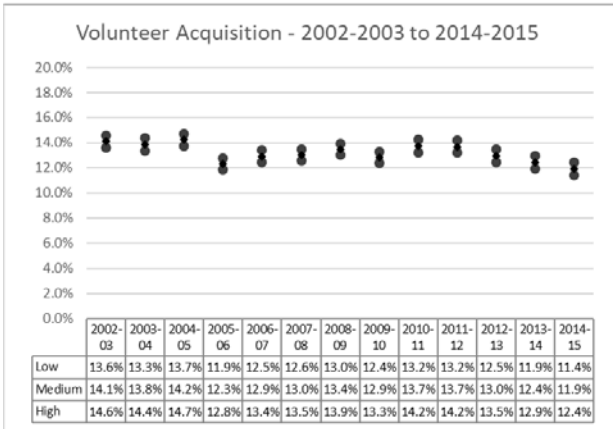
Figure 10: Volunteer Retention and Acquisition, 2002-03 through 2014-15, and Giving Retention and Acquisition, 2008-09 through 2014-15



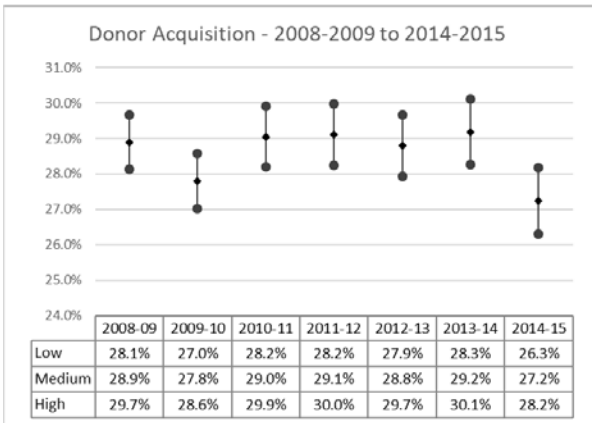
	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15
Low	65.5%	65.7%	67.0%	62.6%	63.3%	63.4%	64.5%	62.6%	65.0%	63.4%	62.1%	61.3%	60.7%
Medium	66.4%	66.7%	68.0%	63.5%	64.3%	64.4%	65.4%	63.6%	66.0%	64.5%	63.2%	62.5%	61.9%
High	67.3%	67.6%	68.9%	64.5%	65.3%	65.3%	66.4%	64.5%	67.0%	65.5%	64.3%	63.6%	63.1%



	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15
Low	73.7%	74.9%	75.4%	75.6%	73.9%	74.3%	73.1%
Medium	74.4%	75.5%	76.1%	76.3%	74.6%	75.1%	73.9%
High	75.0%	76.2%	76.8%	76.9%	75.4%	75.8%	74.7%



	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15
Low	13.6%	13.3%	13.7%	11.9%	12.5%	12.6%	13.0%	12.4%	13.2%	13.2%	12.5%	11.9%	11.4%
Medium	14.1%	13.8%	14.2%	12.3%	12.9%	13.0%	13.4%	12.9%	13.7%	13.7%	13.0%	12.4%	11.9%
High	14.6%	14.4%	14.7%	12.8%	13.4%	13.5%	13.9%	13.3%	14.2%	14.2%	13.5%	12.9%	12.4%



	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15
Low	28.1%	27.0%	28.2%	28.2%	27.9%	28.3%	26.3%
Medium	28.9%	27.8%	29.0%	29.1%	28.8%	29.2%	27.2%
High	29.7%	28.6%	29.9%	30.0%	29.7%	30.1%	28.2%

Declining Religious Participation:

Our analysis of demographic changes that might be responsible for declines in the volunteer rate begins with changes in religious participation. Several recent studies have documented the decline of religiosity and religious participation in the United States. According to the General Social Survey, the percentage of American adults who "never" attend religious services has increased from 16.1 percent to 26.2 percent between the mid-1990s and mid-2010s.[24] We can

[24] http://www.thearda.com/quickstats/qs_105_t.asp

use the CPS Volunteer Supplement data to see whether declines in religious beliefs and participation are matched by a decline in the prevalence of volunteering with religious organizations.

In 2015, 33.1 percent of volunteers served primarily with religious organizations (including, but not limited to, congregations).[25] However, since about 28 percent of volunteers in 2015 served with more than one organization,[26] this percentage actually understates the importance of religious organizations to the volunteer workforce. In fact, almost 39 percent of volunteers in 2015 served with one or more religious organizations – possibly among others – more by far than in any other type of organization.

Table 2 shows that three organization types – religious organizations; children's educational, sports, or recreational groups; and social and community service groups – tend annually to be the three types of organizations that host the most volunteers. Among these three types of organizations, religious organizations constitute by far the largest share of the volunteer workforce. The statistics presented in Table 2 are based on pooled data from 2006, the first year for which the complete set of organizational type categories was included in the survey, through 2015, the last year in which the CPS Volunteer Supplement was fielded.

Table 2 also contains information about the observed change, from 2009 to 2015, in the percent of volunteers who served with each type of organization. While the complete set of tables showing year-to-year changes in these rates is available from the authors on request, the measurement of changes from 2009 to 2015 generally capture any sustained declines in the volunteer rate during the 2006-2015 period. If the observed change was statistically significant, we describe it as statistically significant and positive ("+") or significant and negative ("-"). If not, we use "NS" to denote that the change was not statistically significant.

Table 2: Volunteer Rates by Organization Type

Type of Organization	Percent of Volunteers Serving with Org Type, 2006-2015	Change, 2009-2015: Vol Rate
Religious org.	40.0%	-
Children's educational, sports, or recreational group	24.1%	-
Other educational group	6.2%	NS
Social and community service group	19.9%	NS
Civic org.	5.2%	NS
Cultural or arts org.	2.9%	NS
Environmental or animal care org.	3.4%	+
Health research or health education org.	6.3%	-
Hospital, clinic, or healthcare org.	5.2%	NS

[25] BLS brief, *Volunteering in the United States, 2015*, Table 4. Available at https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/volun.pdf.
[26] BLS brief, *Volunteering in the United States, 2015*, Table 3. Available at https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/volun.pdf.

Immigrant/refugee assistance	0.2%	NS
International org.	0.7%	NS
Labor union, business, or professional org.	1.1%	NS
Political party or advocacy group	1.3%	-
Public safety org.	1.5%	NS
Sports or hobby group	2.3%	NS
Youth services group	3.2%	NS
Some other type of org.	5.1%	+

Table 2 shows that the percent of volunteers who served with religious organizations has declined significantly between 2009 and 2015. Declines were also observed among children's educational groups (the second-largest category of volunteer organizations), health research and education organizations, and political parties and advocacy groups. Environmental/animal care organizations and organizations that were not otherwise classified ("some other type of org.") saw increases over the same time period. In many of these cases, the year-to-year changes were insignificant, for the most part, but statistically significant changes emerged over time as the percentage slipped slightly each year.

Could the decline in religious volunteering also be partially responsible for the nationwide decline in giving rates? As Table 3 shows, volunteers with religious organizations are more likely to make charitable contributions than volunteers who serve with most other types of organizations. In general, across all types of organizations, giving rates for volunteers have remained stable over the years (2008, when the giving question was first added to the CPS Volunteer Supplement, through 2015). However, while several types of organizations have seen significant changes in the percentage of volunteers who serve with them, only one – sports and hobby groups – has seen a significant decline in the giving rate among volunteers between 2009 and 2015.

Table 3: Giving rates for volunteers by organization type

Type of Organization	Giving Rate, 2008-2015	Change, 2009-2015: Giving Rate
Religious org.	83.7%	NS
Children's educational, sports, or recreational group	70.5%	NS
Other educational group	75.6%	NS
Social and community service group	77.2%	NS
Civic org.	80.5%	NS
Cultural or arts org.	70.0%	NS
Environmental or animal care org.	74.6%	NS
Health research or health education org.	75.8%	NS
Hospital, clinic, or healthcare org.	75.9%	NS

Immigrant/refugee assistance	85.9%	NS
International org.	68.7%	NS
Labor union, business, or professional org.	80.2%	NS
Political party or advocacy group	77.5%	NS
Public safety org.	61.9%	NS
Sports or hobby group	73.3%	-
Youth services group	73.8%	NS
Some other type of org.	74.4%	NS

In addition to having volunteers with high giving rates, religious organizations also have relatively high retention rates, compared to other types of organizations, and consistently obtain more non-volunteers through "acquisition" than other types of organizations do. Table 4 suggests that over 7 percent of year-1 nonvolunteers – about a third of all new volunteers – serve with religious organizations in year 2.

Table 4: Volunteer Retention and Acquisition by Organization Type

Type of Organization	Volunteer Retention Rate, 2002-03 through 2014-15	Volunteer Acquisition Rate, 2002-03 through 2014-15
Religious org.	69.6%	7.7%
Children's educational, sports, or recreational group	66.9%	4.7%
Other educational group	68.7%	1.2%
Social and community service group	65.7%	4.3%
Civic org.	68.1%	2.0%
Cultural or arts org.	70.7%	0.5%
Environmental or animal care org.	69.7%	0.7%
Health research or health education org.	65.9%	1.1%
Hospital, clinic, or healthcare org.	65.7%	1.3%
Immigrant/refugee assistance	75.2%	0.1%
International org.	81.6%	0.2%
Labor union, business, or professional org.	71.1%	0.1%
Political party or advocacy group	75.0%	0.3%
Public safety org.	71.3%	0.3%
Sports or hobby group	67.9%	0.6%
Youth services group	67.5%	0.7%
Some other type of org.	60.8%	0.9%

These statistics show the importance of religious organizations to the national volunteer workforce, especially in rural and suburban areas, where the recent decline in volunteering (as seen in Figure 8 above) has been most pronounced. The task of strengthening social capital in these communities is likely to involve increasing the number of people who volunteer with religious organizations.

Delays in the transition to adulthood

A recent report published by the U.S. Census examined recent changes in the transition to adulthood. [27] The report details the delays in traditional indicators of adulthood, such as completing education, buying a home, marrying, and having children. The report uses demographic data from the CPS and other sources to track the delays in passing these traditional milestones on the way to adulthood. In this section, we consider whether these changes could be possible contributors to the decline in the national volunteer rate.

