



Canadian
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Canada



Youth, Participation and Engagement in Canada

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Executive Summary

Combining data from three cycles of Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS) and insights from the literature on youth participation and engagement, this report draws a portrait of the current Canadian youth participation and engagement landscape. Specifically, the report focuses on the political participation and civic engagement of Canadians aged 15 to 24.

Part One of this report investigates differences and similarities in styles of participation and engagement among younger and older Canadians. From sample sizes of 24,951, of 20,401 and of 27,534 respondents for the 2003, 2008 and 2013 cycles of the GSS, the following key observations are made with regards to Canadian political participation and civic engagement:

Political participation

- Canadians aged 15 to 24 who were eligible to vote reported lower federal election voter participation than Canadians aged 25 and above;
- Canadians aged 15 to 24 who were eligible to vote reported higher voter turnouts in the 2013 GSS than in 2008 GSS, but this increase occurs in the context of nearly 50 years of decreasing voter participation in Canada;
- Younger Canadians are more likely to search for information on a political issue or topic or to participate in a march or demonstration than older Canadians;
- Canadians aged 15 to 24 are less likely than Canadians aged 25 and above to attend public meetings, to buy or boycott products for ethical reasons and to express their views on an issue by contacting a newspaper or politician.

Civic Engagement

- Canadians aged 15 to 24 are more likely to have volunteered in the past 12 months than Canadians aged 25 and above;
- Among volunteers, Canadians aged 15 to 24 were less likely to volunteer more than 5 hours per month than Canadians aged 25 and above;
- More Canadians aged 15 to 24 volunteer than older Canadians, while a larger proportion of older Canadians donate to charity and organizations compared to younger Canadians;
- Canadians aged 15 to 24 are most active in sports/recreational organizations, school/community groups and cultural/educational groups.

These differences in political participation and civic engagement between younger and older age cohorts can be analyzed through the prism of social identity. This report deconstructs the social identity components of participation and engagement into four themes:

Social capital and trust considerations suggest that relationships matter and that social networks are assets. Through interactions, people commit to one another, they build trust, and develop a sense of belonging to their communities. In the 2013 GSS, respondents aged 15 to 24 reported having more friends than those aged 25 and above, while also reporting lower levels of trust in people outside their families.

Citizenship and shared values contribute to shaping and maintaining national identity, while also constituting symbols of unity and reflecting the bonds that unite Canadians. More broadly, the development of shared meaning and values contributes to shaping and reinforcing conceptions and preconceptions of what it means to be Canadian. Data from the 2013 GSS suggest that Canadians aged 15

to 24 have a stronger sense of pride in Canadian achievements than Canadians aged 25 or older. When asked about Canadian shared values, human rights was most widely recognized as a Canadian shared value, followed by gender equality.

Identity building and associated norms of reciprocity tend to improve conditions for the group as a whole. Sense of belonging extends its relevance to organizations as it is argued that when institutions embody an identity, individuals who share this identity will tend to support and commit to these institutions more. In the 2013 GSS, 89% of respondents aged 15 to 24 felt a strong sense of belonging to Canada, while 93% of respondents aged 25 or above felt the same way.

Engagement 2.0 reflects the reality that younger generations are increasingly expressing themselves through a new channel: peer content sharing. The adoption by young Canadians of the Internet as a means to become informed and to connect with others is much more pronounced than for older Canadians.

Part Two of this report looks at how different demographic characteristics, identities and behaviors shape the likelihood to participate politically and to engage civically. The approach used is based on econometric methods to help understand how and why participation and engagement evolve.

In the following key results, informal political activity is defined as having, over the last 12 months, boycotted or chosen a product for ethical reasons, having searched for information on a political topic, having attended or spoken at a public meeting, or having participated in a march or demonstration. Civic engagement, in the context of these results, is defined as having participated, over the last 12 months, in a sports or recreational association, in a cultural or educational group, in a religious group, in a school or community group, or in a service club.

Controlling for other factors, in 2013:

- Respondents aged 15 to 24 were 41% more likely to engage in informal political activities and 97% more likely to be engaged in a civic organization than respondents aged 25 and over;
- Respondents aged 15 to 24 who were students were 90% more likely to participate in an informal political activity or group and 67% more likely to be engaged in a civic organization than non-students;
- Respondents aged 15 to 24 who felt a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada were 50% more likely to be engaged in a civic organization, and 91% more likely if they felt a strong or very strong sense of belonging to their community;
- Respondents who were engaged civically were more likely to participate in informal political activities and vice-versa.

Conclusion

This study investigates the political participation and civic engagement of young Canadians through a mixed framework. A review of the research on youth participation and engagement as well as an analysis of Statistics Canada's General Social Survey highlights the relevance of four themes related to participation and engagement.

This report also demonstrates differences and estimates relationships between civic participation rates and attitudes such as feelings of pride and sense of belonging of younger and older Canadians. It concludes that participation and engagement styles are evolving, and while formal political participation has declined, participation and engagement styles and opportunities are increasingly diversified.

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Foreword

This report is intended to cater to a broad array of readers with varying backgrounds in statistics. Where possible, plain language descriptions are provided to clarify statistical concepts. Technical details are included in the Annexes for those readers more comfortable with statistics and who would like to consider the detailed statistical methods and models used.

The data used to report figures was extracted from three cycles of Statistics Canada’s General Social Survey (GSS). These datasets are: GSS Social Engagement 2003 (cycle 17), GSS Social Networks 2008 (cycle 22) and GSS Social Identity 2013 (cycle 27). The GSS Public Use Microdata File (PUMF) contains data on social trends, living conditions and well-being of Canadians. The datasets used are briefly described below:

Table 1: GSS Sample Size and Non-Response Rate, 2003, 2008, 2013

	<i>Sample size</i>	<i>Response rate</i>
GSS 17 SE (2003)	24,951	78%
GSS 22 SN (2008)	20,401	57.3%
GSS 27 SI (2013)	27,534	48.1%

Source: Statistics Canada, GSS, 2003, 2008, 2013

Statistics Canada employs a sophisticated sampling method that, under normal circumstances, requires the use of weights. The use of oversampling methods in the sample design, for example, can be corrected using the appropriate weighting scheme. Another useful function of weights is its capacity to adjust the data to provide population estimates for Canada. Survey user guidelines for the GSS indicate that “survey weights must be used when producing estimates or performing analyses in order to account as much as possible for the over- and under-representation of geographic areas, age-sex groups and months of the year in the unweighted file”¹. Consequently, the data used to generate all figures were first weighted by the population weights pre-defined by Statistics Canada. However, in the context of regression analyses, weights can impede (principally due to their interferences) the reliability of estimation and variance calculation methods (Statistics Canada, 2015). To address this issue, weights were standardized such that the weight mean equals 1. For details on the weighting of data for regressions, see Annexe II.

To ensure that the data portrayed is reliable, all statistics presented have been subjected to the analysis of variance (ANOVA) t-test to examine the statistical significance of intervals and differences in means.

¹ Statistics Canada (2015), p. 15

“**” mark where between-group differences in mean responses were insignificant at the 5% significance level. “*” mark where difference in mean responses were insignificant at the 1% significance level, but were significant at the 5% significance level. For more details concerning statistical significance testing, please refer to Annex I.

Given the graphical nature of the data represented in this study, all variables used were recoded to create desired categorizations of responses and to sort “Valid skip”, “Don’t know”, “Refusal” and “Not stated” responses as missing values. Major re-categorizations of responses are explained where relevant—when four-point scales are transformed into two-point scales for example.

Lastly, as this study focuses on the youth segment of the population in particular, defined here as 15 to 24 year olds, graphical representations of data show values separately for respondents aged 15 to 24 and for those aged 25 and over. This method does have shortcomings, as it ignores age-related variations within the 25 and over category. However, this limitation is outweighed by considerations of convenience for the reader and in terms of keeping the focus centred on Canadian youth. The following table presents the distribution of key defining variables within the GSS cycles considered in this study. It serves as a high-level summary of the particular characteristics of each GSS sample.

Table 2: In-Sample Distribution Description (GSS 2003, 2008, and 2013)

	GSS 2013	GSS 2008	GSS 2003
	Proportion in sample		
Male	45.8%	43.3%	44.6%
Female	54.2%	56.7%	55.4%
Language ¹			
English Only	51.4%	62.7%	61.0%
French Only	17.3%	19.9%	20.7%
Other language only	27.0%	14.6%	16.7%
English and French Equally	1.4%	0.5%	0.5%
Age			
15-24 (Youth)	13.6%	9.5%	12.7%
25-34	12.4%	13.5%	16.9%
35-44	16.0%	17.5%	21.1%
45-54	17.2%	19.4%	17.6%
55-64	18.8%	18.5%	13.8%
65-74	13.5%	12.1%	9.9%
75+	8.5%	9.6%	8.1%
Student			
Going to school	11.1%	7.4%	9.4%
Not going to school	88.9%	92.6%	90.6%

¹Not intended to sum to 100%

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

Part One: Youth, Participation and Engagement

The participation and engagement of young adults has generated a sustained interest among scholars and researchers over the past decades, most notably in sociology and in political science. It is generally recognized that there are many ways in which Canadian youth engage civically and participate politically. These forms of engagement and participation can include such activities as voting, volunteering, attending community-based events and more recently, through interacting on social media and on the wider Internet.

Analyses, whether theoretical or empirical, should be adapted in such a way as to understand social trends from the perspective of individuals as well as from the perspective of institutions (Gaudet, 2011). In alignment with this principle, the approach adopted by this report is twofold. At the outset, this study examines various aspects of youth, political participation and civic engagement through the prism of sociological and psychological theory, and of technology. What is more, these analyses are complimented with statistical and econometric methods using large-n social surveys from Statistics Canada. In doing so, this reports seeks to apply a mixed framework to investigate difference and similarities in attitudes and styles among younger and older Canadians.

This report is divided into themes, starting with political participation and civic engagement. A later section examines relationships that Canadians cultivate amongst each other, and proposes an approach based on notions of social capital to capture relationships between citizens and Canadian institutions. Elements of citizenship, civic values and identity are then discussed, comparing perceptions and beliefs. Notions of engagement 2.0 (i.e. via the Internet and social media) are subsequently explored. Finally, probabilistic models are used in an attempt to capture the dynamic and complex underpinnings of participation and engagement.

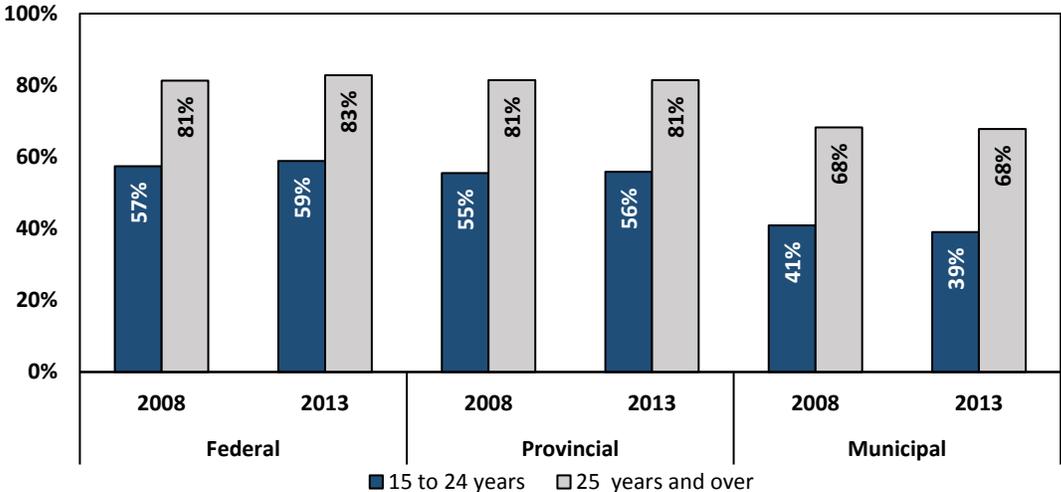
Political Participation

An increasing body of research demonstrates that not only are younger generations less likely to vote than their older cohorts, they are also less likely to vote than previous generations were at their age (Gaudet & Turcotte, 2013; Wood, 2010). In Canada, one study demonstrated that 20 to 24 year olds were the least likely to have voted in the 2011 federal elections and indicated that Canadians 15 to 24 years old were the least likely to report having the intention to vote in the next federal election (Turcotte, 2015). This phenomenon is not isolated to the Canadian context, as similar conclusions have been made in studies in the United States (Johnson, 2014), in the United Kingdom (Mycock & Tonge, 2009, 2011) and in New Zealand (Wood, 2010). Two main theories in sociology suggest reasons for the decline in political

participation of youth: first, an increasingly individualized society, and, next, the perceived loss of social capital (Wood, 2010). There also exists evidence that the political participation of younger generations is not so much decaying, as shifting away from traditional towards new forms of participation (Milan, 2005). These considerations are presented and discussed in following sections.

The traditional conceptualization of political participation primarily considers two activities: voting in elections and volunteering for a political party or candidate. These types of activities, however, are significantly less popular among the youth. Figure 1 reports the proportion of respondents in the GSS who have declared to have voted in the last federal, provincial and municipal elections. Voting rates were calculated by dividing the number of respondents who declared having voted, by the number of possible voters minus those not eligible to vote. While survey data of self-reported voter turnout tend to overstate official election data by 10 to 20% (Elections Canada, 2005), between-group differences captured by the GSS are statistically significant. Respondents aged 15 to 24 years have, on average, reported significantly lower voter turnout rates than respondents aged 25 years or more. Additionally, respondents of both age groups have reported higher voter turnout rates at federal and provincial elections than at municipal elections.

