



Community Action in England:  
A report on the 2009–10 Citizenship Survey



© Crown copyright, 2011

*Copyright in the typographical arrangement rests with the Crown.*

You may re-use this information (not including logos) free of charge in any format or medium, under the terms of the Open Government Licence. To view this licence, visit <http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/doc/open-government-licence/> or write to the Information Policy Team, The National Archives, Kew, London TW9 4DU, or e-mail: [psi@nationalarchives.gsi.gov.uk](mailto:psi@nationalarchives.gsi.gov.uk).

This document/publication is also available on our website at [www.communities.gov.uk](http://www.communities.gov.uk)

Any enquiries regarding this document/publication should be sent to us at:

Department for Communities and Local Government  
Eland House  
Bressenden Place  
London  
SW1E 5DU  
Telephone: 030 3444 0000

December 2011

ISBN: 978-1-4098- 3294- 2

# Acknowledgements

First and foremost our thanks go to all the respondents who gave up their time to take part in this survey.

Colleagues at Ipsos MORI and TNS-BMRB who have made a significant contribution to this project include Kathryn Gallop (Ipsos MORI), Kully Kaur-Ballagan (Ipsos MORI), Pamela Bremner (Ipsos MORI), Patten Smith (Ipsos MORI), Angela Thompson (Ipsos MORI), India Tracy (Ipsos MORI), Keith Bolling (TNS-BMRB), Tim Hanson (TNS-BMRB), Sam Sullivan (TNS-BMRB) and Rebecca Hamlyn (TNS-BMRB).

We would also like to thank those in the Operations Department and Data Delivery teams who have contributed to the project, in particular the many interviewers and wider Field Team who have worked on this survey.

Finally, we would like to pay special thanks to Suzanne Cooper and her team at DCLG. In particular, Farzana Bari, Karen Cave, Allan Cox, Kate Millward, Philippa Robinson, Reannan Rottier, Helen Smith, and Elaine Wedlock.

Information on the Citizenship Survey and associated publications are available from the DCLG website: [www.communities.gov.uk](http://www.communities.gov.uk)

The responsible analyst is:

Robert Rutherford  
Department for Communities and Local Government  
5th Floor, Eland House  
Bressenden Place  
London  
SW1E 5DU

Email: [Robert.Rutherford@communities.gsi.gov.uk](mailto:Robert.Rutherford@communities.gsi.gov.uk)

# CONTENTS

<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	<b>inside front cover</b>
<b>Executive Summary</b> .....	<b>5</b>
<b>1 Introduction</b> .....	<b>17</b>
<b>2 Civic engagement</b> .....	<b>22</b>
Civic engagement trends .....	25
Civic activism .....	28
Civic participation.....	32
Civic consultation.....	37
Conclusions .....	41
List of tables.....	43
<b>3 Influencing decisions</b> .....	<b>45</b>
Influencing local and national decisions .....	47
The importance of being able to influence local decisions .....	52
Influencing decisions in the local area .....	53
How people want to influence decisions affecting their local area ..	58
Conclusions .....	61
List of tables.....	63
<b>4 Trust in institutions</b> .....	<b>64</b>
Trust in institutions.....	65
Conclusions .....	69
List of tables.....	71
<b>5 Volunteering</b> .....	<b>72</b>
Levels of participation in volunteering.....	76
Who participates in regular volunteering? .....	78
Informal volunteering trends .....	83

What factors are associated with regular formal volunteering? .....	83
What factors are associated with regular informal volunteering? ....	87
How long do people spend volunteering?.....	91
What activities are people undertaking when they do formal volunteering? .....	92
What activities are people doing when they give informal help? .....	94
What types of organisations were helped through formal volunteering? .....	96
How did people find out about opportunities for formal volunteering? .....	99
Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving.....	101
What are the barriers to regular formal volunteering? .....	102
Conclusions .....	103
List of tables.....	105
<b>6 Charitable giving.....</b>	<b>108</b>
Charitable giving in England 2009-10.....	110
How much did people give to charity on average in 2009-10? .....	116
What method do people use to give to charity? .....	117
What would encourage people to give more to charity?.....	119
Conclusions .....	121
List of tables.....	122
<b>7 Conclusions: Community action.....</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>Annex A: Methodology .....</b>	<b>125</b>
<b>Annex B: Multivariate outputs .....</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>Annex C: Definitions and terms.....</b>	<b>140</b>

# Executive summary

## Introduction

- This summary presents findings from the **2009-10 Citizenship Survey**, the sixth in a series of surveys carried out previously in 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007-08, and 2008-09.
- The Citizenship Survey is designed to provide evidence on a range of important policy areas including cohesion, community empowerment, race equality, volunteering and charitable giving. Evidence from the Survey is used both by the **Department for Communities and Local Government** and other government departments to inform and develop policy. In March 2008, the Citizenship Survey was given **National Statistics** status.
- In March 2011 it was announced that the Citizenship Survey would be discontinued. Fieldwork therefore concluded in March 2011. These reports are the final outputs from the 2009-10 wave of the survey. There will be no further topic reports produced from the survey, though regular statistical releases have been published. Datasets for 2009-10 and 2010-11 will be lodged in the ESRC data archive in due course.
- The Survey is based on a **nationally representative sample** of approximately 10,000 adults in **England and Wales** with additional boosts of around 5,000 adults from **ethnic minority groups** and 1,200 **Muslim adults**. Face-to-face fieldwork was carried out with respondents from April 2009 to March 2010 by interviewers from **Ipsos MORI** and **TNS-BMRB**.
- This summary reports on findings on the topic of **community action**. Other published reports, available on the Department for Communities and Local Government website, cover "*Community Spirit in England: a report on the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey*" and "*Race, Religion and Equalities in England and Wales: a report on the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey*."
- This report covers **England** to reflect government policy responsibilities in this area.
- This report considers community action in the following ways:
  - **Civic engagement** activities that people take part in (civic activism, civic consultation and civic participation);
  - **Subjective empowerment** - the extent to which people feel they can influence decisions about their local area, whether they would like to be more involved and how they would like to be more involved;
  - **Trust in institutions** - the extent to which people trust different public institutions;

- **Participation in volunteering** - whether people volunteer formally or informally, the amount of time they spend volunteering and the types of activities they do. This chapter also examines sources of information for opportunities for volunteering, volunteering through employment and barriers to volunteering;
- **Charitable giving** –which looks at who gives to charity, the ways in which people give to charity and the amount of money people give.

## Key findings

- **Levels of civic engagement (civic activism, civic participation and civic consultation) have fallen since 2008-09.** The decline was driven by a fall in civic participation – the most common form of civic engagement – whereas levels of civic activism and civic consultation remained unchanged.
- Attitudinal and behavioural factors were the most significant predictors of the different components of civic engagement, although some demographic factors were also important (such as where people live, qualification and socio-economic group, and ethnicity). Participation in volunteering, feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area as well as wider attitudes about the local area were all important in predicting the different components of civic engagement.
- **The proportion of people who felt they were able to influence decisions affecting their local area has fallen from 39 per cent in 2008-09 to 37 per cent in 2009-10.** In 2009-10 it was at the lowest level recorded since the start of the Citizenship Survey in 2001. There was also a fall in the importance people attached to being able to influence decisions, as well as a drop in the proportion saying they wanted to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area.
- Attitudes towards the local council (in particular trust in the council and overall satisfaction with it), participation in civic activism and feeling that people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood were all significant predictors of feeling able to influence decisions.
- **Levels of trust in the police and local council have remained stable since 2008-09 whereas levels of trust in parliament have fallen significantly over this period.** Longer term trend data showed that levels of trust in parliament have declined since 2003 whereas there has been an increase in levels of trust in the local council over the same period. The most significant predictor of trust in the council was satisfaction with its performance. Feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area was also an important predictor of trust in the council.
- Trend data showed that there was **little change in levels of formal volunteering since 2008-09.** However, over the same period, **participation in informal volunteering – the most common form of volunteering - has fallen significantly.** The fall has been both in regular informal volunteering as well as informal volunteering at least once a year.

- The most significant predictor of regular formal volunteering was mixing with people from different ethnic and religious backgrounds in private places, such as in the home. Participation in civic activism and giving money to charity were also significant predictors, as was active religious practice. The analysis showed that many of the predictors of regular informal volunteering were similar to those for regular formal volunteering, with the most significant predictor of informal volunteering being giving money to charity.
- **Levels of charitable giving fell in 2009-10 compared with 2008-09.** Despite the fall in the proportion of people giving to charity, the average donation given remained in line with 2008-09. While a number of demographics were important in predicting the giving of money to charity (such as religious practice), the most significant predictor was participation in informal volunteering at least once a year.

## Civic engagement

### Civic engagement trends

- **Overall, 44 per cent of people said they had taken part in some form of civic engagement** (civic activism, civic consultation or civic participation) in 2009-10. This represents a significant fall in civic engagement since 2008-09 when 47 per cent reported taking part.
- **Civic participation remained the most common form of civic engagement activity**, with 34 per cent of people having taken part. Levels of participation have, however, declined from 38 per cent since 2008-09.
- There has been little change in the other components of civic engagement. Around one in five people (18%) took part in some form of civic consultation and one in ten people (10%) said they had participated in civic activism. These levels have remained relatively stable since 2005.

### Civic activism

- **Civic activism remained the least common form of civic engagement activity, with one in ten (10%) taking part.** Of those who took part in civic activism, the most common activity was **joining a decision making group about 'other' local community services (26%)**.
- The bivariate analysis highlighted some variation in civic engagement by ethnicity and education levels. When other factors were controlled for, education remained important but **the most significant demographic predictor of civic activism was the level of deprivation in an area.** People living in the 60 per cent most deprived areas had a greater chance of taking part in civic activism compared with those living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas.
- **The most significant predictor of civic activism was volunteering.** People who took part in yearly formal volunteering had a greater likelihood of civic activism compared with people who did not take part in this form of

volunteering. Other forms of volunteering were also predictors of civic activism but their influence was weaker.

- **Feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area**, as well as believing it was important to do so, were also significant predictors of civic activism.

## Civic participation

- **Civic participation was the most common form of civic engagement with 34% of people having done some form of activity.** Among people who had taken part in civic participation, they had most commonly signed a petition (54%), contacted a council official (33%) or contacted a local councillor (29%). The proportion of people signing a petition has fallen from 60 per cent since 2008-09.
- Many demographic factors appeared to be related to civic participation, for example, age, sexual identity, education as well as socio-economic group. However, the multivariate analysis showed that when controlling for other factors, the most significant demographic predictors of civic participation were marital status and ethnicity. People living as a couple had higher odds of civic participation than those who were single and Indian, Black African and Chinese people had lower odds of civic participation compared with White people.
- **The most significant predictor of civic participation was volunteering.** People who volunteered formally in the last 12 months had the highest odds of taking part in civic participation.
- The **importance of being able to influence decisions** affecting the local area and levels of satisfaction with the local authority were also strong predictors of civic participation.

## Civic consultation

- **Around one in five (18%) people took part in some form of civic consultation in 2009-10.** The most common form of activity was completing a questionnaire about local services or problems (66%). This figure has fallen since 2008-09 when the figure was 70 per cent.
- The bivariate analysis highlighted links between education level and socio-economic group and civic consultation. These factors also emerged as significant in the multivariate analysis with **socio-economic group** being the most significant demographic predictor.
- As with civic activism and civic participation, **the most significant predictor of civic consultation was participation in formal volunteering in the last 12 months.**

- The analysis also showed that **feeling able to influence local decisions** was associated with civic consultation. People believing that it was very important to influence decisions affecting their local area and who agreed they were able to influence local decisions had higher odds of taking part in civic consultation.

## Influencing decisions

- **In 2009-10, 37 per cent of people said they were able to influence decisions affecting their local area.** This figure has fallen from 39 per cent in 2008-09 and was the lowest percentage recorded for this measure since the first Citizenship Survey in 2001.
- A number of demographic and geographic factors appeared to be related to perceptions of being able to influence decisions affecting the local area, such as age, ethnicity and income. These were less important, however, when controlled for in the multivariate analysis. The analysis showed that **attitudinal and behavioural factors were stronger than demographics** in predicting whether someone felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area.
- **The most significant predictor was trust in the local council;** the greater the level of trust in the local council, the higher the odds that someone felt able to influence decisions affecting the local area. Participation in civic activism, civic consultation, as well as volunteering also predicted the outcome that people felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area.
- **Satisfaction with the local council also emerged as a predictor,** as well as a range of other attitudes about the local area, such as whether the area had got better and whether people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood.
- Around three-quarters (73%) of people felt it was important to be able to influence decisions affecting the local area. This figure has fallen from 78 per cent since 2008-09.
- **One in five (20%) people said they were able to influence decisions affecting Britain.** This has fallen from 22 per cent since 2008-09 but remained similar to levels recorded in 2003 and 2007-08.

## Involvement in council decisions affecting the local area

- **Forty-four per cent of people said they would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area.** The extent to which people want to be more involved in local decisions has fallen from 49 per cent since 2008-09.
- Multivariate analysis revealed that **the most significant predictor of whether someone wanted to be more involved in local decisions was involvement in civic participation.** Related to this, participation in civic consultation, volunteering and charitable giving were also predictors of a desire to be more involved. Dissatisfaction with how the local authority runs things and low levels of trust in the council also underpinned a desire to be more involved in local decisions.
- Whether people **mixed in public spaces with people from different backgrounds** was also associated with wanting to be more involved in local decisions.

- The survey asked how people wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area. **The most common preference was by contacting the local council or a council official (49%)**. This has remained unchanged since 2008-09. Other methods, such as contacting a councillor, signing a petition or attending a public meeting have fallen over this period.
- The most frequently mentioned factors that would make it easier for people to influence decisions were **knowing what issues are being considered (44%)** and the council getting in touch to ask people to get involved (38%).

## Trust in institutions

### Trends in trust in institutions

- In 2009-10, **82 per cent of people trusted the police** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount'. **Sixty-two per cent of people said they trusted their local council** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount' and **29 per cent trusted parliament**.
- **Levels of trust in the police and local councils have remained stable** since 2008-09; however, **levels of trust in parliament have fallen** from 34 per cent to 29 per cent over this period.
- Longer-term trend data revealed that since 2003, trust in parliament has declined. Over the same period, trust in local councils has steadily improved.

### Trust in the local council

- Although some demographic factors, such as ethnicity, appeared to influence trust in the local council, the multivariate analysis showed that **the most significant predictor of trust in the local council was satisfaction with its performance**: the greater the level of satisfaction, the greater the odds of trusting the local council. Attitudes towards some specific services were also important; people who were dissatisfied with local services for young people had a lower likelihood of trusting the council.
- **Attitudes towards influencing local decisions were also important**; where people felt they could influence decisions affecting their local area, the greater the likelihood that they would trust the council.
- How strongly people felt they belonged to Britain also influenced levels of trust in the council; the stronger the sense of belonging, the higher the odds of trusting the council.
- How people felt about their local area also influenced levels of trust; where people agreed that their neighbourhood was one where people pulled together to improve things, the greater the odds that they would trust the council. Furthermore, where people felt the local area had got worse over the last two years, the likelihood that they would trust the council was lower.

# Volunteering

## Overall volunteering trends

- In 2009-10, **around a quarter of people (25%) participated in formal volunteering at least once a month**, and two in five people (40%) participated at least once in the last 12 months. For informal volunteering, **around three in ten people (29%) said they gave informal help at least once a month**, increasing to over half (54%) who said they volunteered informally at least once over the last 12 months.
- There has been **little change in the levels of participation in formal volunteering** since 2008-09. However, **levels of informal volunteering at least once a month have fallen** from 35 per cent in 2008-09 to 29 per cent in 2009-10. Furthermore, where over three-fifths of people (62%) said they gave informal help at least once a year in 2008-9, this fell to 54 per cent in 2009-10.
- The fall in informal volunteering was most evident among older age groups. The proportion of people who volunteered informally at least once a month fell from 32 per cent in 2008-09 to 25 per cent in 2009-10 among those aged 75 years or more, and from 63 per cent to 51 per cent among those aged 65-74 years who volunteered informally at least once a year.
- In 2009-10, two per cent of people participated in employer-supported volunteering at least once a month, and five per cent did so at least once in the last 12 months. These levels of participation in employer-supported volunteering schemes have remained unchanged since 2005.

## Regular formal volunteering

- A number of demographic factors, such as gender, age, ethnicity, religion and socio-economic group were related to regular formal volunteering in the bivariate analysis.
- These demographic factors remained significant in the multivariate analysis although some attitudinal and behavioural factors were the most significant predictors of regular formal volunteering. Demographics that emerged as predictors of regular formal volunteering included children in household and the type of area people lived in. Households with two or more children had a higher chance of regular formal volunteering compared with households with no children and people living in rural areas had a greater likelihood of regular formal volunteering than people in urban areas.
- **The most significant predictor of regular formal volunteering was whether someone mixed with people from different ethnic and religious backgrounds in private places**, such as in the home.
- Participation in civic engagement (civic activism, civic participation and civic consultation) in the last 12 months was also a predictor of regular formal volunteering as was giving money to charity.

- Whether someone actively practised a religion featured as a predictor of regular formal volunteering. In a related finding, although a weaker influence, people who felt that religion was important in shaping their identity had a higher chance of participating in regular formal volunteering compared with those who did not feel it was important.

## Regular informal volunteering

- **The predictors of regular informal volunteering were very similar to those for regular formal volunteering**; however, there were a number of key differences in terms of the strength of the factors. **The most significant predictor of informal regular volunteering overall was whether someone gave money to charity**, although mixing with people from different backgrounds was also important. The most significant demographic predictor was a combination of age and gender with, for example, young women aged 16-24 years having greater odds of giving regular informal help than men of the same age.
- Participation in civic engagement remained a significant predictor overall but for informal volunteering, civic activism and civic participation were the strong influences, rather than civic consultation.

## How long do people spend volunteering and what activities do they do?

- In 2009-10, people who took part in regular formal volunteering in the four weeks before interview **spent an average of 11.8 hours** on these activities. Those who took part in regular informal volunteering spent on average 7.7 hours on these activities.
- Among those who participated in regular formal volunteering, **the most common type of activity was organising or helping to run an activity or event (52%)**. A similar proportion (51%) participated in raising or handling money or sponsored events.
- While organising or helping to run an activity or event remained the most common form of regular formal volunteering activity in 2009-10, participation in this type of formal volunteering has fallen from 59 per cent in 2008-09 to 52 per cent in 2009-10.
- In terms of regular informal volunteering, the most common types of activities were giving advice (45%), keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about (40%), transporting or escorting someone (34%) and doing shopping for someone or collecting a pension (34%).
- There has been an increase since 2008-09 in the proportion of people who said they volunteered by keeping in touch with someone (from 37% to 40%) and doing shopping or collecting a pension (from 31% to 34%).

## Types of organisations helped through formal volunteering

- **Sports organisations were the most popular type of group in which people formally volunteered**; over half of those who volunteered either in the last 12 months or at least once a month did so through a sports organisation (53% and 54% respectively).
- Other popular types of organisations through which people volunteered regularly included hobbies and recreation groups (42%), religious groups (36%), children's and educational organisations (34%), and youth and children's activities(30%).

## Opportunities for formal volunteering

- The most common method through which people found out about volunteering opportunities was through someone else already involved in the group or organisation (53%).

## Participation in employer schemes

- **In 2009-10, 24 per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for volunteering.** Twenty-seven per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for giving money. The proportions of employed people saying their employer had a scheme for volunteering and for giving money have remained unchanged since 2008-09 (when the figures were 26% and 28% respectively).

## Barriers to regular formal volunteering

- **Work commitments were the most commonly cited barrier to regular formal volunteering**, with over half (55%) of those who did not formally volunteer at least once a month citing this reason. Almost six in ten (59%) of those who formally volunteered less frequently also gave this reason. People living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas were more likely to cite work commitments as a barrier (63%) compared with around a half (between 49% and 51%) of those living in the 20 per cent most deprived areas.
- **Looking after children was also highlighted as a key barrier** to volunteering (26% among people who did not formally volunteer at all and 28% for infrequent volunteers). Having other things to do with their time was also seen as a barrier (23% and 26% respectively).

## Charitable giving

### Participation in charitable giving

- In 2009-10, just over **seven in ten (72%) people had given money to charity** in the four weeks prior to being interviewed. This has fallen from 79 per cent since 2005.

- The bivariate analysis suggested that charitable giving varied by **gender, age and socio-economic group**, all of which were confirmed by the multivariate analysis. Though variation by ethnicity was apparent in the bivariate analysis (with people in ethnic minority groups less likely than White people to give to charity), the multivariate analysis found, instead, that whether someone **actively practised a religion** had a stronger association with giving to charity.
- **The most significant predictor of giving money to charity was involvement in volunteering**, particularly taking part in informal volunteering at least once a year (though formal volunteering was also important). The extent to which people **trusted others in their local area and mixed with people from different backgrounds** were also significant predictors of charitable giving.

### **Type of donation and amount given to charity**

- Despite a fall in the proportion of people giving money to charity, **in 2009-10 the average donation was £17.87, which has remained broadly consistent with the 2008-09 figures (£17.70)**, though this varied between demographic groups.
- As well as being more likely to take part in charitable giving, the bivariate analysis indicated that people in older age groups gave larger amounts of money per donation compared with people in younger age groups (an average of £19.57 among those aged 75 years or more compared with £10.87 among those aged 16-24 years). In contrast, although they gave money to charity less frequently, men and people from ethnic minority groups gave a higher amount per donation compared with women and people from White backgrounds respectively.
- People gave to charity in a variety of different ways, **the most common being through collection tins**, with a third (32%) giving money in this way. Other popular methods included buying raffle tickets, buying goods from a charity shop or catalogue, direct debits, standing orders or debit from salary, and sponsorship. Over a quarter of people said that they had given to charity through Gift Aid (27%).

### **Encouraging charitable giving**

- Over half (54%) of people said they would give more money to charity if they had more money themselves. Other factors that people said would encourage them to give more were **knowing how their donation would be used** (28%) and receiving further information about the process and options available.
- A fifth of people (21%) said that **none of the options offered would encourage them to give more to charity**.

## Conclusions: Community Action

The purpose of this report was to examine how people currently get involved in their communities and whether they feel they can influence local and national decision-making. It also explored the extent to which people trust some public institutions (e.g. local councils) and whether people volunteered or gave to charity. These factors are felt to contribute to building stronger communities and support the Big Society agenda whereby local communities take greater control over their areas and are more involved in shaping them.

Across many elements of community action - civic engagement, influencing local decision-making, trust in parliament, informal volunteering and charitable giving - there has been a decline. Fewer people in 2009-10 were involved in their communities than in 2008-09 and people's ability to influence local decisions and their desire to get more involved had also lessened over this period. This presents a challenge in terms of building stronger and more active communities.

The analytical approach used in this report means that findings from the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey can be used to predict what factors were important in underpinning the different elements of community action. The findings showed that it was predominantly attitudinal and behavioural factors, as well as some demographics, that emerged as being the most significant predictors of community action. In many cases, these attitudes and behaviours were interrelated and reinforced each other. For example, participation in volunteering and feeling able to influence local decisions were significant predictors of civic engagement and participation in some components of civic engagement were important in predicting feelings of influence in local decisions.

Looking across the different components of community action, while there were some variation in the individual models, there were some overall influences that kept reappearing. These were participation in volunteering, feeling able to influence local decisions, and a number of attitudes about the local area such as whether the local area has improved and satisfaction levels with the local authority. In terms of demographics, the analysis showed that qualification levels, active religious practice, ethnicity, where people live and socio-economic group, whilst not the most significant predictors, did feature across many of the indicators.

The findings also suggest that across many aspects of community action, the people who were already involved in some way (e.g. through volunteering) had a greater likelihood of being active in their communities. Given this, the challenges for fostering greater community action are twofold: how to maintain the interest of those already involved, and how to motivate those who are not.

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

- 1.1** This report presents the findings from the **2009-10 Citizenship Survey**. This is the sixth in a series of surveys carried out previously in 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007-08, and 2008-09. In 2007 the Citizenship Survey moved to a continuous design with key indicators made available every quarter (by way of a statistical release), and in March 2008, it was awarded National Statistics status.
- 1.2** The Citizenship Survey is designed to provide evidence on a range of important policy areas including **cohesion, community empowerment, race equality, volunteering** and **charitable giving**. Evidence from the Survey is used both by the **Department for Communities and Local Government** and a number of other government departments to inform and develop policy. It is also used widely by charities and voluntary sector organisations, and academics. The anonymised dataset is publicly available from the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) data archive (<http://www.data-archive.ac.uk/>).
- 1.3** The Survey contains questions about a number of topics which include: views about the local area; fear of crime; local services; volunteering and charitable giving; civil renewal; racial and religious prejudice and discrimination; identity and values; interactions with people from different backgrounds; and violent extremism. It also collects socio-demographic data. The 2009-10 Citizenship Survey **questionnaire** can be found at: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/citizenshipsurvey200910questions>
- 1.4** The Survey is based on a **nationally representative sample** of approximately 10,000 adults in **England and Wales** with an additional sample of around 5,000 adults from **ethnic minority groups** and a further boost of around 1,200 **Muslim adults**. Face-to-face fieldwork was carried out with respondents from April 2009 to March 2010 by interviewers from **Ipsos MORI** and **TNS-BMRB**. Further information about the Citizenship Survey methods is available from the **Technical Report**, which can be found at: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/citizenshipsurvey200910technical>
- 1.5** A series of three topic reports have been produced which set out the 2009-10 Survey findings<sup>1</sup>:
- **Race, religion and equalities in England and Wales: a report on the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey**

---

<sup>1</sup>In a change to annual reporting in previous years, 'Community Action in England' covers topics previously covered by the 2008-09 'Volunteering and Charitable Giving' report and by the 2008-09 'Empowered Communities' report. 'Community Spirit in England' covers topics formerly covered by the 2008-09 'Community Cohesion' report. The 'Race, Religion and Equalities' report remains largely unchanged

The purpose of this report is to chart key measures such as religious affiliation and practice, views on religious and racial prejudice, harassment due to race or religion, levels of discrimination by public services, and levels of workplace discrimination.

- **Community Spirit in England: a report on the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey**

This report looks at how people feel about their communities (for example, whether they enjoy living in it and how strongly they feel they belong to it). It also explores the extent to which people feel they get on with people from different backgrounds and how and where people mix with each other.

- **Community Action in England: a report on the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey**

This, the current report, looks at civic engagement that people take part in (civic activism, civic participation, and civic consultation). It also explores subjective empowerment; whether people feel they can influence decisions. The report also covers the subject of volunteering and charitable giving.

**1.6** The current report focuses on the topic of civic engagement, volunteering and charitable giving. The purpose of this report is to look at how people currently participate in, and influence, local and national decision-making, how much they trust public institutions (e.g. their local council) and whether or not they volunteer and give to charity. Efforts to get more people participating in decision-making, more involved in their communities and volunteering are based on the notion that greater involvement and volunteering lead to more empowered and cohesive communities. Volunteering is also seen to provide support to disadvantaged groups in society as well as benefiting the volunteers themselves. These factors are seen as important in building stronger communities, giving communities more power over local decisions and service provision and encouraging people to take a more active role in shaping their local areas.

**1.7** The report looks at a number of different areas. Specifically, it covers:

- Civic engagement activities that people take part in (civic activism, civic consultation and civic participation);
- Subjective empowerment - the extent to which people feel they can influence decisions about their local area, whether they would like to be more involved and how they would like to be more involved;
- Trust in institutions - the extent to which people trust different public institutions;
- Participation in volunteering - whether people volunteer formally or informally, the amount of time they spend volunteering and the types of activities they do. This chapter also examines sources of information, volunteering through employment and barriers to volunteering;

- Charitable giving - looking at who gives to charity, the ways in which people give to charity and the amount of money people give.
- 1.8** The analysis in this report covers **England only** to reflect the coverage of the Department for Communities and Local Government's and the Office for Civil Society's responsibilities in this area.
- 1.9** Each chapter begins with a **summary** of the key findings followed by text and charts describing these findings in more detail, including key **trends**. Each chapter also includes a set of **conclusions** at the end. Whilst the supporting data tables are published separately (see <http://www.communities.gov.uk/communities/research/citizenshipsurvey/recentreports/>), the tables underpinning each chapter are referenced at the end of that chapter. An overall summary of the **survey methodology** is provided in Annex A. There is also a separate technical report giving details of the methodology in full<sup>2</sup>. Annex B contains output from the multivariate analysis, and Annex C contains a glossary of terms used in the report.

## Analysis in this report

- 1.10** Figures presented in this report have been weighted to ensure they represent the population. All percentage differences or changes reported on in the text, such as between sub-groups or over time, are statistically significant at the 95 per cent level, i.e. we can be 95 per cent certain that the differences exist in the general population rather than having occurred due to sampling variation. Reporting on ethnicity, religion and country of birth (or variables derived from these variables) includes the 'boost' samples, which produce more accurate estimates on these categories than the 'core' sample. For more detail please refer to Annex A.
- 1.11** Much of the analysis in this report is presented as tables or charts which give percentages or frequencies based on two categories: e.g. age and response to a survey question. It is therefore **bivariate analysis**. For example, in this report we note that there is a relationship between age and volunteering; specifically, that those aged 75 years or more are among the least likely to take part in volunteering. In a small number of cases in this report, bivariate analysis explores the relationship between one variable (e.g. age) and the overall response on another variable, noting for example, how particular sub-groups may differ from the average response. The bivariate analysis helps improve our understanding of volunteering by introducing the effects that individual factors may have on a person's response.
- 1.12** However, bivariate analysis can sometimes result in overestimating the *strength* of the relationship between two variables. Bivariate analysis cannot take into account the possibility that the two variables might interact with other variables. For example, while we note that people aged over 75 years are among the least likely to volunteer, it could be that once we take into account

---

<sup>2</sup><http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/citizenshipsurvey200910technical>

another factor, such as socio-economic status, the relationship between volunteering and age might change, or even disappear.

- 1.13** Therefore, as well as testing associations between pairs of variables for statistical significance<sup>3</sup> a series of **multivariate analyses** was carried out **on key variables of interest**. This type of analysis looks at the pattern of relationships between several variables simultaneously. The benefit of multivariate analysis over bivariate analysis is that it allows us to better estimate the true relationship between groups of variables and outcomes of interest as it controls for any interactions between variables when calculating the strength of the relationship between each variable and the key outcome of interest.
- 1.14** For this report, a number of multivariate **logistic regression** models were therefore run to examine associations between particular variables and selected outcomes. The outcomes that were selected were chosen because they were of potential policy interest. Each model explored which variables (including demographics, socio-demographics, attitudes and behaviours) were important in predicting a particular outcome after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. This type of analysis is also able to show the relative magnitude of different variables in terms of their importance in predicting the key outcome. The identified variables are often referred to in the report as *predictors*.
- 1.15** The output from logistic regression analysis used in these reports is the **odds ratio**. Odds are a simple way of representing the likelihood or probability of observing an outcome of interest for a respondent, given knowledge of certain characteristics i.e. predictor variables. An odds ratio compares the probability of an outcome occurring in one category of a predictor variable (e.g. *men taking part in volunteering*) with the probability of the same outcome or behaviour occurring for respondents who fall into another category of the same variable (i.e. *women taking part in volunteering*) after other variables in the model are controlled for. In calculating odds ratios, a **reference category** is selected for each variable as the category of that variable against which the odds for all other categories of that variable are compared. A fuller explanation of how odds ratios are calculated is detailed in Annex B.
- 1.16** An **example** of how odds ratios are set out is illustrated in Figure 1.1. In this case the outcome variable is *civic participation in the last 12 months*.
- 1.17** In this example, shown in Figure 1.1, the reference category for the highest qualification variable is shown in italics and is those with a *degree or equivalent*. The odds for the other categories within this variable (i.e. other lower qualification levels) are compared with the odds for the reference category to produce the odds ratio. If the odds ratio is **less than 1**, it means that the odds (of engaging in civic participation for example) are lower for this category than they are for the reference category. If the odds ratio is **greater than 1**, then the odds of engaging in civic participation are higher for this category than for the reference category.

---

<sup>3</sup> Statistical significance means that a relationship or difference between the variables is unlikely to have occurred by chance. A full explanation of statistical significance is given in Annex C.

1.18 Thus, in the example illustrated in Figure 1.1, we can see that those with lower qualifications than a degree or equivalent have odds ratios below 1 and therefore have lower odds of civic participation than those with a degree or equivalent. People with no qualifications have lower odds, around two-thirds (0.69), compared with those with a degree or equivalent. Figure 1.1 also shows that those who get most of their news or current affairs information from broadsheet newspapers have higher odds (1.33) of civic participation than those who get their information via TV or radio (the reference category, shown in italics).

<b>Figure 1.1: Variables significantly related to “civic participation in the last 12 months” in model</b>		
<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with <i>reference category</i></b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i>	Lower (0.69)
	GCSEs grades A-C or equivalent	Lower (0.69)
	GCSEs grades D-E or equivalent	Lower (0.71)
	Foreign qualifications	Lower (0.69)
	No qualifications	Lower (0.69)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Main source of information on news or current affairs	<i>TV/Radio</i>	Higher (1.33)
	Broadsheet	Lower (0.71)
	Tabloid	Lower (0.71)

1.19 The findings from each of the logistic regression models are set out in a table similar to Figure 1.1 and followed by interpretative text. All variables presented in the tables were found to be significant at the five per cent level although the text focuses only on the variables considered of most interest in relation to the outcome under consideration.<sup>4</sup>

1.20 The variables are presented in each table in a particular order. Within each section of the table, ‘Demographics’ and ‘Attitudes & behaviours’, variables are ordered based on their p value, which is a measure of ‘statistical significance’. The p value indicates the chance of finding the relationship in the data: the smaller the p value the greater the chance that the relationship observed in the data is true. Within each section, variables are ordered by their level of ‘significance’, from most to least significant (i.e. smallest to largest p-value). A summary of the outputs for each model is given at the end of the report in Annex B, whilst the full model outputs can be found at: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/communities/research/citizenshipsurvey/recentreports/>. Annex B also contains a more detailed background and explanation of the processes used in the multivariate analyses for this report.

<sup>4</sup> A five per cent level of significance implies that there is only a five per cent chance (1 in 20) that a significant relationship found in the survey data is not actually true. This is the standard level at which most survey data are tested for significance. An alternative way of looking at this test is to say that the significant relationship we have found in the data has a 95 per cent chance of being true in the population as a whole.

# Chapter 2

## Civic engagement

The Citizenship Survey divides civic engagement into three broad categories:

**1. Civic Activism**

This includes involvement in decision-making about local services or in the provision of these services (for example, being a school governor or a magistrate).

**2. Civic Participation**

This includes engagement in democratic processes, such as contacting an elected representative or attending a public demonstration.

**3. Civic Consultation**

This includes taking part in consultations about local services such as completing questionnaires, attending public meetings or being involved in discussion groups.