1) Educational attainment: Table 5 below shows that young people (ages 20 to 40), as well as adults age 16 and over, have become significantly better educated since the early years of the 21st century. In both age groups (16 and over and 20-40), the percentage of adults with college degrees between 2005 and 2015 has increased significantly, and the percentage of those without high school diplomas has declined significantly. These demographic changes should boost the volunteer rate, given that volunteer rates are generally highly correlated with educational attainment.

However, Table 6 shows that among adult college graduates ages 20-40, the volunteer rate has declined significantly between 2005-2015 (as seen by the "+/-/NS" indicator at the bottom right of each subtable) and the giving rate has declined significantly between 2009 and 2015. We use these time periods to measure change between the mid-2000s and mid-2010s, taking into account that the CPS giving question was not added to the survey until 2008.

Tables 5 and 6 show that the increased prevalence of college graduates could have positively impacted the national volunteer and giving rates, but declines in these rates for college graduates served to offset these positive effects. We leave the calculation of the net effect of these changes on the national volunteer rate and national giving rate to further research.

[27] Vespa, Jonathan (2017). "The Changing Economics and Demographics of Young Adulthood: 1975–2016." U.S. Census Bureau: Current Population Reports P20-579. Available at https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2017/demo/p20-579.pdf. See also https://www.apmresearchlab.org/stories/2018/03/14/delayed-adulthood-the-millennial-falsehood for commentary about these results.

Table 5: Educational attainment, 2002-2015 – all ages and ages 20-40

College Graduates - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	24.0%	23.7%	24.3%	
2003	24.4%	24.1%	24.7%	NS
2004	24.5%	24.2%	24.8%	NS
2005	24.7%	24.4%	24.9%	NS
2006	25.1%	24.8%	25.4%	NS
2007	25.8%	25.5%	26.1%	+
2008	26.2%	25.9%	26.5%	NS
2009	26.4%	26.1%	26.7%	NS
2010	27.0%	26.7%	27.3%	NS
2011	27.0%	26.8%	27.3%	NS
2012	27.8%	27.5%	28.1%	+
2013	28.1%	27.8%	28.4%	NS
2014	28.6%	28.3%	28.9%	NS
2015	29.8%	29.5%	30.1%	+
Total	26.5%	26.4%	26.5%	+

No HS Diploma - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	18.6%	18.3%	18.8%	
2003	18.7%	18.5%	19.0%	NS
2004	18.4%	18.1%	18.6%	NS
2005	18.4%	18.1%	18.6%	NS
2006	18.2%	17.9%	18.4%	NS
2007	17.0%	16.8%	17.2%	-
2008	16.6%	16.4%	16.9%	NS
2009	16.4%	16.1%	16.6%	NS
2010	16.1%	15.8%	16.3%	NS
2011	15.7%	15.5%	16.0%	NS
2012	15.3%	15.0%	15.5%	NS
2013	14.9%	14.7%	15.1%	NS
2014	14.5%	14.2%	14.7%	NS
2015	14.1%	13.9%	14.4%	NS
Total	16.6%	16.5%	16.6%	-

College Graduates - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	26.4%	25.9%	26.8%	
2003	26.6%	26.1%	27.1%	NS
2004	26.2%	25.7%	26.7%	NS
2005	26.9%	26.4%	27.4%	NS
2006	27.3%	26.8%	27.8%	NS
2007	28.1%	27.6%	28.6%	NS
2008	28.8%	28.3%	29.3%	NS
2009	28.6%	28.1%	29.1%	NS
2010	29.2%	28.7%	29.7%	NS
2011	28.6%	28.1%	29.1%	NS
2012	29.5%	29.0%	30.0%	NS
2013	30.5%	30.0%	31.1%	NS
2014	31.1%	30.5%	31.6%	NS
2015	32.2%	31.7%	32.8%	+
Total	28.6%	28.5%	28.7%	+

No HS Diploma - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	12.6%	12.3%	13.0%	
2003	13.0%	12.7%	13.4%	NS
2004	13.1%	12.7%	13.5%	NS
2005	12.7%	12.3%	13.1%	NS
2006	12.8%	12.4%	13.1%	NS
2007	12.1%	11.7%	12.4%	NS
2008	11.6%	11.2%	12.0%	NS
2009	11.4%	11.1%	11.8%	NS
2010	11.0%	10.7%	11.4%	NS
2011	10.7%	10.3%	11.0%	NS
2012	10.2%	9.8%	10.5%	NS
2013	9.7%	9.4%	10.1%	NS
2014	9.1%	8.8%	9.5%	NS
2015	8.8%	8.4%	9.1%	NS
Total	11.3%	11.2%	11.4%	-

Table 6: Volunteering and giving by educational attainment – ages 20-40

College Graduates - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	38.9%	37.9%	39.9%	
2003	41.2%	40.1%	42.2%	+
2004	41.1%	40.0%	42.1%	NS
2005	39.2%	38.2%	40.2%	NS
2006	37.5%	36.5%	38.5%	NS
2007	36.4%	35.4%	37.4%	NS
2008	37.5%	36.5%	38.4%	NS
2009	37.3%	36.3%	38.3%	NS
2010	36.6%	35.6%	37.6%	NS
2011	36.8%	35.8%	37.8%	NS
2012	36.4%	35.4%	37.4%	NS
2013	34.1%	33.1%	35.0%	-
2014	34.1%	33.2%	35.1%	NS
2015	33.6%	32.6%	34.6%	NS
Total	37.0%	36.8%	37.3%	-

College Graduates - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	57.2%	56.0%	58.5%	
2009	58.1%	56.8%	59.4%	NS
2010	55.7%	54.3%	57.2%	NS
2011	58.6%	57.1%	60.0%	NS
2012	56.4%	55.0%	57.8%	NS
2013	54.7%	53.3%	56.1%	NS
2014	54.9%	53.5%	56.3%	NS
2015	53.0%	51.6%	54.5%	NS
Total	56.0%	55.5%	56.5%	-

No HS Diploma - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	10.2%	9.3%	11.2%	
2003	9.8%	8.9%	10.7%	NS
2004	8.7%	7.8%	9.6%	NS
2005	8.8%	7.9%	9.7%	NS
2006	8.3%	7.4%	9.2%	NS
2007	7.6%	6.7%	8.5%	NS
2008	9.0%	8.0%	10.0%	NS
2009	7.5%	6.6%	8.4%	NS
2010	8.0%	7.1%	9.0%	NS
2011	8.9%	7.9%	10.0%	NS
2012	9.5%	8.4%	10.5%	NS
2013	9.8%	8.7%	11.0%	NS
2014	8.6%	7.5%	9.7%	NS
2015	8.9%	7.7%	10.1%	NS
Total	8.8%	8.6%	9.1%	NS

No HS Diploma - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	16.9%	15.1%	18.7%	
2009	15.1%	13.2%	17.1%	NS
2010	21.3%	19.6%	22.9%	+
2011	21.3%	19.5%	23.2%	NS
2012	18.4%	16.3%	20.6%	NS
2013	19.1%	16.8%	21.4%	NS
2014	18.8%	16.6%	20.9%	NS
2015	16.6%	13.8%	19.3%	NS
Total	18.4%	17.7%	19.2%	NS

2) Marital status: Like educational attainment, marriage has traditionally been viewed as an event that signifies the transition to adulthood, although smaller percentages of young adults feel that marriage is an essential indicator of adult status.[28] Table 7 shows significant increases in the percentage of adults who have never been married, and decreases in those who are currently married, for both age groups (ages 20-40 and 16 and over) between 2005 and 2015.

[28] Vespa, Jonathan (2017). "The Changing Economics and Demographics of Young Adulthood: 1975–2016," *op. cit.*

Like educational attainment, marital status is strongly correlated with volunteering, especially among adults ages 20 through 40. As Table 8 below shows, the volunteer rate for married people in this age group is almost seventeen percentage points higher than the rate for those who have never been married; married adults are also much more likely to give to charity. However, for those ages 20-40, the volunteer rate has declined significantly for both currently-married adults and never-married adults over this time span, although the giving rate has not changed significantly.

Table 7: Marital status, 2002-2015 – all ages and ages 20-40

Never Married - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	26.5%	26.2%	26.7%	
2003	27.1%	26.8%	27.3%	+
2004	27.2%	26.9%	27.5%	NS
2005	27.8%	27.5%	28.1%	NS
2006	27.9%	27.6%	28.2%	NS
2007	28.3%	28.0%	28.6%	NS
2008	28.2%	27.9%	28.5%	NS
2009	28.8%	28.6%	29.1%	+
2010	29.2%	29.0%	29.5%	NS
2011	29.5%	29.2%	29.8%	NS
2012	29.6%	29.3%	29.9%	NS
2013	30.2%	29.9%	30.5%	+
2014	30.3%	29.9%	30.6%	NS
2015	30.3%	30.0%	30.7%	NS
Total	28.7%	28.6%	28.8%	+

Married - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	54.2%	53.8%	54.5%	
2003	53.7%	53.3%	54.0%	NS
2004	53.2%	52.8%	53.5%	NS
2005	52.6%	52.2%	52.9%	NS
2006	52.3%	52.0%	52.6%	NS
2007	52.4%	52.1%	52.8%	NS
2008	52.4%	52.1%	52.7%	NS
2009	51.6%	51.2%	51.9%	-
2010	50.9%	50.6%	51.2%	-
2011	50.7%	50.4%	51.1%	NS
2012	50.5%	50.2%	50.9%	NS
2013	49.9%	49.5%	50.2%	-
2014	49.9%	49.5%	50.2%	NS
2015	49.6%	49.3%	50.0%	NS
Total	51.6%	51.6%	51.7%	-

Never Married - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	39.7%	39.2%	40.2%	
2003	41.0%	40.5%	41.6%	+
2004	41.4%	40.9%	41.9%	NS
2005	42.8%	42.3%	43.4%	+
2006	43.4%	42.8%	43.9%	NS
2007	44.0%	43.4%	44.5%	NS
2008	44.2%	43.6%	44.7%	NS
2009	45.9%	45.3%	46.4%	+
2010	46.8%	46.2%	47.3%	NS
2011	47.9%	47.3%	48.4%	+
2012	48.5%	48.0%	49.1%	NS
2013	50.3%	49.7%	50.9%	+
2014	50.3%	49.7%	50.9%	NS
2015	50.6%	50.0%	51.2%	NS
Total	45.5%	45.4%	45.7%	+