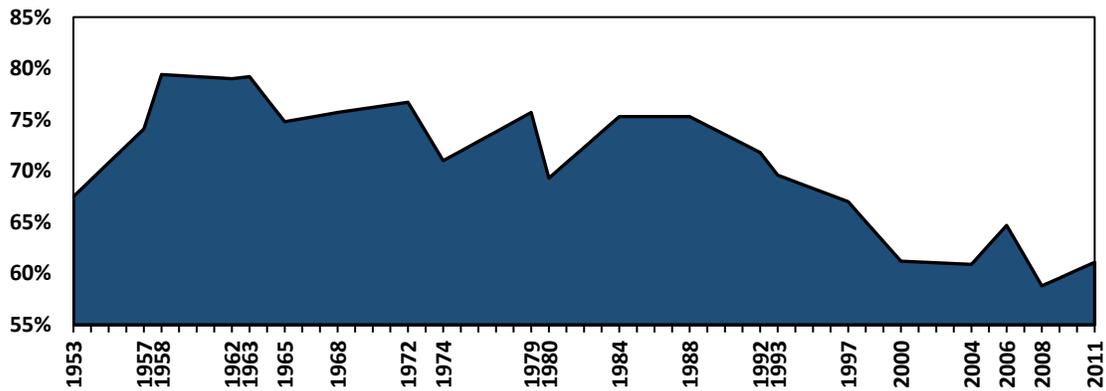
Figure 1: Voting at Elections - Federal, Provincial and Municipal (2008, 2013)



n(2008) = 20,401; *n*(2013) = 27,534
 * 0.01 < *p* < 0.05 ; ** *p* > 0.05
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

Moreover, reported voter turnout in the GSS increased for all age groups and all for federal and provincial elections from 2008 to 2013. This increase in reported voter turnout from 2008 to 2013, however, must be considered within the context of the general decline in voter turnout over the past half century. The figure below presents the evolution of federal election voter turnout in Canada from 1953 to 2011.

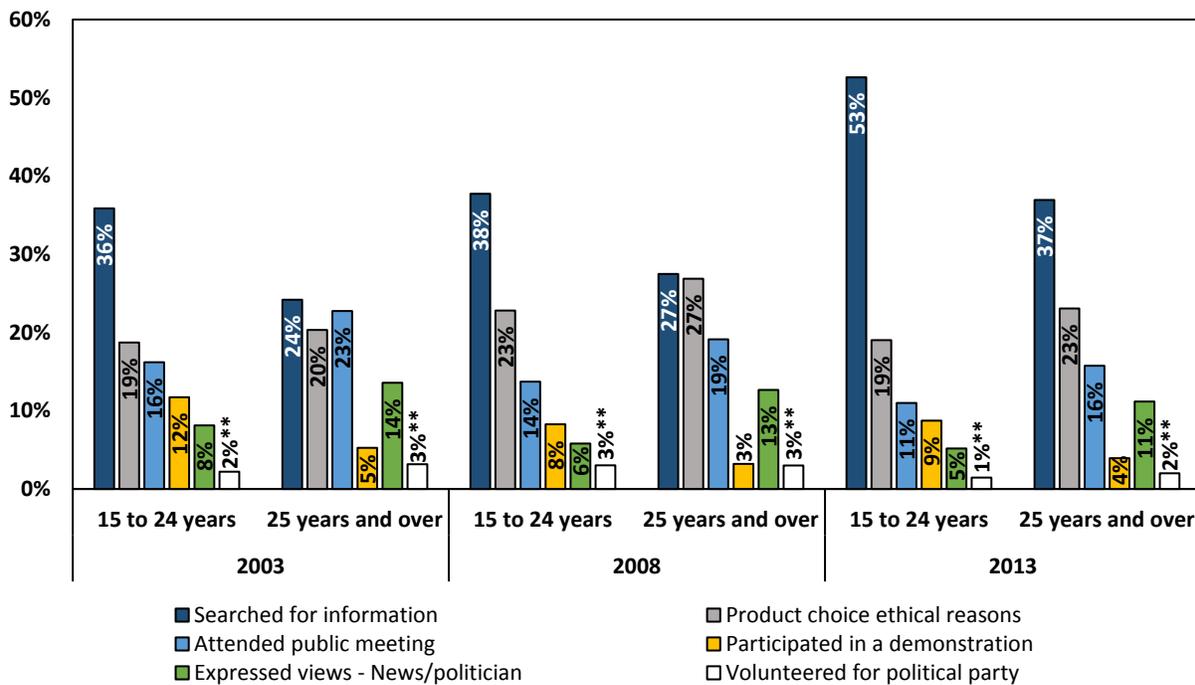
Figure 2: Voter Turnout at Canadian Federal Elections (1953 - 2011)



Source: Elections Canada

Meanwhile, other forms of political participation provide alternative channels of political expression. In 2013, 22% of Canadians above 15 years of age boycotted or chose a product for ethical reasons. Moreover, 14% expressed views on a political or social issue through an Internet forum or news website and 5% participated in a demonstration or march. These figures contrast with the 2% of Canadians older than 15 who volunteered for a political party that year. The following figure presents the reported participation rates of political activities in 2003, 2008 and 2013 for younger and older Canadians.

Figure 3: Political Participation in the Past 12 Months (2003, 2008, 2013)



n(2003) = 24,951; n(2008) = 20,401; n(2013) = 27,534

* 0.01 < p < 0.05 ; ** p > 0.05

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

In 2013, respondents aged 15 to 24 were more likely to have searched for information about a political issue (53%) or to have participated in a demonstration or march (9%) than respondents aged 25 and over (37% and 4%, respectively). However, the informal political participation of young Canadians has generally been decreasing from 2003 to 2013, with the exception of searching for information on a political issue. Over this period, informal political participation has been declining for older respondents as well. Nonetheless, across 2003, 2008 and 2013, respondents 25 years and over have been more likely than those 15 to 24 years old to boycott or chose a product for ethical reasons, to have attended a public meeting, to have expressed their views on an issue by contacting a newspaper or politician, or to have volunteered for a political party.

While informal, these types of political activities permit the communication of a more nuanced political view than voting or volunteering for a party. Through frequent and varied opportunities, Canadians express themselves and are involved politically in diverse ways.

Civic Engagement

Evidence on correlation between political participations and membership in voluntary associations is mounting (Tossutti, 2007). In his article, *Voluntary Associations and the Political Engagement of Young Canadians*, Tossutti explains that:

“Empirical studies conducted in Europe, North America, and Central America have shown that voluntary organizations can serve as recruitment networks for political activities or as incubators for the civic attitudes and skills necessary for political participation.”²

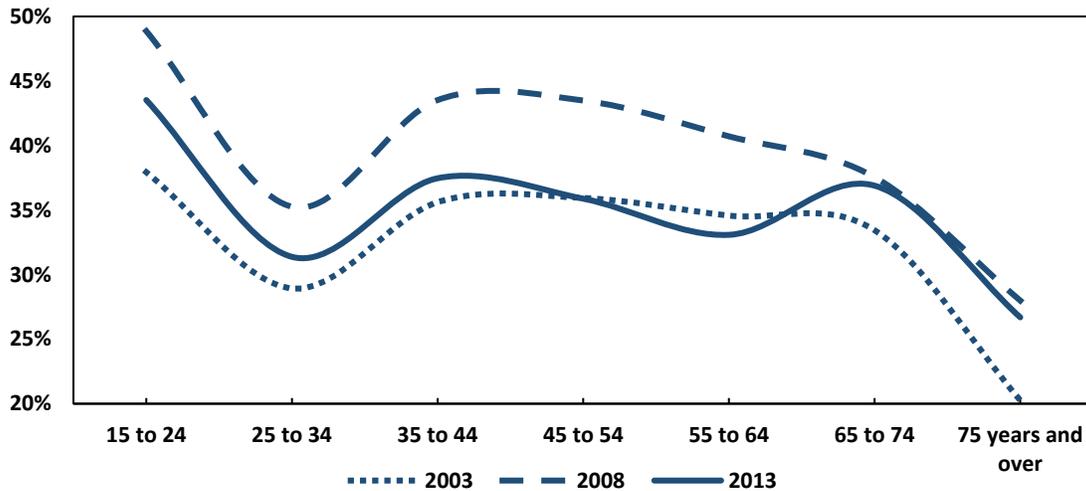
Broadly speaking, civic participation can be grouped into three principle activities: volunteering, donating to charities and organizations, and participating in civic associations (Reed & Selbee, 2001). There are, however, different conceptualizations of civic participation, and within the realm of certain discussions it can be more appropriate to focus on the broader concept of social participation, which applies broader measures of volunteering and caregiving (Gaudet, 2011).

Over the three GSS cycles examined in this study, younger respondents have systematically reported higher rates of volunteering than their older counterparts, which can in part be explained by compulsory volunteering requirements in high schools. Differences in volunteering rates, however, can also be analyzed in terms of age cohorts. For example, the life-cycle approach can provide approximations of sequential life phases without the use of longitudinal data (Gaudet, 2011). In the following figure, the

² Tossutti (2007), p.101

proportion of respondents in the GSS who have declared having volunteered over the last 12 months is presented by age group. Additionally, volunteering rates are plotted to reflect responses from the 2003, 2008 and 2013 cycles of the GSS.

Figure 4: Volunteering in the Last 12 Months by Age Group (2003, 2008, and 2013)



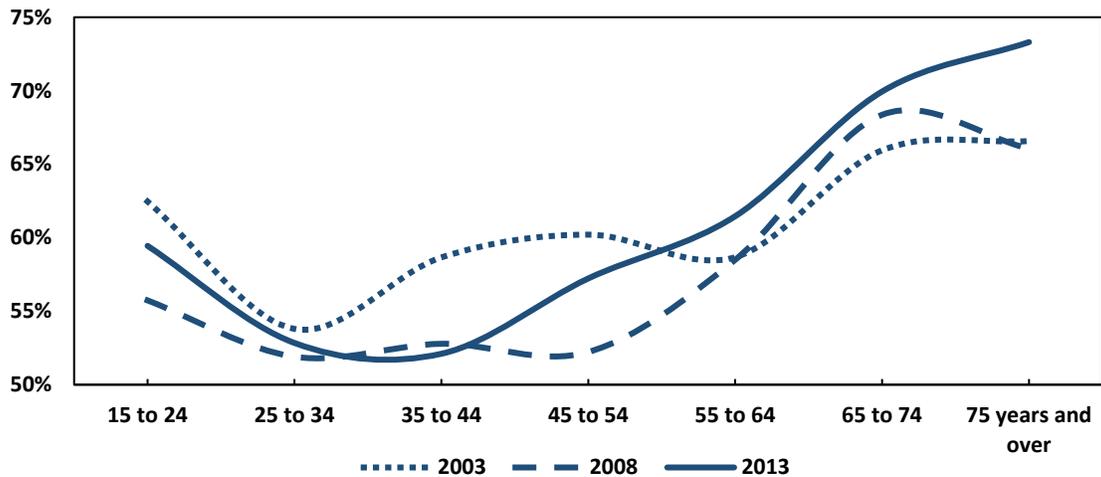
n(2003) = 24,951; n(2008) = 20,401; n(2013) = 27,534
Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

By comparing the plotted responses of these three GSS cycles, cohort and life-cycle effects that persist through time become apparent. Namely, respondents aged 15 to 24 reported the highest rates of volunteering when compared to other age cohorts. Subsequently, volunteering rates drop significantly for respondents aged 25 to 34. The rate of volunteering increases for respondents aged 35 to 44, and then declines moderately with age for respondents aged between 35 and 74. Finally, the rate of volunteering drops to its lowest values for respondents 75 years and over.

Also from the figure above, level effects that reflect changes in volunteering rates over time for all age groups can be observed. From 2003 to 2008, the rate of volunteering increased for all age groups, which can be observed through the upward shift in dotted curves. Rates of volunteering decrease from 2008 to 2013, though more significantly for respondents aged 45 to 65, and less significantly for respondents aged 65 years and over. Furthermore, the general shape of these three curves remain similar across the considered time span, which suggests that age and life-cycle considerations are relevant to volunteering. That is to say that individuals are more likely to volunteer in certain stages of life than in others.

Among individuals who do volunteer, life-cycle characteristics also play an important role in the amount of time allocated to volunteering. Figure 5 presents the proportion of individuals that volunteer on average more than 5 hours per month (having declared to have volunteered over the last 12 months).

Figure 5: Average Monthly Volunteering Above 5 Hours by Age Group (2003, 2008, and 2013)



n(2003) = 8,265; *n*(2008) = 8,397; *n*(2013) = 9,302

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

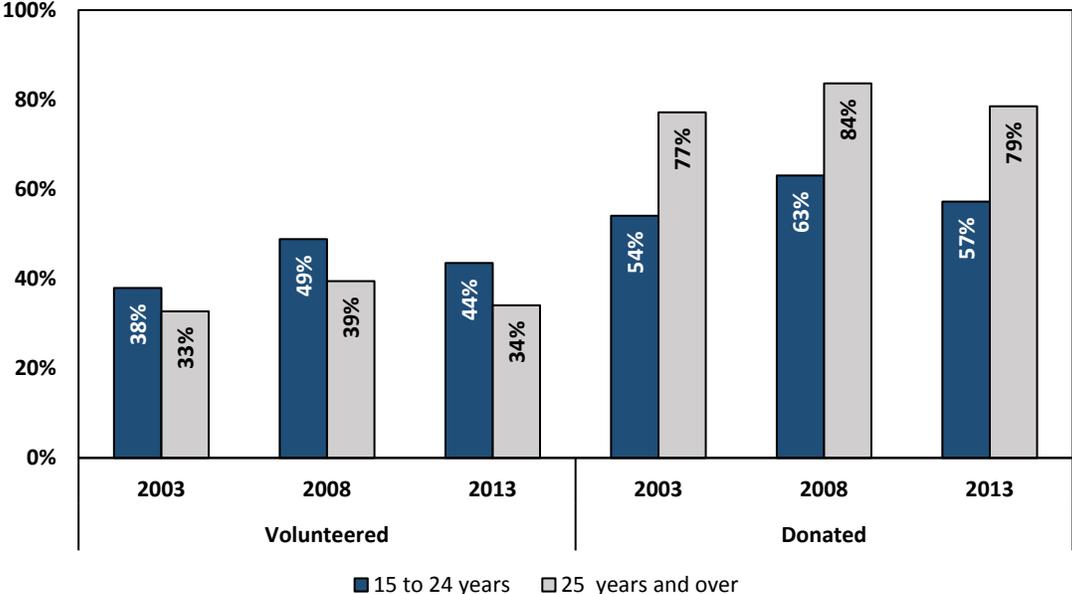
In 2003, 2008 and 2013, respondents aged 65 and over who have declared to have volunteered over the past 12 months were the most likely to report dedicating on average more than 5 hours per month to volunteering. Thus, while respondents aged 15 to 24 were more likely to engage in volunteering activities, respondents aged over 65 who volunteered invested more time in these activities than younger respondents.

Differences in civic engagement attitudes between younger and older respondents become even clearer when comparing volunteering and donating practices. In 2013, 44% of respondents aged 15 to 24 had declared to have volunteered over the last 12 months, compared to 34% for those aged 25 year and over. Inversely, over these three same survey cycles, older respondents systematically reported higher rates of donating to charities and organizations than younger respondents, which suggests the presence of an income effect on donating decisions. In 2013, 79% of respondents aged 25 years and over reported having made a donation in the last 12 months, compared to 57% for those aged 15 to 24. For both age groups, volunteering and donating rates were slightly lower in 2013 than in 2008, following an increase from 2003 to 2008.