## Chapter summary

### Civic engagement trends

- **Overall, 44 per cent of people said they had taken part in some form of civic engagement** (civic activism, civic consultation or civic participation) in 2009-10. This represents a significant fall in civic engagement since 2008-09 when 47 per cent reported taking part. (Paragraph 2.3)
- **Civic participation remained the most common form of civic engagement activity**, with 34 per cent of people having taken part. Levels of participation have, however, declined from 38 per cent since 2008-09. (Paragraph 2.4)
- There has been little change in terms of the other components of civic engagement. Around one in five people (18%) took part in some form of civic consultation and one in ten people (10%) said they had participated in civic activism. These levels have remained relatively stable since 2005. (Paragraph 2.4)

## Civic activism

- **Civic activism remained the least common form of civic engagement activity, with one in ten (10%) taking part.** Of those who took part in civic activism, the most common activity **was joining a decision making group about 'other' local community services (26%).** (Paragraph 2.15)
- The bivariate analysis highlighted some variation in civic activism by ethnicity and education levels. When other factors were controlled for, education remained important but the **most significant demographic predictor of civic activism was the level of deprivation in an area.** People living in the 60 per cent most deprived areas had a greater chance of taking part in civic activism compared with those living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas. (Paragraph 2.22)
- **The most significant predictor of civic activism was volunteering.** Specifically, people who took part in yearly formal volunteering had more chance of participating in civic activism compared with people who did not take part in this form of volunteering. Other forms of volunteering were also predictors of civic activism but their influence was weaker. (Paragraph 2.25)
- **Feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area,** as well as believing it was important to do so, were also significant predictors of civic activism. (Paragraph 2.26)

## Civic participation

- **Civic participation was the most common form of civic engagement with 34% of people having done some form of activity.** Among people who had taken part in civic participation, most commonly they had signed a petition (54%), contacted a council official (33%) or contacted a local councillor (29%). The proportion of people signing a petition has fallen from 60 per cent since 2008-09. (Paragraph 2.29)
- Many demographic factors appeared to be related to civic participation such as age, sexual identity, education as well as socio-economic group. However, when controlling for other factors, the multivariate analysis showed that the most significant demographic predictors of civic participation were marital status and ethnicity. People living as a couple had higher odds of civic participation than those who were single and Indian, Black African and Chinese people had lower odds of civic participation compared with White people. (Paragraph 2.37 and 2.38)
- **The most significant predictor of civic participation was volunteering.** People who volunteered formally in the last 12 months had the highest odds of taking part in civic participation. (Paragraph 2.43)

The **importance of being able to influence decisions** affecting the local area and levels of satisfaction with the local authority were also strong predictors of civic participation. (Paragraph 2.44)

## Civic consultation

- **Around one in five (18%) people took part in some form of civic consultation in 2009-10.** The most common form of activity was completing a questionnaire about local services or problems (66%). This figure has fallen since 2008-09 when the figure was 70 per cent. (Paragraph 2.51 and 2.52)
- The bivariate analysis highlighted links between education level and socio-economic group and civic consultation. These factors also emerged as being significant in the multivariate analysis with **socio-economic group** the most significant demographic predictor. (Paragraph 2.60)
- As with civic activism and civic participation, **the most significant predictor of civic consultation was participation in formal volunteering in the last 12 months.** (Paragraph 2.63)
- The model also showed that **feeling able to influence local decisions was** associated with civic consultation. People believing that it was very important to influence decisions affecting their local area and who agreed they were able to influence local decisions had higher odds of taking part in civic consultation. (Paragraph 2.64).

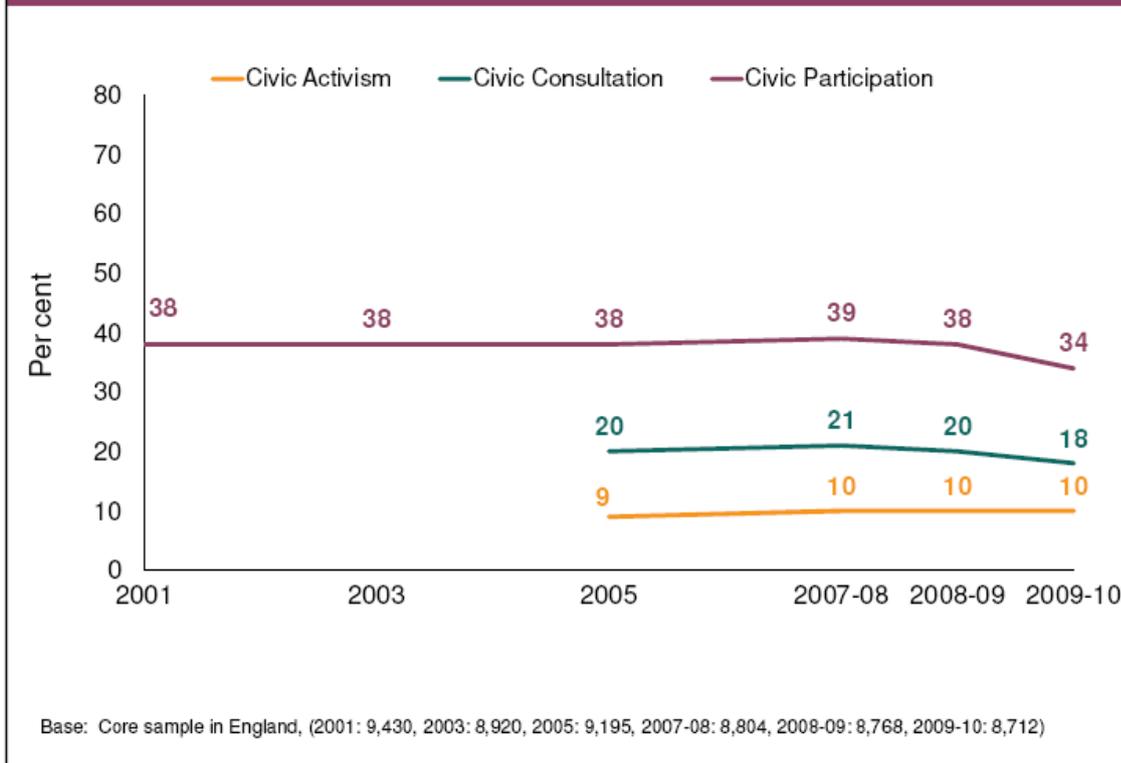
## Civic engagement

- 2.1** This chapter considers the subject of engagement. A key form of engagement is civic engagement, which refers to participation between citizens and the state and between public services and their users. This participation could take place in, for example, a Local Strategic Partnership or in a council committee. The chapter looks at civic engagement overall and then explores its different components.
- 2.2** Building on an extensive body of literature, the Citizenship Survey divides civic engagement into three broad categories:
- 1. Civic Activism**  
This includes involvement in decision-making about local services or in the provision of these services (for example, being a school governor or a magistrate).
  - 2. Civic Participation**  
This includes engagement in democratic processes, such as contacting an elected representative or attending a public demonstration.
  - 3. Civic Consultation**  
This includes taking part in consultations about local services such as completing questionnaires, attending public meetings or being involved in discussion groups.

## Civic engagement trends

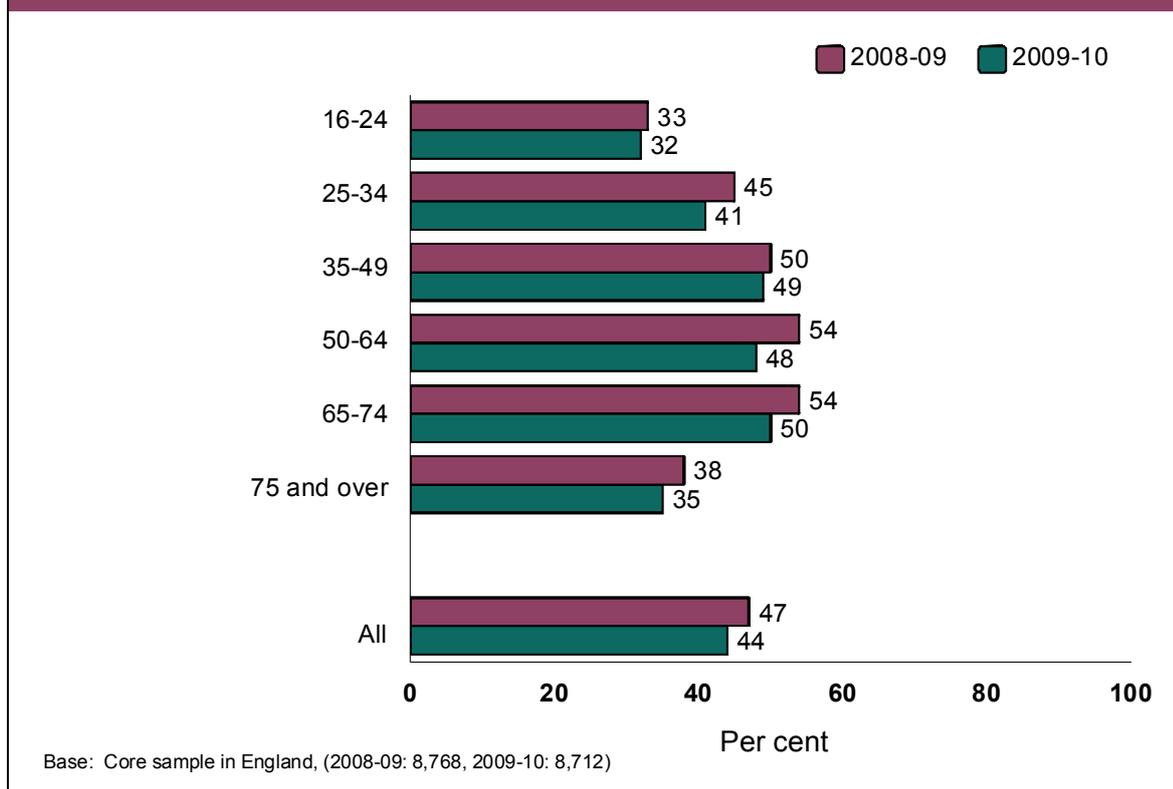
- 2.3** In 2009-10, 44 per cent of all people in England said they had taken part in some form of civic engagement activity (civic activism, civic consultation or civic participation) in 2009-10. This marked **a significant decline in civic engagement** from 2008-09 when 47 per cent said they had taken part. (Table A.1)
- 2.4** Looking at the different components of civic engagement in 2009-10, it was **civic participation in which people were most likely to have taken part**. Overall, around a third (34%) of people had taken part in civic participation activities in the last 12 months. In line with the overall direction of civic engagement, **civic participation has declined from 38 per cent since 2008-09**; it had been relatively stable at that level since 2001. There has, however, been little change in terms of involvement in other aspects of civic engagement. **Around one in five people (18%) said they were involved in some form of civic consultation** in the last twelve months. This compared with 20 per cent in 2008-09. This has remained fairly consistent at this level since 2005. **One in ten people (10%) said they had participated in civic activism**. This has seen no change since the previous year and again, has remained at a similar level since 2005. The balance between the different components of civic engagement is something we might expect given the time commitment that is likely to be required for civic activism activities compared with civic participation or consultation. (Figure 2.1 and Table A.1)

**Figure 2.1 Participation in civic engagement activities: 2001 to 2009-10**



- 2.5** Young people aged 16-24 years old (32%) and those aged 75 years or more (35%) were least likely to have taken part in a civic engagement activity compared with the average (44%). (Figure 2.2, Table A.2)
- 2.6** Across many of the age groups there has been a decline in civic engagement between 2008-09 and 2009-10. The greatest decline was among people aged 50-64 years old (who were one of the two age groups most likely to have taken part in 2008-09 from 54% to 48%). (Figure 2.2, Table A.2a)

**Figure 2.2** Participation in civic engagement activities by age: 2008-09 to 2009-10



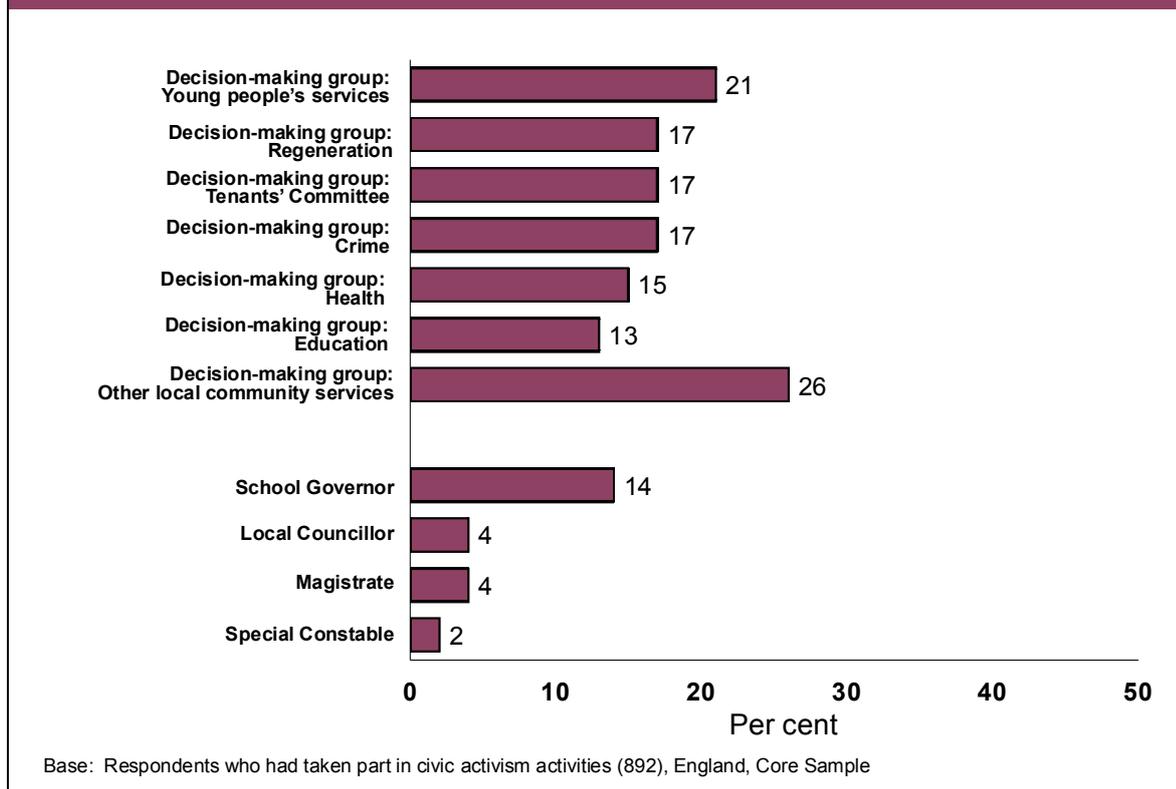
- 2.7 Gay, lesbian, and bisexual people** (57%) were more likely than heterosexual people (44%) to have taken part in a civic engagement activity. (Table A.4)
- 2.8 White people were most likely to have taken part in a civic engagement activity compared with the average for all other ethnic groups** (45 per cent compared with 35 per cent). (Table A.5)
- 2.9** There was some **variation in civic engagement by socio-economic group**. People in managerial and professional occupations (55%) were more likely to have taken part in civic engagement than those in routine occupations (32%). Full-time students were just as likely to have taken part in civic engagement as those in lower supervisory and semi-routine occupations (both 38%). (Table A.6)
- 2.10** Similarly, **there was a link between highest qualification and civic engagement**. People with a degree or equivalent qualification (58%) were more likely to have taken part in a civic engagement activity in the last 12 months than those with A-levels or equivalent (46%), those with foreign qualifications (37%) and those with no qualifications (30%). (Table A.8)
- 2.11** There was some variation in civic engagement activity according to the **levels of deprivation in an area**. Those living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas were more likely to have participated in civic engagement (55%) than those in the 10 per cent most deprived areas (34%). (Table A.11)

- 2.12** As found in previous years, people living in **rural areas** (48%) were more likely to have participated in civic engagement compared with those living in urban areas (43%). However, among those living in rural areas, there has been a fall in civic engagement, from 55 per cent in 2008-09 to 48 per cent in 2009-10. (Table A.12 and A.12a)
- 2.13 Civic engagement activity varied by region.** People living in the South East (49%) were more likely to have taken part in civic engagement than the average (44%). Civic engagement was lowest in the North West (38%) and in London (40%). Civic engagement in the North West and the West Midlands has declined significantly over the last year whereas in other regions there has been little change. In the North West, civic engagement fell from 45 per cent in 2008-09 to 38 per cent in 2009-10. In the West Midlands, civic engagement fell from 51 per cent in 2008-09 to 44 per cent in 2009-10. (Table A.12 and A.12a)

## Civic activism

- 2.14** Civic activism activities include undertaking specific responsibilities in the community, such as being a councillor, a school governor, a magistrate or a special constable, or involvement in groups which have a decision-making role in local services.
- 2.15 Civic activism was the least common form of civic engagement,** with one in ten people (10%) saying that they had taken part in at least one civic activism activity. Among those who had taken part in some form of civic activism, the most common activity was **joining a decision making group about 'other' local community services** (26%). The second most common activity was joining a decision-making group about local services for young people (21%). (Figure 2.3, Table A1 and A.13)

**Figure 2.3** Types of civic activism activities undertaken



- 2.16** There was little difference in civic activism by gender (10% for men and 11% for women). There was, however, some variation by age; people aged 25-34 years (8%) and those aged 75 years or more (7%) were the two age groups least likely to have taken part compared with the average of 10 per cent. (Table A.2)
- 2.17** While there was little variation in civic activism by ethnicity, Bangladeshi people (15%) were more likely to have taken part in civic activism than average (10%). (Table A.5)
- 2.18** In line with findings for civic engagement overall, **there was a relationship between education levels and civic activism**, with people with higher levels of education more likely to be civically active than those with lower levels of education (17% for those with a degree or equivalent compared with six per cent for those with no qualifications). (Table A.8)
- 2.19** However, unlike civic engagement overall, where taking part was related to levels of deprivation (i.e. the less deprived the area, the more likely it was for people to have taken part, see paragraph 2.11), there was a less clear pattern for civic activism. For instance, 11 per cent of people had taken part in civic activism in the 10 per cent least deprived areas compared with between eight to 10 per cent in the 30 per cent most deprived areas. The figure for the 10 per cent most deprived areas was nine per cent. (Table A.11)
- 2.20** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not someone has taken part in any civic activism activity in the last 12 months

after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 1 contains the full methodological details.

**2.21** Figure 2.4 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

<b>Figure 2.4: Model 1. Variables significantly related to “ Any civic activism in the last 12 months”</b>		
<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Index of Multiple Deprivation Decile	<i>1<sup>st</sup> decile – least deprived</i> 5 <sup>th</sup> decile 6 <sup>th</sup> decile 7 <sup>th</sup> decile 8 <sup>th</sup> decile 9 <sup>th</sup> decile 10 <sup>th</sup> decile – most deprived	Higher (1.71) Higher (1.62) Higher (1.79) Higher (1.87) Higher (1.55) Higher (1.83)
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> A level or equivalent GCSE grades A-C or equivalent No qualifications	Lower (0.59) Lower (0.66) Lower (0.56)
Socio-economic group (7 categories)	<i>Higher/lower managerial and professional occupations</i> Routine occupations	Lower (0.51)
Gender and age	<i>Men aged 16-24</i> Men aged 25-34	Lower (0.54)
Whether UK born/time in UK	<i>Born in UK</i> Not born in UK – lived here less than 5 years	Lower (0.47)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Formal volunteering in the last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (2.80)
Can influence decisions affecting local area	<i>Definitely/tend to agree</i> Definitely/tend to disagree	Lower (0.56)
Importance of being able to influence decisions in local area	<i>Very important</i> Quite important Not very important Not at all important	Lower (0.58) Lower (0.50) Lower (0.36)
Formal volunteering at least once a month	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.88)
Informal volunteering in the last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.47)
Main source of information on news and current affairs	<i>TV/Radio</i> Broadsheet	Higher (1.77)

**Figure 2.4: Model 1. Variables significantly related to “Any civic activism in the last 12 months” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Satisfaction with local services for young people	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly satisfied	Lower (0.67)
Sense of belonging to Britain	<i>Very strongly</i> Not at all strongly	Lower (0.44)

The key findings from this analysis are as follows:

- 2.22** The bivariate analysis showed there was no clear relationship between civic activism and levels of deprivation (see paragraph 2.19). However, once a range of factors had been controlled for, **deprivation was the most significant demographic predictor of civic activism**. Specifically, the multivariate analysis showed that the odds of participating in civic activism were higher for people living in the 60 per cent most deprived areas compared with those living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas.
- 2.23** The bivariate analysis showed there was a relationship between civic activism and **qualifications** (see paragraph 2.18). This was supported by the multivariate analysis where people with a degree or equivalent had a higher likelihood of participating in civic activism than those with A levels, GCSE grades A-C or equivalent, or those with no qualifications. Similarly, those working in routine occupations had around half the odds (0.51) of being civically active compared with people working in managerial and professional occupations.
- 2.24** Whether or not someone was **born in the UK** was also a predictor of civic activism. People who were not born in the UK and had lived here for less than five years had lower odds of participating in civic activism than those born in the UK.
- 2.25** In terms of attitudes and behaviours, the model showed that there was a **strong association between volunteering and civic activism**. Specifically, the most significant behavioural predictor of civic activism was whether or not someone participated in **formal volunteering in the last 12 months**. The odds of civic activism were higher (2.80) among people who took part in formal volunteering in the last 12 months compared with those who did not. Similarly, the model showed that people who gave **informal help in the last 12 months and** participated in regular **formal volunteering** had a higher chance of participating in civic activism than those who did not.
- 2.26** Another theme that emerged in the model was **the ability to influence local decisions**, which was a significant predictor of people’s propensity for civic activism. People who felt they could not **influence decisions affecting the local area** had around half the odds (0.56) of participating in civic activism compared with those who felt they could influence these decisions. Similarly, the less importance people attached to being able to influence decisions affecting their local area, the lower the likelihood of them participating in civic activism. The analysis also highlighted that in terms of attitudes, people who had a strong sense of **belonging to Britain** had a higher chance of

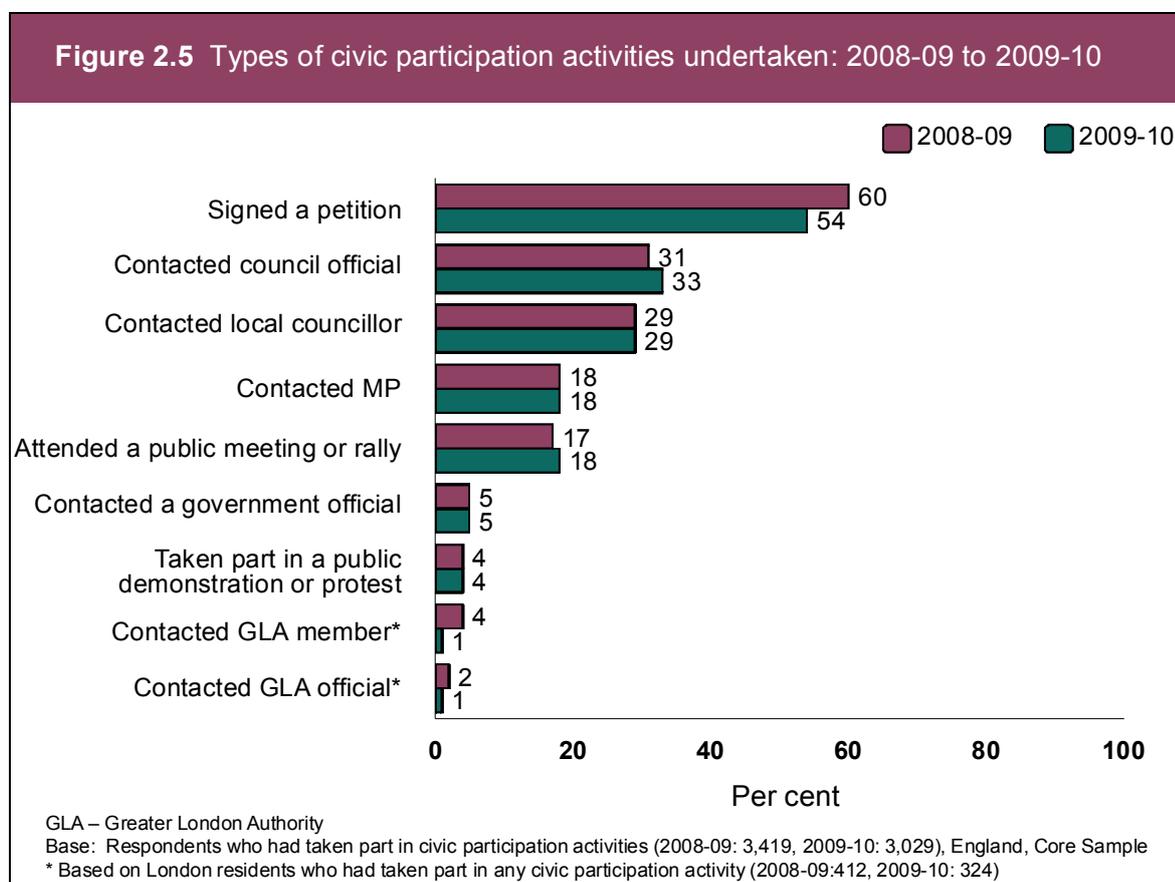
participating in civic activism compared with those who did not feel at all strongly that they belonged to Britain.

**2.27** The main source of information for news or current affairs was also a predictor of civic activism; **people who read broadsheet newspapers** had a higher likelihood of taking part in civic activism than those getting their information from TV or radio.

## Civic participation

**2.28** Civic participation activities include contacting a local councillor, council official, MP or government official, as well as attending a public meeting or rally, taking part in a public demonstration and signing a petition.

**2.29** **Civic participation was the most common form of civic engagement, with 34 per cent of people having done some form of activity.** Levels of civic participation have fallen since 2008-09 when the figure was 38 per cent. Among people who had taken part in some form of civic participation, the most common activity was to sign a petition (54%), contact a council official (33%) or contact a local councillor (29%). While the overall pattern in the levels of participation across the different types of activities remained similar to the previous year, there was a decline in the proportion of people signing a petition, which is likely to be the main contributor to the overall fall in civic participation. (Figure 2.5, Table A1, A.14 and A.14a)



- 2.30** Similar to other measures of civic engagement, **levels of civic participation tended to increase with age**, although this pattern stops among those aged 75 years or more where levels of civic engagement begin to decline. For example, the levels of civic participation were 22 per cent for 16-24 year olds, 31 per cent for 25-34 year olds, 42% for 65-74 year olds and 27% among those aged 75 years or more. (Table A.2)
- 2.31** As with all measures of civic engagement, **gay, lesbian and bisexual people** (48%) were more likely to have taken part in a civic participation activity than heterosexual people (34%). (Table A.4)
- 2.32** **White people** (36%) were most likely to have taken part in some form of civic participation activity compared with the average for all ethnic minority groups (25%). (Table A.5)
- 2.33** Similar to the pattern observed for civic engagement overall, **there was a clear link between civic participation and socio-economic group** with those in managerial and professional occupations (44%) more likely to have been involved in a civic participation activity than those in routine occupations (24%) or those who have never worked or were long-term unemployed (21%). (Table A.6)
- 2.34** **Educational qualifications** were also related to civic participation with those with a degree or equivalent (46%) more likely to have participated in an activity in the last 12 months than people with all other qualifications (except those with higher education below degree level, 43%) and those with no qualifications (24%). (Table A.8)
- 2.35** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not someone has taken part in any civic participation activity in the last 12 months after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 2 contains the full methodological details.
- 2.36** Figure 2.6 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect. It is worth noting here that there are a greater number of attitudes and behaviours that predict civic participation compared with civic activism. Furthermore, within the model, there are a greater number of attitudinal and behavioural factors that emerged as significant compared with demographic factors.

**Figure 2.6: Model 2. Variables significantly related to “Any civic participation in the last 12 months”**

<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Living as single or couple	<i>Living as single</i> Living as couple	Higher (1.43)
Ethnic group	<i>White</i> Indian Black African Chinese	Lower (0.56) Lower (0.71) Lower (0.55)
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> GCSEs grades A-C or equivalent GCSEs grades D-E or equivalent Foreign or other qualifications No qualifications	Lower (0.69) Lower (0.69) Lower (0.71) Lower (0.69)
Sexual identity	<i>Heterosexual</i> Gay/lesbian/bisexual	Higher (1.84)
Religion	<i>Christian</i> Other religion No religion	Higher (1.54) Higher (1.28)
Whether practising religion	<i>Not actively practising religion</i> Actively practising religion	Higher (1.21)
Limiting long-term illness or disability	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.19)
Whether UK born/time in UK	<i>Born in UK</i> Not born in UK – here longer than 5 years	Lower (0.73)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Formal volunteering in the last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.86)
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting the local area	<i>Very important</i> Quite important Not very important Not at all important	Lower (0.59) Lower (0.44) Lower (0.36)
Overall satisfaction with the way local authority runs things	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Higher (1.40) Higher (1.86)
Informal volunteering in the last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.29)
Satisfaction with local public parks	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Fairly dissatisfied	Lower (0.80) Lower (0.69) Lower (0.66)
Whether local area has changed in the past two years	<i>Area has not changed much</i> The area has got worse	Higher (1.33)

**Figure 2.6: Model 2. Variables significantly related to “Any civic participation in the last 12 months” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Satisfaction with services for young people	<i>Very satisfied</i> Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Higher (1.33) Higher (1.52) Higher (1.53)
Importance of ethnicity to sense of who you are	<i>Not very/not at all important</i> Very/quite important	Lower (0.82)
Main source of information on news and current affairs	<i>TV/Radio</i> Broadsheet Tabloid	Higher (1.33) Lower (0.71)
Change in circumstance as a result of economic downturn	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.17)
People in the neighbourhood can be trusted	<i>Many</i> Some A few Just moved to area	Lower (0.84) Lower (0.76) Lower (0.59)
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.18)
Informal volunteering at least once a month	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.18)
Worried about becoming a victim of crime	<i>Not at all worried</i> Not very worried Fairly worried	Higher (1.20) Higher (1.27)

The key findings from this analysis are as follows:

- 2.37** Age, which was highlighted in the bivariate analysis (paragraph 2.30), was no longer significant once other factors were controlled for, and instead the most significant demographic predictor of civic participation was whether or not someone was **living as single or in a couple**. People living as a couple had a higher likelihood of civic participation than those living as single. This may be related to other life stage factors although we cannot conclude this from the model.
- 2.38** The relationship between **ethnicity** and civic participation was highlighted in the bivariate analysis (paragraph 2.32) and this was also supported in the model. White people had a greater chance of taking part in civic participation than Indian, Black African or Chinese people. There was, however, no significant relationship between civic participation and people of other ethnic groups.
- 2.39** In line with the bivariate analysis (paragraph 2.34) **educational qualification** was a predictor of civic participation where those with a degree or equivalent had a greater likelihood of civic participation than those with GSEs or no qualifications or those with foreign or other qualifications.
- 2.40** **Religious affiliation** and whether people practised a religion was a predictor of civic participation. Those who described their religion as ‘Other’ and those with no religion had a greater likelihood of civic participation than those of the

Christian faith. Whilst there was no significant relationship between civic participation and those of other faiths, overall those who **actively practised a religion** had a greater likelihood of civic participation than those who did not.

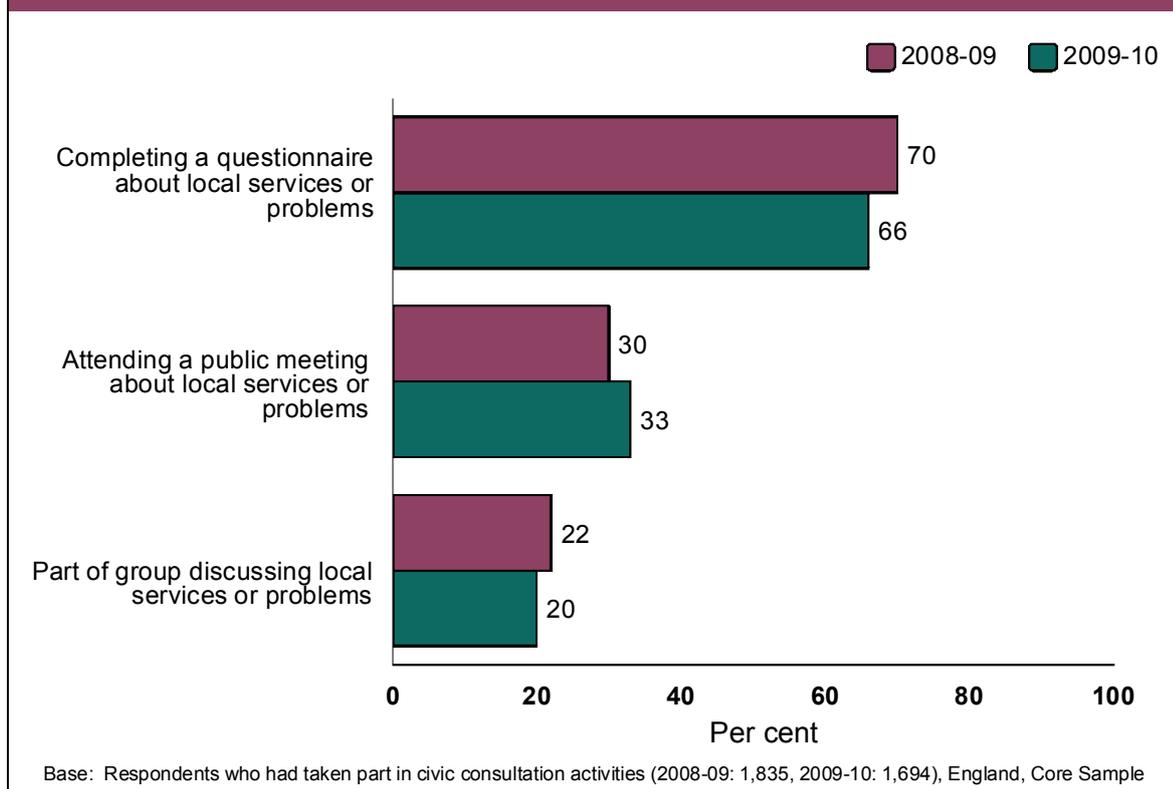
- 2.41** Certain minority groups were also associated with civic participation. The model showed that the odds of **gay, lesbian and bisexual people** being involved in a civic participation activity were greater compared with heterosexual people. **People with a limiting long-term illness or disability** had a higher chance of civic participation than those without a limiting long-term illness or disability.
- 2.42** As observed for civic activism (paragraph 2.24) whether or not someone was **born in the UK** was also a predictor of civic participation. People not born in the UK and who had lived here for longer than five years had a lower chance of civic participation compared with people born in the UK.
- 2.43** The model showed that, once a range of factors had been controlled for, participation in **volunteering** – specifically, formal volunteering in the last 12 months - **was the most significant predictor of civic participation**. Informal volunteering in the last 12 months as well as more frequently were also predictors of civic participation (although these influences were weaker).
- 2.44** A number of **attitudes about the local area and local services** were associated with a propensity for taking part in civic participation. People who felt it was very **important to be able to influence decisions affecting the local area** had greater odds of civic participation compared with those who felt it was less important. People who felt the local **area had got worse** over the last two years compared with those who felt it had not changed much, had greater odds of civic participation. The likelihood for civic participation was also higher among those who were **dissatisfied with the way the local authority runs things** compared with those who were very satisfied. Similarly, the greater the level of **dissatisfaction with local services for young people**, the greater the odds of civic participation. This suggests that people may be more likely to get involved when they are unhappy about the way services are being run. This pattern did not, however, follow for satisfaction with local parks where people who were very satisfied had a greater likelihood of civic participation than those who were fairly satisfied or dissatisfied.
- 2.45** Trust in others was also a predictor of civic participation. People who felt that **many people in their neighbourhood could be trusted** had higher chances of taking part in civic participation than those who felt only a few or some people could be trusted.
- 2.46** Those who said that their **ethnicity was important to their sense of self** had a lower chance of civic participation compared with those who did not think it was important.
- 2.47** As found for civic activism (paragraph 2.27), **how people get their information on news and current affairs** was strongly associated with civic participation. Compared with those who use television or radio, the likelihood of civic participation was higher among those who read broadsheets and lower among those who get their information from the tabloid press.

- 2.48** People whose circumstances **had changed as a result of the economic downturn** had a higher chance of civic participation compared with those who did not report a change in circumstances.
- 2.49** **Giving money to charity** was also an influence, with those who gave to charity in the last four weeks having a higher chance of civic participation.
- 2.50** Finally, concerns about crime also influenced how likely or not a person will engage in civic participation. People with some level of **concern about being a victim of crime** (i.e. those who were fairly or not very worried) had higher odds of civic participation compared with those who were not worried at all. Again, this finding suggests that people may be more likely to get involved when they have concerns about their local area.