Married - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	49.2%	48.7%	49.8%	
2003	48.4%	47.8%	48.9%	NS
2004	47.8%	47.2%	48.3%	NS
2005	46.5%	46.0%	47.1%	-
2006	46.1%	45.5%	46.6%	NS
2007	45.9%	45.3%	46.4%	NS
2008	45.5%	45.0%	46.1%	NS
2009	44.1%	43.5%	44.6%	-
2010	43.3%	42.8%	43.9%	NS
2011	41.9%	41.3%	42.4%	-
2012	41.5%	41.0%	42.1%	NS
2013	40.3%	39.7%	40.9%	-
2014	40.2%	39.6%	40.8%	NS
2015	40.6%	40.0%	41.1%	NS
Total	44.3%	44.2%	44.5%	-

Table 8: Volunteering and giving by marital status – ages 20-40

Never Married - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	18.6%	17.9%	19.3%	
2003	20.0%	19.3%	20.7%	+
2004	20.4%	19.7%	21.1%	NS
2005	19.8%	19.1%	20.4%	NS
2006	17.4%	16.8%	18.1%	-
2007	16.9%	16.2%	17.5%	NS
2008	18.3%	17.6%	18.9%	+
2009	18.6%	17.9%	19.2%	NS
2010	18.0%	17.3%	18.6%	NS
2011	19.2%	18.5%	19.9%	NS
2012	18.5%	17.9%	19.2%	NS
2013	18.0%	17.3%	18.6%	NS
2014	18.4%	17.8%	19.0%	NS
2015	17.9%	17.3%	18.6%	NS
Total	18.5%	18.4%	18.7%	-

Never Married - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	24.7%	23.6%	25.8%	
2009	25.6%	24.6%	26.7%	NS
2010	25.1%	24.0%	26.1%	NS
2011	26.3%	25.2%	27.4%	NS
2012	25.1%	24.0%	26.2%	NS
2013	26.4%	25.4%	27.5%	NS
2014	26.0%	24.9%	27.1%	NS
2015	24.9%	23.8%	26.1%	NS
Total	25.5%	25.1%	25.9%	NS

Married - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	32.3%	31.6%	33.0%	
2003	33.8%	33.0%	34.5%	+
2004	33.2%	32.4%	33.9%	NS
2005	32.8%	32.1%	33.6%	NS
2006	31.2%	30.5%	32.0%	-
2007	30.6%	29.9%	31.3%	NS
2008	30.5%	29.8%	31.3%	NS
2009	31.1%	30.3%	31.8%	NS
2010	30.8%	30.1%	31.6%	NS
2011	31.0%	30.2%	31.8%	NS
2012	30.8%	30.0%	31.6%	NS
2013	30.4%	29.5%	31.2%	NS
2014	29.1%	28.3%	29.9%	NS
2015	29.5%	28.6%	30.3%	NS
Total	31.3%	31.1%	31.5%	-

Married - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	52.2%	51.3%	53.2%	
2009	51.8%	50.8%	52.9%	NS
2010	51.8%	50.7%	53.0%	NS
2011	54.0%	52.8%	55.1%	NS
2012	53.2%	52.0%	54.3%	NS
2013	53.0%	51.8%	54.2%	NS
2014	54.7%	53.6%	55.7%	NS
2015	52.3%	51.1%	53.6%	-
Total	52.9%	52.5%	53.2%	NS

3) Parenthood status: Like being married, having children is strongly associated with both volunteering and giving for young adults, as the statistics in Table 10 show. However, between 2005 and 2015, the percentage of adults who are living with their own children has declined for both the 16-and-over and 20-40 age groups. Over the same period, as seen in Table 11, volunteering for younger parents has significantly declined, although the giving and volunteering rates for nonparents have not changed by a measureable amount.

Table 9: Parenthood status, 2002-2015 – all ages and ages 20-40

No Kids - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	69.5%	69.2%	69.8%	
2003	70.1%	69.8%	70.3%	NS
2004	70.4%	70.1%	70.7%	NS
2005	71.0%	70.7%	71.3%	+
2006	71.5%	71.2%	71.7%	NS
2007	71.5%	71.2%	71.8%	NS
2008	71.9%	71.6%	72.1%	NS
2009	72.6%	72.4%	72.9%	+
2010	71.7%	71.4%	72.0%	-
2011	71.9%	71.6%	72.2%	NS
2012	72.6%	72.3%	72.9%	+
2013	73.2%	72.9%	73.5%	+
2014	73.3%	73.0%	73.6%	NS
2015	73.5%	73.2%	73.8%	NS
Total	71.8%	71.7%	71.9%	+

Lives with Kids - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	30.5%	30.2%	30.8%	
2003	29.9%	29.7%	30.2%	NS
2004	29.6%	29.3%	29.9%	NS
2005	29.0%	28.7%	29.3%	-
2006	28.5%	28.3%	28.8%	NS
2007	28.5%	28.2%	28.8%	NS
2008	28.1%	27.9%	28.4%	NS
2009	27.4%	27.1%	27.6%	-
2010	28.3%	28.0%	28.6%	+
2011	28.1%	27.8%	28.4%	NS
2012	27.4%	27.1%	27.7%	-
2013	26.8%	26.5%	27.1%	-
2014	26.7%	26.4%	27.0%	NS
2015	26.5%	26.2%	26.8%	NS
Total	28.2%	28.1%	28.3%	-

No Kids - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	51.5%	50.9%	52.0%	
2003	52.3%	51.8%	52.8%	NS
2004	52.8%	52.2%	53.3%	NS
2005	54.0%	53.4%	54.5%	+
2006	54.3%	53.8%	54.9%	NS
2007	54.7%	54.2%	55.3%	NS
2008	55.3%	54.7%	55.8%	NS
2009	56.1%	55.6%	56.7%	NS
2010	54.2%	53.7%	54.8%	-
2011	54.6%	54.0%	55.1%	NS
2012	55.4%	54.9%	56.0%	NS
2013	57.1%	56.5%	57.7%	+
2014	57.0%	56.4%	57.6%	NS
2015	57.2%	56.6%	57.8%	NS
Total	54.8%	54.6%	54.9%	+

Lives with Kids - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	48.5%	48.0%	49.1%	
2003	47.7%	47.2%	48.2%	NS
2004	47.2%	46.7%	47.8%	NS
2005	46.0%	45.5%	46.6%	-
2006	45.7%	45.1%	46.2%	NS
2007	45.3%	44.7%	45.8%	NS
2008	44.7%	44.2%	45.3%	NS
2009	43.9%	43.3%	44.4%	NS
2010	45.8%	45.2%	46.3%	+
2011	45.4%	44.9%	46.0%	NS
2012	44.6%	44.0%	45.1%	NS
2013	42.9%	42.3%	43.5%	-
2014	43.0%	42.4%	43.6%	NS
2015	42.8%	42.2%	43.4%	NS
Total	45.2%	45.1%	45.4%	-

Table 10: Volunteering and giving by parenthood status – ages 20-40

No Kids - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	19.8%	19.2%	20.4%	
2003	21.1%	20.5%	21.7%	+
2004	21.4%	20.8%	22.0%	NS
2005	20.8%	20.2%	21.4%	NS
2006	18.9%	18.3%	19.5%	-
2007	18.6%	18.1%	19.2%	NS
2008	19.7%	19.1%	20.3%	NS
2009	20.1%	19.5%	20.7%	NS
2010	19.7%	19.1%	20.3%	NS
2011	20.7%	20.1%	21.3%	NS
2012	20.2%	19.6%	20.9%	NS
2013	18.9%	18.3%	19.6%	-
2014	19.9%	19.3%	20.5%	NS
2015	19.7%	19.0%	20.3%	NS
Total	20.0%	19.8%	20.1%	NS

No Kids - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	30.7%	29.7%	31.7%	
2009	30.1%	29.1%	31.1%	NS
2010	30.2%	29.2%	31.3%	NS
2011	31.1%	30.0%	32.1%	NS
2012	31.0%	30.0%	32.0%	NS
2013	30.4%	29.4%	31.4%	NS
2014	30.9%	29.9%	32.0%	NS
2015	30.2%	29.2%	31.2%	NS
Total	30.6%	30.2%	30.9%	NS

Lives with Kids - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	32.6%	31.9%	33.3%	
2003	33.6%	32.9%	34.4%	NS
2004	32.8%	32.1%	33.6%	NS
2005	32.5%	31.8%	33.3%	NS
2006	30.4%	29.7%	31.2%	-
2007	29.6%	28.8%	30.3%	NS
2008	29.5%	28.8%	30.3%	NS
2009	29.7%	29.0%	30.5%	NS
2010	28.7%	28.0%	29.5%	NS
2011	28.8%	28.1%	29.6%	NS
2012	28.6%	27.8%	29.3%	NS
2013	28.9%	28.1%	29.7%	NS
2014	27.1%	26.3%	27.9%	-
2015	27.1%	26.3%	27.9%	NS
Total	30.0%	29.8%	30.2%	-