More specifically, the rate of participation of both younger and older Canadians decreased by 5 percentage points (pp) from 2008 to 2013, following an increase of 11pp for respondents aged 15 to 24 and of 6pp for respondents aged 25 and older since 2003. Furthermore, in 2013, respondents aged 25 years or more were more likely to donate (79%) than younger respondents (57%). Respondents aged 25 and over reported donating at a rate much higher than younger Canadians for 2008 and 2003 as well. In

2008, 84% of respondents aged over 25 reported having donated to a charity or organization, compared to 77% in 2003. These figures amount to 63% in 2008 and 54% in 2003 for respondents 15 to 24 years of age. While younger Canadians tend to volunteer more, older Canadians donate more to charities and organizations.

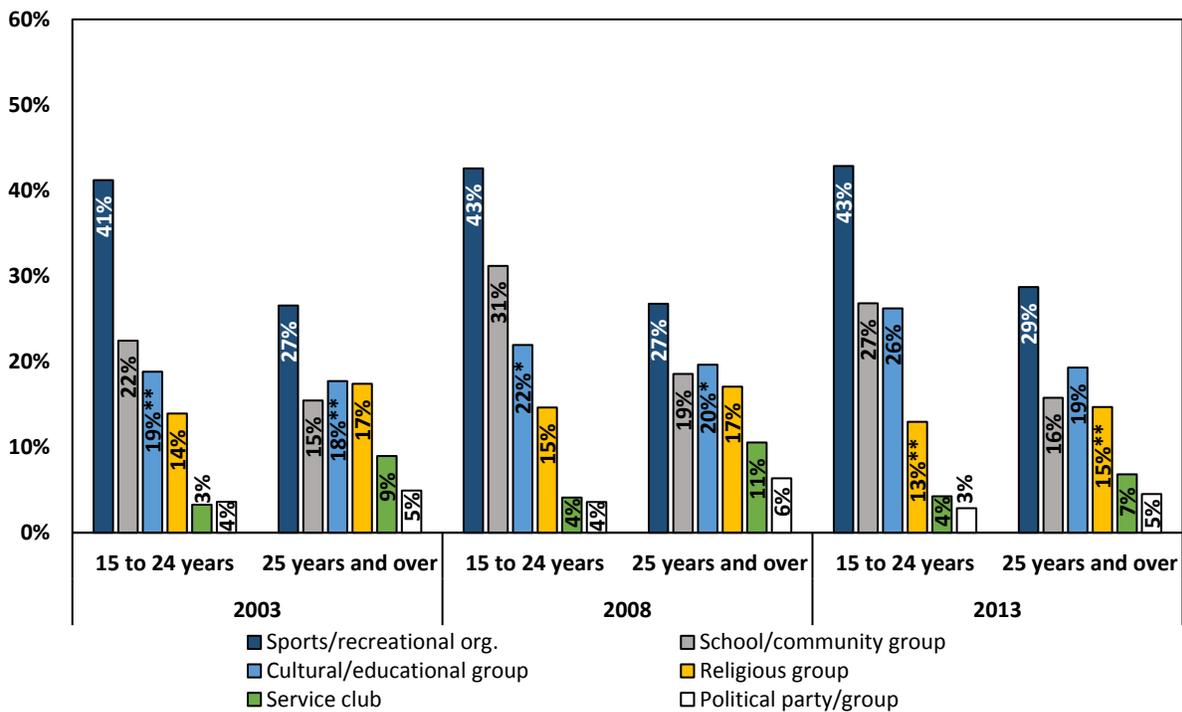
Figure 6: Volunteering and Donating in the Past 12 Months (2003, 2008, and 2013)



n(2003) = 24,951; n(2008) = 20,401; n(2013) = 27,534
 * 0.01 < p < 0.05 ; ** p > 0.05
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

The rate of engagement in civic associations and organizations of younger and older Canadians followed similar increases to those of volunteering and donating from 2003 to 2008. Moreover, civic engagement also declined from 2008 to 2013. Over this period, young Canadians have increased and then decreased their engagement in cultural, educational or hobby organizations (such as a theatre group, a book club or a bridge club). In 2003, 19% of respondents aged 15 to 24 reported having participated in or been a member of such organizations, followed by 22% of them in 2008 and 16% in 2013. The proportion of younger Canadians engaged in a school group, neighbourhood, civic or community association (such as PTA, alumni, block parents or neighbourhood watch) rose sharply from 22% in 2003 to 31% in 2008. From 2008 to 2013, however, this rate decreases to 27%. From 2003 to 2008, the proportion of respondents aged 15 to 24 that have declared having participated in or been a member of a sport or recreational organization (such as a hockey league, health club or gold club) has also increased from 41% to 43%, and has remained at that level from 2008 to 2013.

Figure 4: Civic Engagement in the Past 12 Months (2003, 2008, and 2013)



n(2003) = 24,951; n(2008) = 20,401; n(2013) = 27,534

* 0.01 < p < 0.05 ; ** p > 0.05

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

Changes through time of civic engagement rates have been similar for respondents aged 25 and over. There was a general, yet modest, increase in participation rates from 2003 to 2008 in school groups, neighbourhood, civic and community associations, in cultural, educational and hobby organizations, in service clubs (such as Kiwanis, Knights of Columbus or the Legion), and in political parties and groups for respondents aged 25 years and more. These figures returned to comparable levels as 2003 in 2013.

A suggested cause for the reduction in political and civic engagement of younger and older Canadians is the fragmentation of the collective ways of life (Wood, 2011). The notion that civic and social organizations suffer from the erosion of bonds between people and within communities has been largely popularised by Putnam (2000), and these notions still ring true today. In his book *Bowling Alone*, Putnam distinguishes two types of social capital. Bonding social capital is characterized by the strength of relationships between similar people, and bridging social capital by the ease with which individuals socialize with people who are different from them (Putnam, 2000).

Social Capital and Trust

Many government agencies as well as international institutions such as the World Bank now have definitions and measurements for social capital. In an attempt to define social capital, Bourdieu (1983)

proposes that “Social capital is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.”³ These social structures have been recognized to generate positive outcomes for individuals and society, while also favouring those inside the structures (Coleman, 1994). Regarding social capital, an emphasis should be put on the idea that “relationships matter” and that “social networks are assets.” Through interactions, people commit to one another, they build trust, and develop a sense of belonging to their communities. As this section will discuss, different components of social capital contribute in different ways to building strong and vibrant communities.

Research on social capital follows two main threads: focussing on social networks and access to resources, and; looking at social capital as a strong predictor for civic indicators, as with Putnam. While the first research thrust can have many useful applications, in designing policies that reach out to marginalized populations for example, Putnam’s approach has gained more influence in policy circles (Schneider, 2008). In his book *Bowling along: The collapse and revival of American community*, Putnam (2000) discusses the decline and resurgence of civil life in the United States. He argues that social networks, norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness are closely related to civic virtue, which in turn is most powerful when part of networks of reciprocal social relations (Putnam, 2000).

Moreover, social capital can be divided into three types: bonding, bridging and linking. *Bonding social capital* refers to the links and relationships that develop between members of a network who share similar socio-demographic characteristics. *Bridging social capital* describes levels of trust, mutuality and respect between individuals who are dissimilar. Finally, *linking social capital* defines “norms of respect and networks of trusting relationships between people who are interacting across explicit, formal, or institutionalized power or authority gradients in society.”⁴ *Linking social capital* has been an important research theme for the World Bank and governments across the world. The notion that social networks, associated norms and horizontal associations between people can improve community productivity and well-being suggests its relevance in the development of policy aimed at facilitating coordination and cooperation in communities (The World Bank, 2011). Studies on the measurement of *linking social capital* have been extensively documented.

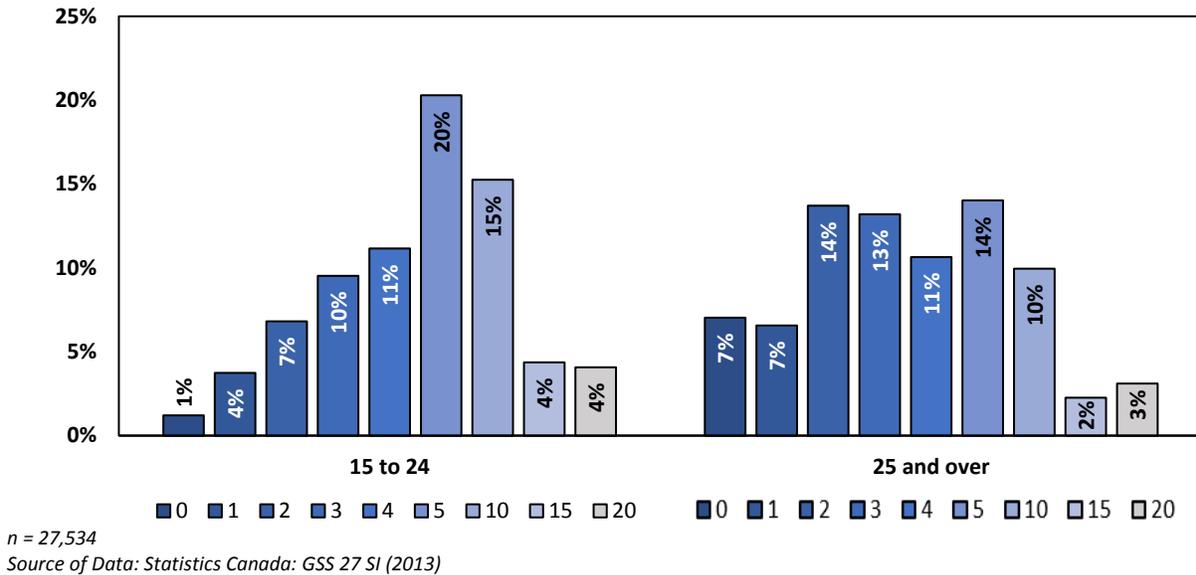
In order to offer a glimpse into the Canadian social capital landscape, figures 8 to 10 present measurements and statistics of social capital in Canada in 2013. These metrics do not attempt to quantify

³ Bourdieu (1983), p.249

⁴ Szreter & Woolcock (2004), p. 655

social capital per se, they rather illustrate how social capital can be relevant in assessing similarities and differences in motives and behaviors of younger and older Canadians. These figures successively render measurements for bonding, bridging and linking social capital.

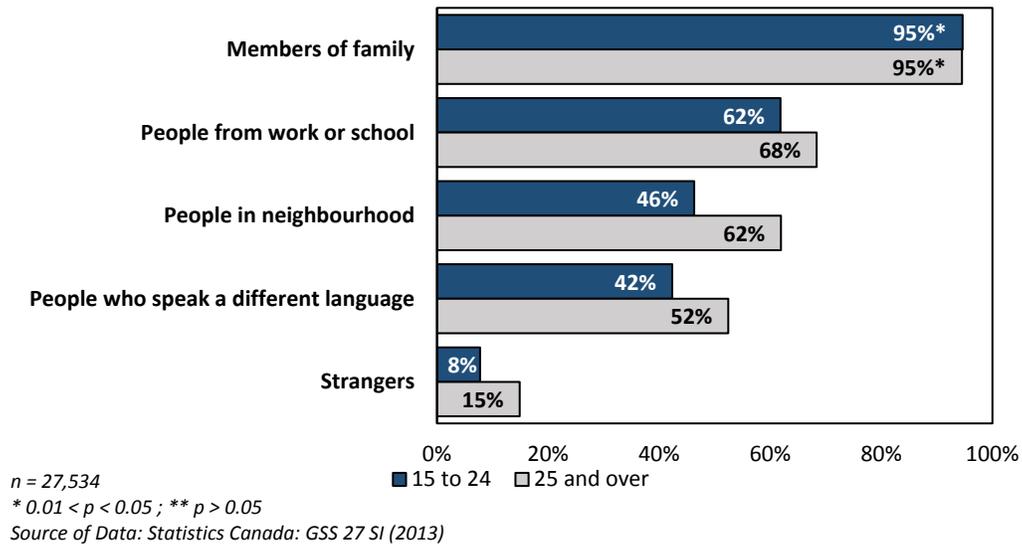
Figure 5: Number of Close Friends (2013)



The figure above reports on the number of close friends of 15 to 24 year olds and of those aged 25 or more, a proxy for *bonding capital*. The horizontal axis is divided into two for both age groups and is ordered from no friends to five friends in units, after which units increase by intervals of five up to 20 friends. A first observation is that respondents aged 25 and over were much less likely to respond having five close friends or more (48%) than 15 to 24 year olds (67%). Secondly, while only 1% of respondent aged 15 to 24 declared having no close friends, this figure stands at 7% for their older counterparts. Thirdly, the distribution of number of close friends appears to be skewed towards lower values for respondents aged 25 and over. In other words, older respondents declared having a lower number of close friends more frequently than if “number of friends” were normally distributed.

The following figure on trust in different groups of people for younger and older Canadians attempts to provide a conceptual benchmark for *bridging social capital*. Respondents in the 2013 GSS were asked how much they trusted each of the following groups of people using a 1 to 5 point scale where 1 means “Cannot be trusted at all” and 5 means “Can be trusted a lot.” Responses were recoded such that categories 4 and 5 (Can be trusted a lot) are jointly reported.