## Civic consultation

- 2.51** Civic consultation activities include completing a questionnaire about local services or problems, attending a public meeting about local services or problems and being a part of a group discussing local services or problems. **In 2009-10, overall, 18 per cent of people had taken part in some form of civic consultation in the previous 12 months.** (Figure 2.7, Table A.1)
- 2.52** Among people who had taken part in some form of civic consultation, **the most common activity was completing a questionnaire about local services or problems** (66%), followed by attending a public meeting about local services or problems (33%) and taking part in a group discussing local services or problems (20%). Although still the most common activity, the proportion of people completing a questionnaire about local services or problems has fallen since 2008-09 (from 70 per cent to 66 per cent). (Figure 2.7, Table A.15)

**Figure 2.7** Types of civic consultation activities undertaken: 2008-9 to 2009-10



- 2.53** There was no difference in the level of participation in civic consultation by gender (18% for men and 19% for women). (Table A.2)
- 2.54** As with civic engagement overall (paragraph 2.5), **people aged 16-24 years (12%) were least likely to be involved in civic consultation compared with the average.** Participation in civic consultation tended to increase with age and then declined among those aged 75 years or more. (Table A.2)
- 2.55** **Socio-economic group was related to civic consultation.** People in managerial and professional occupations were more likely than all other occupations to have taken part in a civic consultation activity. Twenty-six per cent of people working in managerial and professional occupations had taken part in at least one activity compared with 11 per cent in routine occupations and 13 per cent for those who were unemployed or who had never worked. (Table A.6)
- 2.56** In keeping with findings on civic engagement (paragraph 2.10), **education levels appear linked to levels of civic consultation.** People with a degree or equivalent (27%) were more likely to have taken part in a civic consultation activity than people with GCSEs grades D-E or equivalent (13%) or those with no formal qualifications (11%). (Table A.8)
- 2.57** There was **some variation in civic consultation by income level.** For example, fifteen per cent of people who earned under £5,000, and between £10,000- £14,999, had engaged in civic consultation, which was significantly lower than people earning between £15,000-£19,999 (22%), £20,000-£29,000

(19%), £30,000-£49,999 (24%), £50,000-£74,999 (28%) and people earning £75,000 or more (35%). (Table A.10)

**2.58** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not someone has taken part in any civic consultation in the last 12 months after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 3 contains the full methodological details.

**2.59** Figure 2.8 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

<b>Figure 2.8: Model 3. Variables significantly related to “Any civic consultation in the last 12 months”</b>		
<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Socio-economic group (4 categories)	<i>Higher or lower management</i> Intermediate occupations Semi-routine and routine occupations Other (never worked/long term unemployed/full-time student)	Lower (0.79) Lower (0.56) Lower (0.67)
Tenure	<i>Mortgaged/part-ownership</i> Own outright Social renting	Higher (1.23) Higher (1.50)
Location (Urban/Rural)	<i>Urban</i> Rural	Higher (1.28)
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> A level or equivalent No qualifications	Lower (0.71) Lower (0.63)
Whether UK born/time in UK	<i>Born in UK</i> Not born in UK - here less than 5 years	Lower (0.56)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Formal volunteering in the last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (2.12)
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting the local area	<i>Very important</i> Quite important Not very important Not at all important	Lower (0.70) Lower (0.45) Lower (0.28)
Whether local area has changed in the past two years	<i>Area has not changed much</i> Area has got worse Lived here for less than 2 years	Higher (1.25) Lower (0.42)
Can influence decisions affecting local area	<i>Definitely/tend to agree</i> Definitely/tend to disagree	Lower (0.74)
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.39)

**Figure 2.8: Model 3. Variables significantly related to “Any civic consultation in the last 12 months” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Informal volunteering in the last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.30)
Importance of religion to sense of who you are	<i>Not very/at all important</i> Very/quite important	Lower (0.75)
Main source of information on news and current affairs	<i>TV Radio</i> Broadsheet	Higher (1.37)
Proportion of friends of same ethnic group (as self)	<i>All the same</i> More than half	Higher (1.17)

The key findings are as follows:

- 2.60** As observed in the bivariate analysis (paragraph 2.55 and 2.56), once other factors are controlled for **socio-economic group** and **education levels** were found to be strong influences on people’s propensity for civic consultation. The multivariate analysis showed that socio-economic group was the most significant demographic predictor, where lower socio-economic groups, had a lower likelihood of participation in civic consultation compared with those in higher or lower management occupations. Those with A-levels or no qualifications also had a lower chance of being involved in civic consultation compared with those who had a degree or equivalent.
- 2.61** **Tenure** was also identified as being a significant predictor of civic consultation. People who owned their home outright and social renters had a higher chance of taking part in civic consultation compared with those who part-owned their home or were buying it with a mortgage.
- 2.62** The odds of civic consultation were greater among people living in **rural areas** compared with those in urban areas. A further demographic factor that emerged as influential from the model was whether or not someone was **born in the UK**. People who were not born in the UK and had lived here for less than five years had around half the chance of taking part in civic consultation compared with those who had been born in the UK.
- 2.63** **Volunteering** was the most significant predictor of civic consultation overall. Specifically, those who formally volunteered in the last 12 months had twice the odds (2.12) of taking part in civic consultation than those who did not. Similarly, people who volunteered informally in the last 12 months and those who **gave money to charity** had a higher chance of taking part in civic consultation than those who did not. These findings mirror those that emerged for civic participation (paragraph 2.43 and 2.49).
- 2.64** In line with the multivariate analysis for civic activism and civic participation (paragraph 2.26 and 2.44), people who felt it was **very important to be able to influence decisions affecting their local area** had a higher chance of taking part in civic consultation compared with people who felt this was less important. Similarly, those who **agreed they could influence decisions affecting their local area** had higher odds of civic consultation compared

with those who disagreed. These factors were particularly strong influences on predicting civic consultation.

- 2.65** People's **attitudes towards their local area** were also related to civic consultation. Those who felt their area had got worse had a greater likelihood of civic consultation than those who did not think it has changed much. Those who had lived in the area for less than two years also had a lower chance of civic consultation.
- 2.66** As found for both civic activism and civic participation (paragraph 2.27 and 2.47), **how people get their information on news and current affairs** was strongly associated with civic consultation. Compared with those who got their information from TV or radio, the likelihood of civic consultation was greater among those who read broadsheets.
- 2.67** Civic consultation was also related to **the extent to which religion shapes a sense of identity**. People who felt that religion was *not* important in shaping their identity had a higher chance of taking part in civic consultation compared with those who felt it was important.
- 2.68** Finally, people with **more than half (but not all) of their friends from the same ethnic background** as themselves had higher odds of taking part in civic consultation compared with people whose friends are *all* from the same background as themselves.

## Conclusions

Participation in civic engagement (civic activism, civic participation and civic consultation) has fallen significantly between 2008-09 and 2009-10. In terms of the different components of civic engagement, it was civic participation – which is the most common form of civic engagement - that saw the biggest decline, while levels of civic activism and civic consultation have remained relatively stable over time.

Across all three components of civic engagement, analyses revealed a number of demographic and attitudinal and behavioural factors that underpinned engagement. However, attitudinal and behavioural factors tended to be more prevalent and stronger influences than demographic factors.

There were a number of compelling themes that emerged across all three components of engagement. Participation in volunteering was the most significant predictor of all forms of civic engagement. Being able to influence decisions also underpinned participation; those who agreed they could influence local decision making and felt it was important to do so, had a greater chance of being involved in some form of civic engagement.

In terms of demographics, educational levels were significant in predicting civic engagement; in general the higher the qualification, the greater the odds of being involved in some form of civic engagement.

Findings revealed that for civic activism (which is more likely than other components of civic engagement to require the greatest time commitment) is partly driven by levels of deprivation in the area. Notably, it was in areas with greater deprivation that people had higher odds of taking part in civic activism compared with those in the least deprived areas. This, perhaps, suggests that wanting to change the area is a motivation for getting involved. Similar findings were also evident for civic participation where dissatisfaction with the local authority, services for young people and concerns over crime were significant predictors.

## List of tables

### **Para. Table reference and name**

---

- 2.3 Table A.1: Participation in civic engagement activities once a month and at least once in the last 12 months, 2001 to 2009-10
- 2.4 Table A.1: Participation in civic engagement activities once a month and at least once in the last 12 months, 2001 to 2009-10
- 2.5 Table A.2: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by gender and age
- 2.6 Table A.2a: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by age 2008-09 to 2009-10
- 2.7 Table A.4: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by sexual identity
- 2.8 Table A.5: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by ethnicity
- 2.9 Table A.6: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by socio-economic group
- 2.10 Table A.8: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by highest qualification level
- 2.11 Table A.11: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Index of Multiple Deprivation
- 2.12 Table A.12: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area  
Table A.12a: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area 2008-09 to 2009-10
- 2.13 Table A.12: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area  
Table A.12a: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area 2008-09 to 2009-10
- 2.15 Table A.1: Participation in civic engagement activities once a month and at least once in the last 12 months, 2001 to 2009-10  
Table A.13: Types of civic activism activities undertaken in the last 12 months
- 2.16 Table A.2: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by gender and age
- 2.17 Table A.5: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by ethnicity
- 2.18 Table A.8: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by highest qualification level
- 2.19 Table A.11: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by Index of Multiple Deprivation
- 2.29 Table A.1: Participation in civic engagement activities once a month and at least once in the last 12 months, 2001 to 2009-10  
Table A.14: Types of civic participation activities undertaken in the last 12 months  
Table A.14a: Types of civic participation activities undertaken in the last 12 months 2008-09 to 2009-10
- 2.30 Table A.2: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by gender and age
- 2.31 Table A.4: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by sexual identity
- 2.32 Table A.5: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by ethnicity
- 2.33 Table A.6: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by socio-economic group

- 2.34 Table A.8: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by highest qualification level
- 2.50 Table A.1: Participation in civic engagement activities once a month and at least once in the last 12 months, 2001 to 2009-10
- 2.51 Table A.15: Types of civic consultation activities undertaken in last 12 months
- 2.52 Table A.2: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by gender and age
- 2.53 Table A.2: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by gender and age
- 2.54 Table A.6: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by socio-economic group
- 2.55 Table A.8: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by highest qualification level
- 2.56 Table A.10: Participation in civic engagement activities at least once in the last 12 months, by income

# Chapter 3

## Influencing decisions

### Chapter Summary

#### Influencing local and national decisions

- **In 2009-10, 37 per cent of people said they were able to influence decisions affecting their local area.** This figure has fallen from 39 per cent in 2008-09 and was the lowest percentage recorded for this measure since the first Citizenship Survey in 2001. (Paragraph 3.3 and 3.4)
- Although a number of demographic and geographic factors appeared to be related to perceptions of being able to influence decisions affecting the local area, such as age, ethnicity and income, these were less important when controlled for in the multivariate analysis. The analysis showed that **attitudinal and behavioural factors were stronger than demographics** in predicting whether someone felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area. (Paragraph 3.12)
- **The most significant predictor was trust in the local council;** the greater the level of trust in the local council, the higher the odds that someone felt able to influence decisions affecting the local area. Participation in civic activism and civic consultation as well as volunteering also predicted the outcome that people felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area. (Paragraph 3.15 and 3.17)
- **Satisfaction with the local council also emerged as a predictor,** as well as a range of other attitudes about the local area, such as whether the area had got better and whether people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood. (Paragraph 3.15 and 3.16)
- Around three-quarters (73%) of people felt it was important to be able to influence decisions affecting the local area. This figure has fallen from 78 per cent since 2008-09. (Paragraph 3.21)
- **One in five (20%) people said they were able to influence decisions affecting Britain.** This has also fallen from 22 per cent since 2008-09 but remained similar to levels recorded in 2003 and 2007-08. (Paragraph 3.3 and 3.4)

## Involvement in council decisions affecting the local area

- **Forty-four per cent of people said they would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area.** The extent to which people want to be more involved in local decisions has fallen from 49 per cent since 2008-09. (Paragraph 3.26)
- Multivariate analysis revealed that **the most significant predictor of whether someone wanted to be more involved in local decisions was involvement in civic participation.** Related to this, participation in civic consultation, volunteering and charitable giving were also predictors of a desire to be more involved. Dissatisfaction with how the local authority runs things and low levels of trust in the council also underpinned a desire to be more involved in local decisions. (Paragraph 3.38 and 3.39)
- Whether people **mixed in public spaces with people from different backgrounds** was also associated with wanting to be more involved in local decisions. (Paragraph 3.41)
- In terms of how people wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, **the most common method was by contacting the local council or a council official (49%).** This has remained unchanged since 2008-09. Other methods, such as contacting a councillor, signing a petition or attending a public meeting have fallen over this period. (Paragraph 3.46 and 3.47)
- The most frequently mentioned factors that would make it easier for people to influence decisions were **knowing what issues are being considered (44%)** and the council getting in touch to ask people to get involved (38%). (Paragraph 3.52)

## Influencing decisions

**3.1** This chapter considers the concept of empowerment; this relates to individuals' feelings of political efficacy. Empowerment is measured by the extent to which people feel that they can influence local or national decisions. Empowerment can, for example, relate to people's sense of being able to shape the services they use and influence the way these services are delivered. The Citizenship Survey asked two questions to measure people's sense of political efficacy:

1. Do you agree or disagree that you can influence decisions affecting your local area (within a 15-20 minute walk from your home)?
2. Do you agree or disagree that you can influence decisions affecting Britain?

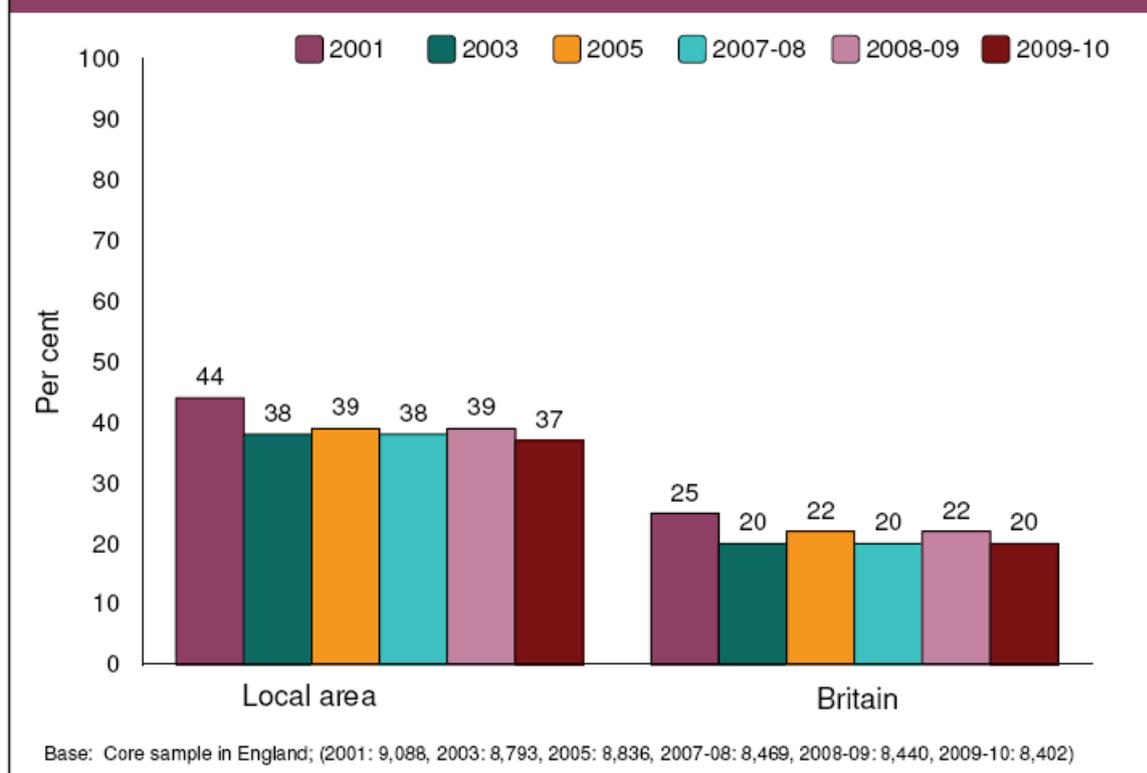
**3.2** The Citizenship Survey also examined feelings and behaviours surrounding influencing decision making in the local area and Britain. People were asked to assess how important it is for them personally to feel that they *can* influence decisions in their local area – findings for this question are also discussed in this section.

## Influencing local and national decisions

**3.3** In 2009-10, **37 per cent of people in England said that they felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area**, and 20 per cent said that they felt able to influence decisions affecting Britain as a whole. (Table B.1)

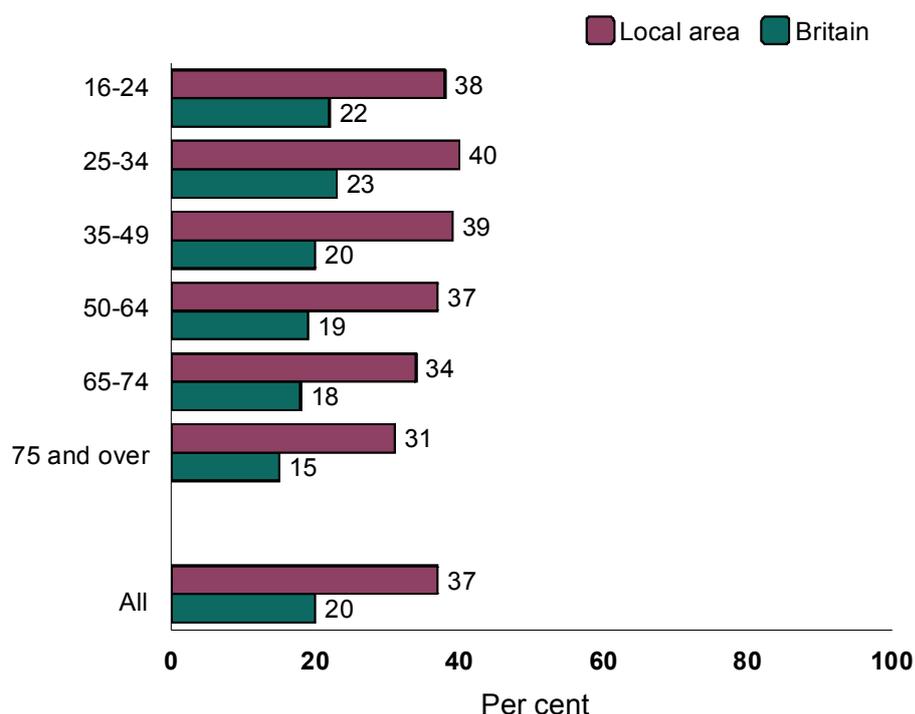
**3.4** The **proportion of people feeling able to influence decisions in their local area has fallen** from 39 per cent in 2008-09 to 37 per cent in 2009-10. The 2009-10 level is the lowest percentage recorded for this measure since the Citizenship Survey started in 2001. There was a similar decline in feeling able to influence decisions affecting Britain from 22 per cent in 2008-09 to 20 per cent in 2009-10, although this was the same as levels recorded in 2003 and 2007-08. (Figure 3.1, Table B.1)

**Figure 3.1** Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Britain: 2001 to 2009-10



- 3.5** Men and women were equally likely to feel they can influence decisions affecting their local area (37%). However, when looking at whether people can influence decisions affecting Britain, men were more likely than women to feel they can do this (22% compared with 18%). (Table B.2)
- 3.6** As observed in previous years, feelings of **influence over decisions affecting both the local area and in Britain tended to decline with age**. Among those aged 75 years or more, there has also been a significant fall in feelings of influence affecting Britain over the past year. In 2009-10, 15 per cent of those aged 75 years or more said they felt they were able to influence decisions affecting Britain compared with 21 per cent in 2008-09. (Figure 3.2, Table B.2)

**Figure 3.2** Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area, and Britain, by age



Base: Core sample in England 8,307 (local area), 8,402 (Britain).

- 3.7** People from **ethnic minority groups** were more likely than **White people** to **believe that they can influence decisions in their local area** (45% compared with 36%). Black African people (54%) were the most likely to say that they can influence decisions, followed by Pakistani people (47%). (Table B.5a)
- 3.8** People with **higher levels of income** were more likely to believe that they can influence decisions affecting their local area compared with those in lower income groups (47% for those earning more than £50,000 a year compared with 37% for those earning under £5,000). This, however, did not follow in relation to feeling able to influence decisions affecting Britain, where the picture was more mixed. (Table B.9)
- 3.9** People who **felt they belonged to their local area** were more likely to **feel they could influence decisions** affecting it (39% compared with 30% of those who did not feel they strongly belonged to the local area). (Table B.13)
- 3.10** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not people feel they can influence decisions affecting their local area after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 4 contains the full methodological details.
- 3.11** Figure 3.3 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference

category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

**Figure 3.3: Model 4. Variables significantly related to whether someone “ Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area ”**

<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> A level or equivalent GCSE grades A-C or equivalent Foreign and other qualifications No qualifications	Lower (0.81) Lower (0.80) Lower (0.64) Lower (0.73)
Location (Urban/Rural)	<i>Urban</i> Rural	Higher (1.23)
Region	<i>London</i> East Midlands North West	Lower (0.74) Lower (0.72)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Trust in local council	<i>A lot</i> A fair amount Not very much Not at all	Lower (0.69) Lower (0.38) Lower (0.32)
Civic activism in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.70)
People pull together to improve neighbourhood	<i>Definitely agree</i> Tend to agree Tend to disagree Definitely disagree	Lower (0.79) Lower (0.58) Lower (0.61)
Overall satisfaction with the way local authority runs things	<i>Very satisfied</i> Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Lower (0.71) Lower (0.66) Lower (0.54)
Civic consultation in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.34)
Importance of ethnicity to sense of who you are	<i>Not very/not at all important</i> Very/quite important	Higher (1.27)
Whether local area has changed in the past two years	<i>The area has not changed much</i> The area has got better	Higher (1.40)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in <u>private</u> setting	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.21)
Number of immigrants coming to Britain nowadays	<i>Increased a lot/a little more</i> Reduced a lot less	Lower (0.72)
Formal volunteering in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.21)

**Figure 3.3: Model 4. Variables significantly related to whether someone “Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area ” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Informal volunteering in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.19)
Satisfaction with local services for young people	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly satisfied	Higher (1.33)
Enjoys living in the neighbourhood	<i>Yes, definitely</i> Yes, to some extent No	Lower (0.82) Lower (0.74)
Civic participation in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.19)
Sense of belonging to Britain	<i>Very strongly</i> Not very strongly Not at all strongly	Lower (0.73) Lower (0.63)

The key findings are:

- 3.12** The multivariate analysis showed that attitudinal and behavioural factors were stronger than demographics in predicting whether someone felt they could influence decisions affecting their local area.
- 3.13** In terms of demographic factors, **educational qualification** was a most significant predictor. Those with A levels or equivalent, GCSEs grade A-C or equivalent, foreign or other qualifications or no qualifications had a lower likelihood of feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area compared with people who had a degree or equivalent.
- 3.14** The type of area also had a strong association with feelings of influence. People living in **rural areas** had higher odds of feeling able to influence local decisions compared with those in living in urban areas. When considering Region, the likelihood of feeling able to influence local decisions was lower among those living in the **North West** and the **East Midlands** compared with London.
- 3.15** The most significant predictor of whether someone felt they could influence decisions affecting their local area overall, was **trust in the local council**. The lower the levels of trust, the lower the likelihood of people feeling they could influence local decisions. For example, the odds of feeling able to influence local decisions fell to around a third (0.32) for those who did not trust the local council at all compared with those who trusted it a lot. **Satisfaction levels with the local council** were also associated with feelings of influence. The likelihood of feeling able to influence local decisions was lower among those who were fairly or very dissatisfied with how the local authority ran things compared with those who were very satisfied. These findings suggest that the relationship between local residents and their local council plays an important role in the extent to which people feel able to participate in local decisions.
- 3.16** **How people felt about their local area and Britain** was strongly associated with feelings of influence. The likelihood of feeling able to influence decisions was higher among those who felt their **local area had got better in the past**

**two years** and among those who definitely agreed that they **enjoyed living in their neighbourhood**. Feelings of influence were lower among people who *tended to agree*, *tended to disagree* or who definitely disagreed that their area was one where **people pull together to improve the neighbourhood** compared with those who definitely agreed. People's **sense of belonging to Britain** was also linked to feeling able to influence decisions. The odds of feeling able to influence decisions affecting the local area were lower among those who did not feel very strongly that they belonged to Britain.

- 3.17 Involvement in civic engagement and volunteering** was also strongly associated with feelings of influence. The odds of feeling able to influence local decisions were higher among those who had taken part in any form of civic activism, which was the second most significant behavioural predictor. Taking part in civic consultation or civic participation activity also predicted feelings of influence. Similarly, the chances of feeling able to influence decisions were higher among people who had been involved in both formal and informal volunteering in the last year compared with people who had not volunteered in either way.
- 3.18** Other factors that emerged in the model showed that **attitudes towards ethnicity and social mixing** were linked to feelings of influence. Those who said that their **ethnicity was important to a sense of who they are** had a greater likelihood of feeling able to influence decisions. Similarly, those who said they **mixed with people from different** in private settings (such as in the home) had a higher chance of feeling able to influence decisions compared with those who did not mix in this way.
- 3.19** The analysis showed that **attitudes towards immigration** were also linked to feelings of influence. Those who felt that the number of immigrants coming to Britain should be reduced *a lot less* had a lower likelihood of feeling able to influence local decisions compared with those who felt that levels of immigration should be increased a lot or a little more.

## The importance of being able to influence local decisions

- 3.20** As well as considering whether people feel they can influence decisions, the Citizenship Survey explored the extent to which people felt it was important for them to be able to influence decisions. This factor is important as the desire to influence decisions and outcomes is crucial to getting people more involved in their local communities and shaping local services.
- 3.21** In 2009-10, 73 per cent of people felt it was important to be able to influence local decisions. This figure has fallen from 78 per cent since 2008-09. (Table C.1)
- 3.22** Men and women were equally likely to feel it was important to be able to influence local decisions (73%). There was, however, some **variation by age**. People aged 75 years or more (56%) and young people aged 16-24 years (65%) were less likely to feel it important to be able to influence decisions locally than overall (73%). (Table C.3)

- 3.23** People in managerial and professional occupations (81%) and intermediate occupations or small employers (74%) were significantly more likely to feel it was important to influence local decisions than those in routine occupations (62%) and those who have never worked or were long term unemployed (64%). (Table C.7)
- 3.24** There was also **some variation by area deprivation**. People in the least deprived areas were more likely to feel it was important to influence local decisions than those living in the most deprived areas. Eighty per cent of people living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas said that it was important to influence local decisions compared with 65 per cent of those living in the 10 per cent most deprived areas. (Table C.11)

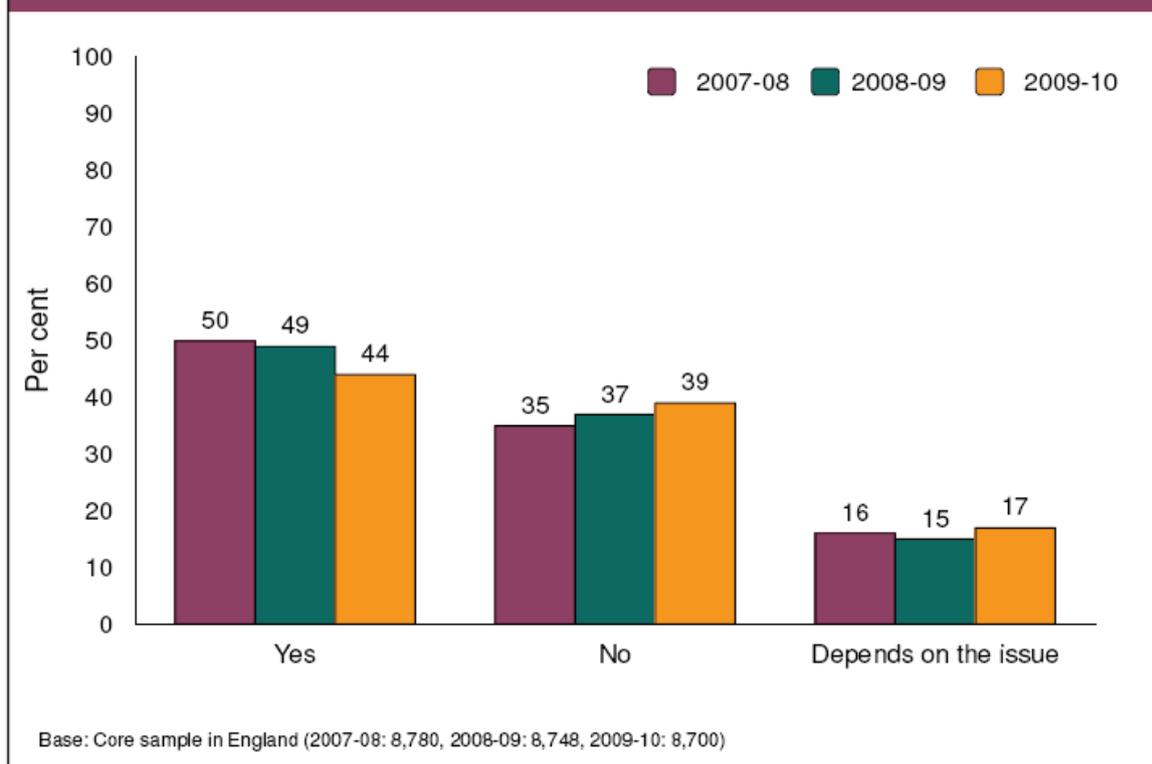
## Influencing decisions in the local area

- 3.25** This section explores whether people want to, and how people could be more involved in local decisions. The Citizenship Survey asked the following questions about this:
1. Would you like to be more involved in the decisions your council makes that affect your local area?
  2. What would make it easier to influence decisions in your local area?
  3. If you wanted to influence decisions in your local area, how would you go about it?

## Involvement in council decisions affecting the local area

- 3.26** **Forty-four per cent of people said they would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area** compared with 39 per cent who said they would not like to be more involved. **The extent to which people wanted to be *more* involved in decisions affecting the local area has fallen from 49 per cent since 2008-09.** (Figure 3.4, Table D.1)

**Figure 3.4 Whether people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area: 2007-08 to 2009-10**



- 3.27** As observed in previous years, **men (47%) were more likely to say they wanted to be more involved in council decisions than women (42%)**. The desire to be more involved was lowest among the oldest age groups; 34 per cent for those aged 65-74 years and 18 per cent for those aged 75 years or more compared with 44% overall. (Table D.2)
- 3.28** A number of ethnic minority groups were more likely to say that they would like to be more involved in council decisions than White people. In particular, 53 per cent of Black African people, 52 per cent of Mixed Race people and 50 per cent of both Indian and Black Caribbean people expressed a desire to be more involved compared with 44 per cent of White people. (Table D.5a)
- 3.29** People in managerial and professional occupations (51%) and intermediate occupations (46%) were more likely to say they would like to be more involved in council decisions than those in routine occupations and those who have never worked or were long term unemployed (both 35%). (Table D.6)
- 3.30** **There was little variation in terms of wanting to be more involved in local decisions by area deprivation level.** This was unlike the pattern in relation to influencing local area (where people in the most deprived areas were less likely to feel it important to influence decisions (paragraph 3.24). People living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas, for instance, were just as likely as those in the 10 per cent most deprived areas to say they would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area (both 44%). (Table D.7)
- 3.31** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting their local

area, after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 5 contains the full methodological details.

**3.32** Figure 3.5 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

**Figure 3.5: Model 5. Variables significantly related to whether someone “Wants to be more involved in local council decisions”**

<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> GCSE grades A-C or equivalent GCSE grades D-E or equivalent Foreign and other qualifications No qualifications	Lower (0.77) Lower (0.72) Lower (0.73) Lower (0.65)
Ethnic group	<i>White</i> Indian Black African	Higher (1.44) Higher (1.78)
Socio-economic group (4 categories)	<i>Higher and lower management</i> Semi-routine and routine occupations	Lower (0.75)
Marital status	<i>Married and living with partner</i> Widowed	Lower (0.71)
Presence of child in household	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.20)
Ethnic composition of households in the area (proportion of ethnic minority households)	<i>Low ethnic proportion</i> High ethnic proportion	Higher (1.20)
Employment status	<i>In employment</i> Unemployed	Higher (1.41)
Limiting long-term illness or disability	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.19)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Civic participation in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.58)
Overall satisfaction with the way local authority runs things	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Higher (1.74) Higher (1.66)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in public setting	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.45)

**Figure 3.5: Model 5. Variables significantly related to whether someone “Wants to be more involved in local council decisions” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Civic consultation in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.42)
Whether local area has changed in the past two years	<i>The area has not changed much</i> The area has got worse The area has got better Lived in area for less than two years	Higher (1.32) Higher (1.35) Higher (1.29)
Formal volunteering in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.26)
Trust in local council	<i>A lot</i> Not very much	Higher (1.35)
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	No Yes	Higher (1.21)
Change in circumstance as a result of economic downturn	No Yes	Higher (1.19)
Worry about becoming a victim of crime	<i>Not at all worried</i> Not very worried Fairly worried Very worried	Higher (1.22) Higher (1.41) Higher (1.34)
Proportion of friends of same ethnic group (as self)	<i>All the same</i> More than half	Higher (1.19)
Informal volunteering in the last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.15)
Number of immigrants coming to Britain nowadays	<i>Increased a lot more/a little</i> Remain the same	Lower (0.69)
Feels safe after dark	<i>Very safe</i> A bit unsafe Never walks alone after dark	Higher (1.20) Lower (0.72)
Satisfaction with local services for young people	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly satisfied Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Higher (1.36) Higher (1.35) Higher (1.64)
Whether English is main language	Yes No	Lower (0.73)

The key findings are:

**3.33** In terms of demographic factors, the multivariate analysis showed that **educational qualification** was an important influence. People with a degree or equivalent had higher odds of wanting to be more involved in decisions affecting their area compared with those with lower level qualifications and those with foreign qualifications.

**3.34** **Socio-economic group** was also associated with a desire to be more involved in local council decisions. The likelihood of wanting to be more involved in local decisions was lower among people working in semi-routine or routine occupations compared with those in managerial and professional occupations. However, the odds of wanting to be more involved in local decisions were *higher* among those who were **unemployed** (i.e. those who

are out of work but actively seeking employment) compared with those who were in employment.

- 3.35** Certain minority groups had a greater likelihood of wanting to be more involved in local decisions. **Black African** and **Indian people** had higher odds of wanting to be more involved in local decisions than White people. People living in areas with a higher **proportion of ethnic minority households** had greater odds of wanting to be more involved in local decisions compared with people living in areas with a low proportion of ethnic minority households. People with a **long-term limiting illness or disability** also had a greater chance of wanting to be involved in decisions affecting their local area compared with those without a long-term illness or disability.
- 3.36** **Household composition** was also associated with a desire to be more involved. Where there were children in the household, the odds of wanting to be involved in local decisions were greater than if there were no children in the household.
- 3.37** **Marital status** was also associated with wanting to be more involved. People who were widowed had lower odds of wanting to be more involved in local council decisions compared with those who were married and living with their spouse or partner.
- 3.38** The most significant predictor overall of whether someone would like to be more involved in the decisions their council makes affecting the local area was whether someone had taken part in any form of **civic participation** in the last 12 months. People who had taken part in civic participation had a higher likelihood of wanting to be more involved than those who had not taken part.
- 3.39** Related to the above finding, participation in **civic consultation, formal and informal volunteering** (in the last 12 months) and **charitable giving** were all influenced by a desire to be more involved in local council decisions.
- 3.40** **Attitudes towards the local council** were also strong predictors of people's desire to be more involved in the decisions it makes. People who were dissatisfied with the way that the local authority runs things had a greater chance of wanting to be more involved than those who were very satisfied. This was a particularly strong indicator of opinion. Similarly, those who **did not trust the council** 'very much' had a greater likelihood of wanting to be more involved than those who trusted the council 'a lot'. This suggests that the motivation to get involved in local decision-making is linked to negative feelings towards the local council and its performance.
- 3.41** **Levels of mixing with people from different backgrounds** were positively associated with a desire to be more involved in local decisions. Those who mixed with people from different backgrounds in public settings had a higher chance of wanting to be more involved in decisions compared with those who did not mix in this way. Similarly, where **more than half of people's friends were from a different ethnic background** to themselves, the odds were greater for wanting to be more involved in local decisions compared with those whose friends were all from the same ethnic group.
- 3.42** The model also showed that people's **attitudes towards local services for young people** were related to wanting to be more involved in local decisions.