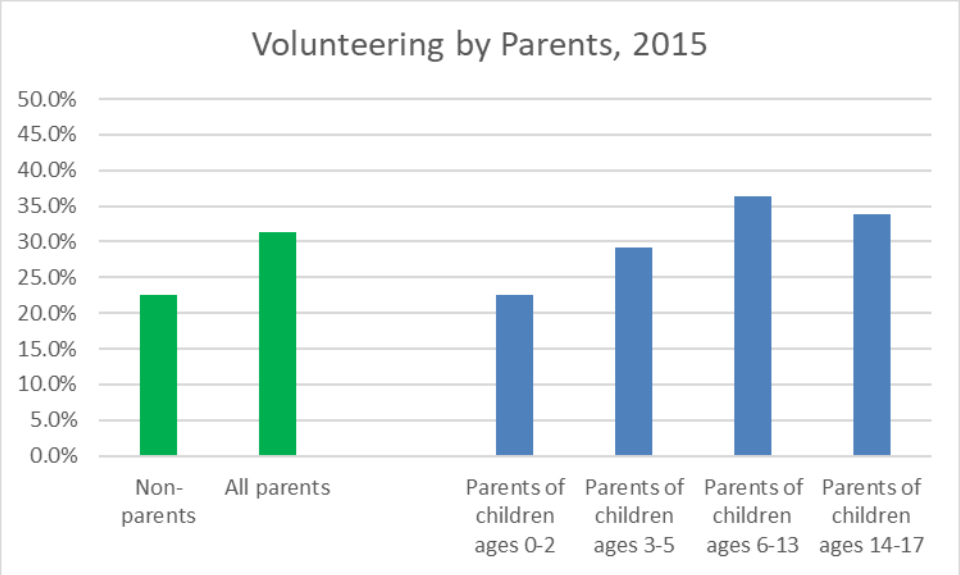
Lives with Kids - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2008	46.6%	45.6%	47.6%	
2009	47.0%	46.0%	48.1%	NS
2010	46.2%	45.1%	47.3%	NS
2011	47.0%	46.0%	48.1%	NS
2012	45.7%	44.6%	46.8%	NS
2013	47.3%	46.2%	48.4%	NS
2014	47.5%	46.4%	48.5%	NS
2015	45.9%	44.7%	47.2%	NS
Total	46.7%	46.3%	47.0%	NS

The tendency for people to start families later in life could be part of the explanation for the decline in the national volunteer rate. Adults who become parents in their early 40s will be nearing the end of their peak volunteer period – ages 35-44, the point in the lifecycle when volunteer rates are highest – by the time their children enroll in elementary school, which is the point in the child's life when parents are most likely to pick up volunteering related to their schooling.

Figure 11 illustrates this general pattern, which is observable in all the modern CPS surveys. Parents are less likely to volunteer when their children are too young to attend school full-time (under age 6); in fact, parents of infants (ages 0-2) are no more likely to volunteer than people with no children. The parental volunteer rate increases as the children grow older, but the rate

reaches its peak when the children are elementary-school age; parents of high school-age children (ages 14-17) have a slightly lower volunteer rate, but are still more likely to volunteer than parents whose children are not yet school-age.

Figure 11: Volunteering by parents, 2015



4) Owners vs. renters: In addition to more commonly used benchmarks of adulthood, we also consider the decline in homeownership among young adults as a possible contributor to overall declines in volunteering and giving. Table 11 identifies significant year-to-year changes for all adults (ages 16 and over) and for adults ages 20-40 in the percentage of each group that lived in owner-occupied households, and the percent who lived in rented living space. Between 2005 and 2015, among both age groups, the percentage of adults living in owner-occupied households has declined, and the percentage of adults living in rented housing space has increased.

   A recent report published by the Urban Institute[29] notes that these changes cannot be attributed solely to demographic changes: "Instead, expanded access to credit contributed to the rate's rise through 2005, and the effects of the Great Recession, in combination with stagnating real wages, student loan debt, tight credit, and subtle changes in attitudes toward homeownership, contributed to its decline from 2005 to 2015."

[29] https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/96221/homeownership_and_the_american_dream_0.pdf

Table 11: Owners and renters, 2002-2015 – all ages and ages 20-40

Owners in HH - Age 16 and Over					Renters - Age 16 and Over				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI		Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	71.8%	71.5%	72.1%		2002	27.0%	26.7%	27.3%	
2003	71.8%	71.5%	72.1%	NS	2003	27.0%	26.7%	27.3%	NS
2004	72.4%	72.1%	72.7%	+	2004	26.5%	26.2%	26.7%	NS
2005	72.6%	72.3%	72.9%	NS	2005	26.3%	26.0%	26.6%	NS
2006	72.5%	72.2%	72.8%	NS	2006	26.5%	26.2%	26.7%	NS
2007	71.7%	71.5%	72.0%	-	2007	27.0%	26.7%	27.3%	NS
2008	71.2%	70.9%	71.5%	NS	2008	27.5%	27.2%	27.8%	NS
2009	70.7%	70.4%	71.0%	NS	2009	28.1%	27.8%	28.4%	+
2010	69.5%	69.2%	69.8%	-	2010	29.3%	29.0%	29.6%	+
2011	69.3%	69.0%	69.6%	NS	2011	29.5%	29.2%	29.8%	NS
2012	68.4%	68.1%	68.8%	-	2012	30.3%	30.0%	30.6%	+
2013	68.4%	68.1%	68.7%	NS	2013	30.5%	30.2%	30.8%	NS
2014	67.2%	66.9%	67.5%	-	2014	31.5%	31.2%	31.8%	+
2015	66.8%	66.5%	67.1%	NS	2015	31.9%	31.5%	32.2%	NS
Total	70.2%	70.2%	70.3%	-	Total	28.6%	28.5%	28.6%	+
Owners in HH - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)					**Renters - Ages 20-40 (inclusive)**				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI		Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	58.4%	57.9%	59.0%		2002	40.0%	39.5%	40.6%	
2003	58.3%	57.8%	58.9%	NS	2003	40.1%	39.6%	40.7%	NS
2004	59.0%	58.5%	59.6%	NS	2004	39.6%	39.1%	40.1%	NS
2005	59.2%	58.6%	59.7%	NS	2005	39.5%	39.0%	40.0%	NS
2006	58.9%	58.4%	59.5%	NS	2006	39.8%	39.3%	40.4%	NS
2007	57.8%	57.3%	58.3%	-	2007	40.9%	40.3%	41.4%	NS
2008	57.4%	56.9%	57.9%	NS	2008	41.1%	40.6%	41.7%	NS
2009	56.8%	56.3%	57.4%	NS	2009	41.9%	41.4%	42.5%	NS
2010	54.8%	54.2%	55.3%	-	2010	44.0%	43.4%	44.5%	+
2011	53.7%	53.1%	54.3%	NS	2011	45.1%	44.5%	45.7%	+
2012	52.1%	51.6%	52.7%	-	2012	46.4%	45.9%	47.0%	+
2013	52.7%	52.1%	53.3%	NS	2013	45.9%	45.4%	46.5%	NS
2014	51.1%	50.6%	51.7%	-	2014	47.4%	46.8%	48.0%	+
2015	50.8%	50.2%	51.4%	NS	2015	47.7%	47.1%	48.3%	NS
Total	55.8%	55.6%	55.9%	-	Total	42.9%	42.7%	43.0%	+

Table 12 gives volunteering and giving statistics just for the 20-40 age group. The two statistics have moved in different directions in recent years: the volunteer rate has declined for those who live in owner-occupied households between 2005 and 2015, while the giving rate for renters increased between 2009 and 2015. The increase in giving among renters might reflect the strategic choices made by many younger adults to rent rather than take on mortgage debt: it's easier to support charitable causes when your household finances are stable. However, the decline in volunteering might suggest that homeownership doesn't signify close ties to the community like it once did. This trend might be linked to the decline in volunteering among suburban and rural areas, where renters constitute a much smaller percentage of the population.

Table 12: Volunteering and giving by homeownership status – ages 20-40

Owners in HH - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering						Owners in HH - Ages 20-40 - Giving				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI			Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	30.9%	30.2%	31.5%							
2003	32.0%	31.3%	32.6%	NS						
2004	31.4%	30.7%	32.0%	NS						
2005	30.6%	30.0%	31.3%	NS						
2006	28.9%	28.3%	29.6%	-						
2007	28.3%	27.6%	28.9%	NS						
2008	28.2%	27.5%	28.8%	NS		2008	45.7%	44.8%	46.6%	
2009	28.5%	27.8%	29.1%	NS		2009	44.5%	43.6%	45.5%	NS
2010	27.9%	27.2%	28.6%	NS		2010	44.4%	43.4%	45.5%	NS
2011	28.4%	27.7%	29.1%	NS		2011	44.8%	43.7%	45.9%	NS
2012	27.8%	27.1%	28.5%	NS		2012	44.4%	43.4%	45.5%	NS
2013	27.0%	26.3%	27.7%	NS		2013	44.1%	43.0%	45.1%	NS
2014	26.6%	25.9%	27.3%	NS		2014	45.6%	44.6%	46.6%	NS
2015	26.7%	26.0%	27.4%	NS		2015	42.9%	41.8%	44.1%	-
Total	28.8%	28.7%	29.0%	-		Total	44.6%	44.2%	44.9%	NS
Renters - Ages 20-40 - Volunteering						**Renters - Ages 20-40 - Giving**				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI			Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	18.8%	18.1%	19.5%							
2003	19.9%	19.2%	20.6%	NS						
2004	20.1%	19.4%	20.8%	NS						
2005	19.6%	18.8%	20.3%	NS						
2006	17.1%	16.4%	17.8%	-						
2007	16.8%	16.2%	17.5%	NS						
2008	18.5%	17.8%	19.2%	+		2008	27.0%	25.9%	28.1%	
2009	18.9%	18.2%	19.6%	NS		2009	28.4%	27.3%	29.5%	NS
2010	18.9%	18.2%	19.6%	NS		2010	29.1%	28.0%	30.3%	NS
2011	19.5%	18.8%	20.2%	NS		2011	30.9%	29.8%	32.1%	NS
2012	19.7%	19.0%	20.4%	NS		2012	29.9%	28.7%	31.0%	NS
2013	19.0%	18.3%	19.7%	NS		2013	30.6%	29.5%	31.6%	NS
2014	18.9%	18.3%	19.6%	NS		2014	29.9%	28.8%	31.0%	NS
2015	18.4%	17.7%	19.1%	NS		2015	30.7%	29.6%	31.8%	NS
Total	18.9%	18.7%	19.1%	NS		Total	29.6%	29.2%	30.0%	+

The findings in Table 12 raise the question posed earlier in our paper: what has changed within many communities that have been known for greater stability (for example higher homeownership) and a more vibrant social capital? On a national level, the traditional signposts to adulthood – education, marriage, parenthood and homeownership – continue to be strongly associated with volunteering and giving, even though fewer young adults have chosen to make these significant life changes. These characteristics tend to be associated with volunteering and giving, but only because they represent ways to build ties with one's community. The challenge for policymakers is to find ways for young people to build and strengthen ties to their communities even if they decide not to finish college, get married, have kids, or buy a home.