Figure 6: Trust in Similar and Dissimilar People (2013)

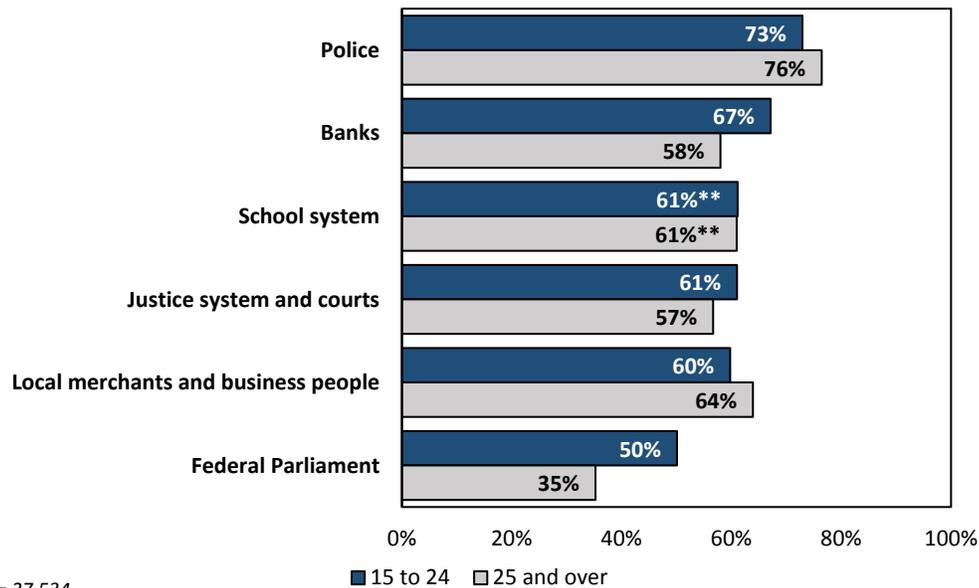


In 2013, 95% of all respondent reported that they trusted member of their families. Meanwhile, only 8% of respondents aged 15 to 24 reported that they trusted strangers, along with 15% of respondents aged 25 and over. Between 42% and 68% of respondents declared trusting people from work or school, people from their neighbourhood or people who speak a different language. The proportion of youth that declared trusting people from one of those three groups was on average 10% inferior to that of respondents aged 25 and over. Overall, respondent aged 15 to 24 were less trusting of others, but experienced trust in others in similar patterns as their older counterparts.

Finally, *linking social capital* characterizes trust between people who are interacting across institutions. The following graph presents how Canadians feel about their institutions. Respondents were asked how much confidence they have in the police, banks, the education system, the justice and courts system, business people as well as in the federal parliament. They were asked to use a 1 to 5 point scale where 1 means “No confidence at all” and 5 means “A great deal of confidence.” Responses were recoded such that categories 4 and 5 (A great deal of confidence) are combined.

As can be seen in the next graph, among all Canadian institutions the police ranked highest in terms of respondents’ confidence levels. 73% of 15 to 24 year olds reported trusting the police, along with 76% of respondents aged 25 and over. Banks, the school system, the justice system and courts, and local merchants and business people all had between 57% and 67% of respondents declare that they trusted them. Furthermore, 50% of the youth reported trusting the federal parliament, compared to only 35% of respondents aged 25 and over.

Figure 7: Confidence in Canadian Institutions (2013)



n = 27,534

* $0.01 < p < 0.05$; ** $p > 0.05$

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

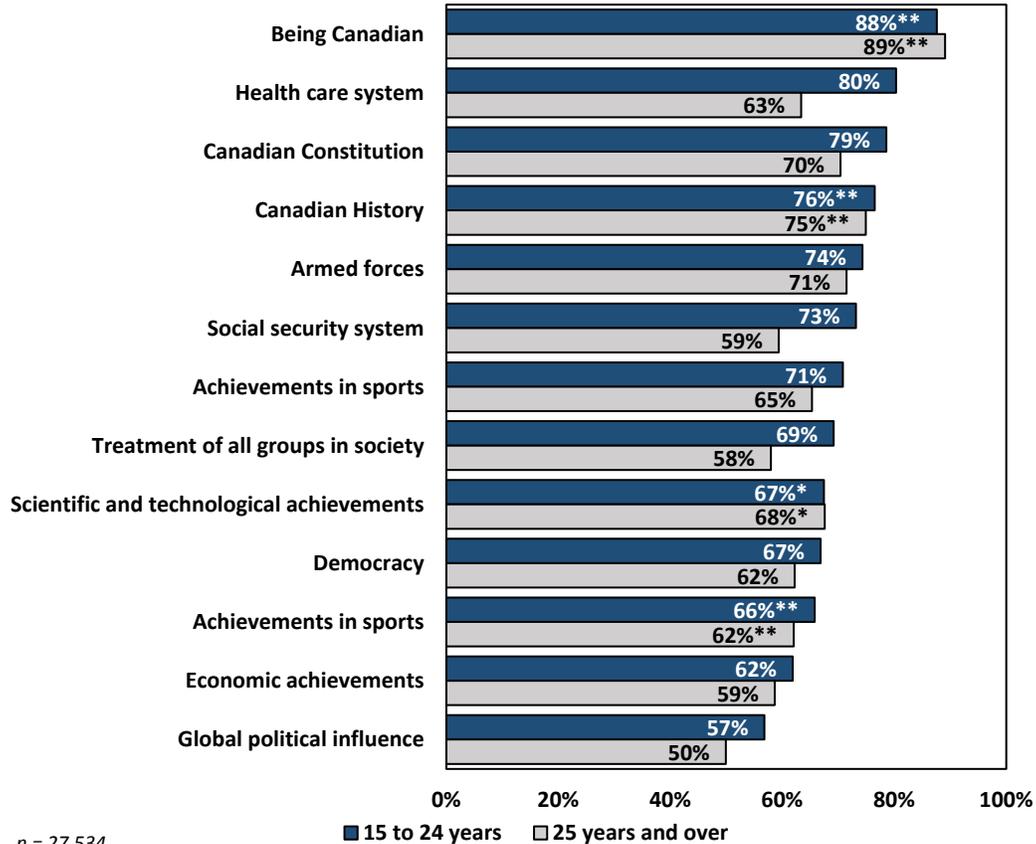
These figures provide an argument in favour of further fostering relationships where there are opportunities for improvements. Moreover, they suggest that social capital is not homogeneous across various segments of the Canadian population.

Citizenship and Shared values

Notions of citizenship are becoming increasingly multidimensional according to Canadian research. Respect and recognition of cultural groups provide a firm basis upon which to “live” citizenship in Canada. In addition to these core elements, fundamental civil values—mutuality and reciprocity—are needed for relationships between citizens to flourish (Hébert & Wilkinson, 2011). In their 2011 article *Meeting the challenges of the new century*, Hébert and Wilkinson have identified what they describe as the two most consensual fundamental citizenship values in the civic domain in Canada: openness and civic-mindedness.

To provide further insights into how Canadians experience their citizenship, the 2013 GSS included a set of questions relating to their pride in Canadian achievements. Respondents were asked about their sense of pride using a 1 to 5 point scale where 1 means “Not very proud” and 5 means “Very proud.” Responses were recoded such that categories 4 (Proud) and 5 (Very Proud) are jointly reported below:

Figure 8: Pride in Canadian Achievements (2013)



n = 27,534

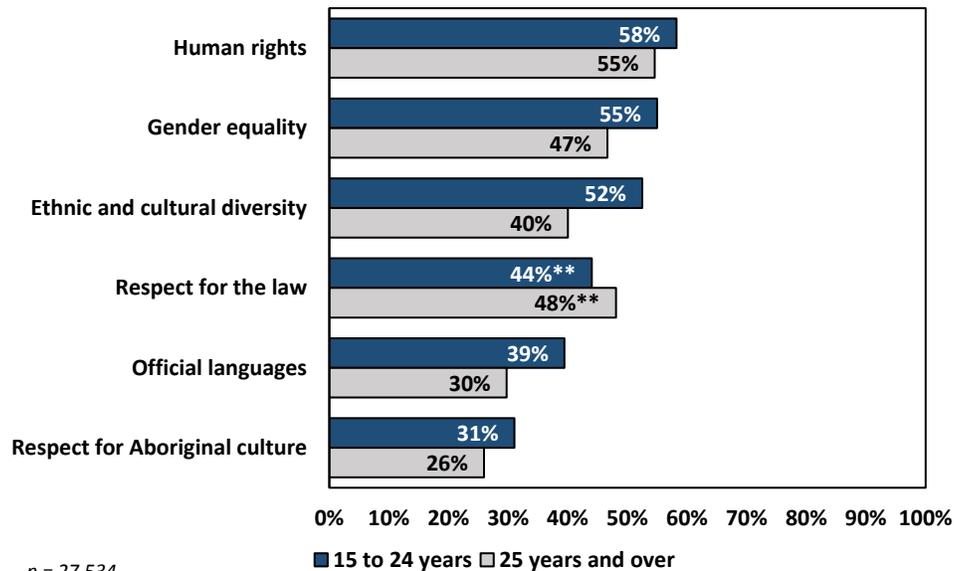
* 0.01 < p < 0.05 ; ** p > 0.05

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

When asked how proud they were to be Canadian, 88% of 15 to 24 years olds along with 89% of respondents aged 25 or more responded that they were very proud or proud to be Canadian. Respondents were then asked how proud they were of the Canadian health care system. 80% of the younger respondents answered that they were proud or very proud of Canada’s health care system, compared to 63% for their older counterparts. When asked about the Canadian constitution, 79% of the youth surveyed reported that they were proud or very proud, while this figure was of 70% for older respondents. The social security system also generated varying responses as 73% of younger respondents reported being proud or very proud, while this proportion stands at 59% for older respondents. The question of inequality also generated a range of responses between these two groups. 69% of respondents aged 15 to 24 reported that they were proud of the treatment of all groups in society. Only 58% of older respondents felt the same way. Finally the five topics which generated the lowest rates of pride were Canada’s global political influence, its economic achievements, its achievements in sports, the way that Canadian democracy works, and Canada’s scientific and technological achievements.

Younger and older Canadians also differ in the ways that they perceive their fellow Canadians. The 2013 GSS asked respondents to describe to what extent they felt that Canadians share certain values. Respondents were asked to do this using a 1 to 4 point scale where 1 means “Not at all” and 4 means “To a great extent.” The following graph reports “To a great extent” responses:

Figure 9: Perceived Canadian Shared Values (2013)



n = 27,534
 * 0.01 < p < 0.05 ; ** p > 0.05
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

The value that was most collectively described as a Canadian shared value was human rights, with 58% “To a great extent” responses for 15 to 24 year olds and 55% for respondents 25 or over. Additionally, younger respondents were more likely to believe that gender equality is a Canadian shared value (55%) than older respondents (47%). Furthermore, the greatest mismatch in perceptions concerned ethnic and cultural diversity. 52% of 15 to 24 year olds responded that ethnic and cultural diversity was to a great extent a Canadian shared value, while this rate is of 40% for respondents aged 25 and over. Finally, the value that was least likely to be described as a Canadian shared value was respect for Aboriginal culture.

Shared values contribute to shaping and maintaining national identity, namely through their promotion in political discourse and by national institutions (Henderson & McEwen, 2005). The shared values presented above, as well as national pride, constitute symbols of unity and reflect the bonds that unite Canadians. In their article *Do Shared Values Underpin National Identity?*, Henderson and McEwen (2005) examine the importance of shared values and of national identity to the process of nation-building in Canada and in the United Kingdom. Their study of political discourses suggests that: “shared values nurtured within political discourse serve three different purposes: the pursuit of ideological or policy

goals; the mobilisation of the population; and the promotion of inter-regional solidarity and identity.”⁵ More broadly, the development of shared meaning and the promotion of shared values contributes to shaping and reinforcing conceptions and preconceptions of what it means to be Canadian.

Identity Building

In the fields of psychology and sociology, an individual’s perception of himself/herself and his/her sense of belonging to a group is defined as identity. Henry Tajfel’s (1979) *Theory of Social Identity* laid down much of the groundwork for what is now considered the most widely accepted formalization of identity. In later work he describes social identity as “those aspects of an individual’s self-image that derive from the social categories to which he perceives himself as belonging.”⁶ A group, according to Tajfel, is defined as an ensemble of individuals who collectively define themselves as belonging to the same social category (Tajfel, 1985). It follows that membership to social categories are generally associated to a set of values.

Moreover, due to these values and their associated norms of reciprocity, individuals who feel that they belong to a group tend to have a bias towards improving conditions for the group as a whole (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). This attitude is defined as *in-group bias*, and refers to the tendency of individuals to behave such that they favour the in-group over the out-group. In an experiment on high school students, Brown, Tajfel and Turner (1985) tested whether this favouring attitude could be consistently observed in groups, regardless of the importance or strength of identity. Based on experimental results, their study concluded that individuals tend to be more inclined to contribute to a group if they feel that they share characteristics with that group, even if these features are of little importance. In other words, within-group pro-social behaviors persist when beliefs on belonging are based on minimalistic features (Brown, Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Thus, identities need not necessarily be of great strength to generate among those who share them a willingness to contribute to the group.

While an individual’s sense of belonging can change through time, he or she may also adopt new identities. Individuals can foster many unrelated or even conflicting identities and they can do this without needing to consciously confront them to one another (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Further developing on Tajfel’s theory, Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that: “Identification is the perception of oneness with or belongingness to a group, involving direct or vicarious experience of its successes and failures.”⁷

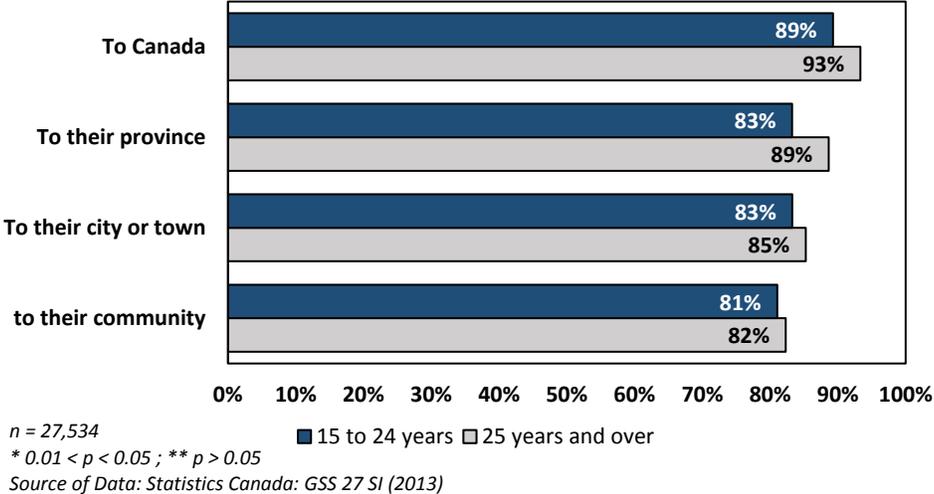
⁵ Henderson & McEwen (2005), p. 174

⁶ Tajfel & Turner (1985), p.16

⁷ Ashforth & Mael (1989), p.34

The 2013 GSS asked respondents how they would describe their sense of belonging to Canada, to their province, to their city and to their local community. Respondents were asked to answer using a 4 point scale where 1 means very weak, 2 means somewhat weak, 3 means somewhat strong and 4 means very strong. Responses were recoded consistently with principles of minimal group differentiation, such that categories 3 (Somewhat strong) and 4 (Very strong) are jointly reported.