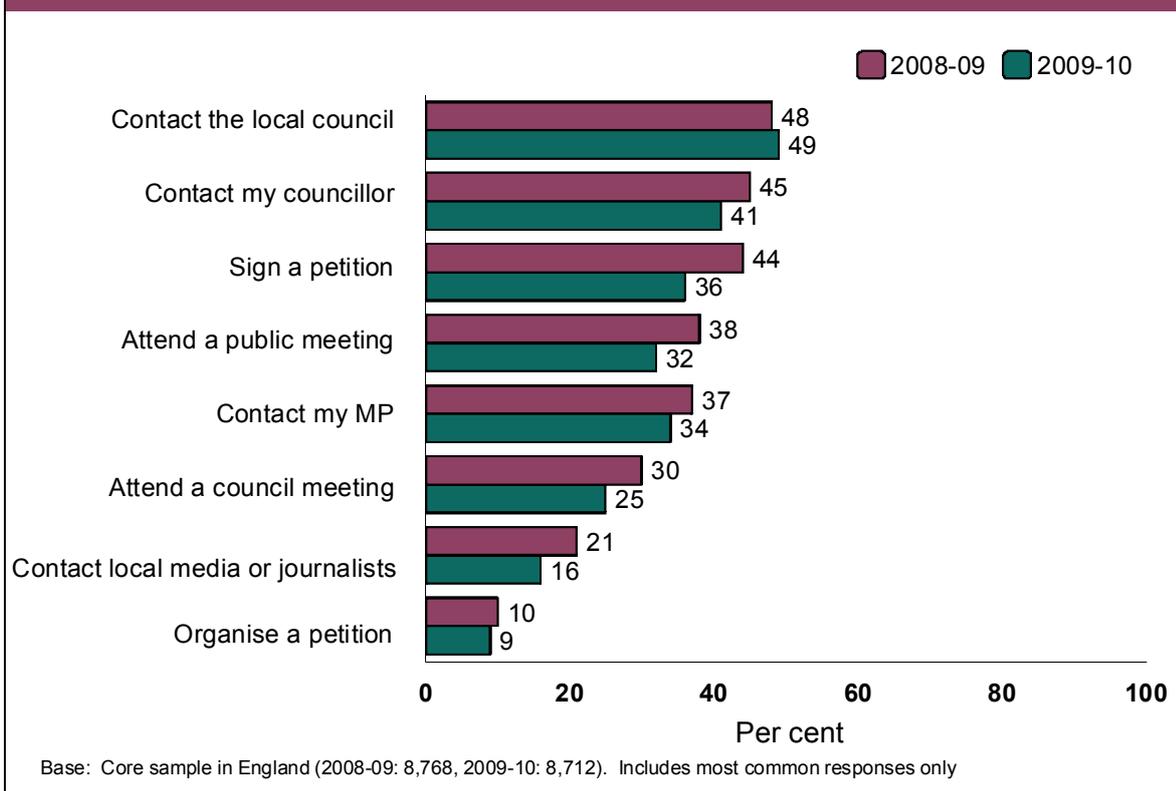
The odds of wanting to be more involved in local decisions were higher among those who were fairly satisfied or very or fairly dissatisfied with local services for young people compared with those who were very satisfied. This suggests that people may be more likely to want to get involved when satisfaction with services concerning young people is low.

- 3.43** As observed for feelings of influence (paragraph 3.16), **how people felt about their local area** was associated with a desire to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area. The chances of wanting to be more involved were greater among those who felt their area had got better or worse over the past two years compared with those who felt it had not changed. Concerns about local safety were also a factor. People who were **worried about becoming a victim of crime** had a higher chance of wanting to be more involved than those who were not worried at all. Similarly, those who felt a bit unsafe in their area after dark had a higher chance of wanting to get involved compared with those who felt very safe.
- 3.44** People who had reported **a change in circumstance as a result of the economic downturn** had a higher chance of wanting to be involved in local council decisions compared with those who reported no change.
- 3.45** The model also showed that **attitudes towards immigration** influenced a desire to be more involved in local council decisions. People who felt that levels of immigration should remain the same had lower odds of wanting to be more involved compared with those who felt that immigration levels should increase a lot or a little.

## How people want to influence decisions affecting their local area

- 3.46** The Citizenship Survey asked people if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, how they would go about it. The most common ways that would be used to influence local decisions were by **contacting the local council or a council official** (49%), contacting a councillor (41%), signing a petition (36%) or contacting their MP (34%). (Figure 3.6, Table E.1)
- 3.47** The proportion of people wanting to influence decisions by contacting the local council has remained unchanged since 2008-09 (from 48% in 2008-09 to 49% in 2009-10). However, for all other methods there was a fall over this period. In particular, there has been a decline in people's appetite for signing a petition (from 44% in 2008-09 to 36% in 2009-10) and attending a public meeting (from 38% in 2008-09 to 32% in 2009-10). (Figure 3.6, Table E4)

**Figure 3.6** Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area: 2008-09 to 2009-10



**3.48** There were few differences between men and women in what they said they would do to influence decisions. However, **men said they were more likely to contact their MP than women** (36% compared with 32%) and women said they were more likely than men to sign a petition (39% compared with 33%) and attend a public meeting (34% compared with 29%). (Table E.1)

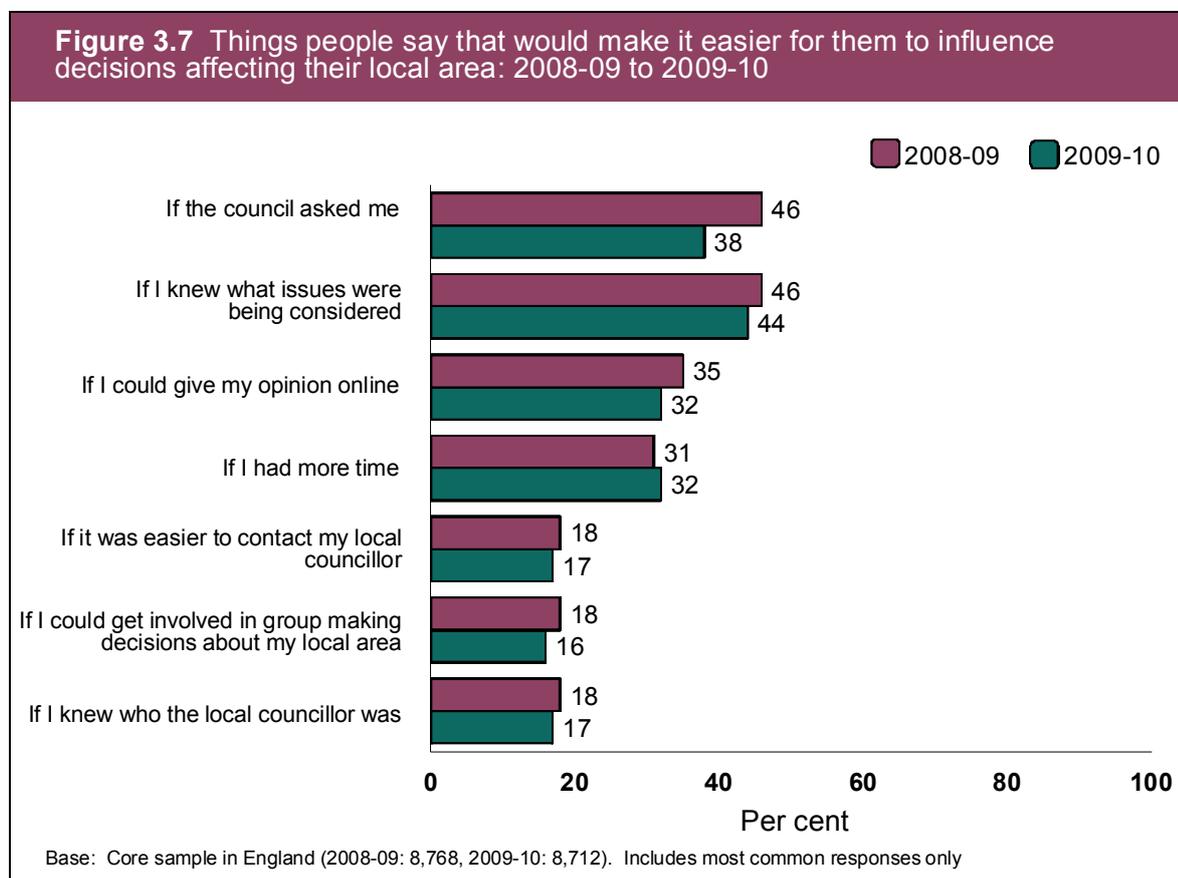
**3.49** The **desire to influence local decisions by contacting the local council tended to decline with age**. The exception was with 16-24 year olds (48%) who were less likely to want to influence decisions in this way than people aged 25-34 years (54%) and 35-49 years (53%). However, older people were more likely than younger people to contact a local councillor or MP as a means of influence. For example, 48 per cent of 65-74 year olds said they would contact their local councillor compared with 23 per cent of 16-24 year olds. (Table E.1)

**3.50** There was little variation in terms of wanting to sign a petition among the different age groups. The exception to this was found among the oldest age category, who were least likely to say they would sign a petition than other age groups (for example, 24% among those aged 75 years or more compared with 37% for 16-24 year olds). (Table E.1)

**3.51** People in managerial and professional occupations were more likely than the average to say they would use any of the methods to influence local decisions except organising a petition. (Table E.3)

## What would make it easier to influence decisions in the local area?

**3.52** When asked what would make it easier for people to influence local decisions, the most frequently mentioned response was **knowing what issues were being considered** (44%). This was followed by the council getting in touch to ask people for their views (38%), being able to give their opinions online and having more time (both 32%). These four factors were all mentioned in 2008-09 as being the most frequent responses but there has been a significant fall in the proportion of people mentioning the council getting in touch to ask people for their views (46% in 2008-09 compared with 38% in 2009-10). The findings suggest that in some cases people would be more likely to get involved if they were presented with opportunities and information rather than having to pro-actively seek these out themselves. (Figure 3.7, Table F.1 and Table F.4)



**3.53** There was some variation by gender in terms of what would make it easier to influence decisions affecting the local area. **Men were more likely than women to say it would be easier if they could give their opinions online or by email** (34% compared with 30%), if it was easy to contact their local councillor (19% compared with 15%) or if they knew who the local councillor was (18% compared with 16%). Women were more likely than men to say it would be easier if they had more time (33% compared with 30%). (Table F.1)

- 3.54** People aged 50-64 years (42%) were more likely than overall (38%) to say that the council getting in touch with them would make it easier for them to influence local decisions. Those aged 35-49 years (49%) and 25-34 years (48%) were more likely than average (44%) to say it would be easier if they knew what issues were being considered. These two age groups were also most likely to say it would be easier if they could give their opinions online or via email (40% for 35-49 year olds and 43% for those aged 25-34 years compared with 32% overall). The issue of having more time was more likely to be mentioned by those aged 35-49 years (44%) compared with all other age groups. (Table F.1)
- 3.55** People in **managerial and professional occupations** were more likely than those in all other socio-economic groups to mention knowing what issues were being considered (51%) and the council getting in touch with them (42%) as ways of making it easier to influence local decisions. Full-time students (27%) were more likely than average (17%) to say it would be easier to influence decisions if they knew who their local councillor was. There was little variation across socio-economic groups in terms of which other methods would make influencing local decisions easier. (Table F.3)

## Conclusions

In 2009-10 fewer people than in 2008-09 felt *able* to influence decisions affecting their local area. There was also a longer term decline in feeling able to influence decisions affecting Britain. These findings suggest that people feel less able to participate in decisions that affect them.

While the bivariate analysis showed that some demographic factors such as age and ethnicity were related to feelings of influence, the multivariate analysis showed that attitudes and behaviours were far more significant in predicting outcomes. Specifically, it was trust in, and satisfaction with, the local council that were significant predictors of feelings of influence. This highlights the importance of the role of local councils in facilitating people's participation in local decision-making.

The findings also showed that people who participated in civic activism had greater odds of feeling able to influence local decisions, which suggests that those already involved are more likely to feel they can influence decisions. The challenge therefore lies in improving feelings of influence among those currently not involved in their communities.

People's feelings about others in their local area were also important in shaping their perceptions about the level of influence they have on local decisions; where people agreed that people pulled together to improve their neighbourhood, the greater the likelihood they would feel able to influence local decisions.

In line with trends that showed a decline in feelings of influence, fewer people in 2009-10 than in 2008-09 attached *importance* to being involved in local decisions and fewer said they *wanted* to get more involved in council decisions affecting their local area.

The analysis showed that people who were already involved in some form of civic consultation or participation, as well as volunteering and charitable giving, had the greatest odds of wanting to be more involved in local council decisions.

Low levels of satisfaction and trust in the local council were also drivers of wanting to be more involved, which suggests that the motivation to get more involved is driven by negative attitudes or where people want to see improvements to their local area or services.

In terms of how people wanted to get involved, the most common method was through contacting the council or a council official. While this has remained unchanged over time, other methods (such as contacting a councillor, signing a petition or contacting an MP) have seen a decline. The findings showed that people felt it would be easier to get more involved in local decisions if they knew what issues were being considered or if the council got in touch to ask them, which suggests that people may be more likely to get involved if they were presented with opportunities and information rather than having to pro-actively seek these out themselves.

## List of tables

### **Para. Table reference and name**

---

- 3.3 Table B.1: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, 2001 to 2009-10
- 3.4 Table B.1: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, 2001 to 2009-11
- 3.5 Table B.2: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, by age and gender
- 3.6 Table B.2: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, by age and gender
- 3.7 Table B.5a: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, by ethnicity
- 3.8 Table B.9: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, by income
- 3.9 Table B.13: Whether people feel able to influence decisions in their local area and Britain, by sense of belonging to local area and Britain
- 3.21 Table C.1: How important it is to feel able to influence local decisions, 2007-08 to 2009-10
- 3.22 Table C.3: How important it is to be able to influence decisions, by age and gender
- 3.23 Table C.7: How important it is to feel able to influence local decisions, by socio-economic group
- 3.24 Table C.11: How important it is to feel able to influence local decisions, by Index of Multiple Deprivation
- 3.26 Table D.1: Whether people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area, 2007-08 to 2009-10
- 3.27 Table D.2: Whether people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area, by age and gender
- 3.28 Table D.5a: Whether people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area, by ethnicity
- 3.29 Table D.6: Whether people would like to be more involved in council decisions affecting the local area, by socio-economic group
- 3.30 Table D.7: Whether people would like to be more involved in Council decisions affecting the local area, by Index of Multiple Deprivation
- 3.46 Table E.1: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.47 Table E.4: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, 2008-09 to 2009-10
- 3.48 Table E.1: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.49 Table E.1: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.50 Table E.1: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.51 Table E.3: Things people say they would do if they wanted to influence decisions affecting their local area, by socio-economic group
- 3.53 Table F.1: Things people say would make it easier for them to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.54 Table F.1: Things people say would make it easier for them to influence decisions affecting their local area, by age and gender
- 3.55 Table F.3: Things people say would make it easier to influence decisions affecting their local area, by socio-economic group

# Chapter 4

## Trust in institutions

### Chapter summary

#### Trends in trust in institutions

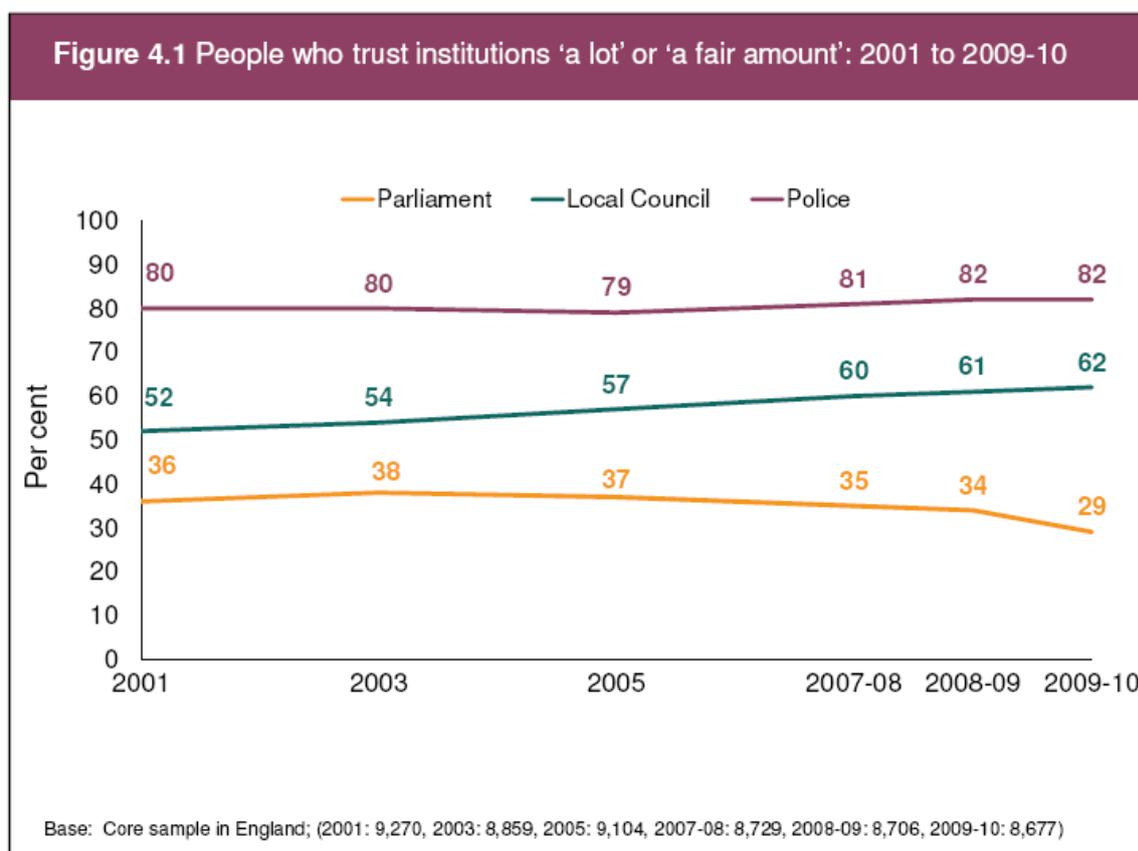
- In 2009-10, **82 per cent of people trusted the police** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount'. **Sixty-two per cent of people said they trusted their local council** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount' and **29 per cent trusted parliament**. (Paragraph 4.2)
- **Levels of trust in the police and local councils have remained stable** since 2008-09; however, **levels of trust in parliament have fallen** from 34 per cent to 29 per cent over this period. (Paragraph 4.3)
- Longer-term trend data revealed that since 2003, trust in parliament has declined whereas, over the same period, trust in local councils has steadily improved. (Paragraph 4.3 and 4.4)

#### Trust in the local council

- Although some demographic factors, such as ethnicity, appeared to influence trust in the local council, the multivariate analysis showed that **the most significant predictor of trust in the local council was satisfaction with its performance**; the greater the level of satisfaction, the greater the odds of trusting the local council. Attitudes towards some specific services were also important; people who were dissatisfied with local services for young people had a lower likelihood of trusting the council. (Paragraph 4.15)
- **Attitudes towards influencing local decisions were also important**; where people felt they could influence decisions affecting their local area, the greater the likelihood that they would trust the council. (Paragraph 4.16)
- How strongly people felt they belonged to Britain also influenced levels of trust in the council; the stronger the sense of belonging, the higher the odds of trusting the council. (Paragraph 4.17)
- How people felt about their local area also influenced levels of trust; where people agreed that their neighbourhood was one where people pulled together to improve things, the greater the odds that they would trust the council. Furthermore, where people felt the local area had got worse over the last two years, the likelihood that they would trust the council was lower. (Paragraph 4.18)

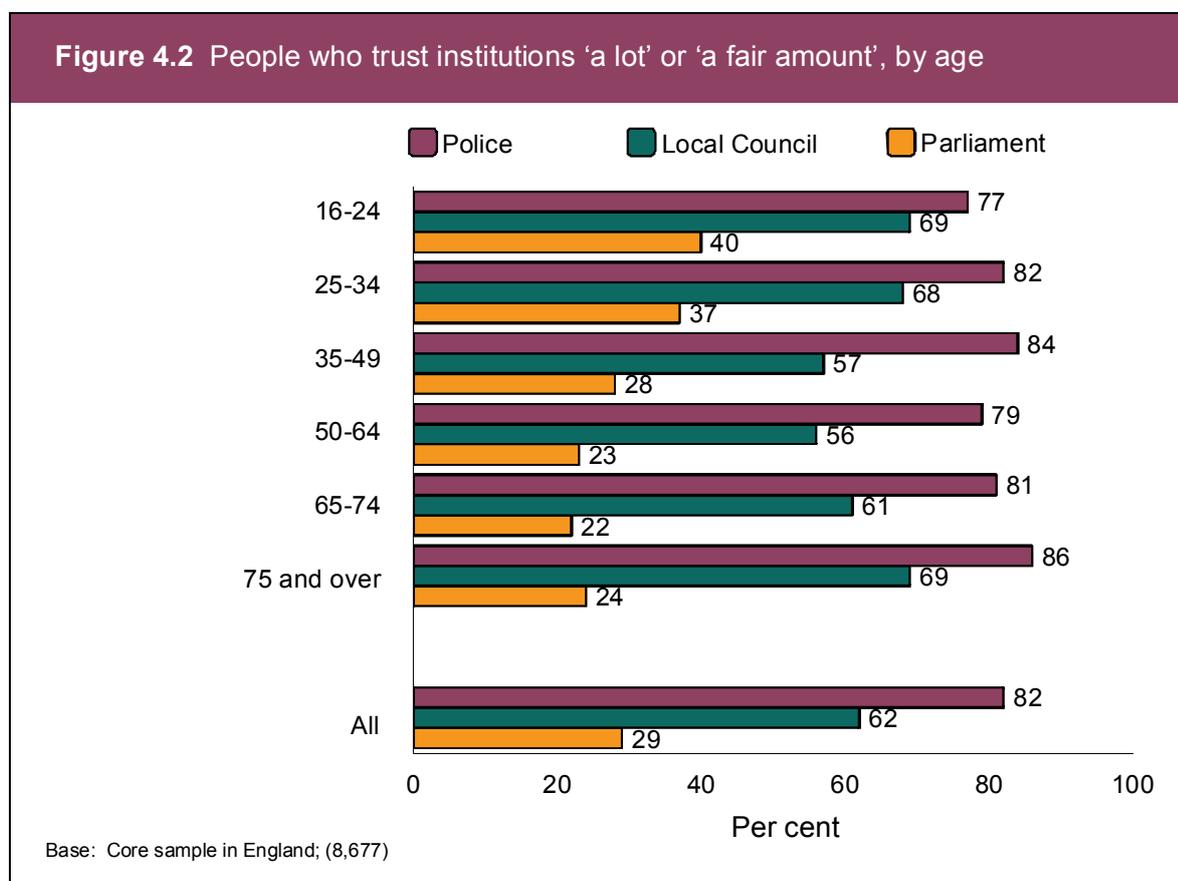
## Trust in institutions

- 4.1** Since 2001 the Citizenship Survey has asked people how much they trust the police, their local council and parliament. This chapter considers overall trends in trust in institutions and then focuses on findings specifically on trust in local councils.
- 4.2** In 2009-10, **82 per cent of people trusted the police** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount'. **Sixty-two per cent<sup>5</sup> of people said they trusted their local council** either 'a lot' or 'a fair amount' and **29 per cent trusted parliament**. (Table G.1)
- 4.3** Levels of trust in the police and local councils have remained unchanged from those observed in 2008-09. However, **levels of trust in parliament have fallen** from 34 per cent to 29 per cent over this period. One possible explanation for this decline could be the issue of parliamentary expenses which was widely reported in the media throughout the fieldwork period of the 2009-10 survey. The long term trend also shows that since 2003, there has been a steady decline in trust in parliament. (Figure 4.1, Table G.2)
- 4.4** Since 2001, levels of trust in local councils have increased from 52 per cent in 2001 to 62 per cent in 2009-10. (Figure 4.1, Table G.2)



<sup>5</sup> This figure refers to the combination figure for trust in the local council 'a lot/a fair amount' in Table G1, which is a more accurate measure than manually adding up figures for 'a lot' and 'a fair amount'.

- 4.5** Men and women had similar levels of trust in local councils with 61 per cent of men and 62 per cent of women saying they trusted the council ‘a lot’ or ‘a fair amount’. The same was true for trust in parliament (**men 30% and women 28%**). However, this did not hold for levels of trust in the police where women (84%) were significantly more likely to say they trust the police than men (79%). (Table G.3)
- 4.6** People in the youngest age group (16-24 years) had among the highest levels of trust in parliament (40%) and the local council (69%) but among the lowest levels of trust in the police (77%). People in the oldest age group (aged 75 years or more) had among the lowest levels of trust in parliament (24%) and among the highest levels of trust in the local council (69%) and the police (86%). (Fig 4.2, Table G.3)



- 4.7** The lowest levels of trust in parliament were among White people compared with all other ethnic groups. Twenty-seven per cent of White people trusted parliament ‘a lot’ or ‘a fair amount’ compared with all other ethnic groups except Black Caribbean people. For example, the figure was 66 per cent among people in the Asian ‘Other’ category. The picture was slightly more mixed for levels of trust in local councils. Sixty-one per cent of White people trusted their local council ‘a lot’ or ‘a fair amount’ compared with 59 per cent for Black Caribbean people and 55 per cent for Black ‘Other’ people. Among Asian groups overall, levels of trust in the local council were higher (77%) than White people (61%). For levels of trust in the police, White people (82%) were equally likely to trust the police as Indian (82%), Pakistani (82%)

and Bangladeshi (82%) people. However, compared with White people levels of trust in the police were lower among Black Caribbean (69%), Black African (78%), and Mixed Race people (65%). (Table G.6)

**4.8** People in **managerial and professional occupations** (31%) were more likely to trust parliament compared with people in intermediate occupations or small employers (25%), lower supervisory and semi-routine occupations (24%) and those in routine occupations (25%). However, levels of trust increased among those who had never worked or were long term unemployed (39%) and full-time students (47%). A similar pattern by socio-economic group was observed for trust in local councils. (Table G.8)

**4.9** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether someone trusts their local council after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 6 contains the full methodological details.

**4.10** Figure 4.3 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

<b>Figure 4.3: Model 6. Variables significantly related to whether someone “Trusts their local council”</b>			
<b>Demographics</b>			
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>	
Religion	<i>Christian</i> No religion	Lower (0.80)	
Marital status	<i>Married and living with husband/wife/civil partner</i> Divorced Separated	Lower (0.80) Higher (1.38)	
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> A level or equivalent No qualifications	Lower (0.69) Lower (0.77)	
Whether UK born/time in UK	<i>Born in UK</i> Not born in UK - here less than 5 years	Higher (1.99)	
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>			
Overall satisfaction with the way local authority runs things	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Lower (0.49) Lower (0.19) Lower (0.10) Lower (0.04)	
Can influence decisions affecting local area	<i>Definitely/tend to agree</i> Definitely/tend to disagree	Lower (0.51)	

**Figure 4.3: Model 6. Variables significantly related to whether someone “Trusts their local council” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Sense of belonging to Britain	<i>Very strongly</i> Fairly strongly Not very strongly Not at all strongly	Lower (0.84) Lower (0.58) Lower (0.44)
Whether English is main language	Yes No	Higher (1.78)
People pull together to improve neighbourhood	<i>Definitely agree</i> Definitely disagree	Lower (0.58)
Satisfaction with local services for young people	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Lower (0.68) Lower (0.61)
Whether local area has changed in past two years	<i>The area has not changed much</i> The area has got worse	Lower (0.84)
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting local area	<i>Very important</i> Quite important Not very important	Higher (1.26) Higher (1.26)
Can influence decisions affecting Britain	<i>Definitely/tend to agree</i> Definitely/tend to disagree	Lower (0.83)
Formal volunteering at least once a month	No Yes	Lower (0.85)
Satisfaction with life as a whole	<i>Very satisfied</i> Very dissatisfied	Lower (0.47)
Proportion of friends of the same religion (as self)	<i>All the same</i> More than half	Higher (1.19)

The key findings are:

- 4.11** The bivariate analysis showed some demographic variation in terms of trust in the local council (paragraph 4.5 to 4.7). However, when controlling for other factors, demographics were not overall the most significant predictors of trust in the council, attitudes and behaviours featured more prominently.
- 4.12** In terms of demographics, **religion** featured as a predictor of trust in the council. People of no religion had a lower likelihood of trusting the local council than Christian people. The analysis also showed that people with more than half (but not all) of their friends from the same religion as themselves had a higher chance of trusting the council compared with people whose friends were all from the same religion.
- 4.13** Whether or not **English was the first language** and the **length of time people had lived in the UK** were also predictors of trust in the council. The odds of trusting the council were higher among people whose main language was not English and among those who were not born in the UK and had lived here for less than five years.
- 4.14** A factor that appears to be a common influence on civic engagement and feelings of influence - **educational qualification**- was also associated with trust in the council. The odds of trust in the council were lower among those

with A-Levels or equivalent, and those with no qualifications compared with those with a degree or equivalent.

- 4.15** The most significant predictor of trust in the local council was the overall level of satisfaction with its performance. There was a clear pattern in opinion; the lower the level of satisfaction, the lower the likelihood of trusting the council. Attitudes towards some services provided by the council also featured; people who were dissatisfied with local services for young people had a lower likelihood of trusting the council.
- 4.16** Attitudes concerning feeling able to influence local decisions were also strongly associated with trust in the council. People who felt they could not influence decisions affecting the local area and Britain had lower odds of trusting the council compared with those who felt they could. However, the analysis also found that people who felt it was quite or not very important to personally feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area had a higher likelihood of trusting the council compared with those who felt it was very important to be able to influence decisions.
- 4.17** A sense of belonging to Britain was also a predictor of trust in the local council. Findings showed that the likelihood of trusting the local council decreased as the sense of belonging to Britain weakened.
- 4.18** As observed in many of the analyses around civic engagement and feelings of influence (paragraph 2.44, 2.65 and 3.16) how people felt about their local area was strongly associated with trust in the council. The odds of trusting the council were lower among those who felt their area had got worse over the last two years compared with those who felt it had not changed much. The extent to which people felt that people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood was also related to trust in the local council; the odds of trusting in the council were almost half among those who definitely disagreed that people pulled together compared with those who definitely agreed.
- 4.19** The analysis showed that people who participated in regular formal volunteering had a lower chance of trusting the council compared with those who did not volunteer. This is notable given that other multivariate analyses in this report (on civic engagement and feeling able to influence local decisions, see paragraph 2.25, 2.43, 2.63 and 3.17) generally showed that people who volunteered had higher odds of civic engagement or feeling able to influence decisions affecting their local area.

## Conclusions

Trend data revealed that trust in the police remained at relatively high levels and has been fairly stable since the start of the Citizenship Survey in 2001. While trust levels in local councils were at a lower level, they have increased over this period. However, since 2003, levels of trust in parliament have seen a decline and have experienced a particularly sharp fall since 2008-09 (from 34% to 29% in 2009-10).

Looking at what underpins trust in the local council, attitudinal factors emerged as the most significant predictors of trust rather than demographic factors, although

religion and educational qualification did emerge as predictors. Perceptions of how well the local council has performed was the most significant influence on levels of trust; the higher the satisfaction level, the greater the odds of trusting the council. Attitudes towards some specific local services were also important and where people were dissatisfied with local services for young people, they had a lower likelihood of trusting the council.

Trust in the local council was previously found to be a strong predictor of feeling able to influence local decisions. It is therefore not surprising to have found that people who felt they could influence decisions affecting their local area and Britain had a greater likelihood of trusting their council.

Attitudes towards the local area also underpinned levels of trust. Where people felt the area had got worse, they had lower odds of trusting the local council. Where people believed there was a sense of community in their area (i.e. where people felt their neighbourhood was one where people pulled together), they had higher odds of trusting the local council. People who participated in regular formal volunteering had a lower chance of trusting the council compared with those who did not volunteer. This is notable given that other analysis in this report (on civic engagement and feelings of influence) showed that generally the opposite was the case and those who volunteered had higher odds of civic engagement and feelings of influence.

These findings suggest that trust in the local council is to a large part influenced by the overall perceptions of its achievements, and levels of satisfaction with the services it provides.