Boomers leaving the workforce

The long-forecast period when the massive Baby Boom generation reaches retirement age has already begun. Observers have noted that Baby Boomers have shown a tendency to stay in the paid labor force past the traditional retirement age.[30] However, as the Boomers eventually leave the workforce, the number of retirees will certainly balloon. Because retirees are an important part of the volunteer workforce and philanthropic donor base, what impact should we expect Boomer retirements to have on volunteering and giving rates?

Table 13 describes recent changes in the retired population now that the oldest Boomers have reached retirement age. The percentage of people over age 55 who are retired has declined between 2005 and 2015 – suggesting that older adults (who, increasingly, are Baby Boomers) are less likely to retire than people from previous generations. However, the percentage of retirees in the adult population (ages 16 and over, in and out of the labor force) has increased significantly in the past five years – at or around the exact moment when the first Boomers (born 1946) started to turn 65! This suggests that both narratives are right: Boomers are more likely to stay in the workforce later in life, but their retirements are having an impact on the size of the workforce, simply because this is such a large segment of the population.

Table 13: Percent who are retired, older adults (ages 55 and over) and all adults (ages 16 and over)

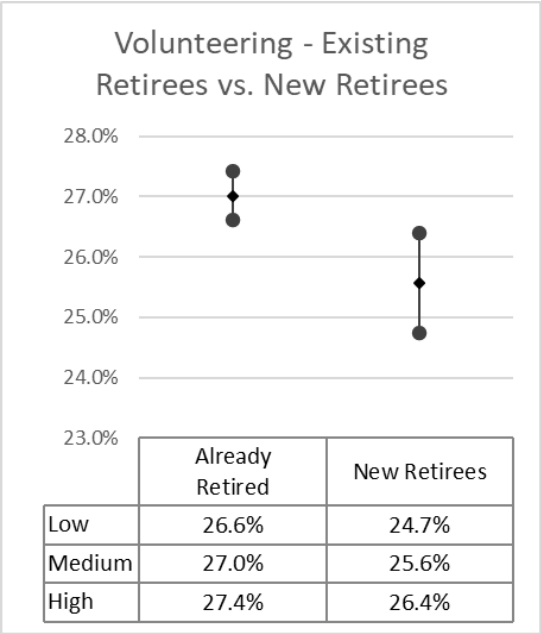
Ages 55 and Over:						Ages 16 and Over:				
Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI			Year	Rate	Lower CI	Upper CI	
2002	54.0%	53.4%	54.6%			2002	15.4%	15.2%	15.6%	
2003	53.6%	53.0%	54.1%	NS		2003	15.4%	15.2%	15.7%	NS
2004	52.6%	52.0%	53.1%	NS		2004	15.4%	15.2%	15.7%	NS
2005	50.9%	50.3%	51.5%	-		2005	15.2%	14.9%	15.4%	NS
2006	51.1%	50.6%	51.7%	NS		2006	15.4%	15.2%	15.6%	NS
2007	49.9%	49.3%	50.4%	-		2007	15.4%	15.2%	15.7%	NS
2008	49.1%	48.5%	49.6%	NS		2008	15.4%	15.1%	15.6%	NS
2009	48.7%	48.2%	49.3%	NS		2009	15.6%	15.4%	15.8%	NS
2010	47.7%	47.1%	48.2%	NS		2010	15.5%	15.3%	15.7%	NS
2011	47.5%	47.0%	48.0%	NS		2011	15.7%	15.5%	16.0%	NS
2012	47.7%	47.2%	48.2%	NS		2012	16.3%	16.1%	16.5%	+
2013	47.7%	47.1%	48.2%	NS		2013	16.6%	16.4%	16.9%	NS
2014	47.7%	47.2%	48.3%	NS		2014	17.0%	16.7%	17.2%	NS
2015	48.7%	48.2%	49.3%	NS		2015	17.6%	17.3%	17.8%	+
Total	49.6%	49.4%	49.7%	-		Total	15.9%	15.8%	15.9%	+

Volunteer and giving rates for retirees have stayed pretty constant over the last few years, but there has always been a drop off in volunteering and giving when people first retire. Figure 10 shows the year-2 volunteering and giving rates for people ages 55 and over who were retired in years 1 and 2 ("already retired") and for "new" 55-and-over retirees, who were not retired in year 1 but were retired in year 2. To maximize the sample sizes, the volunteering chart uses data from survey years 2002-2003 through 2014-2015, and the giving chart uses data for survey years

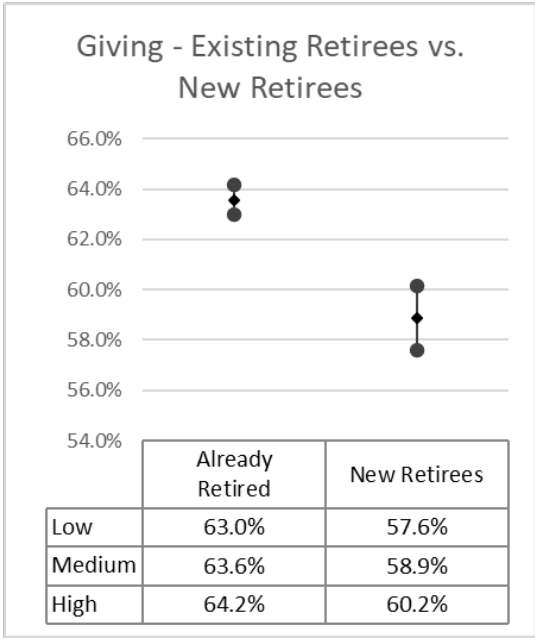
[30] https://www.thebalancecareers.com/retiring-boomers-affect-job-market-2071932

2008-2009 through 2014-2015, for all adults who responded to the volunteering and giving questions in both years. Compared to those who were "already retired," "new" retirees were significantly less likely to volunteer and significantly less likely to give.

Figure 10: Volunteering and giving for new retirees (not retired in year 1, retired in year 2) vs. already retired (in years 1 and 2) – ages 55 and over, 2002-2003 to 2014-2015



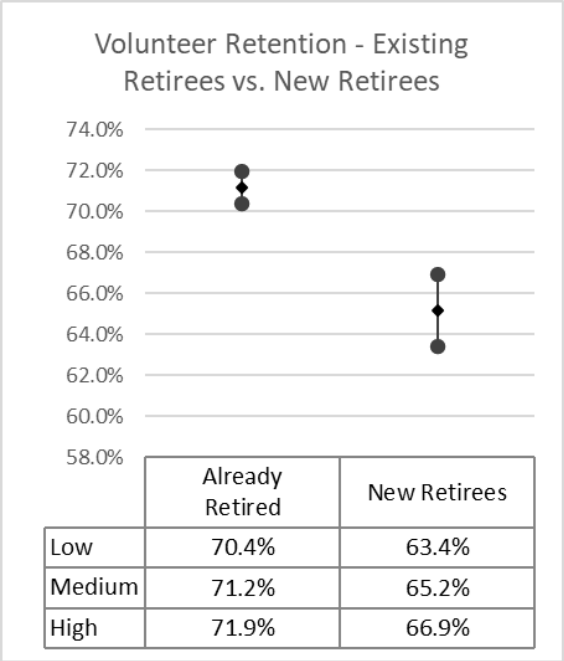
	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	26.6%	24.7%
Medium	27.0%	25.6%
High	27.4%	26.4%



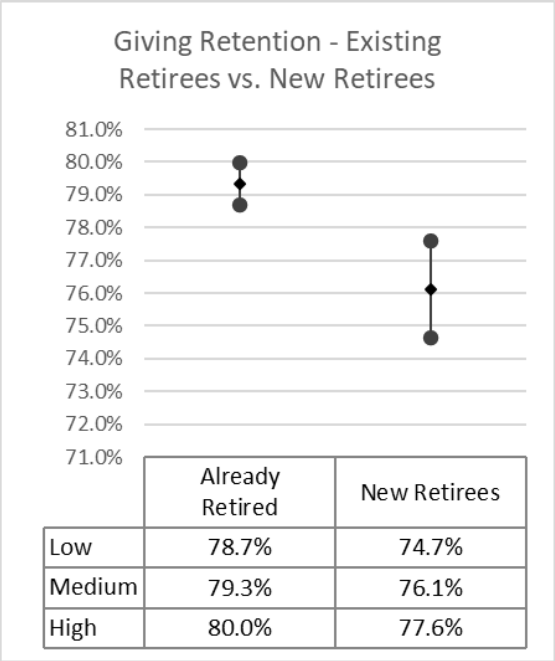
	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	63.0%	57.6%
Medium	63.6%	58.9%
High	64.2%	60.2%

The charts in Figure 11 show that volunteering and giving retention rates are similarly lower for new retirees – indicating that people are more likely to quit volunteering and quit giving the year they retire, compared to people who were retired in both years and were year-1 volunteers and/or year-1 donors. Giving acquisition rates were also significantly lower for new retirees – indicating that they were less likely to give to charity if they didn't do it the previous year, compared to those who were already retired and were year-1 non-donors. However, volunteer acquisition rates may be a little higher for new retirees, although the difference between acquisition rates for new retirees and existing retirees just misses the threshold for statistical significance.