Figure 10: Sense of Belonging (2013)



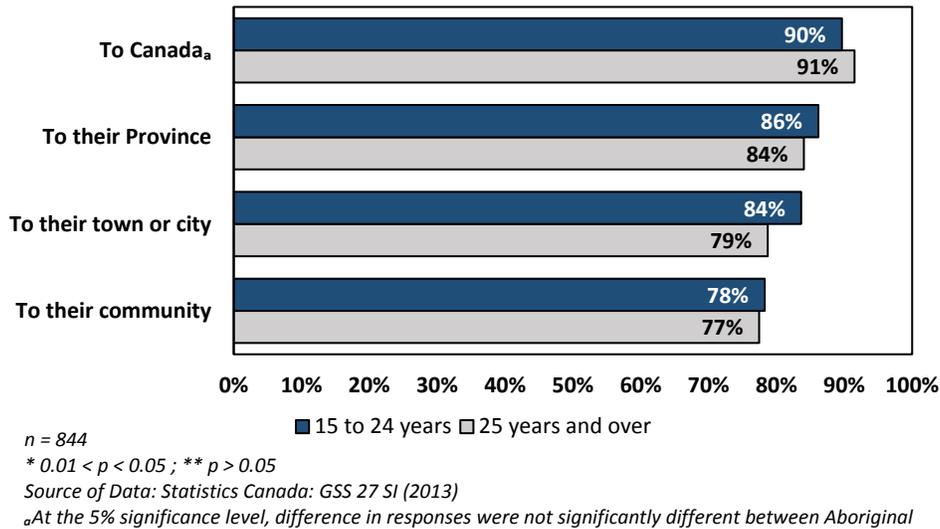
According to the figure above, respondents felt most strongly that they belonged to Canada, followed by to their province, to their city or town, and finally to their local community. 93% of older respondents declared that they felt a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada, along with 89% of the younger Canadians. These proportions, concerning sense of belonging to province, were 89% for those aged 25 and over, and 83% for respondents aged 15 to 24. Sense of belonging to community was the least likely to be found among respondents, and it also has the smallest difference in responses across age groups. 81% of respondents aged 15 to 24 reported having a strong or very strong sense of belonging to their community, while 82% of respondents aged 25 years and over felt the same way.

The 2013 GSS asked respondents whether they were Aboriginal persons, meaning First Nations, Métis, or Inuit, including with or without Status⁸. Identifying with Canada ranked first among Aboriginal respondents, with 90% of young respondents reporting a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada, along with 91% of respondents aged 25 or more. Additionally, the rates of responses of Aboriginal respondents to sense of belonging to Canada were not significantly different from those of non-Aboriginal respondents, at the conventional 5% significance level. That is to say that Aboriginal respondents were as

⁸ Statistics Canada’s General Social Survey does not include respondents from the Canadian territories

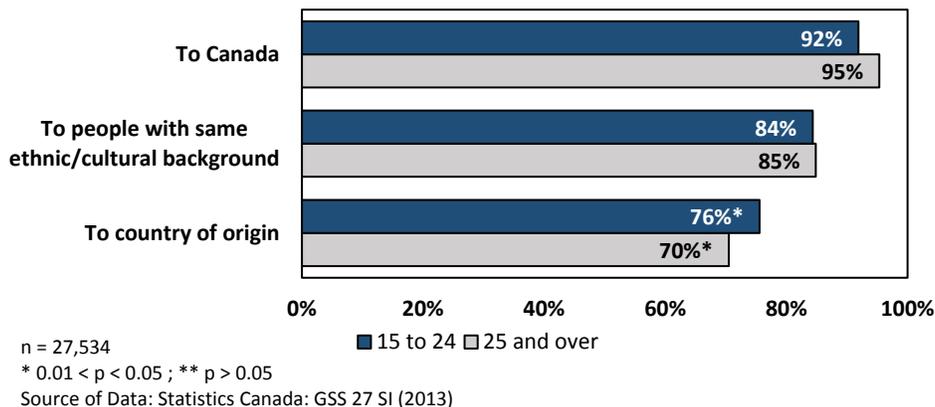
likely as non-Aboriginal respondents to have responded that they felt a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada. The following figure presents the responses from Aboriginal respondents to sense of belonging questions.

Figure 11: Sense of Belonging of Aboriginal Respondents (2013)



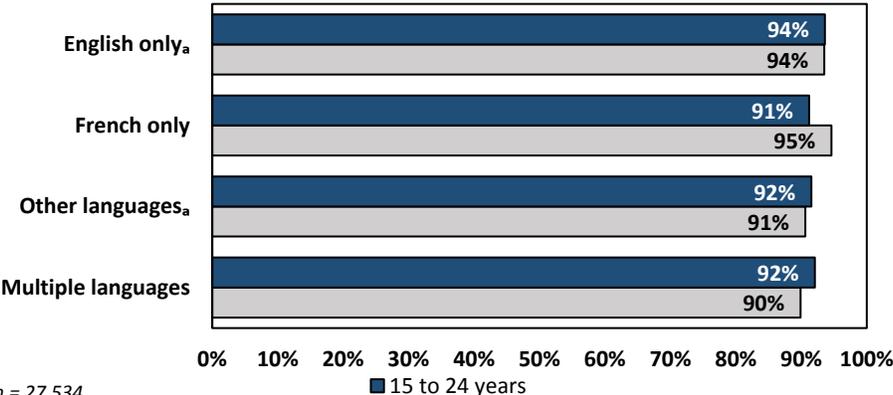
Given that the GSS’s target population includes all non-institutionalized persons above the age of 15 who live in the ten provinces of Canada, the sample includes both Canadians born inside and outside Canada. The proportion of respondents who were born outside of Canada was 23% in the 2013 GSS. Among these respondents, Canada ranked ahead of their country of origin when asked about sense of belonging. 92% of young immigrants reported a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada, along with 95% of immigrants aged 25 years and older. Approximately 84.5% of immigrants in general responded that they felt a strong or very strong sense of belonging to people with the same ethnic or cultural background as their own.

Figure 12: Sense of Belonging of Respondents Born Outside Canada (2013)



The 2013 GSS also asked respondents to what extent they felt like they belonged to people who share the same first language. In the figure below, responses are reported according to the respondent’s household language, as first language was not included as a variable in the 2013 GSS dataset. There is, however, little variation in responses between respondents whose household language is different or that belong to different age groups. This low variance as well as the high proportion of respondents that describe their sense of belonging to those who share the same language suggest that language in itself constitutes a strong identity.

Figure 13: Sense of Belonging to People Who Share the Same Language by Household Language (2013)



n = 27,534
 * 0.01 < *p* < 0.05 ; ** *p* > 0.05;
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)
^aAt the 5% significance level, difference in responses were not significantly different between households speaking English or speaking other languages than English or French

Sense of belonging is important in the analysis of participation and engagement because identity generates an in-group bias, the tendency that people have to favour in-groups over out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). This is analogous to the fact that individuals tend to feel that they must favour or contribute to groups to which they feel they belong. Sense of belonging extends its relevance to organizations as it is argued that when institutions embody an identity, individuals who share this identity will tend to support and commit to them more (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

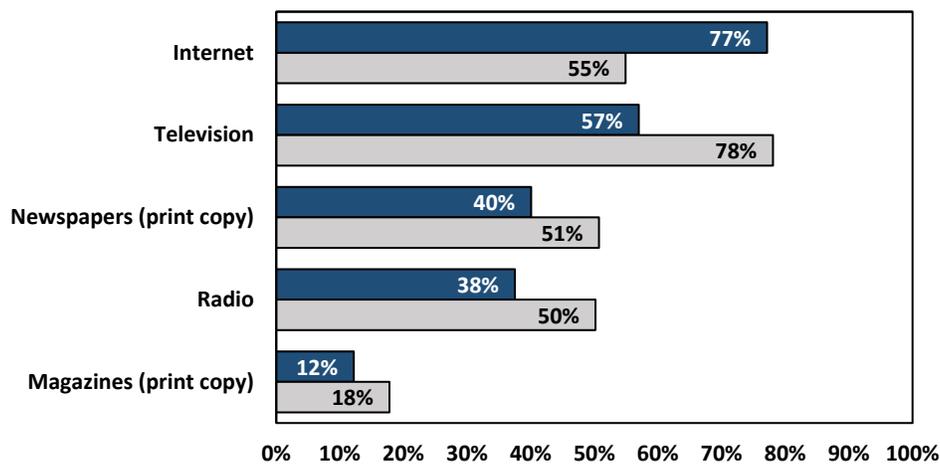
Engagement 2.0

With the advent of social media and more generally of the Internet, younger generations are increasingly expressing themselves through a new channel: peer content sharing. While previous generations have been described as having been disengaged due to the passive nature of television (Putnam, 2000), it remains unclear whether new forms of online civic action can act the other way around (Bennett, Freelon & Wells, 2011). It does seem, nevertheless, that a generational paradigm shift is underway. The adoption

by young Canadians of the Internet as a means to become informed and to connect with others is much more pronounced than for older Canadians.

The 2013 GSS asked respondents whether they used various media to follow news and current affairs. Respondents aged 15 to 24 were more likely to have used the Internet (77%) than the television (57%), printed newspapers (40%), the radio (38%) or magazines (12%). Respondents aged 25 years and over, however, were more likely to have followed the news and current affairs using the television (78%) than using the Internet (55%), printed newspapers (51%), the radio (50%) or magazines (18%).

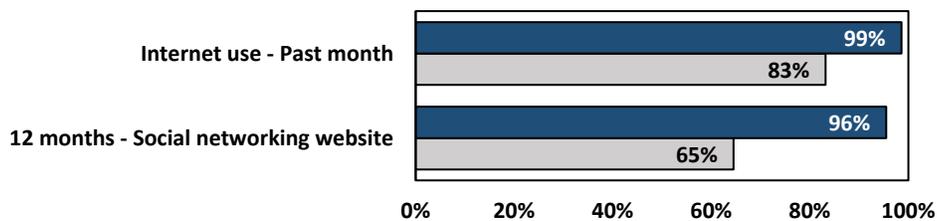
Figure 14: Use of Media to Follow News and Current Affairs (2013)



n = 27,534
 * 0.01 < *p* < 0.05 ; ** *p* > 0.05
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Respondents were then asked whether they had used the Internet in the past month. 99% of young respondents reported having done so, compared to 83% for respondents aged 25 and over. Additionally, respondents aged from 15 to 24 were much more likely to declare having used a social networking website in the past 12 months (99%) than respondents aged 25 and over (65%).

Figure 15: Internet Use (2013)



n = 27,534
 * 0.01 < *p* < 0.05 ; ** *p* > 0.05
 Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

An increasing body of research reveals that social media networks greatly impact the political views and behaviors of individuals. In their article, *Social Context and Information Seeking*, Levitan and Wronski (2013) demonstrate that an individual's information-seeking preferences can be predicted based on that person's social network connections. Through their experiments, they have concluded that individuals who possess social networks that are heterogeneous in attitudes are more likely to search for political information and spend more time reviewing the information compared to individuals whose social networks are composed with more like-minded people (Levitan & Wronski, 2013).

Internet platforms have also been argued to affect political and civic attitudes. An experiment conducted on Italian high school students aged from 14 to 17 years revealed that Facebook may be contributing to their civic skills (Lenzi et al., 2015). The results showed that using Facebook for informational purposes was associated with a perceived higher competence for civic action in adolescents. According to the study, the more adolescents use Facebook to become informed about local and global events, "the more they feel competent in performing different civic actions, such as organizing a public meeting or discussing a problem with other community members."⁹ The study's experimental results suggest that increased perceived competence originates both directly from the information-seeking activity itself and from offline discussions on those topics. Moreover, increased perceived civic-competence ultimately favoured the adolescents' intention for future participations (Lenzi et al., 2015).

Websites and Internet platforms have also been found to often emulate the citizenship styles they propose in their communications and interactions with users. Due to shifts in social and in economic circumstances as well as with the diminished presence of *identity-anchoring* institutions (i.e. churches and labour unions), identity formation for adolescents, and more broadly for the general population, has evolved to become increasingly complex and flexible (Wells, 2010). By distributing citizenship websites along an axis characterized by whether engagement styles are more *Dutiful* or *Actualizing*, Wells (2010) studies the resulting interaction and communication styles. Preferences concerning civic life, he argues, have drifted from conventional political action (*Dutiful* citizenship) towards self-expression, consumption and complex identity formation (self-*Actualizing* citizenship). His study finds that "more *Dutiful* models of citizenship tend to offer more *Managed* styles of interaction and that *Actualizing* models tend to co-occur with *Autonomous* interaction styles."¹⁰ He concludes that websites promoting *Dutiful* citizenship systematically *Manage* the user's possibilities to communicate, which likely results in turning them away.

⁹ Lenzi et al. (2015), p. 450

¹⁰ Wells (2010), p. 431

The OECD has worked extensively on re-thinking relationships between the nation, institutions, and citizens (OECD, 2009). New Zealand's State Services Commission has worked to leverage new technologies through the participative web. They suggest governments can adapt their tools to operationalize consultation and creative-active participation to a new paradigm. Participation 2.0 Tools for governments can include podcasts, webcasts, online polls and surveys, E-petitions, online working spaces, and virtual worlds (State Services Commission of New Zealand, 2007).

The pool of available avenues towards participation and engagement is increasingly diversified, which does lead to an important question. If the ways to participate and to be engaged can be so varied, how can we be clear on how participation and engagement are defined? Proponents of such a reflection have gone so far as to say that "engagement is not objectively definable, and thus cannot be measurable."¹¹

¹¹ Freely translated from French – Ion (2012), p.19

Part Two: Measuring the Determinants of Participation and Engagement

There exists a wide variety of methods and approaches to capture interactions between deciding to participate, sustaining engagement, socio-economics, institutional settings, identity and demographic characteristics. *Life-course approach*, for example focuses on the principles of social participation. Gaudet (2011) suggests measuring and analyzing participation by measuring the rates of volunteering and of mutual help through time. Doing so helps understand how and why social participation evolves. Similarly, this present study seeks to measure informal political participation and civic engagement by measuring both its incidence and associated individual characteristics.

An Econometric Approach – Determinants and Their Relationships

A first step towards making our measurements and estimations is to define what we want to measure. This study will explore, among other aspects, the following questions:

- Does being a student change the likelihood to participate in informal political activities or to become a member of or participant in a civic organisation or association?
- Is participating in informal political activities associated with engaging in civic activities? And vice-versa?
- Is identity relevant to engagement and participation?