## List of tables

<b>Para.</b>	<b>Table reference and name</b>
4.2	Table G.1: How much people trust institutions, 2009-10
4.3	Table G.2: Trust in institutions, 2001 to 2009-10
4.4	Table G.2: Trust in institutions, 2001 to 2009-10
4.5	Table G.3: Trust in institutions, by age and gender
4.6	Table G.3: Trust in institutions, by age and gender
4.7	Table G.6: Trust in institutions, by ethnicity
4.8	Table G.8: Trust in institutions, by socio-economic group and employment status

# Chapter 5

## Volunteering

### Chapter summary

#### Overall volunteering trends

- In 2009-10, **a quarter of people (25%) participated in formal volunteering at least once a month**, and two in five (40%) participated at least once in the last 12 months. For informal volunteering, around **three in ten people (29%) said they gave informal help at least once a month**, increasing to over half (54%) who said they volunteered informally at least once over the last 12 months. (Paragraph 5.5)
- There has been **little change in the levels of participation in formal volunteering** since 2008-09. However, levels of informal volunteering at least once a month have fallen from 35 per cent in 2008-09 to 29 per cent in 2009-10. Furthermore, where over three-fifths of people (62%) said they gave informal help at least once a year in 2008-9, this has fallen to 54 per cent in 2009-10. (Paragraph 5.6)
- The fall in informal volunteering was most evident among older age groups. The proportion of people volunteering informally at least once a month fell among those aged 75 years or more from 32 per cent in 2008-09 to 25 per cent in 2009-10. There was also a notable decrease among those aged 65-74 years volunteering informally at least once a year (from 63% to 51%) (Paragraph 5.21)
- In 2009-10, two per cent of people participated in employer-supported volunteering at least once a month, and five per cent did so at least once in the last 12 months. These levels of participation in employer-supported volunteering schemes have remained unchanged since 2005. (Paragraph 5.7)

#### Regular formal volunteering

- A number of demographics, such as gender, age, ethnicity, religion and socio-economic group were related to regular formal volunteering in the bivariate analysis, (Paragraph 5.9 to 5.15).
- These demographic factors remained significant in the multivariate analysis although some attitudinal and behavioural factors were the most significant predictors of regular formal volunteering. Demographics that emerged as predictors included having children in the household and the type of area people lived in. Households with two or more children had a higher chance of

regular formal volunteering compared with households with no children and people living in rural areas had a higher chance of regular formal volunteering than people in urban areas. (Paragraph 5.31 and 5.33)

- **The most significant predictor of regular formal volunteering was whether someone mixed with people from different backgrounds in private places**, such as in the home. (Paragraph 5.34)
- Participation in civic engagement (civic activism, civic participation and civic consultation) in the last 12 months was also a strong predictor of regular formal volunteering as was giving money to charity. (Paragraph 5.35)
- Whether someone actively practised a religion was a strong predictor of regular formal volunteering. In a related finding, although a weaker influence, people who felt that religion was important in shaping their identity had a higher chance of participating in regular formal volunteering compared with those who did not feel it was important. (Paragraph 5.28 and 5.39)

### **Regular informal volunteering**

- **The predictors of regular informal volunteering were very similar to those for regular formal volunteering**; however, there were a number of key differences in terms of the strength of the factors. **The most significant predictor of informal regular volunteering overall was whether someone gave money to charity**, although mixing with people from different backgrounds was also important. The most significant demographic predictor was a combination of age and gender, with for example, young women aged 16-24 years having greater odds of giving regular informal help than men of the same age. (Paragraph 5.47, 5.49, 5.43)
- Participation in civic engagement remained a strong predictor overall but for informal volunteering, civic activism and civic participation were the strong influences, rather than civic consultation. (Paragraph 5.48)

### **How long do people spend volunteering and what activities do they do?**

- In 2009-10, people who took part in regular formal volunteering in the four weeks before interview **spent an average of 11.8 hours** on these activities during this time period. Those who took part in regular informal volunteering spent on average 7.7 hours on these activities. (Paragraph 5.52)
- Among those who participated in regular formal volunteering, **the most common type of activity was organising or helping to run an activity or event (52%)**. A similar proportion (51%) participated in raising or handling money or sponsored events. (Paragraph 5.57)
- While organising or helping to run an activity or event remained the most common form of regular formal volunteering activity in 2009-10, participation in this type of formal volunteering has fallen since 2008-09, from 59 per cent in 2008-09 to 52 per cent in 2009-10. (Paragraph 5.58)

- In terms of regular informal volunteering, the most common types of activities were giving advice (45%), keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about (40%), transporting or escorting someone (34%) and doing shopping for someone or collecting a pension (34%). (Paragraph 5.61)
- There has been an increase since 2008-09 in the proportion of people who said they volunteered by keeping in touch with someone (from 37% to 40%) and doing shopping or collecting a pension (from 31% to 34%). (Paragraph 5.63)

### **Types of organisations helped through formal volunteering**

- **Sports organisations were the most popular type of group in which people formally volunteered**; over half of those who volunteered either in the last 12 months or at least once a month did so through a sports organisation (53% and 54% respectively). (Paragraph 5.66)
- Other popular types of organisations through which people volunteered regularly included hobbies and recreation groups (42%), religious groups (36%), children's and educational organisations (34%), and youth and children's activities (30%). (Paragraph 5.67)

### **Opportunities for formal volunteering**

- In terms of how people found out about volunteering opportunities, the most common method was through someone else already involved in the group or organisation (53%). (Paragraph 5.77)

### **Participation in employer schemes**

- In 2009-10, **24 per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for volunteering**. Twenty-seven per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for giving money. The proportions of employed people saying their employer had a scheme for volunteering and giving money have remained unchanged since 2008-09 (when the figures were 26% and 28% respectively). (Paragraph 5.81)

### **Barriers to regular formal volunteering**

- **Work commitments were the most commonly cited barrier to regular formal volunteering**, with over half (55%) of those who did not formally volunteer at least once a month citing this reason. Almost six in ten (59%) of those who formally volunteered less frequently also gave this reason. People living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas were more likely to cite work commitments as a barrier (63%) compared with around a half (between 49% and 51%) of those living in the 20 per cent most deprived areas. (Paragraph 5.85 and 5.94)

- **Looking after children was also highlighted as a key barrier to volunteering** (26% among people who did not formally volunteer at all and 28% for infrequent volunteers). Having other things do to with their time was also seen as a barrier (23% and 26% respectively). (Paragraph 5.86)

## Volunteering

- 5.1** This chapter considers people's participation in formal and informal volunteering; the amount of time spent volunteering, how they find out about opportunities to participate, and what the barriers may be to participation in regular formal volunteering. While the focus of the chapter is on formal and informal volunteering, participation in employer-supported volunteering schemes is also considered.
- 5.2** **Formal volunteering** is defined as unpaid help given as part of a group, club or organisation to benefit others or the environment. People were asked firstly about any groups, clubs or organisations that they had taken part in, supported or helped over the last 12 months and were presented with a set of examples to help them choose. They were then asked whether they gave unpaid help to any of these groups, using a showcard listing possible ways of giving unpaid help. Both questions are used to measure formal volunteering<sup>6</sup>.
- 5.3** **Informal volunteering** is defined as unpaid help given as an individual to someone who is not a relative. People were asked whether they had given unpaid help (apart from any help given through a group, club or organisation) to anyone who is not a relative. A showcard was used listing possible ways of giving help.
- 5.4** In addition to asking whether people volunteer, the Citizenship Survey asked about the frequency of participation informal and informal volunteering. 'Regular' participation is defined as taking part 'at least once a month' in the previous 12 months (before the interview). 'Yearly' participation is defined as taking part 'at least once a year' and includes everyone who had participated on at least one occasion during the previous 12 months (before the interview), *including* those who took part at least once a month.

## Levels of participation in volunteering

- 5.5** In 2009-10, **a quarter of people (25%) participated in formal volunteering at least once a month**, and two in five people (40%) participated at least once in the last 12 months. For informal volunteering, **around three in ten people (29%) said they gave informal help at least once a month**, increasing to over half (54%) who said they had volunteered informally in the last 12 months. (Figure 5.1, Figure 5.2, Table H.1)
- 5.6** Although there has been no change in the levels of participation in formal volunteering since 2008-09,<sup>7</sup> **there has been a decline in informal**

---

<sup>6</sup>The 2009-10 Citizenship Survey **questionnaire** can be found at:

<http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/citizenshipsurvey200910questions>

<sup>7</sup> Formal volunteering at least once a month has stayed largely the same (26% in 2008-9 and 25% in 2009-10); as has formal volunteering at least once in the last year (41% in 2008-09 and 40% in 2009-10).

**volunteering.** Informal volunteering at least once a month has fallen to 29 per cent since 2008-9, when over a third of people (35%) said they had given informal help regularly. Similarly, where over three-fifths (62%) said they gave informal help at least once a year in 2008-9 this has fallen to 54 per cent in 2009-10. (Figure 5.1, Figure 5.2, Table H.1)

Figure 5.1 Regular formal volunteering: 2001 to 2009-10

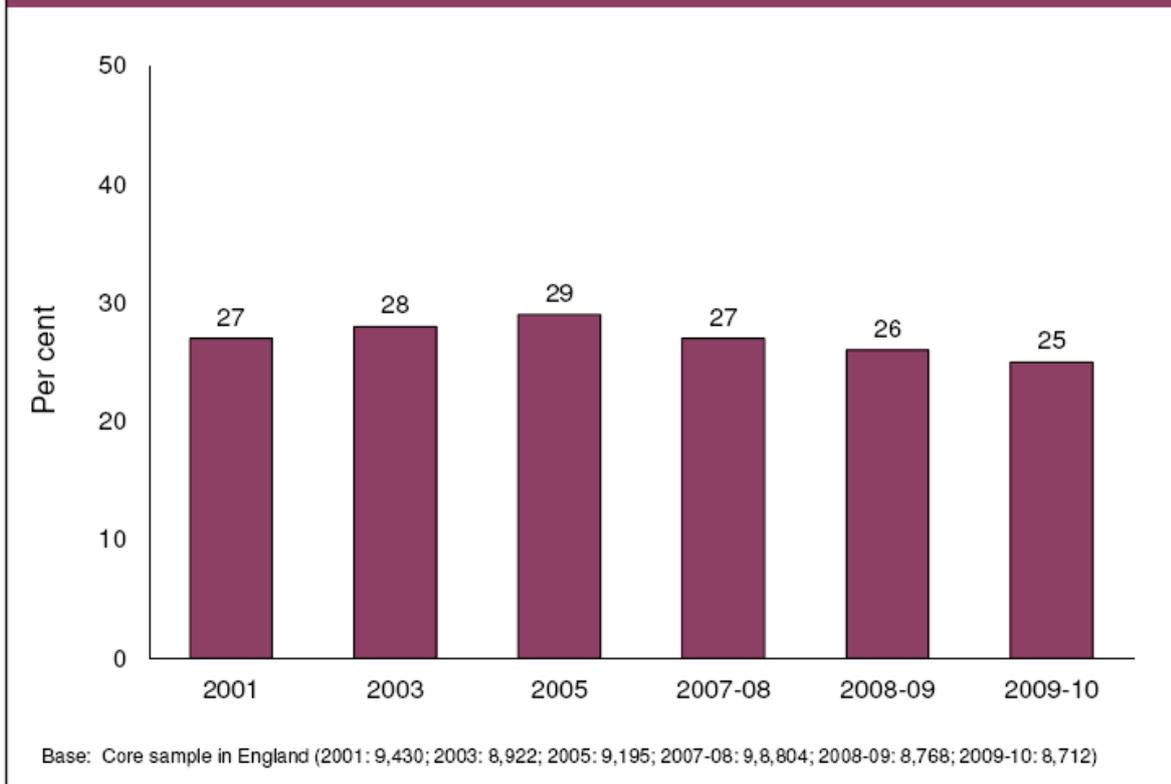
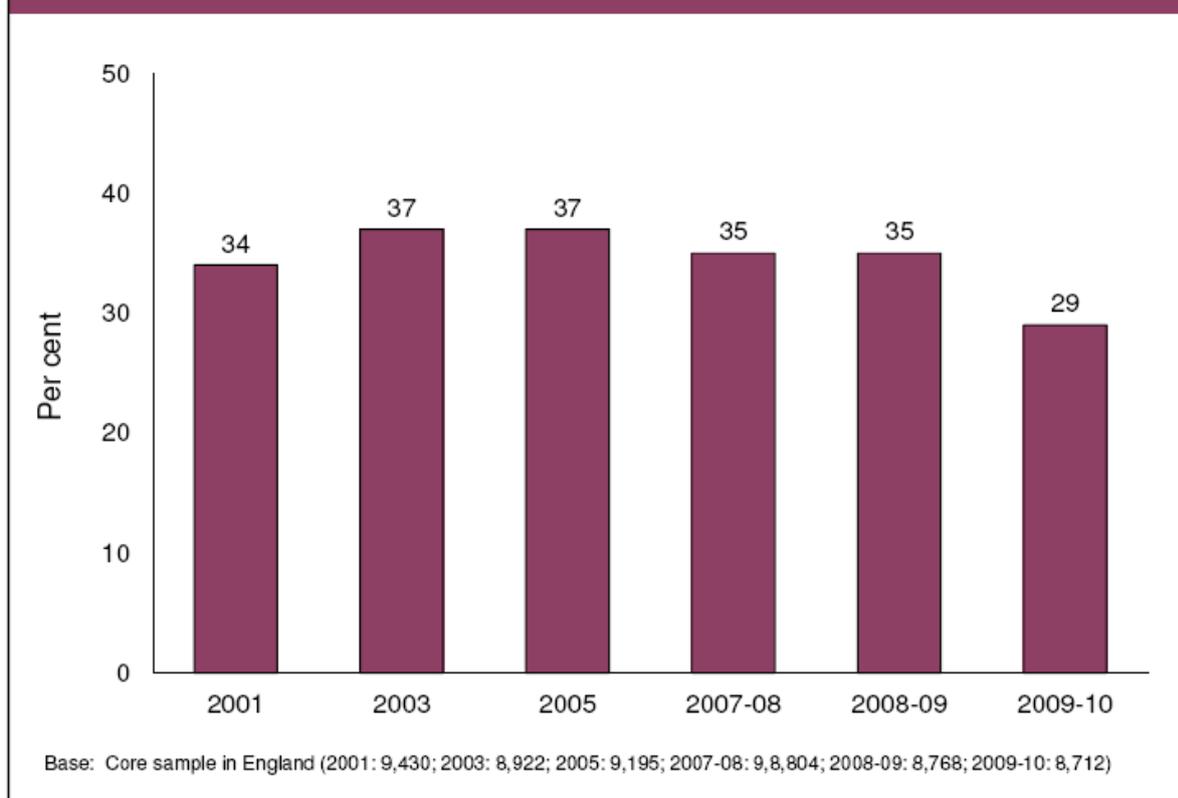


Figure 5.2 Regular informal volunteering: 2001 to 2009-10

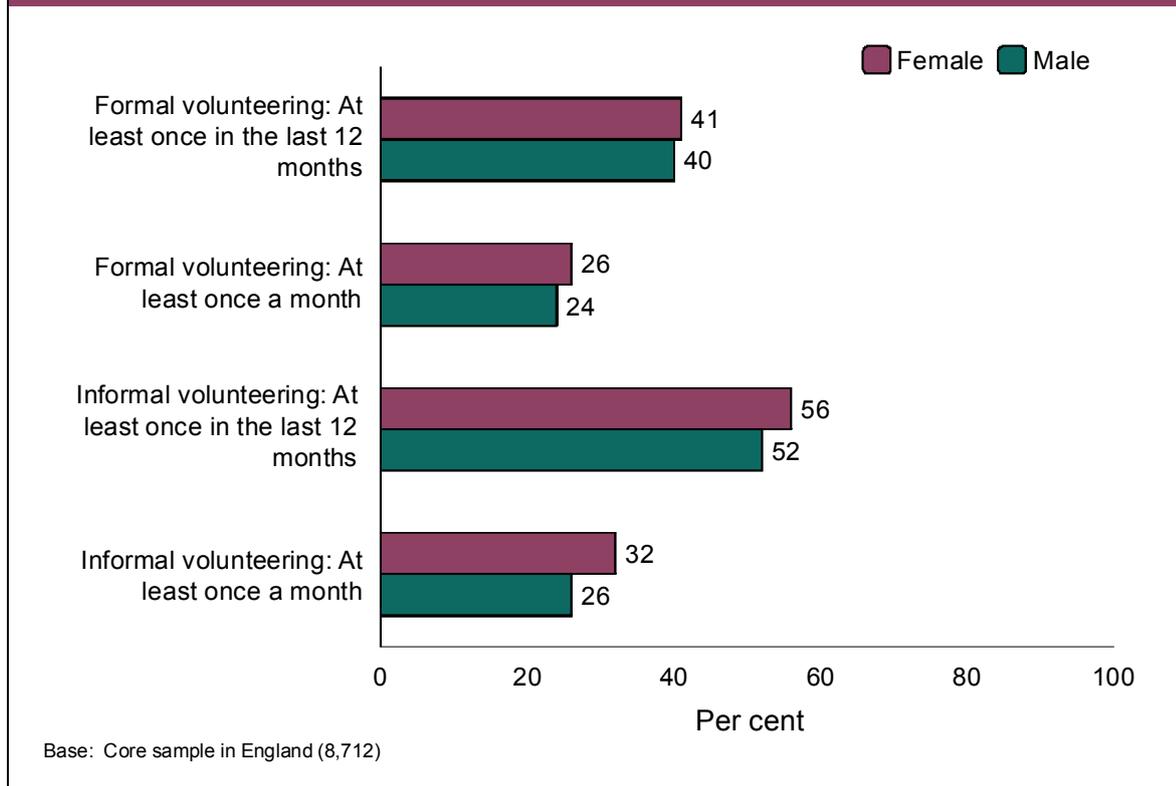


- 5.7** In 2009-10, **two per cent of people participated in employer-supported volunteering at least once a month**, and five per cent did so at least once in the last 12 months. These levels of participation in employer-supported volunteering schemes have remained unchanged since 2005. (Table H.1)

## Who participates in regular volunteering?

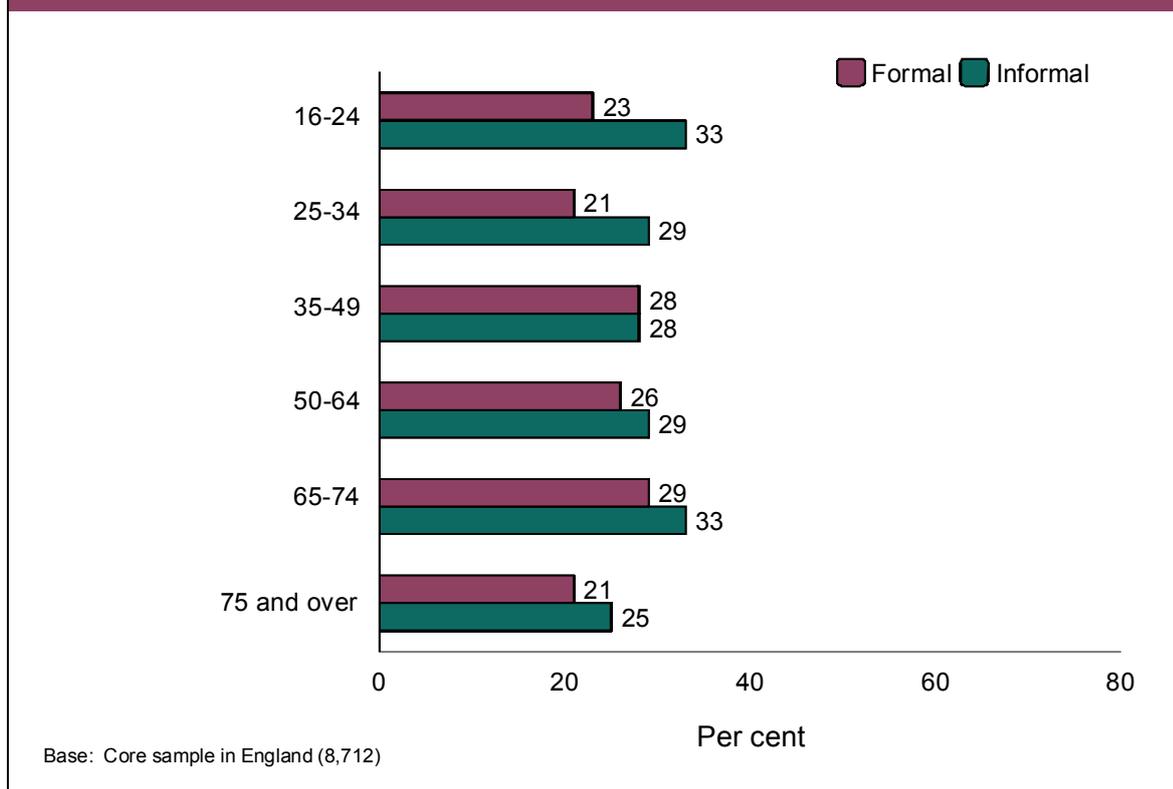
- 5.8** Participation in volunteering is related to a range of demographic, socio-economic and regional characteristics. Bivariate analysis on these characteristics revealed considerable similarity in sub-group differences for both types of volunteering (formal and informal) and frequencies of volunteering (once a month and once in the last 12 months). Given these similarities, this section focuses primarily on the factors shaping regular formal volunteering (with the exception of associations with age), noting differences with other types of volunteering where appropriate.
- 5.9** In 2009-10, **women were just as likely to participate in regular formal volunteering as men** (26% and 24%), but for regular informal volunteering women were more likely than men to participate (32% compared with 26%). (Figure 5.3, Table H.2)

**Figure 5.3** Volunteering by gender



**5.10** People aged 75 years or more were among the least likely to take part in all forms of volunteering, with a fifth (21%) helping formally at least once a month and three in ten (29%) taking part in formal volunteering activities at least once in the last year compared with the average. Participation in regular formal volunteering also remained low for those aged 25-34 years, where one in five (21%) took part. Participation in formal volunteering at least once a year was highest among those aged 35-49 years, with 46 per cent of people in this age group taking part. (Figure 5.4, Table H.2)

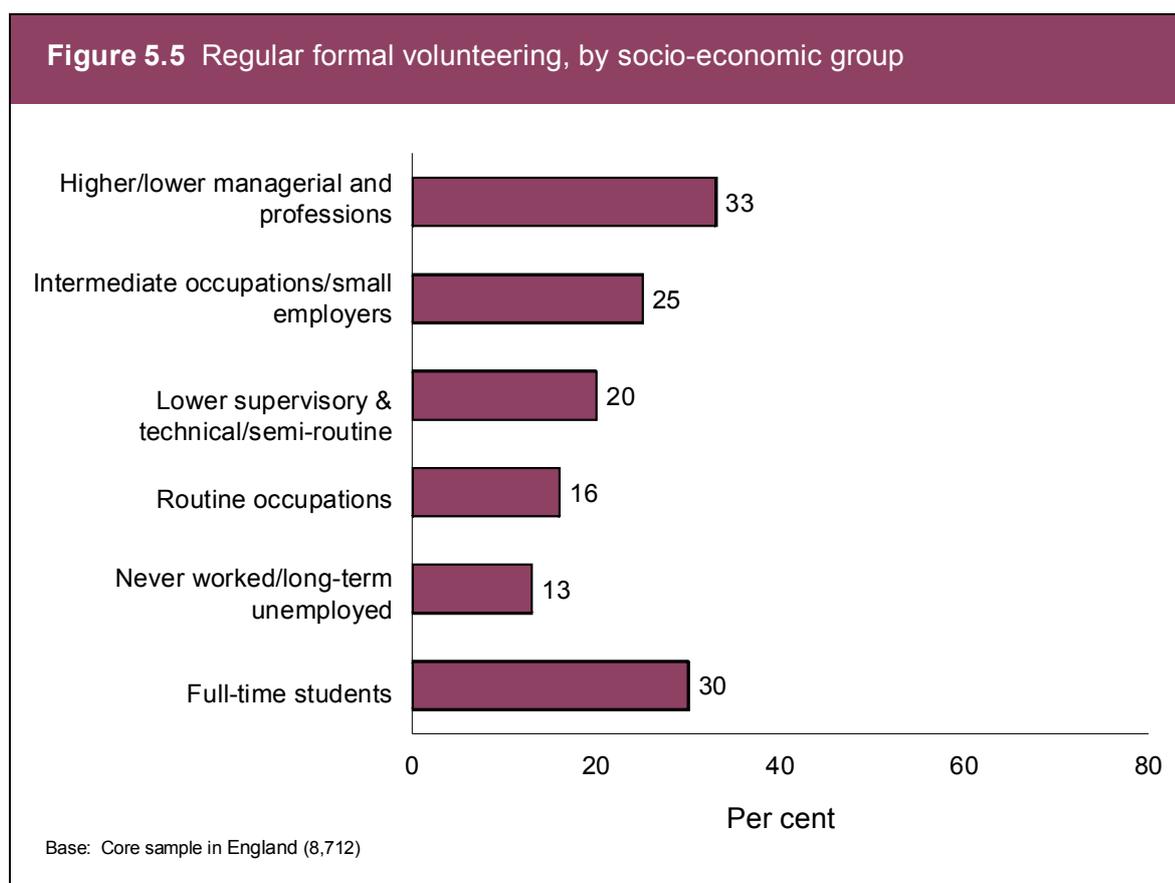
**Figure 5.4** Regular formal and informal volunteering, by age



- 5.11** People **without a long-term illness or disability** were more likely than people with a long-term illness or disability to take part in volunteering activities in 2009-10. Twenty-six per cent of people without a long-term illness or disability took part in regular formal volunteering compared with 22 per cent of people with a long-term illness or disability. There was little difference between these two groups in terms of regular informal volunteering (30% and 28% respectively). (Table H.3)
- 5.12** **White and Black people were more likely to participate** in both formal and informal regular volunteering than Asian people. For example, in comparison to a quarter of White (26%) and Black (25%) people, just 16 per cent of those from Asian backgrounds formally volunteered on a regular basis.(Table H.4)
- 5.13** **Religious affiliation** also appeared to be related to the extent to which someone took part in volunteering. More than a quarter of Christian (26%) people took part in regular formal volunteering compared with Hindu (17%) and Muslim (15%) people. People who identified themselves as belonging to an 'Other' religion were more likely to take part in regular formal volunteering compared with 22 per cent with no religion. (Table H.5)
- 5.14** **Socio-economic indicators** were also found to be important for volunteering at least once a year (but not regularly), with participation higher among people in employment. Compared with around a third of those unemployed (35%) or economically inactive (35%), 44 per cent of people in employment were involved in formal volunteering at least once a year. People who were economically inactive (47%) were the least likely to participate in informal

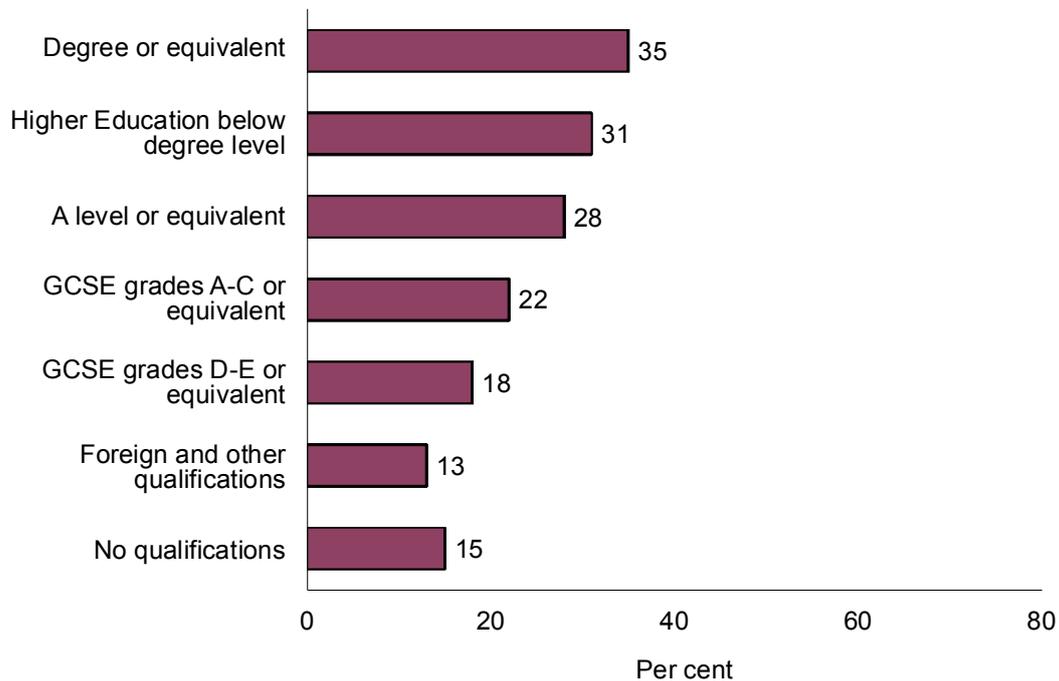
volunteering at least once in the past year, compared with 59 per cent of people in employment and 55 per cent of unemployed people.(Table H.8)

**5.15** More detailed analysis of **socio-economic status** showed that people from managerial and professional occupations and full-time students were more likely to participate in regular formal volunteering than those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed. Around a third (33%) of those in managerial and professional occupations took part in formal volunteering at least once a month as did full-time students (30%), but this level steadily declined among those in lower occupations (for example to 16% among those in routine occupations). Thirteen per cent of those out of work took part in regular formal volunteering. (Figure 5.5, Table H.6)



**5.16** There was a **positive relationship between participation in volunteering and level of education**, where people with higher qualifications were more likely to take part in volunteering than those who had lower level, foreign or no qualifications. For example, a third (35%) of people with a degree took part in formal volunteering at least once a month compared with under a fifth of people with GCSE grades D-E (18%), foreign qualifications (13%) or no qualifications (15%). (Figure 5.6, Table H.7)

**Figure 5.6** Regular formal volunteering, by highest qualification



Base: Core sample in England (8,712)

- 5.17** The extent to which people took part in informal and formal volunteering was also related to **geographical factors**. A fifth (20%) of people living in London and the North West took part in regular formal volunteering, compared with three in ten (31%) people in the South West. Similar regional differences applied across both types of volunteering, where, for example, people in the South West, South East and East of England were the most likely to take part in formal volunteering at least once over the last 12 months (49%, 45% and 44% respectively). The levels of yearly formal volunteering were much lower for London (35%) and the North West (34%). (Table H.9)
- 5.18** There was also a difference in regular formal volunteering between **urban and rural communities**; three in ten (31%) people living in rural areas participated in regular formal volunteering compared with around a quarter (24%) of people in urban areas. (Table H.9)
- 5.19** Levels of participation in formal volunteering were also related to **area deprivation**. Participation generally decreased as the level of local deprivation increased. Less than a fifth (18%) of people living in the ten per cent most deprived areas took part in regular formal volunteering compared with a third (32%) of people living in the ten per cent least deprived areas. (Table H.10)

## Informal volunteering trends

- 5.20** Although participation in formal volunteering remained broadly in line with 2008-09, as noted in paragraph 5.6, the number of people involved in informal volunteering, both regularly and at least once a year, has declined. This section explores, where relevant, variation in the fall in informal volunteering between different demographic sub-groups.
- 5.21** **The decline in informal volunteering was most evident among older age groups.** The proportion of people volunteering informally at least once a month fell among those aged 75 years or more from 32% in 2008-09 to 25% in 2009-10. There was also a notable decrease amongst those aged 65-74 years volunteering informally at least once a year, (from 63% to 51%). (Table H.2)
- 5.22** The **decline in participation** in regular informal volunteering from 2008-09 was also particularly evident **among people some ethnic minority groups.** For example, the proportion of those involved in regular informal volunteering fell for 'Other' Asian people (from 35% to 23%), and Chinese people (from 28% to 15%).(Table H.4)
- 5.23** Looking at **socio-economic indicators**, there was a large decline in yearly informal volunteering among the economically inactive group since 2008-09, from close to six in ten (58%) in 2008-09 to less than half of this group (47%) in 2009-10. (Table H.8)
- 5.24** Despite being one of the socio-economic groups with the highest rates of participation in informal volunteering, there was a **decline among full-time students**, where just over half (55%) volunteered informally in the last 12 months compared with seven in ten (69%) in 2008-09. (Table H.6)
- 5.25** The fall in regular informal volunteering between 2008-09 and 2009-10 was also notable among people living in the **North West** and the **East Midlands**, both of which experienced a decline (from 36% to 26% in both cases). (Table H.9)

## What factors are associated with regular formal volunteering?

- 5.26** To explore these issues further **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not people take part in regular formal volunteering after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 7 contains the full methodological details.
- 5.27** Figure 5.7 shows the associations that were found to be significant to formal volunteering after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison

to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

<b>Figure 5.7: Model 7. Variables significantly related to “Formally volunteers at least once a month”</b>		
<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Whether practising religion	<i>Not actively practising</i> Actively practising	Higher (1.98)
Ethnic group	<i>White</i> Indian Pakistani Bangladeshi Asian – other Chinese	Lower (0.54) Lower (0.50) Lower (0.53) Lower (0.58) Lower (0.42)
Socio-economic group (7 categories)	<i>Higher/lower managerial and professional occupations</i> Intermediate occupations Never worked/long-term unemployed Full-time students	Lower (0.81) Lower (0.51) Higher (1.80)
Employment status	<i>In employment</i> Economically inactive	Lower (0.69)
Gender and age	<i>Men aged 16-24 years</i> Men 50-64 years Women 65-74 years	Higher (1.49) Higher (1.81)
Number of children under 18 in household	<i>None</i> 2 3+	Higher (1.56) Higher (1.42)
Index of Multiple Deprivation Decile	<i>1<sup>st</sup> Decile – least deprived</i> 8 <sup>th</sup> Decile 9 <sup>th</sup> Decile 10 <sup>th</sup> Decile	Lower (0.62) Lower (0.69) Lower (0.70)
Highest qualification	<i>Degree or equivalent</i> GCSE grades A-C or equivalent No qualifications	Lower (0.64) Lower (0.61)
Whether UK born/time in UK	<i>Born in UK</i> Not born in UK – lived here less than 5 years	Lower (0.47)
Region	<i>London</i> North East Yorkshire and the Humber East Midlands West Midlands East of England South East South West	Higher (1.51) Higher (1.37) Higher (1.68) Higher (1.36) Higher (1.33) Higher (1.38) Higher (1.75)
Location (Urban/Rural)	<i>Urban</i> Rural	Higher (1.22)
Income	<i>Under £5,000</i> £50,000 - £74,999 £75,000 or more	Lower (0.63) Lower (0.56)

**Figure 5.7: Model 7. Variables significantly related to “Formally volunteers at least once a month” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in private setting	No Yes	Higher (2.29)
Civic activism in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (2.91)
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	No Yes	Higher (2.10)
Civic participation in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.40)
Civic consultation in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.44)
Main source of information on news or current affairs	TV/Radio None	Lower (0.61)
Satisfaction with local schools	Very satisfied Fairly satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Lower (0.72) Lower (0.79)
Sense of belonging to neighbourhood	Very strongly Fairly strongly Not very strongly Not at all strongly	Lower (0.79) Lower (0.80) Lower (0.68)
Can influence decisions affecting local area	Definitely/tend to agree Definitely/tend to disagree	Lower (0.78)
Extent of problem of racial or religious harassment in the area	Not a big problem at all Not a big problem	Higher (1.18)
Sense of belonging to Britain	Very strongly Not at all strongly	Higher (1.95)
Proportion of friends of same ethnic group (as self)	All the same No friends	Lower (0.46)
Importance of religion to sense of who you are	Not very/not at all important Very/quite important	Higher (1.20)
Whether English is main language	Yes No	Lower (0.71)

**5.28** The model shows that in terms of demographic factors, **whether someone actively practised a religion** was an important predictor of participation in regular formal volunteering. The difference between groups was particularly evident here, where the odds of taking part in formal volunteering were around two times greater for those actively practising a religion compared with those who did not actively practise a religion.

**5.29** Regular formal volunteering was also linked to **ethnicity**, which echoes the findings about people of Asian backgrounds reported in paragraph 5.12. People from Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Asian ‘Other’ backgrounds all had a lower likelihood of participating in formal volunteering compared with those from White backgrounds; the odds of formal volunteering were also lower among those from Chinese backgrounds. Similarly, the chance of participating in regular formal volunteering was lower among those whose **main language was not English**.

- 5.30** When considering **socio-economic factors**, the odds of participating in regular formal volunteering were lower among people who were **economically inactive**; however, there were two important distinctions here. The first was that unlike those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed, or those in intermediate occupations or small employers, **full-time students** had greater odds of volunteering formally compared with people in managerial and professional occupations. The second was that people with annual incomes of less than £5,000 had higher odds of participating in regular formal volunteering compared with those who earned over £50,000. Similarly, the **highest level of qualification** was an important factor; where compared with those with a degree or equivalent, the odds of taking part in formal volunteering were lower among people who had no qualifications or whose highest qualification was GCSE grades A-C or equivalent.
- 5.31** Participation in formal volunteering at least once a month was also found to be related to **age and gender**, and **the number of children living in the household**. Men aged 50-64 years and women aged between 65-74 years had greater odds of participating in formal volunteering compared with men aged 16-24 years, as did those with either two or more children in the household compared with those who had no children in the household.
- 5.32** The analysis showed that people who were **not born in the UK** and had lived here for less than five years had a lower likelihood of volunteering formally at least once a month compared with people who were born in the UK. Similarly, the chances of participating in regular formal volunteering were lower among those whose **main language was not English**.
- 5.33** The model also revealed that certain **geographical factors** were associated with participation in regular formal volunteering. Compared with London, the likelihood of formally volunteering was higher for all other regions except the North West. People living in **rural** rather than urban areas had a greater likelihood of taking part in formal volunteering. Furthermore, people living in **more deprived areas** (8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> deciles) had lower odds of volunteering compared with people living in the least deprived areas (the 1<sup>st</sup> decile).
- 5.34** The most significant predictor, overall, of formal volunteering at least once a month was whether someone **mixed with people from different backgrounds** at least once a month in **private** places (e.g. at home). The odds of being involved in formal volunteering were higher among those who mixed with people from different backgrounds compared with those who did not. As outlined below, this forms part of a wider association with interaction with people of different backgrounds and a person's own sense of identity.
- 5.35** Another strong predictor of regular formal volunteering was involvement in **civic engagement**. The likelihood of volunteering formally was higher among those who took part in any form of civic activism, civic participation or consultation in the 12 months prior to interview. Involvement in civic activism was particularly influential, with the odds of those who had been involved in such activities around three times higher (2.91) than those who had not. Given the relationship with civic engagement, it is perhaps not surprising that the odds of taking part were also higher among those who agreed they **could**

**influence decisions affecting their local area.** Similarly, those who **gave money to charity** in the four weeks prior to interview also had a greater likelihood of participating in formal volunteering compared with those who had not.