Figure 11: Volunteering and giving retention, new retirees vs. already retired – ages 55 and over

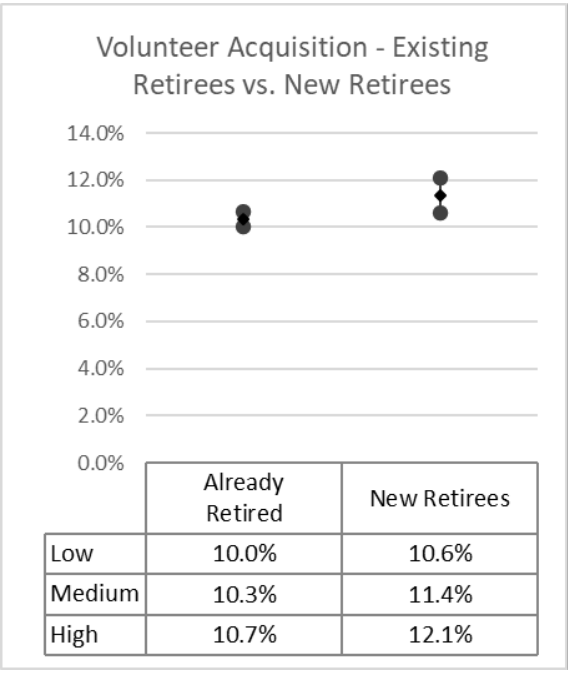


	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	70.4%	63.4%
Medium	71.2%	65.2%
High	71.9%	66.9%

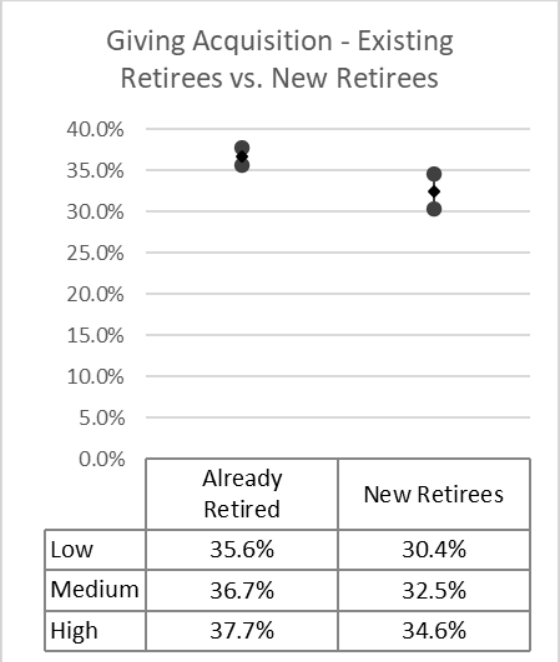


	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	78.7%	74.7%
Medium	79.3%	76.1%
High	80.0%	77.6%

Figure 12: Volunteering and giving acquisition, new retirees vs. already retired – ages 55 and over



	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	10.0%	10.6%
Medium	10.3%	11.4%
High	10.7%	12.1%



	Already Retired	New Retirees
Low	35.6%	30.4%
Medium	36.7%	32.5%
High	37.7%	34.6%

Will Boomers continue to have different views on volunteering and giving than members of previous generations? On the one hand, the dip in giving and volunteering rates among new retirees – even among people who have been donors and volunteers – has been observable since before the oldest Boomers began to retire. However, to keep retired Boomers in the volunteer workforce and donor pool, organizations need to pay attention to the point in which current volunteers and donors retire as well as provide challenging, skills-based volunteer assignments, and should also continue to make the same active pitches to get them to donate. Organizations should also make good volunteer opportunities available in conjunction with flexible opportunities for paid work (for Boomers who don't want to quit altogether, or can't afford to quit) and advertise them so they can start serving right after retirement.

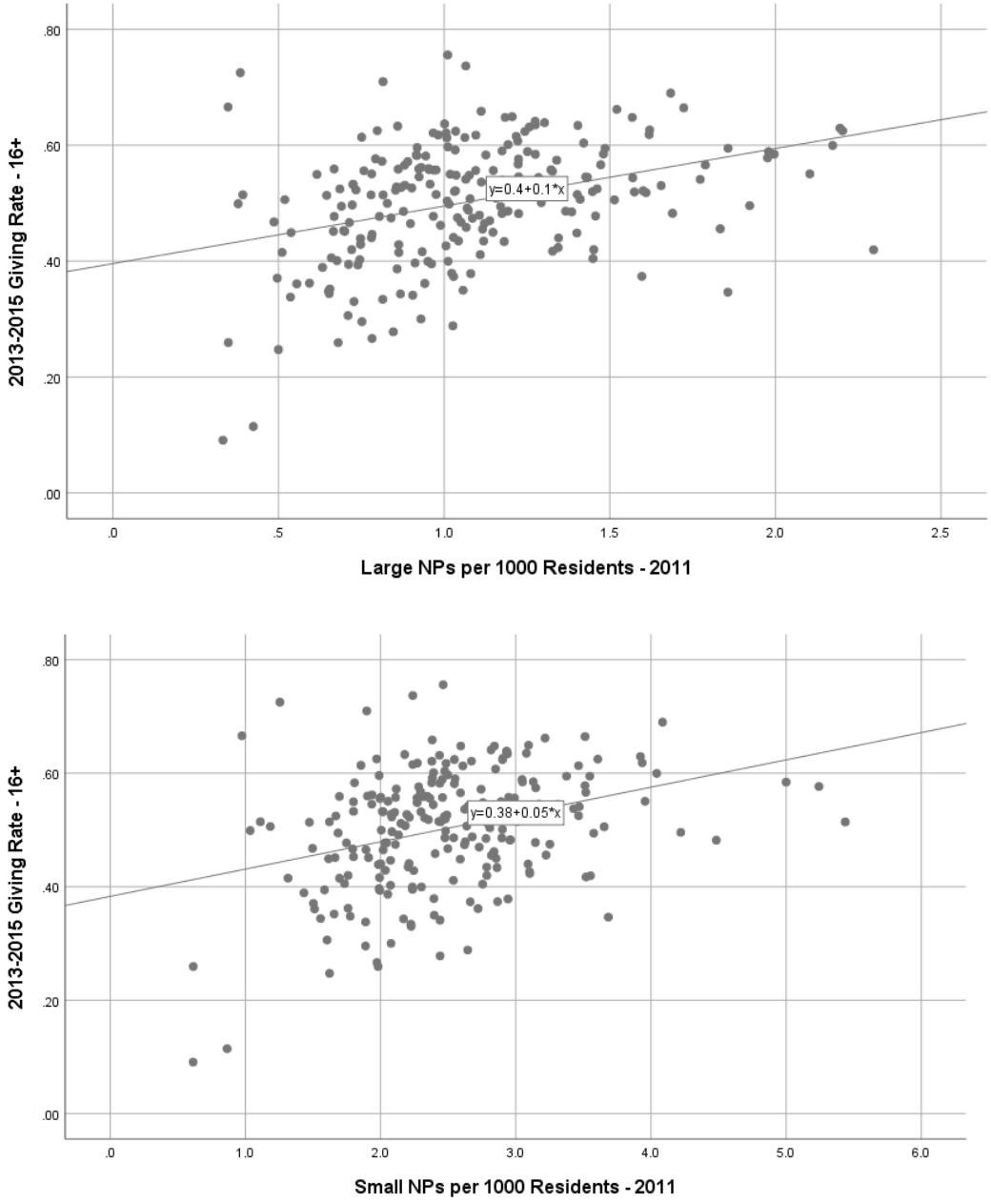
Prevalence of nonprofit organizations

Both small nonprofits (those with gross receipts of $50,000 or less, based on data from IRS Forms 990 and 990-EZ) and larger nonprofits play an important role in providing opportunities for volunteers and donors to participate in civil society. Compared to large nonprofits, small nonprofits may be more likely to make larger contributions to the state of the volunteer workforce. They outnumber larger nonprofits by a two-to-one margin, so they are likely to be more prevalent in many communities. Because of resource limitations, small nonprofits are more likely to rely on volunteers as opposed to paid staff to fulfill their mission. However, large nonprofit organizations can also provide opportunities for community-building and increased engagement – in part because they tend to take in more money from individual donors than small nonprofits do (given that organization size is measured by revenues). No matter their size, every nonprofit requires at least a board of directors composed of volunteers.

Our earlier analysis of volunteer rate changes in metropolitan areas – between the mid-2000s and the mid-2010s – suggested that the decline in volunteer rates were less common in metropolitan areas with larger concentrations of nonprofits. It turns out that volunteer rates and giving rates tend to be higher in MSAs with high concentrations of large and small nonprofit organizations. At the MSA level, correlations are significant and positive between the giving rate for adults ages 16 and over (based on pooled CPS data from 2013-2015) and the number of large nonprofits ($r = 0.360$) and small nonprofits ($r = 0.224$)[31] per 1000 residents, based on 2011 data from the IRS Exempt Organizations Master File. These correlations, which are depicted in Figure 13 below, are similar in magnitude to the correlations between the 16-and-over volunteer rate and the prevalence of large and small nonprofits per 1000 residents ($r = 0.355$ and $r = 0.209$, respectively).

[31] The second scatterplot excludes Augusta, GA and Des Moines, IA – both are outliers that have > 6 small nonprofits per 1000 residents.

Figure 13: Relationship Between Large and Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents (2011) and Giving Rate (2013-2015) by MSAs



These findings suggest that both large and small nonprofit organizations play key roles in promoting two "old-fashioned" functions of the nonprofit sector, volunteering and giving in communities. Between 2005 and 2015, the number of registered nonprofits grew by 10.4

percent[32] – about the same rate of growth as that of the overall population. At the same time, nonprofit organizations are currently facing pressure to change their practices so they can operate in a more efficient, businesslike manner – which may put them at risk of losing sight of their primary objectives.[33]

While we recognize that these pressures may promote needed innovation in the nonprofit sector, we hope they are not discouraging nonprofits from promoting one of the fundamental activities of the sector: engaging individuals in civic behaviors. In fact, an increase in the number of "old-fashioned" nonprofits might provide opportunities for more Americans to give and volunteer, which would help to slow the decline in participation rates for both activities caused (in part) by recent demographic changes.

Reversing a Less Charitable Nation: A Preliminary Policy Sketch

Policymakers, nonprofit and government sector leaders, researchers, and others will need to play an important role in advancing new, innovative approaches to address the profound societal and other changes that are leading to the decline of volunteering and giving in America. Our paper explores the breath and contours of that decline but will conclude by sketching some very initial policy approaches to renew volunteering and giving.

Last month, we had the honor of testifying at the first public hearing of the bi-partisan National Commission on Military, National, and Public Service created by Congress. The Commission invited us due to their interest in our emerging research on the decline of volunteering since 9/11 and our Do Good Campus model. The Commission plans to issue their final report in 2020 and a similar Commission is what lead President Clinton and Congress to create programs such as AmeriCorps in 1993. Our written testimony outlines just an initial list of policy ideas – particularly related to youth – that could help reverse our trajectory toward a less charitable nation, including:[34]

1a. Requiring youth to engage in multiple, high-quality service experiences

Given how important it is to engage all young people in early, philanthropic and service experiences; we would encourage policymakers to require at least secondary schools (and likely middle schools) to incorporate multiple-year, high-quality service experiences into their core curriculum. That approach could empower youth to get into the practice of improving their community early. This policy change could unleash a new generation that is not only passionate about being engaged in all forms of charitable behaviors to their country but has been deeply involved in the practice of service from a young age.