The approach used to answer these questions looks at how different age groups, demographic characteristics, identities and behaviors shape the likelihood to participate politically and to engage civically. More specifically, the use of logistic regressions measures the difference in likelihood of an outcome given a set of characteristics. This method calculates the marginal probabilities of a realized outcome for all independent variables in the model, individually. It is then possible to compare how different determinants affect likely outcomes and whether certain characteristics yield larger differences.

Methodology

This study measures interactions between key variables using *logistic regressions*, a method broadly used in social psychology. This method estimates the likelihood of an event happening under different conditions. In the data, events take on the value of 1 if they occur, and of 0 if they do not occur. An example of an event is that a respondent is a student. A *student* variable, in this case, will be equal to 0 if the respondent is not a student, and equal to 1 if he is. In this study, *Informal Political Participation* and *Civic Engagement* are the dependent variables, the events for which conditional likelihoods are estimated.

Separate regression models were developed to estimate changes in the likelihood of each dependent variable. Various respondent characteristics are included in these models such that different factors can be tested for statistically significant associations to variations in the likelihood of the dependent variable's outcome. In other words, characteristics such as income, sense of belonging, level of trust and marital status are tested to see whether they help predict informal political participation or civic engagement.

Estimates take the form of coefficients, which are subsequently transformed into *odds ratios*. Odds ratios are calculated for every characteristic included in the model. Odds ratios have a value of 1 if changes in a characteristic are associated to no change in the likelihood of the dependent variable. This value is greater than 1 if a unit increase in a characteristic (from 0 to 1 for example) is associated to an increase in the likelihood of the dependent variable. Inversely, if the odds ratio has a value inferior to 1, a unit increase in a characteristic decreases the likelihood the dependent variable.¹²

Using the GSS 2013, an informal political participation variable and a civic engagement variable have been developed. Informal political participation is defined as, over the last 12 months, having boycotted or chosen a product for ethical reasons, having searched for information on a political topic, having attended or spoken at a public meeting, or having participated in a march or demonstration. Civic participation, in turn, is defined as having participated, over the last 12 months, in a sports or recreational association, in a cultural or educational group, in a religious group, in a school or community group, or in a service club. Respondents who have engaged in any of those activities are considered to have been civically engaged.

In addition to these two dependent variables, 24 *dummy variables* (1 if yes, 0 if no) have been created to test the statistical significance and the strength of the associations between changes in the likelihood that an individual participates in political or civic activities and his/her demographic characteristics, main occupation, identities, and other indicators. In addition to these *dummy variables*, three other variables were developed to capture and control for the effects of household income, number of friends, and education. For weighting scheme details and a full list of variables used in the regression modeling, please refer to Annexe II.

To compare the predictive power of characteristics between younger and older respondents, odds ratios were estimated for the youth, non-youth and complete segments of the sample. Therefore, the relevance of characteristics can be compared between respondents aged 14 to 24 and those aged 25 or more. More

¹² More formally, logistic regressions measure coefficients for independent variables based on the logit of their incidence on the realization of the dependent variable's dichotomous outcome. For more details on model specification and estimation methods, please see ANNEXE II.

specifically, the magnitude of odds ratios can be compared between the two groups, along with odds ratio rankings by order of scale. Odds ratios were also estimated for the entire sample to set a benchmark for comparison.

Lastly, variables that were not statistically significant¹³ in predicting a dependent variable's outcome were removed from the model prior to final estimations. This process is a conventional step in model fitting and generates results that are more reliable for the statistically significant variables. For further model specification and estimation method details, please refer to Annexe III.

Results

The following regression results tables present estimates for the youth, non-youth, and complete segments of the GSS 2013 sample. The first column in these tables lists the characteristics for which statistically significant associations were estimated for at least one of the sample segments. The second and third columns report the ranking by odds ratio, the magnitude of characteristics and odds ratio estimates, respectively. The fourth and fifth columns report these same metrics for the sample segment of respondents aged 25 and over. The sixth and seventh columns report these figures for the complete sample. The upper row of these tables indicate which variable is set as the dependent variable.

Estimated odds ratios that are statistically significant within a 99% confidence interval ($p < 0.01$) are marked with “***” alongside the reported metric. Estimates that are statistically significant within a 95% confidence interval ($p < 0.05$) are marked with “**”. When the statistical significance of an estimate lie within the 90% confidences interval ($p < 0.1$), reported values are marked by “*”. The table below presents the results of the multivariate logistic regression model for informal political participation:

¹³ Within a 90% confidence interval ($p < 0.1$)

Table 3: Odds Ratios, Statistical Significance and rank of Informal Political Participation Determinants

Dependent variable: participated in informal political activity or group						
Variables in model	15 to 34		35 and over		Whole sample	
	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party	1	4.980**	1	6.192***	1	6.651***
Student	3	1.898***	2	3.054***	2	2.542***
Civic Eng.	2	2.492***	3	1.927***	3	1.913***
Educ			4	1.734***	5	1.669***
Vote Federal	4	1.895***	5	1.697***	4	1.734***
Trust Genera			6	1.411***	7	1.399***
Conf. Merchants			7	1.174***	9	1.114**
Vote Municipal	5	1.437*	8	1.113*	8	1.123**
Importance Religion			9	1.089*		
Household Income			10	1.075***	10	1.070***
Born Outside Can			11	0.890**		
Conf. Police			12	0.888**		
Conf. Parliament	7	0.692**	13	0.793***	12	0.755***
MarStat			14	0.737***	13	0.736***
Female			15	0.718***	14	0.735***
Conf. Banks	8	0.620***	16	0.633***	15	0.628***
Youth					6	1.411***
Friends	6	1.028**			11	1.005**
Rural	9	0.487***				
cons.		0.644**		0.071***		0.078***
n (obs.)		2,330		17,580		19,373
Pseudo - R ²		0.1122		0.1386		0.136

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.
Rank according to odds ratio
***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)
**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)
*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Overall, in 2013, the likelihood that a respondent had participated in an informal political activity was:

- 2.542 times higher for students than for non-students;
- 1.913 times higher for members and participants of a civic or community organization than for non-members;
- Unchanged by sense of belonging to Canada or to the community¹⁴;
- 1.669 times higher for each level of educational attainment (4-point scale).

¹⁴ Within a 90% confidence interval

The following table presents the results from the multivariate logistic regression model for civic engagement. Layouts and annotations here are consistent with those of the previous table.

Table 4: Odds Ratios, Statistical Significance and rank of Civic Engagement Determinants

Dependent variable: Engaged in civic organization						
Variables in model	15 to 24		25 and over		Whole sample	
	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party			1	4.951***	1	4.660***
Political Part.	2	1.791***	2	1.889***	3	1.910***
Importance Religion	3	1.782***	3	1.598***	4	1.622***
Trust General	4	1.673***	4	1.429***	5	1.463***
Educ.			5	1.302***	8	1.246***
Mar. Stat.			6	1.290***	7	1.261***
Vote Municipal			7	1.276***	9	1.231***
S.B. to Community	1	1.911***	8	1.269***	6	1.335***
Conf Merchants			9	1.244***	10	1.231***
Rural			10	1.184***	11	1.222***
Household Income	7	1.075***	11	1.049***	12	1.061***
Friends	8	1.048***	12	1.040***	13	1.041***
Born Out. Can			13	0.907*		
Conf. Parliament			14	0.822***	14	0.842***
Youth					2	1.965***
Student	5	1.665***				
S.B. to Canada	6	1.502**				
Cons.		0.085***		0.067***		0.064***
n (obs.)		2,471		16,825		18,589
Pseudo - R ²		0.0986		0.102		0.1002

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.

Rank according to odds ratio

***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)

**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)

*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Overall, in 2013, the likelihood that a respondent had been a member or participant in a civic or community organization was:

- Unchanged whether respondents were students or for non-students;
- 1.910 times higher for respondents that participated in an informal political activity than for those who had not;
- 1.335 time higher for respondents who felt a strong sense of belonging to their community and remained unchanged by sense of belonging to Canada;
- 1.246 times higher for each level of educational attainment (4-point scale).

Determinants of Participation

Informal political participation is defined as having, over the last 12 months, boycotted or chosen a product for ethical reasons, having searched for information on a political topic, having attended or spoken at a public meeting, or having participated in a march or demonstration. Within this definition, 48% of respondents participated in an informal political activity in 2013. Volunteering for a party or candidate, being a student, being engaged in a civic organization and higher levels of education were the characteristics most strongly associated with an increased likelihood of participating in an informal political activity. For younger respondents, having confidence in local merchants and businessmen, total household income, being married or being born outside of Canada were not statistically significant in predicting changes in the likelihood of participating in an informal political activity. These characteristics, however, were statistically significant for the sample segment of respondents older than 25, as well as for the sample taken as a whole. More specifically, within a 95% confidence interval, in 2013:

- Respondents aged 15 to 24 who volunteered for a party or candidate were 5.0 times more likely to also engage in informal political activities, while respondents aged 25 or more who volunteered for a party or candidate were 6.2 times more likely to engage in informal political activities;
- Students were 3.1 times more likely than non-students to participate in informal political activities if they were older than 25, and 1.9 times if they were younger than 25;
- Being born outside of Canada was associated with a 11% decrease in the likelihood for respondents aged 25 and over to participate in an informal political activity, this relationship however, was not statistically significant for respondents aged 15 to 24;
- For respondents aged 25 and over, every increase in total household income of \$10,000 was associated with a 7.5% increase in the likelihood to participate in informal political activities. The association between household income and participation was not statistically significant for younger Canadians;
- The likelihood of participating in informal political activities decreased by 28% for women aged 25 or over, but remained unchanged for younger women when compared to men of the same age groups;
- Controlling for other factors, younger respondents were 41% more likely to engage in informal political activities than older respondents;
- Having strong confidence in the Federal Parliament made individuals approximately 24% less likely to engage in informal political activities;

Determinants of Engagement

Civic participation is defined as having participated, over the last 12 months, in a sports or recreational association, in a cultural or educational group, in a religious group, in a school or community group, or in a service club. Within this definition, 55% of respondents were civically engaged in 2013. Over the whole sample, volunteering for a political party or candidate, participating in a political activity over the last 12 months, being 15 to 24 years of age and believing that religion is important were the characteristics most strongly associated with an increased likelihood of civic engagement. For respondents 15 to 24 years old, sense of belonging to community, having participated in a political activity over the last 12 months, believing that religion is important, the level of general trust, and being a student were the most strongly associated elements to civic engagement. For respondents aged 25 years and over, being a student was not a significant factor for being civically engaged, but the four other factors mentioned above were. More specifically, within a 95% confidence interval, in 2013:

- Respondents aged 15 to 24 whose main occupation was being a student were 67% more likely to engage in a civic organization;
- The increased likelihood of engaging in a civic activity due to also experiencing high levels of general trust in people was greater for younger Canadians (67%) than for older Canadians (43%);
- Having a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada was not significantly associated to a change in the likelihood of engaging in a civic activity for respondents aged 15 to 24, but was by 24% for respondents aged 25 and over;
- Having a strong or very strong sense of belonging to community was associated with a 91% increase in the likelihood of engaging in a civic activity for respondents 15 to 24 year old, and a 27% increase in likelihood for respondents aged 25 and over;
- Controlling for other factors, respondents aged 15 to 24 years old were 97% more likely to engage in a civic activity than respondents aged 25 and over;
- Other significant increases in the likelihood to engage civically were associated with higher total household income, and having more friends;
- Having strong confidence in the Federal Parliament and being born outside of Canada were associated with being less likely to engage in civic activities for older respondents.

Of course, the study is limited by the cross-sectional nature of the survey: the design does not allow one to test experimentally if inducing A will cause B; it only reports correlations and odds ratio of B under A and non-A. Thus, estimated odd ratios offer insight into the correlation between variables in terms of

conditional likelihood. Consequently, results should not be interpreted as suggesting causal relationships. Causal relationships may be estimated using an instrumental variable framework, or with pooled panel data, though such methods would go beyond the scope of this report.

Analysis

The results obtained in this study have provided leads towards answers to the questions opening this section. Firstly, being a student was the strongest “demographic” determinant both of participating in informal political activities and of being a member or participant in a civic association. Furthermore, education, more generally, was the fourth most powerful determinant in predicting the likelihood of informal political activity.

Statistical results also suggest that civic engagement was amongst the strongest determinants of informal political activity. Inversely, informal political activity was also amongst the strongest determinants to civic engagement, second only to volunteering for a party or candidate (which approximately 2% of Canadians do). This association between types of participation, it is worth mentioning, is statistically significant at the 1% significance level, that is to say, within a 99% confidence interval. Additionally, estimated odds ratios suggest that 15 to 24 year old Canadians who are a member or participant in a civic association are 2.5 times more likely to also be involved in informal types of political action. Canadians aged between 15 and 24 are also estimated to be 79% more likely to be a member or participant in a civic association if they also participate in informal political activities. Such a relationship suggests that participation in any political or civic activity increases the likelihood that students will also take part in other political or civic activity. Further results on these kinds of relationships are presented in ANNEX V.

Insofar as identity is concerned, sense of belonging to Canada and sense of belonging to community were not statistically significant as predictors of informal political participation. Sense of belonging to Canada and sense of belonging to community were, however, relatively strong predictors of civic engagement. Results from statistical modeling suggest that Canadians aged 15 to 24 who have a strong or very strong sense of belonging to their community are 91% more likely to become a member or participant in a civic organization. Results also suggest that a young Canadian would be 50% more likely to be a member of or participate in a civic association if he or she has a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada. Previous research on sense of belonging revealed that Canadians who volunteer were, in 2008, 1.76 times

more likely to say they had a strong or very strong sense of belonging to their community, and were 1.43 time more likely to have a strong or very strong sense of belonging to Canada.¹⁵

Conclusion

This study sought to investigate the political participation and civic engagement of young Canadians through a review of the research on youth participation and engagement as well as through analyses of Statistics Canada's General Social Survey. The literature review in Part One highlights the relevance of four fields related to participation and engagement.

Firstly, *Social Capital and Trust* is widely recognized to foster positive interactions between citizens, which in turn also fosters civic engagement and participation. Bonding social capital, by bringing similar people together, strengthens identities and mutual commitment in communities. Bridging social capital, by making us more accepting of differences and more inclusive in identities, favours tolerance and open-mindedness among citizens. Linking social capital, by building and consolidating public trust in national institutions, improves community productivity while facilitating coordination and cooperation in communities.

Secondly, *Citizenship and Shared Values* generate depth to the rapport between respect and recognition within a population. Fundamental civil values, mutuality and reciprocity, are needed for relationships between citizens to flourish. In 2013, human rights and gender equality were most often identified in the GSS as being shared values among Canadians.