- 5.36** The model found no significant relationship between the different types of media consumption and volunteering, although people who **did not use any source of information for news or current affairs** had a lower likelihood of participating in regular formal volunteering compared with those who gained most of their news through the TV or radio.
- 5.37** The likelihood of taking part in formal volunteering was also related to attitudes towards the local area. In particular, the **strength of satisfaction with local schools** was important, where the odds of volunteering formally were lower among people who were only fairly satisfied or neither satisfied nor dissatisfied compared with those who were very satisfied.
- 5.38** The odds of being involved in formal volunteering were higher among those who did *not* have a strong sense of belonging to Britain compared with those who felt a very strong sense of belonging. Similarly, those who felt very strongly that they **belonged to their local neighbourhood** had a greater likelihood of being involved in formal volunteering than those who did not.<sup>8</sup>This suggests that in terms of ‘belonging’ it is how people felt about their **local area** that had a greater impact on their tendency to formally volunteer on a regular basis.
- 5.39** The odds of participating in formal volunteering were higher among those who agreed that **religion was very or quite important in shaping a sense of who you are** compared with those who felt that religion was not very or not at all important.

## What factors are associated with regular informal volunteering?

- 5.40** To explore regular informal volunteering further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not people take part in informal volunteering at least once a month, after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 8 contains the full methodological details.
- 5.41** Figure 5.8 shows the associations that were found to be significant to informal volunteering after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category (shown in italics) are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

---

<sup>8</sup> This includes the groups: *fairly strongly, not very strongly, and not at all strongly.*

**Figure 5.8: Model 8. Variables significantly related to “Informally volunteers at least once a month”**

<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with reference category</b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Gender and age	<i>Men aged 16-24 years</i> Women aged 16-24 years Men aged 35-49 years Men aged 50-64 years	Higher (1.53) Lower (0.65) Lower (0.68)
Tenure	<i>Mortgaged/part ownership</i> Own outright Social renting	Higher (1.40) Higher (1.53)
Ethnic group	<i>White</i> Indian Pakistani Bangladeshi Asian – other Chinese Other	Lower (0.69) Lower (0.60) Lower (0.52) Lower (0.66) Lower (0.44) Lower (0.60)
Whether practising religion	<i>Not actively practising</i> Actively practising	Higher (1.26)
Region	<i>London</i> West Midlands East of England South West	Higher (1.28) Higher (1.74) Higher (1.52)
Length of time in neighbourhood	<i>More than 30 years</i> Less than a year 1-2 years	Lower (0.66) Lower (0.64)
Marital status	<i>Married and living with husband/wife/civil partner</i> Divorced	Higher (1.30)
<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.93)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in <u>private</u> setting	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.48)
Civic participation in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.41)
Civic activism in last 12 months	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.47)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in <u>public</u> setting	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.33)
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting local area	<i>Very important</i> Quite important Not very important Not at all important	Lower (0.80) Lower (0.71) Lower (0.74)

**Figure 5.8: Model 8. Variables significantly related to “informally volunteers at least once a month” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours (continued)</b>		
Proportion of friends of same ethnic group (as self)	<i>All the same</i> About half Less than half Has no friends	Higher (1.36) Higher (1.34) Lower (0.55)
Importance of ethnicity to sense of who you are	<i>Not very/at all important</i> Very/quite important	Lower (0.81)
Main source of information on news or current affairs	<i>TV/Radio</i> None	Lower (0.76)
Change in circumstance as a result of economic downturn	<i>No</i> Yes	Higher (1.20)
Trust in police	<i>A lot</i> Not very much	Higher (1.27)
People pull together to improve neighbourhood	<i>Definitely agree</i> Tend to agree Tend to disagree Definitely disagree	Lower (0.83) Lower (0.81) Lower (0.72)
Satisfaction with local public parks	<i>Very satisfied</i> Fairly dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Lower (0.75) Lower (0.66)
Financial circumstances will change	<i>Improve a lot</i> Improve a little Stay the same Get a little worse Get a lot worse	Lower (0.70) Lower (0.69) Lower (0.76) Lower (0.72)
Importance of religion to sense of who you are	<i>Not very/not at all important</i> Very/quite important	Higher (1.16)

**5.42** Many of the factors that emerged in the model for regular formal volunteering remained in this model such as age and gender, ethnicity, active religious practice. In terms of attitudes and behaviours, factors emerging in both models were giving money to charity, mixing socially with people from different backgrounds in private settings, civic participation and civic activism as well as having friends from the same ethnic background as oneself. However, there were some key differences.

**5.43** In terms of demographic factors, the combination of **age and gender** played a more prominent role in predicting participation in informal rather than formal volunteering (paragraph 5.31). Furthermore, whereas the odds for taking part in regular formal volunteering were higher among the older age groups (men aged 50-64 years and women aged 65-74 years), the reverse was true for informal volunteering. Men aged 35-64 years had lower odds of informally volunteering compared with men aged 16-24 years; whereas women aged 16-24 years had higher chances of taking part compared with men aged 16-24 years.

**5.44** As was found in the formal volunteering model (paragraph 5.28 and 5.29) **ethnicity and religion** were also associated with informal volunteering. People who actively practised a religion or who felt that religion was very or quite important in shaping their identity had a greater likelihood of taking part

in regular informal volunteering, as did White people compared with those from Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Asian 'Other', Chinese and 'Other' ethnic backgrounds. The difference in this model was that the importance of ethnicity in shaping identity was significant. In contrast to attitudes towards religion, the likelihood of taking part in informal volunteering was *lower* among those who felt their ethnicity was important in shaping their identity compared with those who felt that their ethnicity was not important.

- 5.45** In line with formal volunteering (paragraph 5.33), **region** also continued to be important to informal volunteering; however, the odds for participating in regular informal volunteering only remained greater than London in the West Midlands, East of England and South West.
- 5.46** Considering other **key demographic differences** between the two types of volunteering, the chances of taking part in regular informal volunteering were greater among those who were divorced compared with those married or living with their partner; and unlike for regular formal volunteering, the number of children in the household, income, qualification, and rurality were *not* significant predictors of regular informal volunteering.
- 5.47** Looking at attitudes and behaviours, the most significant predictor of regular informal volunteering was **giving money to charity**. The odds of participating in regular informal volunteering were almost two times greater (1.93) among those who gave money to charity compared with those who did not.
- 5.48** Regular informal volunteering was also associated with **civic engagement**. However, unlike in the model for formal volunteering (paragraph 5.35), the odds of taking part in regular informal volunteering were only greater among those who took part in civic activism or civic participation, and not civic consultation. Furthermore, the chances of volunteering informally were higher among those who felt that it was very important to be **able to influence decisions affecting the local area** compared with those who felt it was quite, not very or not at all important.
- 5.49** In line with the findings for regular formal volunteering (paragraph 5.34), **mixing with people from different backgrounds in private places** was also strongly associated with regular informal volunteering; in addition, however, informal volunteering was also associated with mixing with people from different backgrounds in public places. **The proportion of friends people have from different ethnic groups** was also found to be more relevant to informal volunteering; where compared with those whose friends are all from the same ethnic group, the likelihood of volunteering informally was higher among those who have about half, or less than half, of their friends from the same ethnic group as themselves.
- 5.50** A factor that emerged in the model but did not appear for regular formal volunteering was **people's financial situation**. Compared with those who believed that their financial circumstances would improve a lot over the next 12 months, the likelihood of informally volunteering was lower among those who believed it would improve just a little, stay the same, or get worse. However, people who had experienced a change in their circumstances as a result of the economic downturn had a higher chance of taking part in regular

informal volunteering compared with people who had not experienced a change.

- 5.51** As noted above in 5.38, an important factor in predicting formal volunteering was a sense of belonging to a local area. For informal volunteering, however, feelings about the local area and local services were important but different factors emerged as significant influences. Instead of a sense of belonging, the greater the perception that **people did not pull together to improve the neighbourhood**, the lower the likelihood of them taking part in informal volunteering. People who had **lived in the neighbourhood for less than two years** also had lower odds of taking part in regular informal volunteering compared with those who had been there more than 30 years. Additionally, although the odds of informally volunteering were lower among those who were **dissatisfied with local parks** (compared with those who were very satisfied), those who did not **trust the local police** had a higher chance of taking part in informal volunteering compared with those who trusted the police 'a lot'.

## How long do people spend volunteering?

- 5.52** In 2009-10 people who took part in regular formal<sup>9</sup> volunteering (in the last four weeks before interview) **spent an average of 11.8 hours** on these activities over that period. Those who took part in regular informal<sup>10</sup> volunteering spent on average 7.7 hours on these activities over the four-week period. (Table I.1)
- 5.53** In line with previous years, **regular formal volunteers aged 65-74 years old contributed the most amount of time for this (15.9 hours)**; however, unlike 2008-09, when those aged 16-24 gave the least amount of time to volunteering than the other age groups (7.4 hours), in 2009-10 volunteers aged 35-49 years old gave less time than all other age groups (8.6 hours). (Table I.1)
- 5.54** Volunteers aged 35-49 years also gave the least amount of time for regular informal volunteering (6.8 hours) compared with just under 9 hours (8.9) among those aged 50-64 years. (Table I.1)
- 5.55** Furthermore, in line with findings from 2008-09, **men gave more time to regular formal volunteering than women** (among those who volunteered); 13 hours compared with 10.8 for women. However, **women gave on average 8 hours of informal help, compared with 7.4 hours among men.** (Table I.1)

---

<sup>9</sup>Formal volunteering is defined as giving unpaid help to groups, clubs or organisations to benefit others or the environment.

<sup>10</sup>Informal volunteering is defined as giving unpaid help as an individual to people who are not relatives.

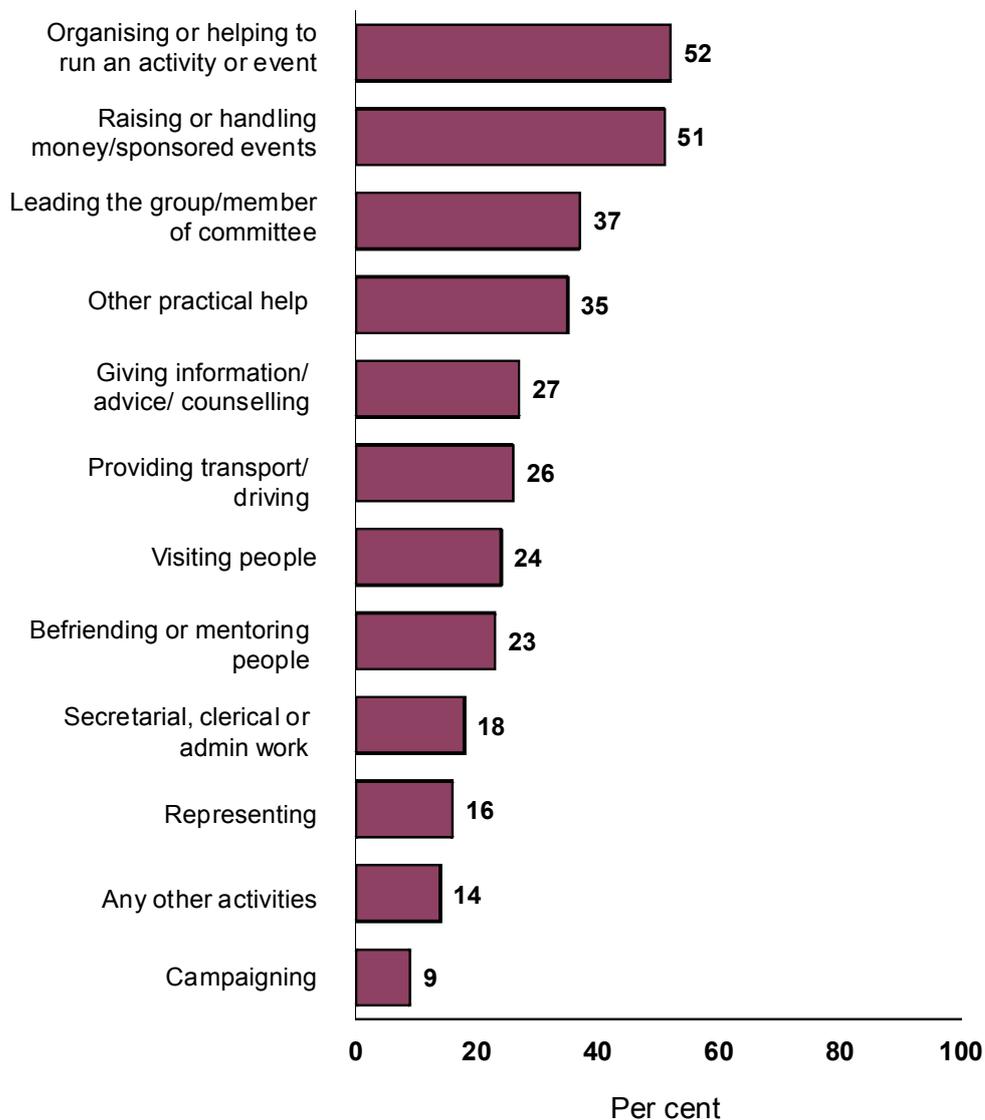
## What activities are people undertaking when they do formal volunteering?

**5.56** Participation in different types of formal volunteering activities was measured by asking people if they had given unpaid help to any groups, clubs or organisations in the last 12 months in any of the ways listed on a showcard. The activities listed on the showcard were:

- Raising or handling money/taking part in sponsored events
- Leading a group/member of a committee
- Organising or helping to run an activity or event
- Visiting people
- Befriending or mentoring people
- Giving advice/information/counselling
- Secretarial, admin or clerical work
- Providing transport/driving
- Representing
- Campaigning
- Other practical help (e.g. helping out at school, shopping)
- Any other help

**5.57** In 2009-10, among people who participated in regular formal volunteering, the most common form of activity was **organising or helping to run an activity or event**, in which more than half (52%) of regular formal volunteers participated. A similar proportion (51%) participated in raising or handling money or sponsored events. Just under two in five (37%) people led a group or were a member of a committee, and around a quarter volunteered through giving information or advice or counselling (27%), providing transport or driving (26%) and visiting (24%) or befriending or mentoring (23%) people. (Figure 5.8, Table J.1)

**Figure 5.8** Regular formal volunteering activities



Base: All core sample respondents in England who volunteered formally at least once a month in the 12 months before interview (2,184)

Note: Respondents could mention more than one activity

**5.58** While organising or helping to run an activity or event remained the most common form of regular formal volunteering, participation in this type of volunteering has fallen from 59 per cent in 2008-09 to 52 per cent in 2009-10. The decline in organising or helping to run an activity or event was particularly evident among volunteers aged 25-34 years where, compared with 57 per cent in 2008-09, less than half (45%) volunteered in such a way in 2009-10.(Table J.1 and J.2)

**5.59** The types of **formal volunteering activities undertaken varied by age**. People aged 35-49 years were less likely to be involved in visiting people (17%compared with 24% overall) whereas those aged 65-74 years were more

likely than average to visit people (36% compared with 24% overall). (Table J.2)

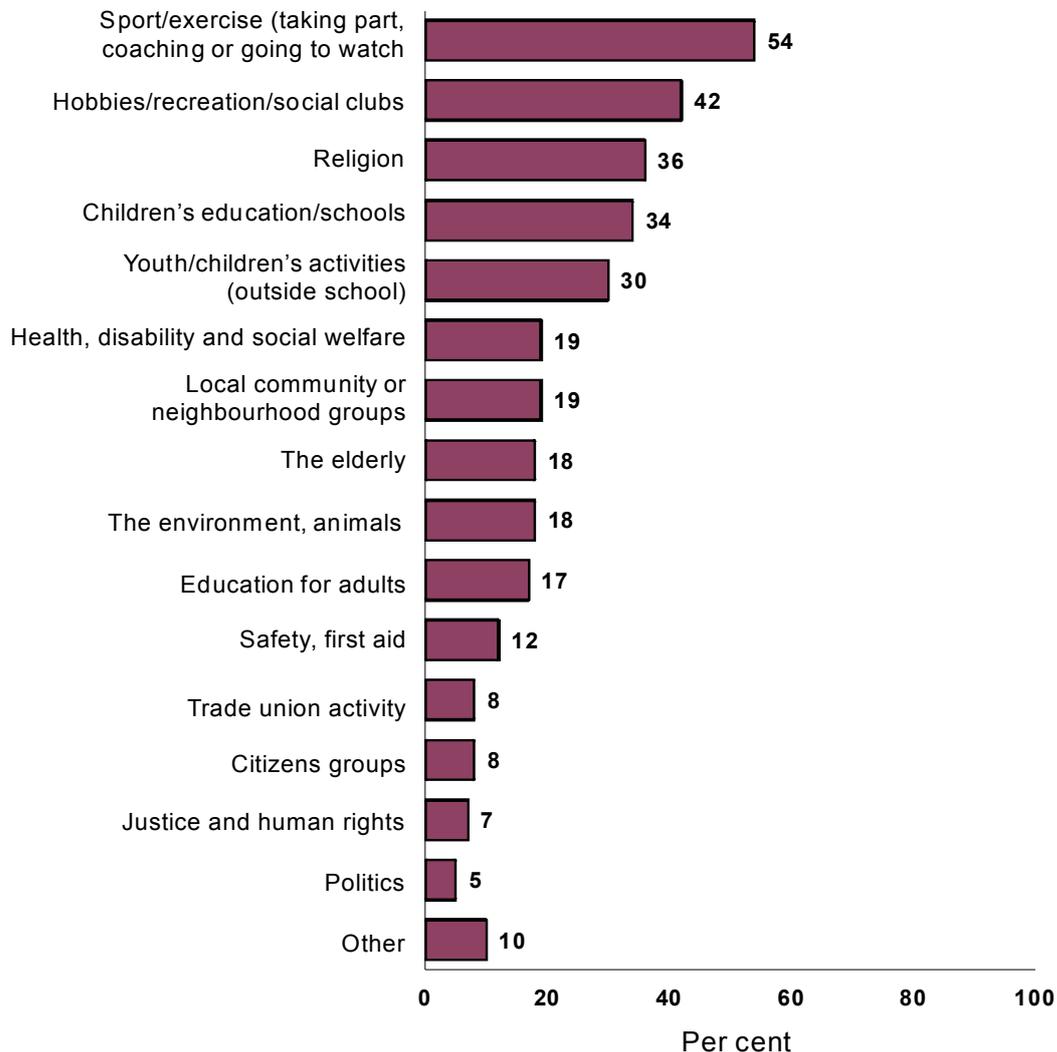
**5.60** There were also **some differences in the types of activities undertaken by gender**. Men were more likely than women to say they provided information; advice or counselling (32% compared with 23%), provided transport (31% compared with 21%) or took part in representing (20% compared with 12%). In contrast, women were more likely than men to have provided other practical help where two in five women (41%) provided this help compared with three in ten (28%) men. (Table J.2)

## What activities are people doing when they give informal help?

**5.61** There were **differences in the informal help activities according to the frequency of volunteering**. Among those who gave help at least once a month, over two in five (45%) said they did this by giving advice to others. Two in five (40%) said they volunteered through keeping in touch with someone who had difficulty getting out and about, and a third (34%) transporting or escorting someone, doing shopping for someone or collecting a pension (34%), babysitting or caring for children (32%) or looking after a property or pet for someone (32%). (Figure 5.9, Table J.3)

**5.62** Whilst **giving advice was still the most popular form of activity for informal volunteering at least once in the last 12 months**, with almost two in five people (39%) citing this, looking after someone's property or pet was the second most common form of help (35%). Just under three in ten (29%) people said keeping in touch with someone was how they gave help, and a similar proportion mentioned babysitting or caring for children (28%) and providing transport to someone (28%). (Table J.3)

**Figure 5.10** Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering



Base: All core sample respondents in England who volunteered formally at least once a month (2,184)  
 Note: Respondents could mention more than one type of organisation

**5.63** There has been an increase since 2008-09 in the proportion of people who said they volunteered by keeping in touch with someone (from 37% to 40%), doing shopping or collecting a pension (from 31% to 34%), and writing letters or filling in forms (from 25% to 28%). (Table J.3)

**5.64** As was the case for formal volunteering, the types of activities undertaken by regular informal volunteers differed by age and gender. Whereas the likelihood of volunteering through giving advice tended to decrease with age (from 51% of informal volunteers aged 16-24 years and 52% for people aged 25-34 years to 26% of those aged 75 years or more), the proportion who volunteered by keeping in touch with someone increased with age (from 25% of those aged 16-24 to 61% of those aged 75 years or more). Furthermore, whilst babysitting was most likely to be undertaken by those aged under 50 years, those aged 50 years or over were more likely to do shopping or collect pensions than their younger counterparts. For example, 49 per cent of

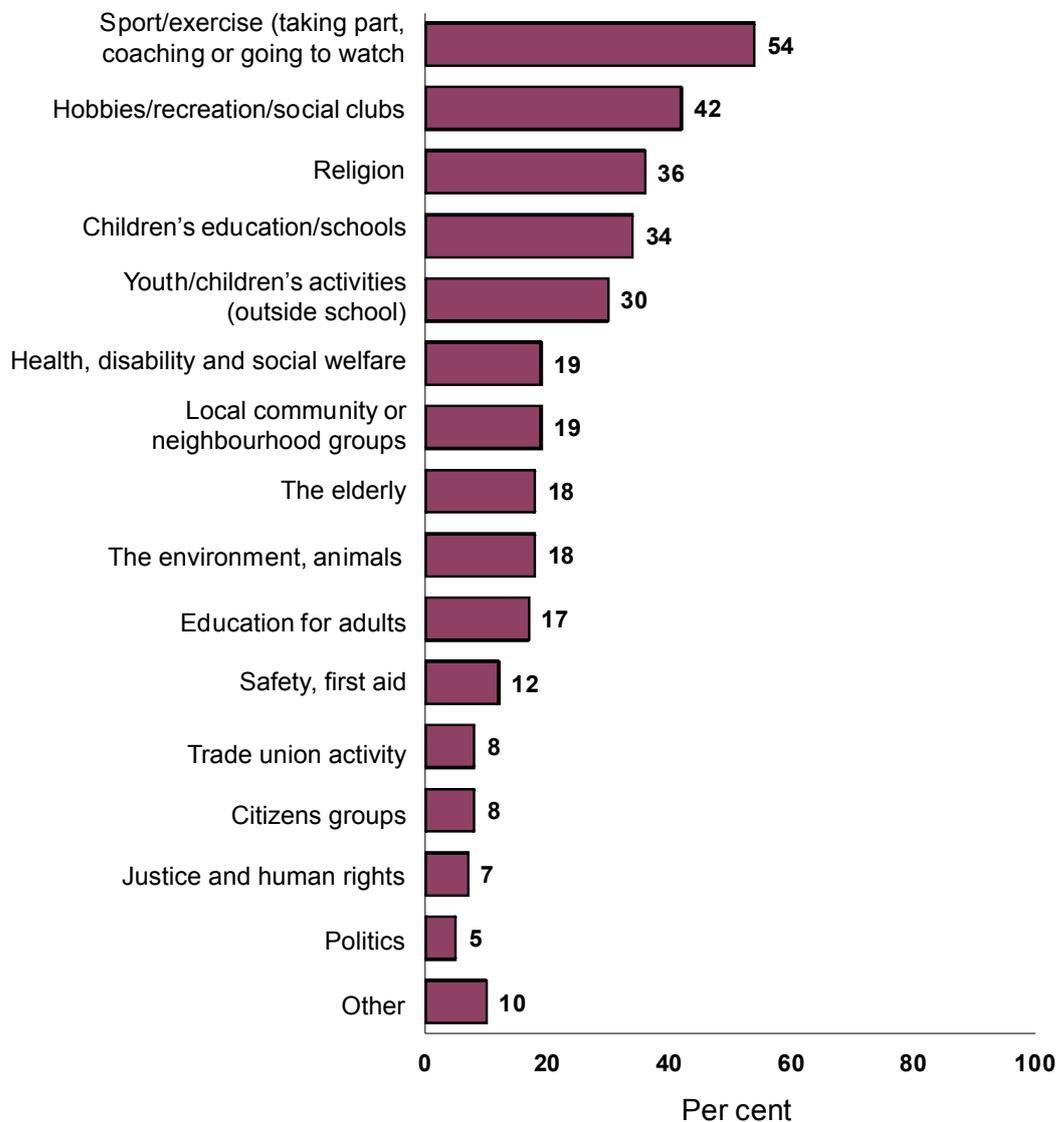
informal volunteers aged 25-34 years did so by babysitting compared with 18 per cent of those aged 50-64 years. Shopping or collecting pensions accounted for 25 per cent of informal volunteering among 25-34 year olds, compared with 43 per cent among 50-64 year olds. (Table J.4)

- 5.65** This was a similar pattern to formal volunteering (paragraph 5.59) – where a larger proportion of men took part by giving information, advice or counselling than women. Giving advice was a bigger component of informal volunteering for men rather than women (50% compared with 41%). Women, however, were more likely to informally volunteer by keeping in touch with someone (42% compared with 37% of men). Women were around twice as likely as men to babysit or care for children (40% compared with 21%), while a quarter of men (25%) took part in decorating or home improvements compared with just six per cent of women. (Table J.4)

## What types of organisations were helped through formal volunteering?

- 5.66** The Citizenship Survey asked people if they had formally volunteered in any groups, clubs or organisations in the last 12 months. **Sports organisations were the most popular type of group in which people formally volunteered**, cited by over half of those who volunteered either at least once in the last 12 months or at least once in the last four weeks (53% and 54% respectively). (Figure 5.10, Table K.1)
- 5.67** Other popular types of organisations through which people formally volunteered at least once a month included hobbies and recreation groups (42%), religious groups (36%), children's and educational organisations (34%), and youth and children's activities (30%). (Figure 5.10, Table K.1)

**Figure 5.10** Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering



Base: All core sample respondents in England who volunteered formally at least once a month (2,184)  
 Note: Respondents could mention more than one type of organisation

**5.68** There was little change in the top three types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering between 2008-09 and 2009-10. (Table K.1)

**5.69** In contrast, regular formal volunteering through local community or neighbourhood groups and health, disability and social welfare organisations fell since 2008-09.<sup>11</sup>The fall in volunteering in health, disability and social welfare areas was most evident among the youngest and oldest age groups. Fourteen per cent of people aged 16-24 years volunteered in 2009-10 compared with 26 per cent in 2008-09; 29 per cent among those aged 65-75

<sup>11</sup>Local community or neighbourhood groups: from 23% in 2008-09 to 19% in 2009-10; and health, disability and social welfare organisations: from 27% to 19%.

years compared with 19 per cent in 2008-09, and 28 per cent among those aged 75 years or more compared with 16 per cent in 2008-09. (Table K.2)

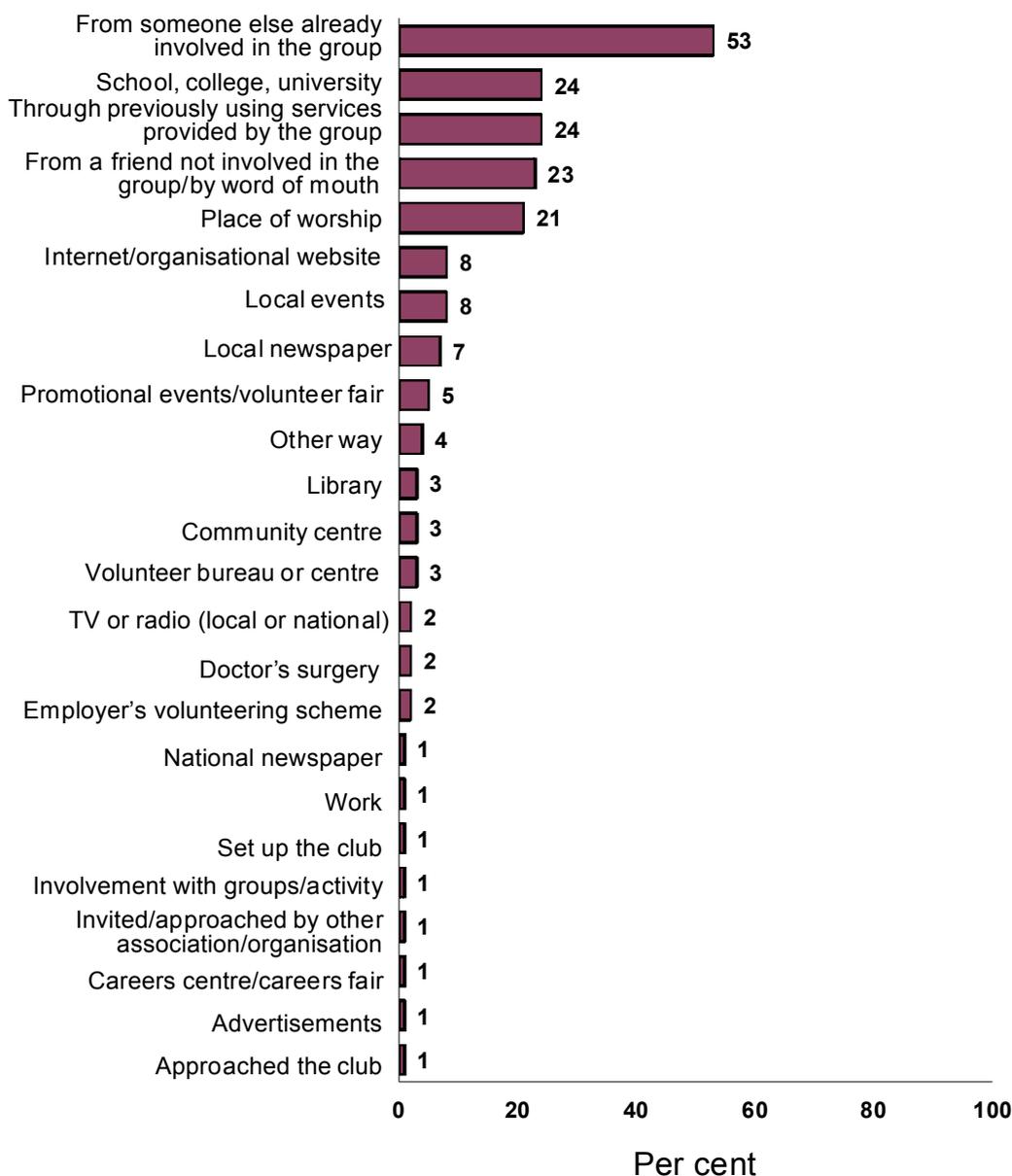
- 5.70** There were **differences in the types of organisation that regular formal volunteers took part in**. Regular formal volunteering through sporting organisations varied by age, where compared with two-thirds (67%) of those aged 16-24 years, just a third (32%) of formal volunteers aged 75 years or more did so in this way. However, **volunteering through religious organisations increased with age**, from a quarter of formal volunteers aged 16-24 years to more than half (53%) of those aged 75 years or more. This was also the case for activities for the elderly, where a third (32%) of regular formal volunteers aged 75 years or more said they had helped with such groups at least once in the last 12 months compared with 10 per cent for 16-24 year olds. **Older age groups were also more likely to take part in local community or neighbourhood groups**, with a quarter (24%) of 50-64 year olds and three in ten aged 65-74 years (29%) and those aged 75 years or more (29%) having volunteered in this way at least once in the last 12 months, compared with seven per cent of volunteers aged 16-24 years. (Table K.2)
- 5.71** **Volunteering through children's educational or school organisations was highest among those aged 35-49 years**, where over half (52%) of those who formally volunteered at least once in the last 12 months cited these organisation types. (Table K.2)
- 5.72** There were **some differences by gender** in the types of organisations that regular formal volunteers were involved in. Three-fifths of men (60%) who volunteered in the last 12 months did so with a sports or exercise organisation, whereas around a half of women (49%) did the same. Almost half of men (46%) who volunteered did this in a recreation, arts or social club, compared with under two-fifths of women (38%). (Table K.2)
- 5.73** Conversely, women were more likely than men to have volunteered at a school or in connection with children's education. Where two-fifths of women (42%) who took part in regular formal volunteering did so in this way, only a quarter of men (26%) formally volunteered in these types of organisation. Similarly, of those who formally volunteered regularly, a quarter of women (24%) were likely to have volunteered at a health, disability or social group, compared with one in seven men (14%). (Table K.2)
- 5.74** There was also **some variation between ethnic groups in terms of the types of organisations that regular formal volunteers were involved in**. While a third (33%) of White people who volunteered took part through religious organisations, amongst people from an Asian background the proportion was much higher – with six in ten Indian people (63%) and Pakistani people (60%) who volunteered, doing so in this way at least once in the last 12 months. Similarly, around six in ten Black Caribbean people (62%) who had formally volunteered did so with a religious group and around three-quarters of Black African people (74%) did the same. (Table K.3)
- 5.75** In contrast, White people who regularly participated in formal volunteering were more likely than those from ethnic minority groups overall to have done so through sport or exercise (56% compared with 40% respectively) and hobbies or recreation clubs (43% compared with 22%). (Table K.3)

**5.76** People without a long-term illness or disability were more likely to formally volunteer with a sports organisation (58%) or youth, children’s activity group (32%) than people with a long-term illness or disability (38% and 21% respectively). Conversely, those with a long-term illness or disability were more likely to volunteer with organisations related to health, disability or social welfare (27% compared with 18%). (Table K.2)

## How did people find out about opportunities for formal volunteering?

**5.77** People who had participated in formal volunteering at least once in the last 12 months were asked how they found out about opportunities to give unpaid help to these groups, clubs and organisations. **The most popular way of finding out about volunteering opportunities in 2009-10 was through someone else already involved in the group or organisation.** Over half (53%) of people who volunteered at least once a month found out about opportunities in this way, and a similar proportion of those who volunteered at least once a year found out about opportunities in the same way (52%). A quarter (24%) of regular formal volunteers found out about these opportunities either through school, college or university, through previously using services provided by the group (both 24%) or through a friend or word of mouth (23%). (Figure 5.11, Table L.1)

**Figure 5.11** Most common sources of information for regular formal volunteers



Base: All core sample respondents in England who volunteered formally at least once a month (2,181)

Note: Respondents could mention more than one type of organisation

**5.78** Men were more likely than women to find out about formal volunteering opportunities through previously having used the services provided by the group (27% compared with 21%), as well as through someone else already involved in the group (57% compared with 50%). Conversely, women were more likely to find out about opportunities through school than men (28% compared with 19%), and through a place of worship (24% compared with 18%). (Table L.2)

**5.79** More than two in five (44%) people aged 16-24 years and who volunteered regularly found out about opportunities for formal volunteering through school, college or university. Finding information on websites was also more popular

for some younger age groups: 14 per cent of those aged 25-39 years compared with eight per cent overall. Places of worship were a particularly helpful source of information for those regular formal volunteers aged over 65 years (29% of those aged 65-74 years and 40% aged 75 years or more compared with the overall average of 21%). (Table L.2)

## Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving

- 5.80** People who worked as employees were asked if their employer offered any schemes for employees to help with community projects or voluntary or charity organisations, or schemes to give money to such organisations.
- 5.81** **In 2009-10, 24 per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for volunteering.** Twenty-seven per cent of employed people said their employer had a scheme for giving money. The proportions of employed people saying their employer had a scheme for volunteering and for giving money have remained unchanged since 2008-09 (when the figures were 26% and 28% respectively). (Table M.1)
- 5.82** Where employers had schemes for volunteering and giving, **the number of employed people participating in the schemes increased over the last year.** The proportion of employed people who took part in their employers' volunteering scheme at least once a month has remained stable (12% in 2008-09 and 15% in 2009-10), but the proportion who took part less regularly increased over the same period (from 38% in 2008-09 to 43% in 2009-10). Similarly, around half (49%) of employed people whose employer had a scheme for giving took part compared with 43 per cent in 2008-09. (Table M.1)
- 5.83** **Awareness about employer schemes has also increased.** One in ten (10%) employees said they did not know whether their employer had a scheme in 2009-10 compared with 14 per cent in 2008-09. However, more employed people were likely to say that their employer had neither a scheme for giving nor for formal volunteering opportunities, with just under three in five (57%) citing this was the case in 2009-10 compared with 52 per cent in 2008-09. (Table M.1)

## What are the barriers to regular formal volunteering?

- 5.84** People who did not participate in formal volunteering, or who did so infrequently (at least once in the last 12 months but less than once a month) and said that they would like to volunteer more often, were asked about the main barriers preventing them from doing so. People were given a showcard listing possible barriers, including 'I have work commitments' and 'I have to look after the children/home'. There was no limit to the number of barriers that could be selected. A full list of the barriers can be found in Table N1.
- 5.85** In line with previous years, **'work commitments' was the most commonly-cited barrier to regular formal volunteering.** Over half (55%) of those who did not volunteer said this was the reason, and nearly three-fifths (59%) of those who formally volunteered less than once a month said the same. (Table N.1)
- 5.86** A quarter of people said that **looking after children or the home** was a barrier to volunteering (26% who did not volunteer formally, and 28% who formally volunteered infrequently), or that they do other things with their time (23% and 26% respectively). Another reason for all those who did not formally volunteer or who formally volunteered infrequently was that they had not heard of opportunities to help (17% overall); with slightly fewer who said it was due to their studying commitments (15% overall). (Table N.1)
- 5.87** Looking at barriers to regular formal volunteering over time, the proportions of people who said they could not volunteer due to looking after children or the home and having other things to do with their spare time fell since 2008-09 (from 31% to 26% and from 29 % to 24% respectively). (Table N.1)
- 5.88** Barriers to volunteering varied by age. Those of working age or most likely to be working were the most likely to cite work as a barrier to volunteering, with this cited by two-thirds (66%) of 25-34 year olds, a slightly higher proportion of 35-49 year olds (71%), and six in ten(60%) of 50-64 year olds offered the same reason. This compared with just over a third (36%) of 16-24 year olds and just 13 per cent of 65-74 year olds who cited work commitments as a barrier to volunteering. (Table N.2)
- 5.89** People aged 16-24 years who did not formally volunteer regularly were most likely to say that having to study (46% compared with 15% overall)and not having heard about opportunities to help(25%compared with 17% overall) were barriers.(Table N.2)
- 5.90** Men were more likely than women to say that work commitments prevented them from formally volunteering, with two-thirds of men (60%) who did not regularly volunteer stating this compared to just over half of women (53%). Men were also more likely to say they did other things with their spare time (30% compared with 19% of women). In contrast, women were more likely to say that they had to look after children or the home; around a third (32%) of women who did not regularly volunteer cited this reason compared with a fifth (20%) of men. (Table N.2)

- 5.91** White people were more likely to say that work commitments prevented them from participating in regular formal volunteering; nearly three-fifths (58%) of those who did not regularly volunteer cited this reason compared with under half (46%) of those from ethnic minority backgrounds. White people were also more likely to say that they had other things to do with their spare time (25% compared to 18% of those from all ethnic minority groups). (Table N.4)
- 5.92** Conversely, those from ethnic minority groups who did not regularly volunteer were more likely to say they had to look after children or the home (31% compared to 27% of White people), as well as having to study (24% compared to 13% of White people). Studying was a particular barrier for Bangladeshi (31%) and Asian 'Other' people (30%). (Table N.4)
- 5.93** Barriers to volunteering varied slightly by socio-economic group. Four in five (79%) people in employment who did not volunteer cited work commitments as a barrier; as did three-quarters (75%) of those in managerial and professional occupations. This compared with 56 per cent of people overall. Some seven in ten (70%) full-time students who did not take part in regular formal volunteering cited studying commitments as a barrier. (Table N.5b)
- 5.94** **Local area deprivation was also associated with work being cited as a barrier to regular formal volunteering.** Around half (between 49% and 51%) of those in the 30 per cent most deprived areas cited work commitments as a reason for being unable to volunteer formally at least once a month. This compared with more than three in five (62%) of those living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas (Table N.6)

## Conclusions

While there was little change in participation in formal volunteering from 2008-09 to 2009-10, there was a fall in levels of informal volunteering (both regularly and at least once a year), which is the most common form of volunteering. The decline in informal volunteering was most marked among older people (those aged 65 years or more). Levels of participation in employer-supported volunteering remained unchanged since 2005

In terms of what factors influence regular volunteering, the analysis showed that while some demographic factors, such as religious practice, gender and age, ethnicity, socio-economic group and area deprivation were important, attitudinal and behavioural factors were more significant. In the case of regular formal volunteering, the most significant predictor was whether someone mixed with people from different backgrounds in private places such as the home (so therefore mixing with people from different backgrounds out of choice). Participation in civic engagement was also very influential and people who participated in civic activism, civic participation or civic consultation had a greater chance of being regular formal volunteers. Giving money to charity also featured as a predictor. While the analysis did not (and cannot) establish cause and effect (i.e. whether volunteering is directly caused by a specific factor), these findings suggest that people who have more diverse social networks

and who are already active in the community in some way have a greater likelihood of volunteering.