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[32] McKeever, Brice S. 2018. "The Nonprofit Sector in Brief 2018: Public Charities, Giving, and Volunteering." Available at https://nccs.urban.org/publication/nonprofit-sector-brief-2018#the-nonprofit-sector-in-brief-2018-public-charites-giving-and-volunteering.

[33] McCambridge, Ruth. 2014. "Hybrids, Hybridity, and Hype." *Nonprofit Quarterly*. Available at https://nonprofitquarterly.org/2014/04/30/hybrids-hybridity-and-hype/.

[34] See Grimm, Robert, "Inspiring Universal Voluntary Service Among American Youth," Testimony for National Commission on Military, National, and Public Service. Public Hearing, February 21, 2019: https://inspire2serve.gov/node/144 C-SPAN covered the entire hearing: https://www.c-span.org/video/?458058-101/national-commission-holds-hearing-mandatory-service-policy.

1b. Promoting a dramatic expansion of 21st century hands-on, service-based education

In 2018, we published a research report titled *Good Intentions, Gap in Action*, which found that high school and college student volunteerism rates have also declined since the early 2000s, and have been stagnant for the last decade.[35] On the other hand, we noted that the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) has been surveying entering college students for over fifty years and recently reported that the percentage of first-year college students who said that "helping others who are in difficulty" was a very important or essential personal objective reached a 51-year high. The percentage of entering college students' interest in becoming a community leader was at an all-time high as well.[36] It appears the desire to serve is there, even if the action is not.

The jarring juxtaposition of these findings suggest the need to develop more quality service opportunities throughout our country. Volunteering and service has been shown to promote positive personal outcomes, including developing social connections and soft skills that smooth the transition to adulthood, job readiness and work motivation, and encouraging lifelong community engagement. Similarly, volunteering has been shown to reduce the likelihood of negative outcomes such as drug use, unplanned pregnancy, and dropping out of school.[37]

At the University of Maryland, we are working to translate college students' service interest into action through the design of our hands-on courses and co-curricular programs. Our Do Good Campus is designed to reach students from orientation to graduation and incorporate and innovate on the best practices and research insights of what might be termed *21st century hands-on, service-based education*.[38] We aspire to create a campus with a culture of volunteering and giving. Higher education leaders have recently endorsed this burgeoning model. An association of over 300 universities from around the world (Network of Schools of Public Policy, Affairs, and Administration) awarded the 2017 Voinovich Public Innovation Prize

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[35] Grimm, Robert T., Jr., and Nathan Dietz. 2018. "Good Intentions, Gap in Action: The Challenge of Translating Youth's High Interest in Doing Good into Civic Engagement." Research Brief: Do Good Institute, University of Maryland. Available at https://publicpolicy.umd.edu/sites/default/files/Good%20Intentions,%20Gap%20in%20Action_Do%20Good%20Institute%20Research%20Brief.pdf.

[36] Eagan, K., Stolzenberg, E.B., Zimmerman, H.B., Aragon, M.C., Sayson, H.W., & Rios-Aguilar, C. (2017). *The American Freshman: National Norms for Fall 2016*. Higher Education Research Institute, University of California, Los Angeles Graduate School of Education and Information, 3005 Moore Hall, Mailbox 951521, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1521. Available at https://www.heri.ucla.edu/monographs/TheAmericanFreshman2016.pdf.

[37] "Indicators on Children and Youth: Volunteering," Child Trends Databank, updated December 2015. Washington, DC: Child Trends. Available at https://www.childtrends.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/20_Volunteering.pdf.

[38] Some of these practices were cited by Myung J. Lee and Marc A. Ott, executive directors of Cities of Service and ICMA respectively, in an opinion piece written for *The Hill* that was summarized in a *Nonprofit Quarterly* article that also mentioned the Commission on Military, National and Community Service. At the University of Maryland's Do Good Campus, we are designing educational experiences that:

- tap each person's passion;
- provide training in leadership, innovation, and other important skills core to the educational institution's curriculum and mission;
- prepare and empower an individual to make an impact today; and
- engage an individual in multiple service experiences that increase the likelihood the individual will be committed to serve (in a variety of ways) for a lifetime.

and the Association of Public and Land Grant Universities' awarded Maryland the 2017 Place Award for the approach and outcomes of our Do Good Campus.

Previous and current federal programs have demonstrated that the government has the capacity, and the willingness, to boost similar educational efforts. The ideal, future government program to grow 21st century service-based education would need to strike the appropriate balance between decentralized input (to promote innovation and direct support to projects that meet local needs), centralized administration, and significant funding. The previously-funded federal program Learn and Serve America (LSA) awarded grants to both K-12 schools and higher education institutions to promote service learning. LSA was hampered by several disadvantages, including low funding levels; operating exclusively through traditional government grant-making that included subgrantees and sub, subgrantees; expectations that were not feasible with the funding levels; and lacking the ability to exhibit compelling outcomes. Many schools, nonprofits, and colleges supported by LSA lacked the capacity to design and deliver high-quality service experiences to participants because they did not have proper funding - a deficiency faced by most organizations in the K-12 education space and nonprofit sector today.

2. Instead of a Presidential Call to Service, Create Prize-Based Challenges

To promote a culture of volunteering and giving, Presidential administrations have periodically issued nationwide "calls to service," most notably in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks. We are skeptical that a general national service or public service campaign would be worth the effort today. Instead, the government might explore developing something along the lines of a national Do Good Challenge program and campaign or some version of national and state "service" prize competitions where those competition programs are deeply incorporated into the curriculum of colleges and secondary schools.[39]

Our student reach expanded dramatically when we launched our first Do Good Challenge, a campus-wide prize competition in which students are challenged to make the biggest impact they can for a cause they care about. During the Do Good Challenge, students team up to mobilize volunteers, fundraise, develop advocacy campaigns, or start or advance a social venture that could become a nonprofit or business. The Challenge awards top prizes ($5,000) for the best project that benefits an existing cause or issue (a recent finalist raised more than one million dollars for an existing nonprofit) and the best venture (a recent finalist developed a new emergency fall detection prototype to reduce the number of geriatric falls). The Challenge is intentionally broad about how students can do good, allowing for-profit and nonprofit ventures, *as well as* projects that build on or support existing community organizations. Our inclusion of Do Good projects is rather unique. In reviewing about 40 social innovation competitions hosted by academic and non-academic institutions, Arizona State University's Changemaker Challenge

[39] Today, government agencies support a variety of programs similarly designed to "crowdsource" innovative ideas from the general public. The General Services Administration (GSA) brings representatives from these programs into a Challenges and Prizes Community of Practice (https://digital.gov/communities/challenges-prizes/), whose members meet quarterly to share ideas.

and our Do Good Challenge were the two competitions that encouraged students to enter by creating *a project for an existing cause or organization*.[40]

Today, the Do Good Challenge is embedded in a variety of university curriculum and has become a University of Maryland institution due to its results. Two different Challenge alums have made the *Forbes* Top 30 Social Entrepreneurs Under 30 list. Recently an alumnus was named Argentina's 2017 Ernst and Young Social Entrepreneur of the Year and another alum was just named a finalist for the 2018 Pritzker Emerging Environmental Genius Award. Other recent finalists include:

- Press Uncuffed - which focuses on journalists unjustly imprisoned around the world - developed partnerships with the Newseum, the *New York Times* and HBO and is credited with helping free multiple journalists around the world;
- Terps Against Hunger packaged more than 2 million meals for nearly 50,000 people;
- The James Hollister Wellness Foundation has recovered and provided medications for over 17,000 individuals from low-income backgrounds in South America.

Do Good Challenges could be replicated elsewhere and by funding new prize competitions, we would ultimately have the government or private funders paying for innovative outcomes, new nonprofits, and compelling projects – accelerating the best ideas and groups for engaging more Americans in charitable behaviors. Public and philanthropic funders would also need to roll out funding to support the incorporation of the competitions into secondary and college curriculum. If designed right, those major investments could be viewed as building a 21st century educational engine and infrastructure that taps the high interest of young people and puts us on the path of a more charitable nation.

3. Invest in Nonprofit Start-ups and Nonprofit Sector Capacity Building

The nonprofit sector has many close ties with government at every level - federal, state and local. Nonprofit organizations help governmental agencies deliver needed services, support citizens as they advocate for policy reforms, produce research that helps governments improve the effectiveness of their programs, and help build social capital that strengthens civil society.[41] However, government at all levels is largely unequipped to serve as the champion for the nonprofit sector or aims to invest in the creation and growth of nonprofit start-ups similar to governmental support for new businesses. Given our research on the strong relationship between nonprofits per capita, MSA, and giving and volunteer rates; a substantial government investment fund in nonprofit start-ups – as well as scaling up promising existing nonprofits – could represent a very promising policy approach and serve as an engine of economic development and social capital building.

While many agencies and philanthropic funders have sustained, close relationships with nonprofit organizations - particularly the ones that help to implement national policies by providing needed services - no single part of government is tasked with serving the needs and building the capacity of the nonprofit sector in ways that could also generate more volunteers and donors. As just one example, the federal government could explore developing a program

[40] Egan, T., Grimm, R, and Meissinger, K., Contest Mode: Exploring 40 University Social Sector Competitions and Related Provocative Pedagogy. NASPAA Annual Conference, Columbus, Ohio, October 2016.