Thirdly, *Identity Building* promotes mutual help and a sense of civic-duty among those who share identities. The principles of *in-group bias*, when scaled to community, provincial and national level groups, become analogous to the concept of solidarity. Based on analyses of the GSS, this report found that Canadians born in other countries were more likely to feel a strong sense of belonging to Canada than to their country of origin or to people with the same ethnic or cultural background as them. This study also found that individuals tend to support and commit more to institutions with which they share identities.

Lastly, *Engagement 2.0* describes the evolving landscape of stakeholder engagement, information seeking and *peer-to-peer* political expression. Research in virtual engagement, however, warns that *Managed* styles of interactions dissuades online engagement, which emphasizes the importance of autonomous interaction styles in informational, consultative and participatory virtual platforms. Today's youth are

¹⁵ For details, see: *Belonging, Volunteering and Giving : A Decision Model Based on Identity Economics*, PRG-PCH (2015)

likely to transfer some of their online habits into adult life, which could hold important implications for sustained interactions between citizens and institutions in the future.

Participation and engagement styles are evolving, and while formal political participation has declined, participation and engagement styles and opportunities are increasingly diversified and available. This study sought to apply a mixed framework to look at how young Canadians participate and engage. In doing so, this report demonstrates differences and estimates relationships between civic participation rates and attitudes such as feelings of pride and sense of belonging of younger and older Canadians.

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Annex I: Extended Methodology – Difference in Mean Significance Testing

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among youth and non-youth responses. Games-Howell Post-Hoc ANOVA was identified as a suitable method to test difference in mean significance given that Statistics Canada’s survey samples possess appropriate variances by design. That is to say that the variance is constant, which has been tested in the context of the mean significance test selection process. Table 5 presents questions for which results revealed statistically insignificant difference at the 1% significance level. Tables 6 to 8 present ANOVA test for demographic variables other than youth that have been cross tabulated with survey questions. Statistically significant mean difference between youth and non-youth responses were removed from table 5 for convenience, but such significant differences were left in tables 6 to 8.

Difference in mean was chosen as the basis on which to test statistical significance of results due to the binary nature of the variables which were reported in descriptive graphs. “***” mark where differences in mean responses were insignificant at the 5% significance level. “*” mark where difference in mean responses were insignificant at the 1% significance level, but were significant at the 5% significance level.

Table 5: Difference in mean significance testing using Games-Howell Post-Hoc ANOVA

Between means for youth and non-youth	Sig.		
	2013	2008	2003
Political activity - 12 months - Volunteered for political party	.070	.161	-
Political activity - 12 months - Product choice ethical reasons	-	-	.122
Member or participant - 12 months - Religious group	.834	-	-
Member or participant - 12 months - Cultural/educational group	-	.047	.939
Only for 2013			
Trust - Members of family	.019		
Confidence - School system	.679		
Pride - Being Canadian	.791		
Pride - Canada - Scientific and technological achievements	.050		
Pride - Canada - Achievements in sports	.123		
Pride - Canada - Armed forces	.003		
Pride - Canada - History	.637		
Canadian shared values - Respect for the law	.488		
Sense of belonging to your town or city	.002		
Sense of belonging - Country of origin	.036		

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 17 SE (2003), GSS 22 SN (2008), GSS 27 SI (2013)

Table 6: Difference in mean significance testing using Games-Howell Post-Hoc ANOVA

Between means of language groups		Sig.
English only	French only	.001
	Other languages	.199
	Multiple languages	.000
French only	English only	.001
	Other languages	.000
	Multiple languages	.000
Other languages	English only	.199
	French only	.000
	Multiple languages	.026
Multiple languages	English only	.000
	French only	.000
	Other languages	.026

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Table 7: Difference in mean significance testing using Games-Howell Post-Hoc ANOVA

Between means of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal	Sig.
Sense of belonging - Local community	.000
Sense of belonging - Province	.001
Sense of belonging - Canada	.084
Sense of belonging to your town or city	.000

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Table 8: Difference in mean significance testing using Games-Howell Post-Hoc ANOVA

Between means of immigrant and non-immigrant	Sig.
Sense of belonging - Local community	.000
Sense of belonging - Province	.000
Sense of belonging - Canada	.000
Sense of belonging to your town or city	.001

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Annex II: Extended Methodology – Weights and variables used in regression analyses

The following tables present sample frequencies as well as means and standard deviations of variables used in regression analyses. Figure 17 describes the sources of observations by reporting on the frequencies and proportions of non-responses, refusals, other forms of non-responses and responses for the sample and subsamples.

Table 9: Sampling and Oversampling frequencies and proportions

Source	Regular Sample		Oversample of Immigrants		Oversample of Youth		Total Sample	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1. Household non-response	15,661	36.1	3,928	37.7	1,208	32.2	20,797	36.1
2. Refusal by selected person	2,848	6.6	538	5.2	279	7.4	3,665	6.4
3. Other non-response by person	3,652	8.4	1,270	12.2	456	12.2	5,378	9.3
4. Response	21,200	48.9	4,692	45.0	1,803	48.1	27,695	48.1
Total Households	43,361	100	10,428	100	3,746	100	57,535	100

Source: GSS User Guide 2013 p.17

Statistics Canada employs a sophisticated sampling method that involves multiple waves and strata (Statistics Canada, 2015). The use of oversampling methods in the sample design, permits finer analyses on the immigrant, youth and other subsamples. However, oversampling also results in response rates not being representative of the Canadian population. This can be corrected using the appropriate weighting scheme, by assigning multipliers to observations. Another useful function of weights is its capacity to adjust the data to provide population estimates for Canada. The data used to generate all figures were first weighted by the population weights pre-defined by Statistics Canada. However, in the context of regression analyses, weights can impede the reliability of inferences, estimation and variance calculation methods (Statistics Canada, 2015). Moreover, survey user guidelines for the GSS indicate that:

“For many analysis techniques (for example linear regression, logistic regression, estimation of rates and proportions, and analysis of variance), a method exists which can make the variances calculated by the standard packages more meaningful. If the weights on the data, or on the subset of the data that is of interest, are rescaled so that the average weight is one (1), then the variances produced by the standard packages will be more reasonable; they still will not take into account the stratification and clustering of the sample's design, but they will take into account the unequal probabilities of selection.”¹⁶

¹⁶ Statistics Canada (2015), p. 19

Consequently, in the context of regression analyses, weights were standardized such that the weight mean equals 1. Variables names, symbols, numbers of observations, means and standard deviations are reported in the following two tables. Whether variables are categorical, continuous or binary is indicated in parentheses beside variable names. For binary variables here, the direction of the dichotomy is always such that positive statements are coded as 1s and negative statements are coded as 0s. Table 10 describes variables under the standardized weighting scheme, while Table 11 reports these figures over the unweighted sample. Note that fewer variables were used in regression analyses when standardized weights were off, due to differences in variance and statistical significance, which has impacted model specifications.

Table 10: Mean and Standard Deviation of Weighted Variables Used in Logistic Regressions

Name of Variable	Symbol	n	Mean	Std. Dev
Household income categorical variable (13 categories)	Household Income	21,871	9.8695	2.67028
Number of close friends (0-200)	Friends	27,166	6.5393	8.93443
Educational Attainment (4 categories)	Educ	27,342	2.7005	1.01885
Sense of belonging to Canada (dummy var.)	SB Canada	26,864	.9269	.26032
Sense of belonging to province (dummy var.)	SB Province	26,549	.8780	.32729
Sense of belonging to community (dummy var.)	SB Community	26,491	.8210	.38336
confidence in police (dummy var.)	Conf. Police	27,111	.7589	.42773
Importance of religion (dummy var.)	Importance Religion	26,869	.6492	.47722
Confidence in local merchants and business people (dummy var.)	Conf Merchants	26,915	.6327	.48207
Confidence in school system (dummy var.)	Conf School	26,801	.6100	.48776
Confidence in Banks (dummy var.)	Conf Banks	27,057	.5942	.49105
vote at the municipal election (dummy var.)	Vote Municipal	25,822	.5834	.49300
Confidence in the Justice system and courts (dummy var.)	Conf Justice	26,852	.5735	.49458
Trust in people in general (dummy var.)	Trust General	27,006	.5353	.49876
Female (dummy var.)	Female	27,534	.5061	.49997
Married (dummy var.)	MarStat	27,507	.5032	.50000
Searched for information (dummy var.)	Pol. Searched	27,429	.3938	.48860
Confidence in federal parliament (dummy var.)	Conf Parliament	26,464	.3756	.48428
Participant in a sports/recreational association (dummy var.)	Part. Sport	27,520	.3091	.46213
Born Outside Canada (dummy var.)	Born Outside Can	27,412	.2360	.42463
Bought products for ethical reasons (dummy var.)	Pol. Ethical	27,322	.2244	.41720
Participant in a cultural/educational group (dummy var.)	Part. Cultural	27,514	.2038	.40283
Participant in a School/Community group (dummy var.)	Part. School	27,517	.1749	.37993
Rural (dummy var.)	Rural	27,420	.1575	.36425
Youth (dummy var.)	Youth	27,534	.1558	.36263
Participant in a religious group (dummy var.)	Part. Religious	27,509	.1442	.35128
Student (dummy var.)	Student	27,458	.1248	.33045
Participant in a service club (dummy var.)	Part. Service	27,510	.0642	.24506
Participated in a demonstration or march (dummy var.)	Pol. March	27,394	.0468	.21128
Participant in a political party group (dummy var.)	Part. Pol.Group	27,503	.0426	.20199
Volunteered for a political party (dummy var.)	Volunteered Party	27,432	.0193	.13744

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS27 SI (2013)

Table 11: Mean and Standard Deviation of Unweighted Variables Used in Logistic Regressions

Name of Variable	Symbol	n	Mean	Std. Dev
Household income (13 categories)	Household Income	21,564	9.4376	2.7633
Number of close friends (0-200)	Friends	27,112	6.4755	9.5518
Educational Attainment (4 categories)	Educ	27,335	2.6990	1.0345
Sense of belonging to Canada (dummy var.)	SB Canada	26,882	0.9354	0.2459
Sense of belonging to community (dummy var.)	SB Community	26,531	0.8281	0.3773
Importance of religion (dummy var.)	Importance Religion	26,901	0.6955	0.4602
Confidence in school system (dummy var.)	Conf School	26,726	0.6357	0.4812
Confidence in local merchants and business people (dummy var.)	Conf Merchants	26,895	0.6343	0.4816
Confidence in Banks (dummy var.)	Conf Banks	27,070	0.6141	0.4868
civic participation Joint (dummy var.)	civic Part.	27,523	0.5469	0.4978
Female (dummy var.)	Female	27,534	0.5419	0.5419
Trust in people in general (dummy var.)	Trust General	27,015	0.5378	0.4986
political engagement joint (dummy var.)	Pol.itical eng	27,514	0.4842	0.4998
Married (dummy var.)	MarStat	27,486	0.4780	0.4995
Confidence in federal parliament (dummy var.)	Conf Parliament	26,353	0.3914	0.4881
Searched for information (dummy var.)	Pol. Searched	27,443	0.3718	0.4833
Born Outside Canada (dummy var.)	Born Outside Can	27,410	0.3535	0.4781
Participant in a sports/recreational association (dummy var.)	Part. Sport	27,514	0.2844	0.4512
Participant in a cultural/educational group (dummy var.)	Part. Cultural	27,514	0.2132	0.4096
Bought products for ethical reasons (dummy var.)	Pol. Ethical	27,299	0.2034	0.4025
Participant in a School/Community group (dummy var.)	Part. School	27,507	0.1770	0.3817
Participant in a religious group (dummy var.)	Part. Religious	27,504	0.1716	0.3770
Rural (dummy var.)	Rural	27,041	0.1538	0.3608
Youth (dummy var.)	Youth	27,534	0.1358	0.3426
Student (dummy var.)	Student	27,469	0.1108	0.3139
Participant in a service club (dummy var.)	Part. Service	27,513	0.0668	0.2496
Participant in a political party or group (dummy var.)	Part. Pol.Group	27,501	0.0455	0.2083
Participated in a demonstration or march (dummy var.)	Pol. March	27,397	0.0419	0.2005
Volunteered for a political party or candidate (dummy var.)	Volunteered Party	27,437	0.0211	0.1437

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS27 SI (2013)

Annex III: Extended Methodology – Regression models used

In order to estimate the changes in likelihood of participating in informal political activity or in engaging in civic activities due to changes in other factors, two sets of three logistic regression models were developed. A base model was developed for both informal political participation and civic engagement, and models were trimmed by dropping insignificant variables. This process was chosen in order to estimate unbiased estimator, and thus minimizing standard errors of coefficients (estimate variances). This process generates more reliable estimates for the youth and non-youth subgroups of the sample. The models used are the following:

$$\text{Logit}(\text{Informal political participation} = 1) = \alpha X + \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{Logit}(\text{Civic engagement} = 1) = \beta W + u_i$$

Where:

$$\text{Logit}(p) = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \log(p) - \log(1-p), \quad p \in (0, 1)$$

And:

$$\alpha' = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ \alpha_4 \\ \alpha_5 \\ \alpha_6 \\ \alpha_7 \\ \alpha_8 \\ \alpha_9 \\ \alpha_{10} \\ \alpha_{11} \\ \alpha_{12} \\ \alpha_{13} \\ \alpha_{14} \\ \alpha_{15} \\ \alpha_{16} \end{bmatrix}; \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \text{Volunteered Party} \\ \text{Student} \\ \text{Civic Part} \\ \text{Educ.} \\ \text{Trust General} \\ \text{Conf. Merchants} \\ \text{Household Income} \\ \text{Friends} \\ \text{Conf. School} \\ \text{Born Out. Canada} \\ \text{Conf. Parliament} \\ \text{Mar Stat} \\ \text{Female} \\ \text{Conf. Banks} \\ \text{Youth} \\ \text{Rural} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \text{and} \quad \beta' = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \\ \beta_5 \\ \beta_6 \\ \beta_7 \\ \beta_8 \\ \beta_9 \\ \beta_{10} \\ \beta_{11} \\ \beta_{12} \\ \beta_{13} \\ \beta_{14} \\ \beta_{15} \end{bmatrix}; \quad W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \text{Volunteered Party} \\ \text{Political Eng.} \\ \text{Student} \\ \text{Importance Religion} \\ \text{Trust General} \\ \text{Youth} \\ \text{SB Community} \\ \text{SB Canada} \\ \text{Educ.} \\ \text{Mar Stat} \\ \text{Rural} \\ \text{Household Income} \\ \text{Friends} \\ \text{Conf. Parliament} \\ \text{Born Outside Can} \end{bmatrix}$$

The α_i and β_i coefficients are used to calculate probability ratios, which indicate increases in likelihood of the tested outcome due to variations in a specific predictor. For example:

$$\exp(\beta_1) = \frac{P(Y = 1 | X_1 = 1, X_2, \dots, X_i) / P(Y = 0 | X_1 = 1, X_2, \dots, X_i)}{P(Y = 1 | X_1 = 0, X_2, \dots, X_i) / P(Y = 0 | X_1 = 0, X_2, \dots, X_i)}$$

Thus $\exp(\beta_1)$ estimates the conditional odds ratio. Odds ratios can be interpreted as an estimate of odds ratio between Y and X_1 , holding X_2, \dots, X_i fixed.