The analysis for regular informal volunteering showed very similar findings to that for regular formal volunteering. However, the most significant predictor here was giving money to charity.

The analysis also showed that while many similar demographic predictors emerged for both regular formal and informal volunteering (e.g. ethnicity, age and gender, active religious practice and region) there were also some differences. The number of children in the household, area deprivation and highest qualification featured as predictors for regular formal volunteering but these did not emerge for informal volunteering. Here, housing tenure, the length of time in the neighbourhood and marital status can be seen as important.

The most common types of regular formal volunteering were helping to run an activity - although this has declined over time – and raising or handling money or sponsored events. In terms of informal volunteering, the most common types of activities were giving advice and keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about. The proportion of people keeping in touch with someone who has a difficulty getting out and about has increased over time. This is notable given that participation in informal volunteering has fallen overall. Regular formal volunteers spent 11.8 hours on average volunteering. This compares with 7.7 hours for those who volunteered informally on a regular basis.

Sports organisations, hobby and recreation groups, religious groups and organisations and activities for children and young people were the most common types of organisations helped through formal volunteering. In terms of how people found out about opportunities for formal volunteering, the most common way was through someone else already involved in the group or organisation.

Work commitments were the most commonly cited barrier to regular formal volunteering. This was followed by looking after children and having other things to do although the multivariate analysis showed that households with two or more children had higher odds of regular formal volunteering compared with households with no children. These findings suggest that enabling people to participate in more volunteering will require ways of freeing up time from their other commitments. The findings also showed that for some people, a perceived lack of information about opportunities to volunteer was a barrier.

## List of tables

<b>Para.</b>	<b>Table reference and name</b>
5.5	Table H.1: Participation in voluntary activities, 2001 to 2009-10
5.6	Table H.1: Participation in voluntary activities, 2001 to 2009-10
5.7	Table H.1: Participation in voluntary activities, 2001 to 2009-10
5.9	Table H.2: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by age and gender
5.10	Table H.2: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by age and gender
5.11	Table H.3: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by disability and sexual identity
5.12	Table H.4: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by ethnicity
5.13	Table H.5: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by religion
5.14	Table H.8: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by employment status
5.15	Table H.6: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by socio-economic group
5.16	Table H.7: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by highest qualification level
5.17	Table H.9 - Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area
5.18	Table H.9 - Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area
5.19	Table H.10 - Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by Index of Multiple Deprivation
5.21	Table H.2: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by age and gender
5.22	Table H.4: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by ethnicity
5.23	Table H.8: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by employment status
5.24	Table H.6: Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by socio-economic group
5.25	Table H.9 - Participation in formal and informal volunteering regularly and in the last 12 months, by Region and type of area
5.51	Table I.1: Average number of hours spent participating at least once a month in voluntary activities in the four weeks before interview, by age and gender
5.52	Table I.1: Average number of hours spent participating at least once a month in voluntary activities in the four weeks before interview, by age and gender
5.53	Table I.1: Average number of hours spent participating at least once a month in voluntary activities in the four weeks before interview, by age and gender
5.54	Table I.1: Average number of hours spent participating at least once a month in voluntary activities in the four weeks before interview, by age and gender
5.56	Table J.1: Types of formal volunteering activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
5.57	Table J.2: Types of formal volunteering activities undertaken by regular formal volunteers in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
5.58	Table J.2: Types of formal volunteering activities undertaken by regular formal volunteers in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
5.59	Table J.2: Types of formal volunteering activities undertaken by regular formal volunteers in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender

- 5.60 Table J.3: Types of informal volunteering activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.61 Table J.3: Types of informal volunteering activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.62 Table J.3: Types of informal volunteering activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.63 Table J.4: Types of informal volunteering activities undertaken by regular informal volunteers in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
- 5.64 Table J.4: Types of informal volunteering activities undertaken by regular informal volunteers in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
- 5.65 Table K.1: Types of organisations helped through formal volunteering undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.66 Table K.1: Types of organisations helped through formal volunteering undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.67 Table K.1: Types of organisations helped through formal volunteering undertaken in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.68 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.69 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.70 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.71 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.72 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.73 Table K.3: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by ethnicity
- 5.74 Table K.3: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by ethnicity
- 5.75 Table K.2: Types of organisations helped through regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age, gender and disability
- 5.76 Table L.1: How people found out about opportunities for formal volunteering, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.77 Table L.2: How regular formal volunteers found out about opportunities to volunteer, by age and gender
- 5.78 Table L.2: How regular formal volunteers found out about opportunities to volunteer, by age and gender
- 5.79 Table M.1: Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving in the 12 months before interview, 2008-09 and 2009-10
- 5.80 Table M.1: Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving in the 12 months before interview, 2008-09 and 2009-10
- 5.81 Table M.1: Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving in the 12 months before interview, 2008-09 and 2009-10
- 5.82 Table M.1: Participation in employer schemes for volunteering and giving in the 12 months before interview, 2008-09 and 2009-10
- 5.84 Table N.1: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.85 Table N.1: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.86 Table N.1: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by frequency of volunteering
- 5.87 Table N.2: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
- 5.88 Table N.2: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender

- 5.89 Table N.2: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by age and gender
- 5.90 Table N.4: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by ethnicity
- 5.91 Table N.4: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by ethnicity
- 5.92 Table N.5b: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview by socio-economic group and employment status
- 5.93 Table N.6: Barriers to regular formal volunteering in the 12 months before interview, by Index of Multiple Deprivation and type of area

# Chapter 6

## Charitable giving

### Chapter summary

#### Participation in charitable giving

- In 2009-10, just over **seven in ten (72%) people had given money to charity** in the four weeks prior to being interviewed. This has fallen from 79 per cent since 2005. (Paragraph 6.3)
- The bivariate analysis suggested that charitable giving varied by **gender, age and socio-economic group**, all of which were confirmed by the multivariate analysis. Though variation by ethnicity was apparent in the bivariate analysis (with people in ethnic minority groups less likely than White people to give to charity), the multivariate analysis found that whether someone **actively practised a religion** had a stronger association with giving to charity. (Paragraph 6.4, 6.5, 6.6, 6.9, 6.10, 6.14, 6.15 and 6.16)
- **The most significant predictor of giving money to charity was involvement in volunteering**, particularly taking part in informal volunteering at least once a year (though formal volunteering was also important). The extent to which people **trusted others in their local area and mixed with people from different backgrounds** were also significant predictors of charitable giving. (Paragraph 6.18, 6.19 and 6.20)

#### Type of donation and amount given to charity

- Despite a fall in the proportion of people giving money to charity, **in 2009-10 the average donation was £17.87**, which has remained broadly in line with the 2008-09 figure (£17.70). This varied considerably between demographic groups. (Paragraph 6.23)
- As well as being more likely to take part in charitable giving, the bivariate analysis suggested that people in older age groups gave larger amounts of money per donation compared with people in younger age groups (an average of £19.57 among those aged 75 years or more compared with £10.87 among those aged 16-24 years). In contrast, although they gave money to charity less frequently, men and people from ethnic minority groups gave a higher amount per donation compared with women and people from White backgrounds respectively. (Paragraph 6.24, 6.25 and 6.26)

- People gave to charity in a variety of different ways, **the most common being through collection tins**, with a third (32%) giving money in this way. Other popular methods included buying raffle tickets, buying goods from a charity shop or catalogue, direct debits, standing orders or debit from salary, and sponsorship. Over a quarter of people said that they had given to charity through Gift Aid (27%). (Paragraph 6.29, 6.30 and 6.32)

### **Encouraging charitable giving**

- Over half (54%) of people said they would give more money to charity if they had more money themselves. Other factors that people said would encourage them to give more were **knowing how their donation would be used** (28%) and receiving further information about the process and options available. (Paragraph 6.33 and 6.34)
- A fifth of people (21%) said that **none of the options offered would encourage them** to give more to charity. (Paragraph 6.36)

## Charitable giving

**6.1** This chapter considers the subject of charitable giving; it explores the level of participation, the different methods used to give to charity and the amount of money given. Charitable giving is defined in the Citizenship Survey as having given money to charity through any of the methods below (excluding donating goods or prizes) in the four weeks prior to interview:

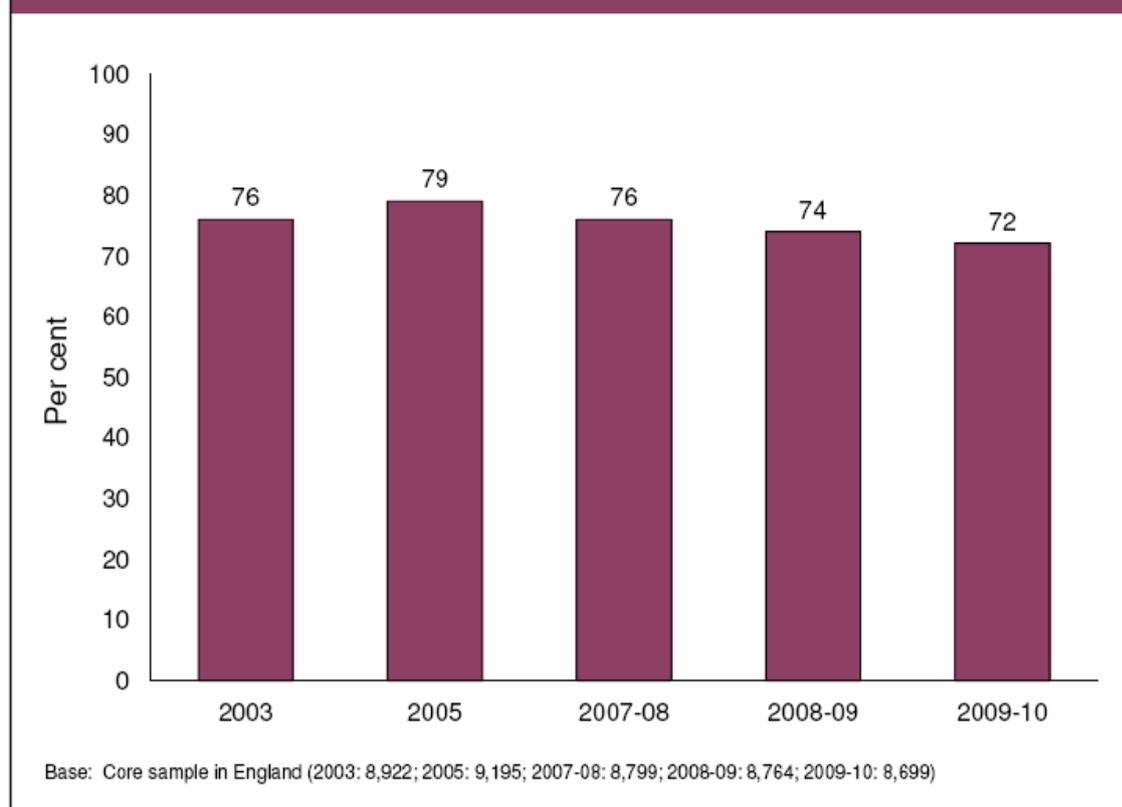
- Door-to-door collection
- Street collection
- Sponsorship
- Collection at church, mosque, other place of worship
- Shop counter collection
- Pub collection
- Collection at work
- Buying raffle tickets (not national lottery)
- Buying goods from a charity shop or catalogue
- Direct debit, standing order, covenant or debit from salary
- Giving to people begging on the street
- Other method of giving.

**6.2** In addition to the above, the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey builds on findings from previous years by considering participation in charitable giving through tax relief and what, if anything, would encourage people to give more to charity.

## Charitable giving in England in 2009-10

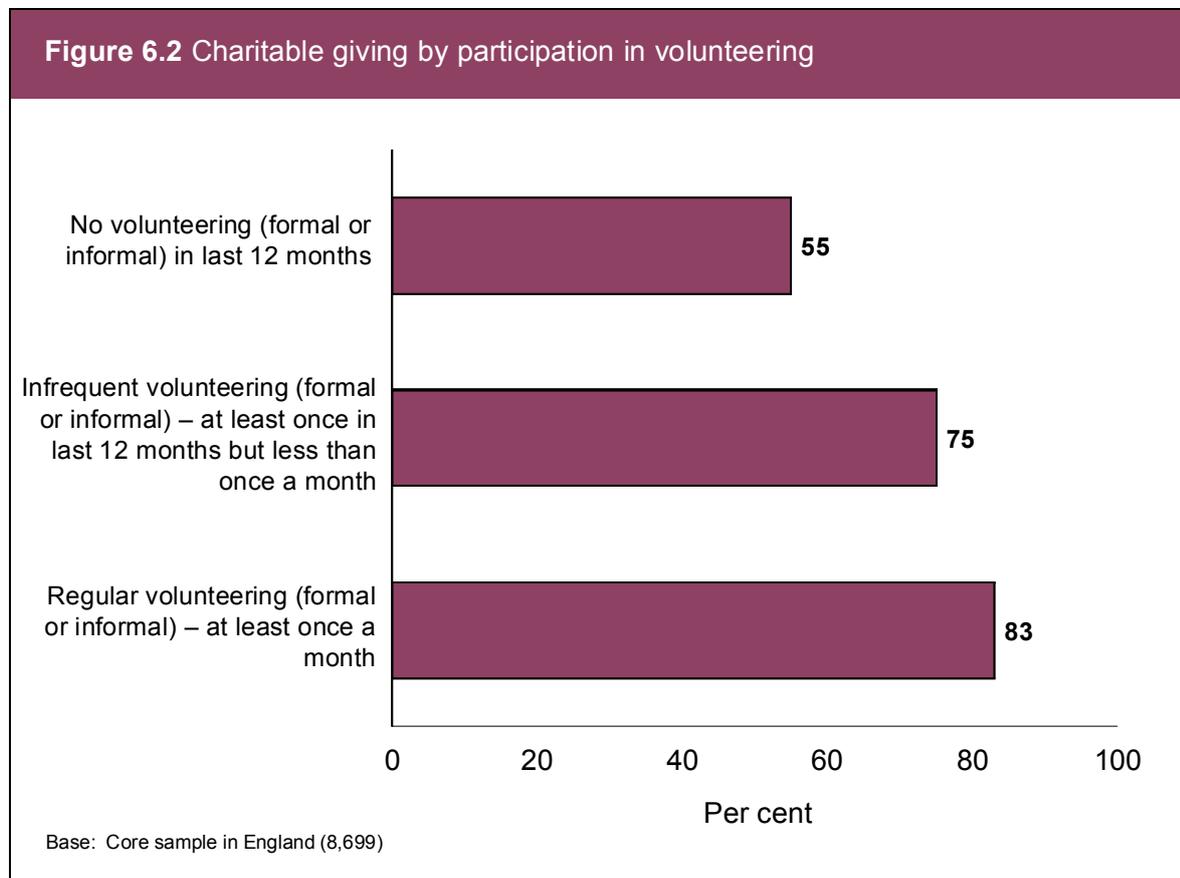
**6.3** In 2009-10 just over **seven in ten (72%) people had given money to a charity in the four weeks prior to being interviewed**. This has fallen from 74 per cent in 2008-9 and the general trend showed there has been a decrease in charitable giving since 2005 when the figure was 79 per cent. (Figure 6.1, Table O.1)

Figure 6.1 Charitable giving: 2003 to 2009-10



- 6.4** In line with previous years, **women were more likely than men to have given to charity in the four weeks prior to interview**, with three-quarters saying they had done this (75%) compared to around two-thirds of men (68%). (Table O.2)
- 6.5** The age group with the highest proportion of people who said they had given to charity was 65-74 year olds, where over three-quarters (78%) said they had given to charity; this compares with around three in five of 16-24 year olds (61%). **The decline in charitable giving since 2008-09 was most evident among the youngest age group** where it fell among those aged 16-24 years old (from 67% to 61%). In contrast, there was little change amongst 65-74 year olds (from 76% in 2008-09 to 78% in 2009-10). (Table O.2)
- 6.6** People in **ethnic minority groups were less likely than White people to have given to charity**, with just under two-thirds (63%) saying they had done so in the last 4 weeks prior to interview compared with three-quarters (73%) of White people. Looking at ethnic minority groups in more detail, almost two-thirds of Asian (65%), Black (64%) and Mixed Race people (63%) gave to charity; as did half (51%) of 'Other' ethnic minority groups. (Table O.4)
- 6.7** Looking at charitable giving over time, **the proportion of people giving money to charity has fallen the most among groups who were the least likely to make a donation in the first place**. In the case of ethnicity, the decline was most marked among those from Asian 'Other' (from 73% in 2008-09 to 59% in 2009-10) and Bangladeshi (from 71% in 2008-09 to 61% in 2009-10) percentage points) backgrounds compared with a fall from 75% to 73% White people over the same period. (Table O.4a)

- 6.8** Three-quarters of **Christian people** (74%) gave to charity in 2009-10, which was higher than for many other religions. Nearly two-thirds of Hindu (63%), Muslim (62%) and Sikh people (65%) gave to charity, and two-thirds (67%) of those with no religion said they had also given to charity. (Table O.5)
- 6.9** As was the case in 2008-09, those from **managerial and professional occupations** were more likely to give to charity than other socio-economic groups, with four-fifths (82%) saying they had done so in the four weeks prior to interview, compared with only half of those who had never worked (53%). (Table O.6)
- 6.10** **Charitable giving was also linked to income levels**, where the proportion of people who gave to charity steadily increased with income level. People earning below £5,000 were the least likely to have given, with six in ten (62%) saying they had done so; this increased to almost nine in ten (87%) among those earning £75,000 or more. Though there was little change in charitable giving amongst higher earners, charitable giving among those earning below £5,000 fell from 69 per cent in 2008-09 to 62 per cent in 2009-10. (Table O.7)
- 6.11** In line with previous years, **charitable giving was also related to participation in volunteering**. While just over half (55%) of people who did not participate in either formal or informal volunteering gave money to charity, this increased to three-quarters (75%) of those who took part in informal or formal volunteering at least once a year and more than four in five (83%) for those who were regular volunteers. (Figure 6.2, Table O.8)



**6.12** To explore these issues further, **logistic regression** was carried out to look at the socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that predict whether or not people gave money to charity after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors. Paragraph 1.12 provides further details of this multivariate approach and its interpretation while Annex B, Model 9 contains the full methodological details.

**6.13** Figure 6.3 shows the associations that were found to be significant after controlling for a range of demographic and attitudinal variables (see Annex B for the full list). Significant associations in comparison to the reference category are noted, and the odds ratios indicate the magnitude of effect.

**Figure 6.3: Model 9. Variables significantly related to “Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks”**

<b>Demographics</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Categories identified as significant compared with <i>reference category</i></b>	<b>Direction of odds (odds ratio)</b>
Gender and age	<i>Men aged 16-24 years</i> Men aged 35-49 years Men aged 50-64 years Men aged 65-74 years Men aged 75 + years <i>Women aged 16-24 years</i> Women aged 25-34 years Women aged 35-49 years Women aged 50-64 years Women aged 65-74 years Women aged 75 + years	Higher (1.61) Higher (1.53) Higher (2.36) Higher (1.93) Higher (1.77) Higher (1.99) Higher (2.40) Higher (2.87) Higher (3.69) Higher (2.36)
Whether practising religion	<i>Not actively practising</i> Actively practising	Higher (1.54)
Socio-economic group (7 categories)	<i>Higher/lower managerial and professional occupations</i> Lower supervisory & technical/semi routine Routine occupations Never worked/long-term unemployed	Lower (0.81) Lower (0.77) Lower (0.73)
Region	<i>London</i> North East North West Yorkshire and the Humber West Midlands	Higher (1.76) Higher (1.50) Higher (1.36) Higher (1.67)
Income	<i>Under £5,000</i> £5,000 - £9,999 £30,000 - £49,999 £50,000 - £74,999 £75,000 or more	Higher (1.27) Higher (1.53) Higher (1.97) Higher (1.97)
Tenure	<i>Mortgaged/part-ownership</i> Social renting	Lower (0.75)

**Figure 6.3: Model 9. Variables significantly related to “Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks” (continued)**

<b>Attitudes &amp; behaviours</b>		
Informal volunteering in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (2.08)
People in the neighbourhood can be trusted	Many A few None Just moved to the neighbourhood	Lower (0.71) Lower (0.46) Lower (0.60)
Formal volunteering at least once a month	No Yes	Higher (1.53)
Formal volunteering in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.36)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in <u>public</u> setting	No Yes	Higher (1.27)
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting local area	Very important Not very important Not at all important	Lower (0.78) Lower (0.68)
Civic consultation in last 12 months	No Yes	Higher (1.32)
Main source of information on news or current affairs	TV/Radio None	Lower (0.75)
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in <u>private</u>	No Yes	Higher (1.20)

**6.14** The most significant demographic predictor of giving to charity was the combination of **age and gender**. In particular, men aged 16-24 years had lower odds of giving money to charity than almost all other gender and age groups (with the exception of men aged 25-34 years).

**6.15** A further predictor of charitable giving was religious practice. The odds of giving to charity were higher among those **who actively practised a religion** compared with those who did not.

**6.16** **Socio-demographic factors** were also linked to whether someone gave money to charity. The odds of giving to charity were higher among people in managerial and professional occupations compared with those in lower job roles or those who were out of work.<sup>12</sup> This was further reflected by **income**, where compared with people who earn under £5,000, those earning more than £30,000 had a greater chance of giving to charity. However the odds were also higher among those earning between £5,000 and £9,999, which suggests that those least likely to give to charity were those on very low or middle incomes. By housing **tenure**, people who lived in socially rented accommodation had a lower likelihood of giving to charity compared with those who lived in accommodation which was mortgaged or partly-owned.

<sup>12</sup> Compared with those in the *higher/lower managerial and professional occupation* category, the chance of giving to charity was lower in all of the following categories: *lower supervisory & technical/semi routine; routine occupations; never worked/long-term unemployed*. This was further supported by employment status, where those who were *unemployed* had a lower chance of giving money to charity compared with those in work.

- 6.17 People who lived in the North East, North West, Yorkshire and Humber and the West Midlands had greater odds of taking part in charitable giving compared with those in London.
- 6.18 The most significant overall predictor of whether someone gave money to charity in the four weeks prior to interview was **involvement in volunteering**. Giving **informal help at least once in the last 12 months** was particularly strong, and matches the association between informal volunteering and charitable giving shown in the informal volunteering model (paragraph 5.41). Compared with people who did not informally volunteer at all, the odds of giving to charity were more than twice as great (2.08) among those who informally volunteered at least once in the last 12 months. The likelihood of charitable giving was also greater among those who took part in formal volunteering at least once a month, and among those who took part at least once over the year.
- 6.19 Attitudes towards people in the local neighbourhood were also strongly associated with giving money to charity. People who felt that many of the **people in their local area can be trusted** had a greater chance of giving compared with those who felt that only some, a few, or none of the people could be trusted. Those who had only just moved to the area (and were therefore unlikely to have formed an opinion) also had a lower chance of giving to charity.
- 6.20 This may be linked to wider associations between charitable giving and levels of **mixing** with other groups. Those who **mixed with people from different backgrounds** (either in public or in private) had a greater likelihood of giving to charity compared with those who did not mix with people of different backgrounds.
- 6.21 Charitable giving was positively associated with some components of **civic engagement**, in line with findings relating to likelihood of volunteering (see Chapter 5). Although involvement in civic participation or civic activism was not a significant predictor, people who had participated in any form of **civic consultation** had a greater chance of giving to charity. Furthermore, the chances of giving to charity were lower among people who felt that it was not very or not at all **important to be able to influence decisions** that affect the local area compared with those who felt it was very important.
- 6.22 Giving money to charity was also related to **the main source of information on news or current affairs**. As was the case for predicting volunteering behaviour (paragraph 5.36), the likelihood of giving to charity was lower among those who did not have any main source of information on news or current affairs compared with those who got their information through TV or radio.

## How much did people give to charity on average in 2009-10?

- 6.23** In 2009-10, people gave an average<sup>13</sup> of £17.87 in the four weeks prior to being interviewed. Although **the overall proportion of people who gave money to charity fell in 2009-10**, the amount of money people gave individually remained relatively similar (average amount given was £17.70 in 2008-09). In line with previous years, around a half (48%) of people gave less than £10 to charity, with three in ten (29%) giving less than £5. (Table P.1)
- 6.24** As in 2008-09, **people aged 16-24 years old gave the least amount** in 2009-10, with an average of £10.87. Conversely those aged 75 years or more gave an average of £19.57. Whereas the average amount given by 16-24 year olds fell from £12.12 in 2008-09, those aged 75 years or more were the only age group to have increased the amount they gave to charity, with an increase of £1.85 (up from £17.72). (Table P.2)
- 6.25** Despite being less likely to give money to charity, men who did donate gave a higher value on average than women in 2009-10, with £18.60 given compared with £17.25 for women. (Table P.2)
- 6.26** Again, despite being less likely to take part in charitable giving overall, **people of an ethnic minority background gave more on average than White people when they did donate**, with £19.15 given compared with £17.61 among White people. The amount given varied among different ethnic groups. People of Mixed Race gave £13.05 on average, whilst people from an Asian background gave £19.78 and Black people gave an average of £20.08 to charity. (Table P.3)
- 6.27** People in managerial and professional occupations (and therefore likely to be higher earners) gave more on average than those in routine occupations (£24.42 compared with £10.31 respectively) or those who have never worked or are long-term unemployed (£13.08). Similarly, people on low incomes of under £5,000 gave an average of £14.18, whilst those earning £75,000 or more gave an average of £44.63. (Table P.4 and P.5)

---

<sup>13</sup> Average excludes those who gave £300 or more and those who answered 'don't know' or for whom there were missing answers.

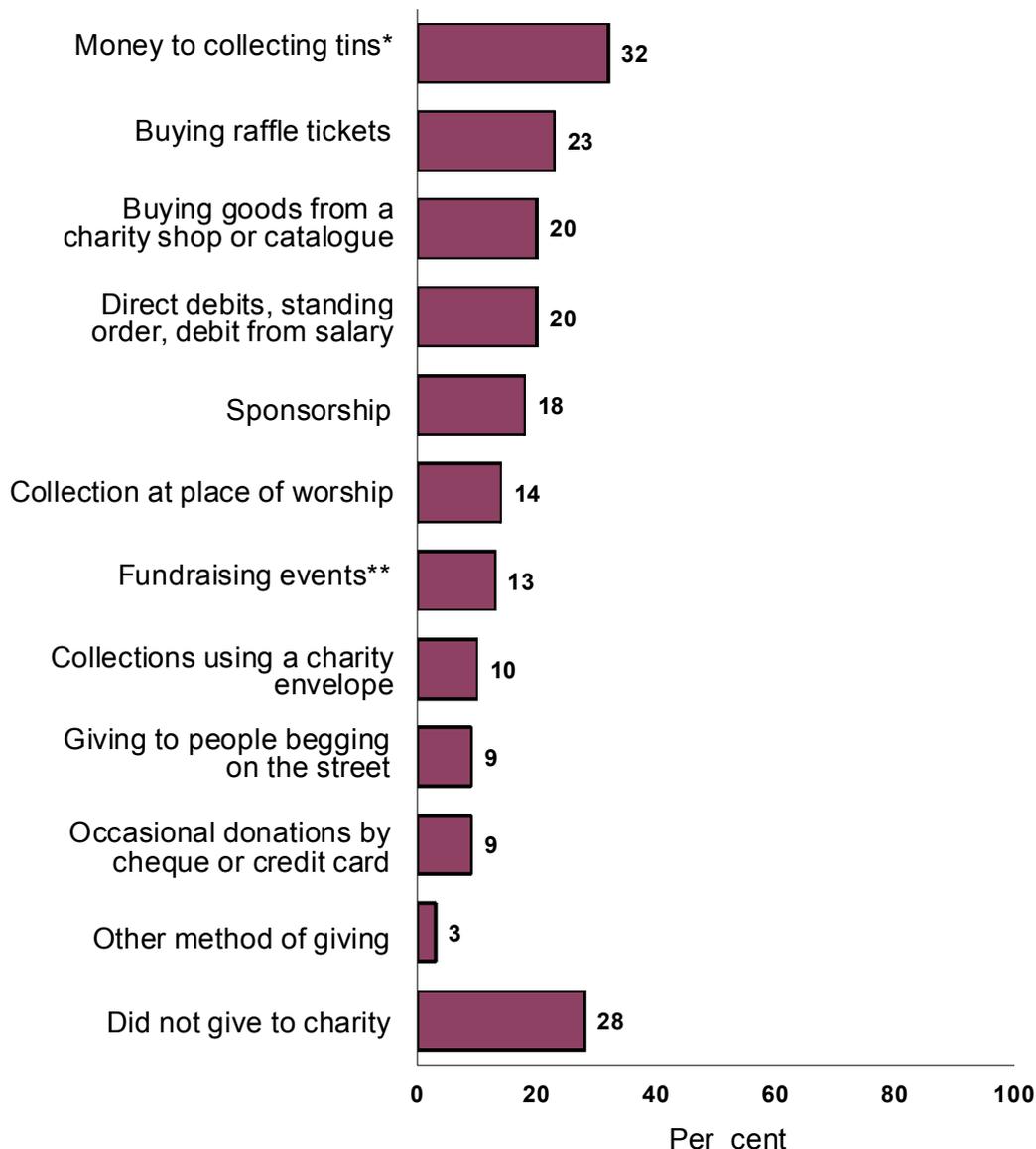
## What method do people use to give to charity?

- 6.28** People were also asked to consider the ways in which they had given to charity in the four weeks prior to interview.
- 6.29** As in previous years, **the most common method of giving to charity was through collection tins**, with a third (32%) giving money to door-to-door collections or to people in public places such as in the street, work, pubs or shops.<sup>14</sup> (Figure 6.4, Table Q.1)
- 6.30** The second most popular method of giving was buying raffle tickets. Although close to a quarter (23%) cited that they had done this in 2009-10, this level marked the continuation of a steady decline from 2003, when a third (33%) had given money in this way. Other popular methods included giving money through buying goods from charity shops or catalogues (20%) or by direct debit or standing order (20%). (Figure 6.4, Table Q.1 and O.1)

---

<sup>14</sup> It should be noted that this question has changed from previous years: it now includes additional options and some options have been combined. Therefore comparisons to 2008-09 results should be seen as indicative only. This is particularly the case for 'Money through collecting tins', for which combinations have been created in the trend data (2003 to 2008-09) in Table Q1.

**Figure 6.4** Most common methods of giving in four weeks before interview



Base: All core sample respondents in England (8,699)

Note: Please note this question has changed from previous years: it now includes additional options and some options have been combined.