[41] Boris, Elizabeth T., Brice McKeever, and Beatrice Leydier (2016). "Introduction: Roles and Responsibilities of Nonprofit Organizations in a Democracy." Chapter 1 of *Nonprofits and Government: Collaboration and Conflict*, eds. Elizabeth T. Boris and C. Eugene Steuerle. Lanham, CO: Rowman & Littlefield.

where interested organizations (nonprofit and government) are competing for high-quality applicants for what might be called a *21st Century Public Service Fellows* program. The program could borrow features from the Presidential Management Fellows (PMF) program, the prestigious program operated by the federal Office of Personnel Management (OPM) that places promising young employees in positions at government agencies. Alternatively, a government entity could consider models that exist within the nonprofit sector. For instance, the W.K. Kellogg Foundation recently announced that 80 community leaders were selected to serve in the Community Leadership Network.[42] This 18-month fellowship program offers hands-on training, personalized coaching, community-based support and practical project experience. Both the PMF program and Community Leadership Network aspire not just to train future sector leaders, but to transform the leadership of the entire nonprofit and public sectors so that our young leaders can have maximum impact.

The policy ideas outlined here only hint at the potential, robust policy agenda that could be generated to stem the tide of declining community engagement in the United States. There is no reason (for example) that a community – with say an ever growing number of renters, households without kids, and retirees –needs to accept low rates of giving and volunteering. However, these communities need to recognize that many life decisions that naturally led an individual to engage in the community are not as present today and require fresh, approaches to get more of their community members into a cycle volunteering and giving.

Conclusion

Individuals who volunteer and donate build their community's social capital by working together with their neighbors, finding ways to cooperate and compromise, and becoming more aware and understanding of each of our differences. When Americans engage in their communities through behaviors such as volunteering with and donating to organizations, they often build ties, relationships, and bonds of trust with others. These activities help us build and strengthen our social networks, which have been described[43] as the glue that provides order and meaning to social life, and as a lubricant that helps us get things done. Charitable behaviors further provide one with personal benefits. Studies suggest individuals who engage in charitable behaviors such as volunteering are often happier and healthier than individuals who do not volunteer.

In America today, volunteers provide more than eight billion hours of service to their communities by working with nonprofit and other community organizations, and donors have provided more than $410 billion, according to the most recent estimates. Although the decline in volunteer rates and giving rates has not harmed these "bottom line" measures, further, significant declines in community participation among Americans could not only threaten the capacity of these organizations to provide needed services, but could already be producing detrimental side effects for many communities and individuals, including greater social isolation and poor physical and mental health. The decline in volunteering, for example, is concentrated, in rural and suburban areas, which are areas historically high in social capital, as well as metro areas with greater economic distress and fewer small nonprofits.

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[42] https://www.wkkf.org/what-we-do/community-and-civic-engagement/wkkf-community-leadership-network.

[43] Powell, W.W. and Smith-Doerr, L. 1994. Networks and economic life, in Smelser, N., Sweberg, R. (eds), *Handbook of Economic Sociology* (Princeton University Press: Princeton).

The nationwide decline in volunteering and giving appears related to a series of profound transformations that have changed the United States over the last couple decades. Religious organizations serve as a rather unique hub for community engagement but participation in them is becoming less prevalent today. More and more Americans age 20 to 40 are redefining adulthood in ways that make it harder (but certainly not impossible) to get them involved in volunteering and giving. The highly-anticipated retirement of Baby Boomer is now in full bloom and the decision to retire at least leads many to also (at least temporarily) disengage from their community.

A political scientist recently characterized America as in a period of great "uncivil disagreement,"[44] which one could easily suggest is related to the troubling and pervasive findings about charitable behaviors outlined in our paper. The first step to reversing negative trends in volunteering and giving is to recognize and understand their breadth and possible reasons. The next step is to commit resources and time to the challenging work of pioneering initiatives and approaches that will reverse America's loss of charitable activities. We must put more Americans back to work improving their communities in ways that will also improve their own lives and interactions with others.

Appendix

CPS sample design, significance testing methodology, and definition of volunteering

The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a monthly survey of about 55,000 households that has been conducted for more than 50 years. The CPS is the primary source of information on the labor force characteristics of the U.S. population.[45] The Current Population Survey's Supplement on Volunteering (Volunteer Supplement), which was conducted every September between 2002 and 2015 by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics with support from the Corporation for National and Community Service, serves as the primary source of data for this report.

The CPS Volunteer Supplement 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 1 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**

[44] Lilliana Mason. *Uncivil Agreement: How Politics Became Our Identity*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2018.
[45] For more information about the CPS, please visit: http://www.census.gov/cps/ or http://www.bls.gov/cps/.

> **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. Most of the follow up questions on the Volunteer Supplement were devoted to details about respondents' volunteer service: which organizations they volunteered with (respondents can name up to seven organizations), what type of organizations they served with, how many hours they volunteered at each organization, how they became acquainted with their primary organization (the one where they served the most hours), and what types of activities they performed at their primary organization.

In 2006, in recognition of the limitations of only studying formal volunteering, two long-standing and extensively used questions on civic engagement – attending public meetings where community affairs were discussed, and working with neighbors to fix or improve something – were added to the Volunteer Supplement. In 2008, a third question – about donating 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 added to 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 over forty years. The PSID data are used for the landmark Philanthropy Panel Study, which has been conducted by Indiana University's Lilly Family School of Philanthropy since 2002. Given the space considerations on the CPS, 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.

Generally speaking, the statistics featured in this paper were calculated using weights that account for the sample design, population characteristics, and nonresponse to the baseline labor force survey and the Volunteer Supplement. Statistics are based on pooled data for multiple years (such as the metro area volunteer rates, which are calculated from data pooled over three consecutive years) we use formulas that account for the 50 percent overlap between CPS Volunteer Supplement samples to calculate confidence intervals around the volunteer rates and the difference statistics. Details about the procedures we use can be found in the Census publication "Source and Accuracy of Estimates for Income and Poverty in the United States: 2016 and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2016."[46]

For more information about CPS volunteer statistics, please visit the *Volunteering and Civic Engagement in America* website (http://www.volunteeringinamerica.gov), published by the Corporation for National and Community Service. This website contains a wide variety of volunteer statistics measured at the national, regional, state and metropolitan area levels; the Technical Note and Glossary, accessible at https://www.nationalservice.gov/vcla/technical-note, contains detailed information about these statistics.

[46] This publication is available at https://www2.census.gov/library/publications/2017/demo/p60-259sa.pdf.

Metropolitan, urban, suburban, and rural areas

The federal Office of Management and Budget (OMB) is responsible for determining and publishing the boundaries of Metropolitan Statistical Areas (metropolitan areas, metro areas or MSAs). In order for an area to be designated an MSA, the area has to have at least one urbanized area of 50,000 or more in population, plus adjacent territory that has a high degree of social and economic integration with the urban core as measured by commuting ties. MSAs, which are composed of counties, carry the name of one or more principal cities, the most heavily urbanized cities in the area. The names of the principal cities are used as designations for the MSA data published in the brief and in the tables in the Appendix.

OMB changes its MSA definitions once every 10 years, to reflect population changes documented by the decennial Census. In the intervening years, OMB will periodically update the MSA descriptions, usually to change the names and/or principal cities. The Current Population Survey uses the final version of the boundaries published by OMB every ten years. Thus, the MSA definitions used in the CPS Volunteering Supplements from 2004 through 2013 can be found in the Appendix to OMB Bulletin #03-04, issued June 30, 2003,[47] and the definitions used in the CPS Volunteering Supplements from 2013 to the present can be found in the Appendix to OMB Bulletin #13-01,[48] issued February 28, 2013. The 2013-2015 pooled statistics are based on the new, and current, boundary definitions of metropolitan areas. As a rule, the CPS generally does not release information about which counties are included in the sample, so it is not possible to calculate statistics from 2013-2015 based on the 2003-2012 MSA boundary definitions. The 2013 MSA boundary changes resulted in minor differences in population for most metropolitan areas; details about the size of these differences are available from the authors upon request.

For the New England states (Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine), the CPS uses NECTAs (New England City and Town Areas), which are composed of towns and cities, to describe metropolitan areas, rather than MSAs, which are composed of counties. Boundary definitions for NECTAs can be found in the Appendices to OMB Bulletins #03-04 and #13-01. Since the available CPS data does not allow respondents to be identified by county, we cannot calculate MSA-level volunteer statistics for population centers located in New England states. Instead, we use MSA-level measures of the socioeconomic and demographic factors described in Tables 2 and A-1 (below) for our analysis.

[47] Available at https://georgewbush-whitehouse.archives.gov/omb/bulletins/b03-04.html. The appendix to the original OMB Bulletin is no longer available from the website, but the county definition files are available at https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/metro-micro/geographies/reference-files/2003/historical-delineation-files/030606omb-cbsa-csa.xls.
[48] Available at https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/whitehouse.gov/files/omb/bulletins/2013/b13-01.pdf.

Table A-1: Data Sources and Additional Details about Socioeconomic and Demographic Variables in Table 1

Variable	Description	Source	Vintage
Homeownership	Percent of housing units that are inhabited by the homeowner	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Multi-Unit Housing	Percent of housing structures that contain more than one housing unit	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
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	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Percent with HS Education	Percent of adults aged 25 and over who have a high school diploma or the equivalent	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Percent with College Education	Percent of adults aged 25 and over who have a college degree (BA or BS)	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Unemployment Rate	Based on annual average of seasonally adjusted monthly county-level unemployment rates	Local Area Unemployment Statistics (LAUS), Bureau of Labor Statistics	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Poverty Rate	Percent of MSA residents with annual income at or below the poverty level	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Population Density	Estimated MSA population divided by estimated size of MSA land mass	Census population estimates + Census 2010 (for state land area)	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)
Large Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	Number of 501(c) tax-exempt organizations with more than $50,000 in gross receipts, divided by MSA population and multiplied by 1000	IRS Exempt Organizations Master File (EOMF)	November 2005, December 2008, December 2011, December 2014
Small Nonprofits per 1000 Residents	Number of 501(c) tax-exempt organizations with $50,000 or less in gross receipts, divided by MSA population and multiplied by 1000	IRS Exempt Organizations Master File (EOMF)	November 2005, December 2008, December 2011, December 2014
Median Income	Median household income (adjusted for inflation)	American Community Survey	2005, 2008, 2011 and 2014 (single-year)

- Table A-2: State volunteer rates 2004-2006, 2007-2009, 2010-2012 and 2013-2015
- Table A-3: Metropolitan area volunteer rates 2004-2006, 2007-2009, 2010-2012 and 2013-2015