Annex IV: Unweighted Estimation Results

As a reference, Table 12 and Table 13 present estimated odds ratios for the civic engagement and informal political participation models for the unweighted sample of the 2013 GSS.

Table 12: Odds Ratios, Statistical Significance and rank of Informal Political Participation (Unweighted)

Dependent variable: participated in informal political activity or group						
Variables in model	15 to 24		25 and over		Whole sample	
	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party	1	4.691***	1	6.059***	1	5.738***
Student	3	1.642***	2	2.292***	2	2.174***
Civic Eng.	2	2.218***	3	1.914***	3	1.914***
Educ.	4	1.375***	4	1.735***	4	1.690***
Trust General	5	1.151*	5	1.446***	5	1.418***
Conf. Merchants			6	1.212***	6	1.205***
Household Income			7	1.077***	7	1.075***
Friends	6	1.014**	8	1.004**	8	1.004**
Conf. School			9	0.877***	9	0.886***
Born Out. Canada			10	0.828***	10	0.873***
Conf. Parliament	8	0.773***	11	0.796***	11	0.798***
Mar Stat			12	0.781***	12	0.780***
Female	7	0.864**	13	0.740***	13	0.755***
Conf. Banks	10	0.651***	14	0.629***	14	0.631***
Youth					15	1.545
Rural	9	0.710**				
cons.		0.489***		0.104***		0.113***
n (obs.)		3,426		17,674		20,140
Pseudo - R ²		0.0653		0.1299		0.1254

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.

Rank according to odds ratio

***Significant within a 99% C. I. ($p < 0.01$)

**Significant within a 95% C. I. ($p < 0.05$)

*Significant within a 90% C. I. ($p < 0.1$)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Key Observations (Table 3)

Overall, in 2013, the likelihood that a respondent had participated in an informal political activity was:

- 2.174 times higher for students than for non-students;
- 1.914 times higher for members and participants of a civic or community organization than for non-member;
- Unchanged by sense of belonging to Canada or to the community¹⁷;
- 1.69 times higher for each level of educational attainment (4-point scale).

¹⁷ Within a 90% confidence interval

The following table presents the results from the multivariate logistic regression model for civic engagement. Layouts and annotations here are consistent with those of the previous table.

Table13: Odds Ratios, Statistical Significance and Rank of Civic Engagement Determinants (Unweighted)

Variables in model	Dependent variable: Engaged in civic organization					
	15 to 24		25 and over		Whole sample	
	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio	Rank	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party	1	2.343*	1	5.548***	1	5.089***
Political Part.	3	1.800***	2	1.901***	2	1.905***
Student	2	1.870***			3	1.801***
Importance Religion	6	1.624***	3	1.606***	4	1.618***
Trust General	4	1.649***	4	1.545***	5	1.559***
Youth					6	1.546***
SB Community	5	1.630***	5	1.316***	7	1.357***
SB Canada	7	1.370**	7	1.242***	8	1.251***
Educ.	10	0.882**	6	1.302***	9	1.230***
Mar Stat			8	1.190***	10	1.173***
Rural			9	1.174***	11	1.165***
Household Income	8	1.080***	10	1.059***	12	1.071***
Friends	9	1.042***	11	1.028***	13	1.029***
Conf. Parliament			13	0.824***	14	0.856***
Born Outside Can			12	0.832***	15	0.847***
cons.		0.135***		0.075***		0.074***
n (obs.)		2,458		17,011		19,371
Pseudo - R ²		0.0946		0.0947		0.0951

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.
Rank according to odds ratio
***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)
**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)
*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Key Observations (Table 4)

Overall, in 2013, the likelihood that a respondent had been a member or participant in a civic or community organization was:

- 1.801 times higher for students than for non-students;
- 1.905 times higher for respondents that participated in an informal political activity than for those who had not;
- 1.357 time higher for respondents who felt a strong sense of belonging to their community and 1.251 time higher for respondents who felt a strong sense of belonging to Canada;
- 1.23 times higher for each level of educational attainment (4-point scale).

Annex V: Extended Methodology – Estimating Mutual Relationships

The question regarding whether and to what extent participating in a particular organization or association increases the likelihood of participating in another organization or association was also approached through the use of logistic regression analysis. In order to estimate unbiased estimators, variables that were not statistically significant were removed from the model, thus minimizing the standard errors of estimates. To compare the predictive power of characteristics between younger and older respondents, odds ratios were estimated for the youth, non-youth and complete segments of the sample. Therefore, the relevance of characteristics can be compared between respondents aged 14 to 24 and those aged 25 or more. Odds ratios were also estimated for the entire sample to set a benchmark for comparison. For this reason, a separate model had to be developed for each regression for the youth, non-youth, and complete segments of the sample. Below is a theoretical summary of models used to measure interactions:

$$\text{Logit}(X_i = 1) = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j X_j + \varepsilon_i ; \quad \text{Subject to } i \neq j \text{ and } k = 10$$

Where:

$$\text{Logit}(p) = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \log(p) - \log(1-p), \quad p \in (0, 1)$$

And:

$$\alpha' = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ \alpha_4 \\ \alpha_5 \\ \alpha_6 \\ \alpha_7 \\ \alpha_8 \\ \alpha_9 \\ \alpha_{10} \\ \alpha_{11} \end{bmatrix} ; \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \text{Volunteered for a political party or candidate} \\ \text{Participant or member in a political party or group} \\ \text{Participant or member in a cultural or educational association} \\ \text{Bought or boycotted products for ethical reasons} \\ \text{Participant in a demonstration or march} \\ \text{Participant or member in a school or community group} \\ \text{Participant or member in a service club} \\ \text{Searched for information on a political topic or issue} \\ \text{Participant or member in a sports or recreational association} \\ \text{Participant or member in a religious group} \end{bmatrix}$$

In the equation above, P_i represents the participation in a particular organization, association or activity, and P_j represents all other forms of participation and engagement. In our particular case, there were 10 types of participation analyzed. Estimates were calculated for a total of 20 equations, which amount to 180 coefficients. In the tables below, results reported are organized such that regression models with the highest goodness of fit (measured by R^2) are ordered from the left toward the right.

Weighted Estimates

Table 14: Mutual changes in likelihood over 10 types of participation and engagement - Youth segment

Variables in Model	Dependent Variables										
	Volunteered Party	Part. Pol. Group	Pol. March	Pol. Attended Meeting	Part. Cultural	Pol. Ethical	Part. School	Pol. Searched	Part. Service	Part. Sport	Part. Religious
	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party		51.695***									0.335**
Part. Pol. Group	55.445***			3.167***		2.519***					
Pol. March	2.899*	51.695***		6.233***		2.706***		3.372***			
Pol. Attended Meeting		2.526**	6.137***		2.217***	1.589**	1.62***	1.605**			
Part. Cultural		1.933*	1.411*	2.074***			2.978***	1.867***	1.731*	2.006***	2.108***
Pol. Ethical		2.185*	2.646***	1.499*	1.388*			4.457***			
Part. School			1.722***	2.977***				1.400**	2.703***	2.028***	2.031***
Pol. Searched		2.016*	3.315***	1.744***	1.937***	4.471***	1.460***		1.830**	1.327**	0.725**
Part. Service				1.716*			2.702***	1.814*			1.727*
Part. Sport				1.995***			2.013***	1.357***			
Part. Religious	0.187***	2.233*		2.090***			2.040***	0.731*	1.764*		
Cons.	0.007***	0.006***	0.018***	0.035***	0.088***	0.071***	0.120***	0.539***	0.015***	0.441***	0.105***
n (obs.)	3,723	3,707	3,708	3,702	3,708	3,704	3,721	3,702	3,730	3,732	3,727
Pseudo - R ²	0.2744	0.2333	0.1986	0.1705	0.1453	0.1228	0.1227	0.1168	0.0748	0.0515	0.0498

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.
Rank according to odds ratio
***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)
**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)
*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Table 15: Mutual changes in likelihood over 10 types of participation and engagement - Whole sample

Variables in Model	Dependent Variables										
	Volunteered Party	Part. Pol. Group	Pol. Attended Meeting	Pol. March	Pol. Searched	Pol. Ethical	Part. Cultural	Part. School	Part. Sport	Part. Service	Part. Religious
	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party		25.027***	4.275***	1.381*	1.940***						
Part. Pol. Group	24.718***		2.379***		2.540***	1.397***	1.592***	1.373***		1.747***	1.641***
Pol. Attended Meeting	4.578***	2.363***		3.576***	1.974***	1.618***	1.663***	1.955***	1.308***	2.080***	1.496***
Pol. March			3.593***		2.433***	2.502***	1.416***	1.201*		0.612***	0.822*
Pol. Searched	2.170***	2.584***	2.023***	2.512***		4.170***	1.412***	1.484***	1.691***	0.845**	0.909*
Pol. Ethical		1.479***	1.666***	2.510***	4.152***		1.443***	1.190***	1.103*		0.841***
Part. Cultural		1.609***	1.672***	1.416***	1.386***	1.415***		2.651***	2.165***	1.383***	1.857***
Part. School		1.452***	1.968***	1.206*	1.463***	1.171***	2.648***		1.952***	1.473***	1.825***
Part. Sport		1.173*	1.336***		1.666***	1.101*	2.189***	1.987***		1.453***	
Part. Service	1.419**	1.699***	2.084***	0.640***	0.827**		1.407***	1.481***	1.433***		1.514***
Part. Religious		1.824***	1.556***		0.907*	0.858**	1.899***	1.866***		1.520***	
Cons.	0.003***	0.009***	0.051***	0.013***	0.293***	0.106***	0.089***	0.073***	0.240***	0.042***	0.120***
n (obs.)	27,192	26,983	26,896	26,927	26,896	26,961	26,954	26,954	27,069	27,132	26,958
Pseudo - R ²	0.3474	0.247	0.1623	0.1484	0.1347	0.1284	0.1243	0.1227	0.0682	0.0448	0.0411

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.
Rank according to odds ratio
***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)
**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)
*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Unweighted Estimations

Table 13: Mutual changes in likelihood over 10 types of participation and engagement - Youth segment

Variables in Model	Dependent Variables									
	Volunteered Party	Part. Pol.Group	Part. Cultural	Pol. Ethical	Pol. March	Part. School	Part. Service	Pol. Searched	Part. Sport	Part. Religious
	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party		27.947***			2.897***			2.349***	0.500**	
Part. Pol.Group	29.295***			2.354***		1.92***			1.560**	
Part. Cultural				1.557***	1.895***	3.204***	2.041***	1.415***	1.993***	2.218***
Pol. Ethical		2.4667***	1.762***		3.901***			4.419***		
Pol. March	3.664***			3.976***				2.129***		
Part. School		2.255***	3.213***				2.997***	1.516***	1.734***	1.573***
Part. Service			2.023***			2.871***			1.491**	1.812***
Pol. Searched	2.380***		1.458***	4.454***	2.186***	1.541***	1.474**		1.391***	
Part. Sport	0.565**	1.826***	2.028***			1.735***	1.547**	1.411***		1.180*
Part. Religious			2.237***		1.405**	1.556***	1.832***		1.172*	
Cons.	0.006***	0.011***	0.108***	0.053***	0.024***	0.145***	0.011***	0.611***	0.384***	0.122***
n (obs.)	3,720	3,714	3,714	3,710	3,711	3,724	3,729	3,709	3,721	3,734
Pseudo - R ²	0.2228	0.1609	0.1362	0.1294	0.1199	0.1155	0.1047	0.0836	0.0531	0.0485

Variables were removed from the model if estimates were not significant at the 90% C. I.

Rank according to odds ratio

***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)

**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)

*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)

Table 14: Mutual changes in likelihood over 10 types of participation and engagement - Whole sample

Variables in Model	Dependent Variables									
	Volunteered Party	Part. Pol.Group	Part. Cultural	Pol. Ethical	Pol. March	Part. School	Part. Service	Pol. Searched	Part. Sport	Part. Religious
	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	Odds ratio
Volunteered Party		29.396***			2.662***		1.974***	2.190***		
Part. Pol.Group	30.260***		1.749***	1.587***		1.600***	1.644***	2.453***	1.209***	1.748***
Part. Cultural	1.552***	1.661***		1.571***	1.540***	2.764***	1.592***	1.432***	2.356***	1.948***
Pol. Ethical		1.699***	1.589***		3.331***	1.190***		4.364***	1.213***	0.803***
Pol. March	2.154***		1.466***	3.313***		1.433***		2.328***		
Part. School		1.547***	2.768***	1.176***	1.499***		1.587***	1.618***	1.890***	1.909***
Part. Service	2.270***	1.691***	1.617***			1.598***		0.856***	1.500***	1.645***
Pol. Searched	2.343***	2.535***	1.462***	4.371***	2.418***	1.639***	0.870***		1.664***	
Part. Sport		1.257***	2.376***	1.210***		1.911***	1.516***	1.652***		
Part. Religious		1.769***	1.986***	0.802***		1.938***	1.648***			
Cons.	0.004***	0.011***	0.096***	0.096***	0.014***	0.079***	0.044***	0.288***	0.212***	0.146***
n (obs.)	27,227	27,107	27,076	27,083	27,052	27,076	27,303	27,026	27,185	27,241
Pseudo - R ²	0.3128	0.2244	0.1254	0.1293	0.1146	0.1125	0.0432	0.1198	0.0705	0.0413

Variables were removed fi

Rank according to odds ratio

***Significant within a 99% C. I. (p<0.01)

**Significant within a 95% C. I. (p<0.05)

*Significant within a 90% C. I. (p<0.1)

Source of Data: Statistics Canada: GSS 27 SI (2013)