Note: Respondents could mention more than one method of giving

\* e.g. door-to-door collection, in the street, in a pub, at work, on a shop counter, etc

\*\* e.g. charity dinners, fetes, jumble sales

**6.31** As noted above, the average amount given to charity was £17.87. However, this amount varied greatly depending on the chosen method of charitable giving. **The highest average amount, £32.99, was given to charity through occasional donations by cheque or credit card**, although only one in eleven (nine per cent) gave in this way. Conversely, the most popular method of giving (through collection tins), saw a lower average amount given to charity (£16.49). Other methods in which higher average amounts were given included a place of worship such as a church or mosque (£31.34), direct debit

or standing order (£29.91) sponsorship (£27.10) and fundraising events such as charity dinners (£26.97). (Table P.6 and Q.1)

- 6.32** The 2009-10 Citizenship Survey also asked whether people had obtained any form of tax relief on charitable giving in the last 12 months. Over a quarter of people said that they had given to charity through the tax relief method of Gift Aid (27%); however a clear majority (70%) said that they did not give to charity through tax relief means at all.<sup>15</sup> (Table Q.2)

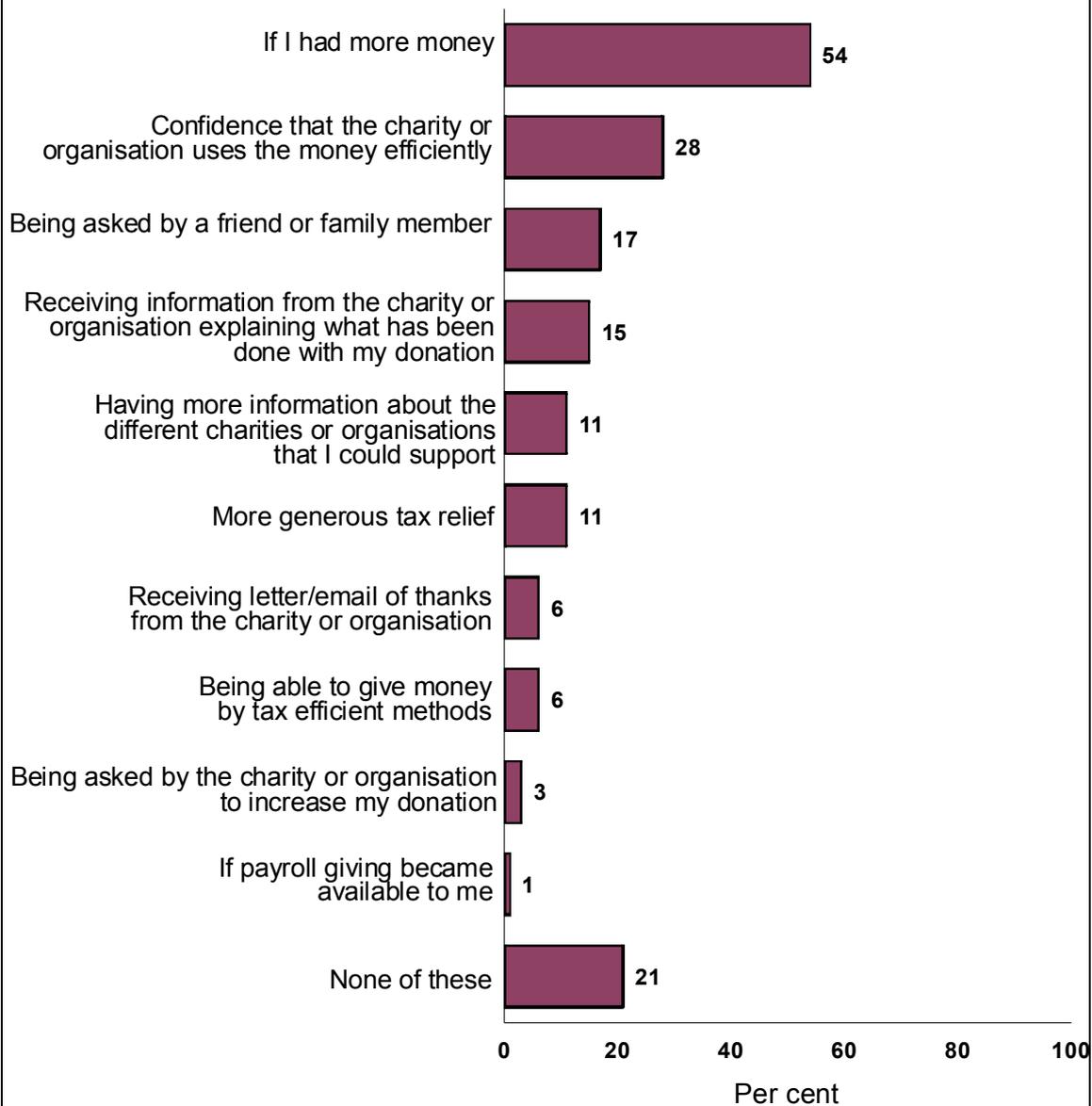
## What would encourage people to give more to charity?

- 6.33** People were also asked to consider what could be done to encourage them to give more money to charity. As is reflected in the logistic regression analysis - where socio-economic group and income levels were both predictors of giving to charity (paragraph 6.19) - **more than half of people (54%) said that they would give more money if they had more money themselves.** (Figure 6.5, Table R.1)
- 6.34** A quarter (28%) of people said that they would give more money to charity **if they were confident that the charity or organisation used the money efficiently.** This may be in part related to requests for more information on what has been done with the donation (15%), the different charities or organisations that people could support (11%) and a letter or email of thanks from the charity or organisation (6%). (Table R.1)
- 6.35** Seventeen per cent of people were also more likely to give to charity if asked by either a friend or family member. However, direct requests by charity organisations to increase the amount people give were seen as less effective, with just three per cent of people saying this would encourage them to give more to charity. (Table R.1)
- 6.36** More flexible options for charitable giving were also mentioned, with one in nine (11%) people stating that they would give more if there was more generous tax relief, and six per cent citing that being able to give money by tax efficient methods would also have an impact. **A fifth of people (21%) said that none of the options offered would encourage them to give more to charity.** (Table R.1)

---

<sup>15</sup> As outlined in Table Q.2, two per cent obtained tax relief through payroll giving and just one per cent obtained Gift Aid via the self-assessment form and tax relief on the value of gifts of shares, land or building given to charities.

**Figure 6.5** What would encourage people to give more to charity



Base: All core sample respondents in England (8,675) Excluding respondents who answered don't know and those with missing answers.

Note: Respondents could mention more than one reason

## Conclusions

In 2009-10, just under three-quarters (72%) of people gave money to charity in the four months prior to interview. Although this represented an overall fall since 2008-09 (and continued a longer term fall since 2005), the reduction in charitable giving since 2008-09 was most evident among those groups who were already the least likely to give money to charity. This included younger people aged 16-24 years and those who had never worked (this latter group was the only socio-economic group to show a decline in charitable giving). There was also a fall in the propensity of people in certain ethnic minority groups to give to charity.

Multivariate analysis suggested that the most significant predictor of giving to charity was whether someone participated in informal volunteering over the past year. Formal volunteering, both at least once a month and among those who took part at least once a year, was also important. This may suggest that people who can see the benefits charity brings are most likely to donate. Young men (aged 16-24 years) had lower odds than almost all other ages (men or women) of giving to charity, while the odds were higher among those who actively practised a religion.

The amount of money given per donation and the method of giving remained the same despite an overall fall in the proportion of those giving to charity. However, it is important to look at these two measures together. Despite being the most popular method of giving, the average amount given through collecting tins was just £16.49; in contrast, although only one in eleven people gave money to charity occasionally through cheques or credit cards, each donation given this way raised on average £32.99 for charity.

Aside from increasing personal wealth, another key consideration for encouraging more charitable giving was improving the information given to people about the different ways they can give to charity and what will happen to the money they donate. Further exploration is needed to understand, however, the motivations behind the minority (21%) who stated that none of the options offered would encourage them to give more to charity.

## List of tables

<b>Para.</b>	<b>Table reference and name</b>
6.3	Table O.1: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, 2003 to 2009-10
6.4	Table O.2: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by age and gender
6.5	Table O.2: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by age and gender
6.6	Table O.4: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by ethnicity
6.7	Table O.4a: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by ethnicity, 2008-09 to 2009-10
6.8	Table O.5: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by religion
6.9	Table O.6: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by socio-economic group
6.10	Table O.7: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by income
6.11	Table O.8: Charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by frequency of formal and informal volunteering
6.23	Table P.1: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, 2003 to 2009-10
6.24	Table P.2: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by age and gender
6.25	Table P.2: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by age and gender
6.26	Table P.3: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by ethnicity
6.27	Table P.4: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by socio-economic group Table P.5: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by income
6.29	Table Q.1: Method of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview: 2003 to 2009-10
6.30	Table Q.1: Method of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview: 2003 to 2009-10
6.31	Table P.6: Amount of charitable giving in the four weeks prior to interview, by method of giving
6.32	Table Q.2: Method to obtain tax relief on charitable giving in last 12 months, 2009-10
6.33	Table R.1: What would encourage people to give more, 2009-10
6.34	Table R.1: What would encourage people to give more, 2009-10
6.35	Table R.1: What would encourage people to give more, 2009-10
6.36	Table R.1: What would encourage people to give more, 2009-10

## Chapter 7

### Conclusions: Community action

The purpose of this report was to examine how people currently get involved in their communities and whether they feel they can influence local and national decision-making. It also explored the extent to which people trust some public institutions (e.g. local councils) and whether people volunteered or gave to charity. These factors are felt to contribute to strong communities and are linked to the Big Society agenda whereby local communities take greater control over their areas and are more involved in shaping them.

Across many elements of community action - civic engagement (particularly civic participation), influencing local decision-making, trust in parliament, informal volunteering and charitable giving - there has been a significant decline. Fewer people in 2009-10 were involved in their communities than in 2008-09 and people's ability to influence local decisions and their desire to get more involved had also lessened over this period. The decline in these elements was particularly evident among some older age groups, for example civic engagement fell most markedly among those aged 50-64 years and informal volunteering fell among those aged 65 years and over. This presents a challenge in terms of building stronger and more cohesive communities, but also suggests that action to do so should be a priority.

The analytical approach used in this report means that findings from the 2009-10 Citizenship Survey can be used to predict what factors were important to the different elements of community action. The findings showed that it was predominantly attitudinal and behavioural factors, as well as some demographics, that emerged as being the most significant predictors of community action. In many cases, these attitudes and behaviours were interrelated and reinforced each other. For example, participation in volunteering and feeling able to influence local decisions were significant predictors of civic engagement and participation in some components of civic engagement were important in predicting feelings of influence in local decisions. Nevertheless, there were some key differences across the analyses and all the predictors presented in this report are important; collectively, they all help to foster community action.

There were some key themes that appeared to influence whether people were involved in their local communities, these were: participation in volunteering, feeling able to influence local decisions and a number of attitudes about the local area such as whether the local area has improved and satisfaction levels with the local authority. The findings also suggest that across many aspects of community action, the people who were already involved in some way (e.g. through volunteering) had a greater likelihood of being active in their communities. Therefore the challenge for fostering community action here is to maintain the interest of those already involved.

In terms of demographics, the analysis showed that qualification levels influenced many elements of community involvement. People with higher qualifications had higher odds of civic engagement, feeling able to influence local decisions, trusting their local council as well as formal volunteering. Similarly, those from higher socio-economic groups tended to have higher odds of being active in their communities. Active religious practice was also a factor, where those who practised a religion (and in some case belonged to a specific religion) had greater odds of being involved in their communities. Ethnicity also influenced elements of community involvement. White people had greater odds of being involved in civic participation and volunteering than other ethnic groups. However, the picture was more complex for other aspects and certain ethnic minority groups (Indian and Black African people) who had higher odds of wanting to be more involved in decisions concerning their local area compared with White people.

Where people live also had a bearing on community involvement. People living in rural areas had greater odds of taking part in civic consultation, feeling able to influence local decisions and volunteer formally compared with those living in urban areas. There was also a relationship between levels of deprivation and community action. The odds of formal volunteering were lower in more deprived areas yet people living in more deprived areas showed higher odds of taking part in civic activism.

These findings suggest that opportunities to get those not currently involved in their communities need to be explored, particularly how some more vulnerable groups (such as those with lower levels of education). Looking at the findings, these opportunities might include better information on how to get involved, methods of involvement and ways to fit involvement around work commitments and looking after children, which were cited as the main barriers to volunteering.

# Annex A

## Methodology

This annex summarises the key elements of the methodology used in carrying out the survey, with a particular focus on the analysis of the data undertaken for this report. For a fuller description of the research methodology, please see the Technical Report for the 2009-10 survey, which is available from the Citizenship Survey pages of the Department for Communities and Local Government website:

<http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/citizenshipsurvey200910technical>

## Sample

The survey sample comprised a core sample, an ethnic minority boost and a Muslim boost.

The core sample comprised a representative sample of people aged 16 and over in England and Wales (though this report includes only respondents in England). Respondents for this sample were selected via random selection of postal addresses (using the Postcode Address File). At each selected address, an interview was attempted with one person aged 16 or over. Where there was more than one person aged 16 or over living at an address a random method was used to select the respondent. In 2009-10, 9,305 interviews were yielded by the core sample.

The boost sample comprised an additional sample of ethnic minority respondents aged 16 and over, achieved through focused enumeration screening in areas with a relatively low density of the ethnic minority population (defined as areas where ethnic minorities accounted for less than 18 per cent of the population), and direct screening in areas with a higher density (18% or more) ethnic minority population. As with the core sample, an interview was attempted at each address where eligible respondents were identified. The combined focused enumeration and direct screening approaches yielded 4,540 interviews in the ethnic minority boost sample.

The Muslim boost sample comprised an additional sample of Muslim respondents aged 16 and over, achieved through direct screening using the addresses issued as part of the high density ethnic minority boost sample (see above). Where no ethnic minority respondents were identified at these addresses, households were then screened for the presence of Muslim residents. Those who were eligible were selected in the same way as other survey respondents. In addition, direct screening was carried out in areas in which at least 2.5% of the population was Muslim. This combined approach yielded 1,555 interviews in the Muslim boost sample.

The core sample gives the most accurate estimates relating to the population as a whole, and is therefore used for the majority of the analysis in this report. Adding the ethnic minority and Muslim boost samples to the 'core' sample produces what is referred to as the 'combined' sample. This 'combined' sample provides larger numbers of respondents within ethnic and religious sub-groups, and is therefore used for analysis which splits the sample by ethnic and religious group, or country of birth<sup>16</sup>. The larger number of ethnic minority respondents in the combined sample means that estimates for analysis by ethnicity, religion or country of birth are more precise. However, tables which are split by ethnic or religious sub-group also contain a row or column of data for the total population which is based on the core sample ('All'), as this represents a more accurate base.

## Questionnaire and fieldwork

The survey was carried out via Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI), with fieldwork conducted from April 2009 to March 2010. The questionnaire covered peoples' views of their local area, social networks, fear of crime, local services, volunteering and charitable giving, involvement in civil engagement activities, racial and religious prejudice and discrimination, identity and values, interactions with people from different backgrounds, attitudes towards violent extremism, and questions on peoples' experiences of the economic downturn. The questionnaire also gathered information on respondent characteristics and household composition.

## Area-based data

The data used in the analysis for this report include information gathered during the survey and area-based indicators, which were added subsequently, based on where the respondent lived. These include indicators such as the density of the ethnic minority households in a local area, an area deprivation indicator and region. A full definition of these indicators is given in Annex C.

## Weighting

To correct for different chances of selection due to the number of people living at an address and different rates of response among different population groups, weights were calculated which were applied to the data during the analysis. All estimates (percentages and means) cited in this report are based on weighted data. The actual number of respondents upon which estimates are based, are unweighted (referred to as 'Respondents' in the tables).

## Confidence intervals and significance

As with all sample surveys, the estimates given in this report represent the mid-point of a range given by their confidence intervals, which indicate the range within which

---

<sup>16</sup> Country of birth is closely related to/associated with ethnicity; this is why analysis by this variable is included in the combined sample.

there is a high probability that the true population value falls. The standard errors for key survey estimates, which can be used to calculate confidence intervals, are given in the Citizenship Study 2009-10 Technical Report.

**All differences commented on in this report are statistically significant at the 95 per cent level.** This means that there is a 95 per cent chance that the observed difference has arisen due to a true difference in the population, rather than due to random variation in survey samples.

The statistical significance of bivariate relationships shown in this report can be checked using the *Ready Reckoner* developed for use with the Citizenship Survey data and published together with the tables for each report <http://www.communities.gov.uk/communities/research/citizenshipsurvey/recentreports/>

## Annex B

### Multivariate outputs

*For a definition of terms highlighted in bold, please refer to the “Glossary of terms” used in multivariate analysis at the end of this section*

#### Introduction

**Logistic regression**, a form of **multivariate analysis**, was used in a number of places throughout this report to investigate socio-demographic and attitudinal factors that are associated with different **outcome variables**, after controlling for the possible influence of a range of factors.

This type of multivariate analysis (as opposed to bivariate analysis) enables us to better estimate the relationship between individual socio-demographic variables (*such as socio-economic status*) and outcome areas of interest (*such as participation in civic activism*) by controlling for the possible influence of other characteristics (*such as age, gender, education levels*) when calculating the strength of the relationship between the variable and the outcome (*i.e. socio-economic status and civic activism in this example*). In this way, we can identify the key factors which are significantly associated with a key outcome (*civic activism*) after controlling for other variables.

The outcomes variables that were selected for logistic regression in this report were chosen because they were of particular policy interest. Multivariate analysis for this report explored what variables were associated with (or could predict) whether someone:

- took part in civic activism,
- took part in civic participation,
- took part in civic consultation;
- felt able to influence decisions affecting their local area;
- wanted to be more involved in local council decisions;
- trusted their local council;
- formally volunteered at least once a month;
- informally volunteered regularly once a month; and
- has given money to charity in the last four weeks.

In some cases, it was not possible to run a multivariate analysis on a key variable due to sample size limitations.

## Method

In each case, the modelling was undertaken in two stages, using SPSS software. The first stage (Stage 1) involved running the model using **demographic variables** only, and the second stage (Stage 2) then investigated the further effect of including **non-demographic variables** such as attitudes and behaviours, after “locking in” to the model those demographic variables which were found to be **statistically significant** at the first stage. If these demographic variables initially found to be significant had not been “locked” into the model, then some key demographic associations might have been “masked” by associations with some of the non-demographics – in other words we would be in danger of inflating the importance of some of the non-demographics in explaining the outcome of interest.

Each of these two stages outlined above, was run in two steps (a and b). At each step, the model was first run using the standard regression module of SPSS (step a), and then the model with these significant variables only was re-run using the **complex samples module in SPSS** (step b). This approach allowed elements of the sample design (such as clustering, weighting and stratification) to be taken into consideration. At this step b, within each stage, the model was further refined by dropping any variables that were no longer found to be statistically significant. Thus, essentially the process of running each model involved four steps as summarised below.

- **Step 1a:** First, a “demographics only” model was run in the standard SPSS regression module using a **backwards stepwise**<sup>17</sup> approach to determine those variables that were statistically significant.
- **Step 1b:** The above process was repeated using the complex samples module. Any variables no longer found to be statistically significant were dropped.
- **Step 2a:** At this stage, the significant demographics from the first block were entered and locked into the model, while a backwards stepwise procedure was used to identify those non-demographic variables which were statistically significant once the demographics were controlled for. This model was run using the standard regression module of SPSS.
- **Step 2b:** Finally, the model was re-run using the complex samples module. Any variables no longer found to be statistically significant were dropped.

Models were run on the full sample (including sample boosts) for respondents in England, and weighted data were used.

## Statistical significance

Throughout these steps, statistical significance was defined as being significant at the 95 per cent level (**p value** < 0.05).

---

<sup>17</sup>“Backward stepwise” means that all the variables are entered into the model at the outset and then eliminated in an iterative process until only the ones that are statistically significant remain. See also the Glossary at the end of this section.

## Missing values

For the demographic and non-demographic variables entered into the model, in most cases, missing values (e.g. don't know, not applicable) were allocated to agreed categories. Where the missing value category was sufficiently large it was retained as a separate code within the variable; otherwise the missing values were combined with either the modal category or another suitable category. In a number of cases, however, regression based multiple imputation was used to predict categories for missing values.

## Selection of predictor variables

As noted above, logistic regression aims to identify whether and to what extent various socio-demographic and attitudinal factors help explain a key outcome measures. These variables are referred to here, and elsewhere in this report, as **predictor variables**.

A standard group of predictor variables was identified, which included key demographics such as age, gender, ethnicity and religion.

Further predictor variables were selected from the non-demographic variables depending on their relevance to the outcome variable. The choice of predictor variables in each case was based on a number of criteria including: findings from previous reports in the series; particular hypotheses that had been identified as of interest; and variables linked to policy interest. Where there was **collinearity** (a strong correlation) between two predictor variables, only one was chosen to be entered. The variables selected for each model are summarised in Table B.1. The key for Figure B.1 is provided at the end of the table.

**Figure B.1: Outcome variable and predictor variables entered into each model, with significant predictor variables highlighted**

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Outcome variable	Any civic activism in the last 12 months All (n=15,486)	Any civic participation in the last 12 months All (n=15,486)	Any civic consultation in the last 12 months All (n=15,486)	Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area All (n=14,357)	Wants to be more involved in local council decisions All (n=15,452)	Trusts the local council All (n=15,138)	Formally volunteers at least once a month All (n=15,486)	Informally volunteers at least once a month All (n=15,486)	Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks All (n=15,466)
<b>Base</b>									
<b>Demographic variables entered at first stage</b>									
Age	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ethnic composition of households in the area (proportion of ethnic minority households)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ethnic group (11 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ethnic group (4 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Gender	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Gender and age (12 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Highest qualification	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Employment status(3 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Income	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Length of time in neighbourhood	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Index of Multiple Deprivation Decile	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Limiting long-term illness or disability	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Living as single or couple	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Location (Urban/Rural)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Marital status (de facto)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of children under 18 in household	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Presence of child in household	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Religion (5 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sexual identity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

**Figure B.1: Outcome variable and predictor variables entered into each model, with significant predictor variables highlighted (continued)**

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Outcome variable	Any civic activism in the last 12 months	Any civic participation in the last 12 months	Any civic consultation in the last 12 months	Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area	Wants to be more involved in local council decisions	Trusts the local council	Formally volunteers at least once a month	Informally volunteers at least once a month	Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks
<b>Base</b>	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=14,357)	All (n=15,452)	All (n=15,138)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,466)
<b>Demographic variables entered at first stage</b>									
Socio-economic group (NS-SEC, self) (4 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Socio-economic group (NS-SEC, self) (7 categories)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Tenure	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Time at address	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Whether practising religion	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Whether UK born/time in UK	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Non-demographic variables entered at second stage</b>									
Can influence decisions affecting local area	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Change in circumstance as a result of economic downturn	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Civic activism in last 12 months				X	X	X	X	X	X
Civic consultation in last 12 months				X	X	X	X	X	X
Civic participation in the 12 months				X	X	X	X	X	X
Employer has a scheme for helping/donating							X	X	X
Enjoys living in the neighbourhood	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Extent of problem of racial and religious harassment in the area	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

**Figure B.1: Outcome variable and predictor variables entered into each model, with significant predictor variables highlighted (continued)**

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Outcome variable	Any civic activism in the last 12 months	Any civic participation in the last 12 months	Any civic consultation in the last 12 months	Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area	Wants to be more involved in local council decisions	Trusts the local council	Formally volunteers at least once a month	Informally volunteers at least once a month	Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks
<b>Base</b>	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=14,357)	All (n=15,452)	All (n=15,138)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,466)
<b>Non-demographic variables entered at second stage</b>									
Feels safe after dark	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Financial circumstances will change	X	X	X						X
Formal volunteering at least once a month	X	X	X	X	X	X			X
Formal volunteering in last 12 months	X	X	X	X	X	X			X
Given money to charity in past 4 weeks	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Importance of being able to influence decisions affecting local area	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Importance of ethnicity to sense of who you are	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Importance of religion to sense of who you are	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Informal volunteering in last 12 months	X	X	X	X	X	X			X
Informal volunteering at least once a month	X	X	X	X	X	X			X
Level of satisfaction with local area as a place to live	X	X	X			X	X	X	X
Main source of information on news and current affairs	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of immigrants coming to Britain nowadays	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Overall satisfaction with the way the local authority runs things	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Can influence decisions affecting Britain	X	X	X			X	X	X	X

**Figure B.1: Outcome variable and predictor variables entered into each model, with significant predictor variables highlighted (continued)**

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Outcome variable	Any civic activism in the last 12 months	Any civic participation in the last 12 months	Any civic consultation in the last 12 months	Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area	Wants to be more involved in local council decisions	Trusts the local council	Formally volunteers at least once a month	Informally volunteers at least once a month	Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks
<b>Base</b>	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=14,357)	All (n=15,452)	All (n=15,138)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,466)
<b>Non-demographic variables entered at second stage</b>									
People in the neighbourhood can be trusted	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
People pull together to improve neighbourhood	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
People respect ethnic differences in the area	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
People with different backgrounds in the area get on well together	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Proportion of friends of are the same religion (as self)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Proportion of friends of same ethnic group (as self)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Proportion of people in the local area who are from the same ethnic group	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Satisfaction with life as a whole	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Satisfaction with local public parks	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Satisfaction with local schools	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Satisfaction with local services for young people	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sense of belonging to Britain	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sense of belonging to neighbourhood	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Trust in local council	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Trust in parliament	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Trust in police	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

**Figure B.1: Outcome variable and predictor variables entered into each model, with significant predictor variables highlighted (continued)**

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
Outcome variable	Any civic activism in the last 12 months	Any civic participation in the last 12 months	Any civic consultation in the last 12 months	Feels able to influence decisions affecting the local area	Wants to be more involved in local council decisions	Trusts the local council	Formally volunteers at least once a month	Informally volunteers at least once a month	Given money to charity in the last 4 weeks
<b>Base</b>	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=14,357)	All (n=15,452)	All (n=15,138)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,486)	All (n=15,466)
<b>Non-demographic variables entered at second stage</b>									
Whether English is main language	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Whether local area has changed in the past two years	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in public setting	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Whether people mix socially with people from different backgrounds in private setting	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Worried about becoming a victim of crime	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

**KEY:**

X	Entered but not found to be significant
X	Entered and found to be significant in final model
X	Demographic variables entered, found to be significant at first stage, but not significant at second stage

## Detailed statistics for each model

The tables in the link below indicate the detailed statistics for each model, which are provided in summary form in the main text. Models are numbered 1 to 9 and correspond with the labelling used in the main text.

<http://www.communities.gov.uk/communities/research/citizenshipsurvey/recentreports/>

Each table contains the predictor variables which were identified as significant in the final model. Some brief notes on interpretation are provided here.

## Odds ratios and reference categories

As noted in Chapter 1, a key output that can be calculated from logistic regression analysis is the **odds ratio**. **Odds** are a simple way of representing the likelihood of an outcome occurring (the *probability*). An odds ratio compares the probability of observing an outcome (e.g. *people taking part in civic activism*) for one category of a predictor variable (e.g. people with a degree or equivalent) with the probability of the same outcome occurring in another category of the same variable (e.g. *people with A levels or equivalent*) after controlling for other predictor variables in the model.

For each predictor variable, a category is selected to be a **reference category**. The reference category is selected as the baseline odds against which the odds of all other categories of that variable are compared in order to calculate the odds ratio. The reference group is usually selected on pragmatic grounds: in **non-ordinal variables** such as ethnicity or religion, the reference category is generally the modal category. For an **ordinal variable** the reference category is generally at either end of the scale, e.g. for the qualification variable the reference category might be “Degree or equivalent” as the highest level of qualification, as illustrated in the above example; and for age, the reference category might be “16-24 year olds”, as the youngest age group. Reference categories for particular variables may vary by model, depending on any sample size limitations.

An odds ratio of *greater than one* implies an *increased* probability for the outcome to be met for one particular group compared with the reference category, whereas an odds ratio of *less than one* implies a *decreased* probability for the outcome to be met for that particular group compared with the reference category. For example, the outputs from Model 1 show that people in routine occupations have around half the odds (0.51) of taking part in civic activism compared with people in higher/lower managerial and professional occupations. In the same model, the odds of someone who volunteers formally at least once a month taking part in civic activism are 1.88 times greater than someone who does not volunteer formally once a month.

In the attached output for each mode, the reference categories are indicated by the categories at the bottom of the list of categories for each variable. Odds ratios which are statistically significant at 95% ( $p < 0.05$ ) are indicated with a single asterix (\*), while those significant at 99% ( $p < 0.01$ ) are indicated by \*\*.

# Glossary of terms used in multivariate analysis

Terms are presented in alphabetical order.

## **Backwards stepwise procedure**

Backward stepwise regression is where the analysis begins with a full or saturated model (i.e. includes all the potential **predictor variables**). In order to produce the most simplified model, for each of interpretation, variables are then dropped from the model in an iterative process. At each step, the model without the dropped variable is compared against the model with the variable. This comparison tests whether the revised model fits the data as well as the previous model. When no more variables can be dropped from the model, the analysis has been completed.

## **Bivariate analysis**

This simple form of analysis focuses on associations between pairs of variables without taking into account the role or influence of other variables. Typically such analysis might explore how a change in one variable (for example, educational qualification) is associated with a change in another variable of outcome of interest (e.g. participation in civic activism). For example, in this report we note that there is a significant relationship between educational qualification and civic activism, with for example, people with a degree being more likely than those without any qualifications to have taken part in civic activism..

## **Collinearity**

(Multi) Collinearity means that two or more independent (predictor) **variables** are highly correlated. (Multi) Collinearity can result in estimated coefficients having large standard errors. It is thus preferable to include only one of a group of highly correlated variables in the analysis.

## **Complex samples Module (SPSS)**

Many samples in general population surveys are based on a complex sample design (e.g. a design that involves stratification, clustering and unequal probabilities of selection) rather than a simple random sample. The Complex Samples module of SPSS allows the specifications of a complex design to be incorporated into data analysis, thus ensuring more accurate estimates.

## **Demographic variable (or socio-demographic variable)**

Variables based on population characteristics such gender, race, age, disability, educational attainment, working status, income etc.

## **Logistic regression**

A common form of multivariate analysis where the aim is to predict the presence or absence of a binary outcome in the variable of interest. Variables of interest can be

recoded, if necessary, to create a binary outcome. Examples of binary **outcome** variables used in this report are “whether someone has taken part in civic activism in the last twelve months” (yes/no) and “whether someone has given to charity in the past four weeks” (yes/no). Logistic regression aims to find the best predictors of a binary event occurring, after the possible influence of a range of factors has been accounted for, thus eliminating variables whose observed **bivariate** association with the outcome variable may lie simply in their close association with other predictor variables.

### **Multivariate analysis**

Analysis that explores the relationships between more than two variables simultaneously. Logistic regression is one example of multivariate analysis.

### **Non-demographic variable**

Variables based on opinions, attitudes or behaviours.

### **Non-ordinal variable (also known as a nominal variable)**

A non-ordinal variable is one that has two or more categories, but there is no intrinsic ordering to the categories. For example, gender, religion and ethnicity all have two or more categories but there is no agreed way to order these from e.g. “highest” to “lowest”.

### **Odds**

Odds are a simple way of representing the likelihood or probability of an outcome or event occurring. The odds of an event occurring is calculated as the ratio of the probability of an event occurring to the probability of an event not occurring

### **Odds ratio**

An odds ratio compares the **odds** of an outcome of interest occurring in one category of a predictor variable (e.g. people in the 10 per cent most deprived areas taking part in civic activism) with the odds of the same outcome occurring for respondents who fall in another category (the reference category) of the same variable (e.g. people living in the 10 per cent least deprived areas). This allows interpretation of the direction of likelihood of the outcome as well as the magnitude of how much more or less likely the event is when comparing two characteristics, given that other factors are kept the same.

### **Ordinal variable**

An ordinal variable is a categorical variable where there is a clear ordering or ranking of the categories from e.g. “low” to “high” or from “high” to “low”. Examples in this report include age group, education, and deprivation.

### **Outcome variable (also referred to as a dependent variable)**

The outcome variable in **logistic regression** refers to the attribute, behaviour or perception that regression analysis tries to explain (or predict) in terms of its relationships with the **predictor variables** that have been entered into a model. In this report, the chosen outcome variables selected were those of most interest. For example, outcomes in this report include: whether someone has taken part in civic activism in the last twelve months and whether someone trusts their local council. .

### **Predictor variables (also referred to as independent variables)**

A predictor variable is one that can be used to help predict the value of an **outcome variable** in **logistic regression**. For example if the outcome is that someone has taken part in civic activism then one might hypothesise that gender, age, ethnicity, and educational qualification might help predict this **outcome**. Thus, these variables would be included in the initial model as potential predictor variables.

### **p-value**

The p-value, used in tests of statistical significance, represents an indication of the reliability of a statistical result. Specifically, it expresses the probability that an observed test statistic has arisen due to chance, as a result of sampling variation. The higher the p-value, the less we can believe that the observed relationship between variables in the sample is a reliable indicator of the relationship between these variables in the population. The standard threshold set for statistical significance is a p-value of  $< 0.05$  which indicates that there is a lower than 5% probability that the relationships between the variables found in the sample have occurred by chance. See also **statistical significance**.

### **Statistical significance**

As the survey uses responses from a random sample to estimate responses from the population, differences between estimates from successive years or between sub-groups may occur by chance due to sampling variation. Tests of statistical significance are used to identify which differences are sufficiently large for us to conclude that they are unlikely to have occurred by chance. This enables us to be reasonably confident that differences exist in the wider population. In this report, tests at the five per cent significance level have been applied (p-value  $< 0.05$ ). This is the level at which there is only a five per cent probability of an observed difference being solely due to chance and a 95% probability that the observed relationship exists in the population.

## Annex C

### Definitions and terms

See Annex B for a separate list of definitions of terms used in multivariate analysis.

<b>All minority ethnic groups</b>	Results from this survey combine the 16-point census classification into 11, 5 or 2 summary groups. All non-white ethnic groups are included in the 2-group classification as 'all minority ethnic groups'.
<b>Area characteristics</b>	A range of area based indicators including region, Index of Multiple Deprivation and urban/rural.
<b>Charitable giving</b>	Giving money to charity
<b>Civic activism</b>	Involvement in either direct decision-making about local services or issues, or in the actual provision of these services by taking on a role such as a local councillor, school governor or magistrate.
<b>Civic consultation</b>	Active engagement in consultation about local services or issues through activities such as attending a consultation group or completing a questionnaire about these services.
<b>Civic engagement</b>	Any civic participation, civic activism or civic consultation activities.
<b>Civic participation</b>	Engaging in one of the following activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• contacting a local councillor, Member of Parliament, Member of the Greater London Assembly or National Assembly for Wales;</li> <li>• contacting a police official working for a local council, central Government, Greater London Assembly or National Assembly for Wales;</li> <li>• attending a public meeting or rally;</li> <li>• taking part in a public demonstration or protest; or</li> <li>• signing a petition.</li> </ul>
<b>Combined sample</b>	The full sample of 16,140 people interviewed in the 2009-10 survey, including the core and ethnic minority and Muslim boost samples (see Annex A for further details).
<b>Community cohesion</b>	The Citizenship Survey measures cohesion by whether people feel that people from different backgrounds get on well together in their local area.

<b>Computer assisted personal interview</b>	The survey questionnaire is driven by a computer program that determines the questions, range and structure of permissible answers, and provides instruction to the interviewer to assist them in delivering the survey appropriately.
<b>Core sample</b>	The core sample of 9,305 people interviewed in 2009-10 (see Annex A for further details).
<b>Criminal Justice Service organisations</b>	These are: the police, prisons, the courts, the Crown Prosecution Service, and the probation service.
<b>Economically inactive</b>	People who are neither in employment or unemployment. This includes those looking after a home or retired or permanently unable to work.
<b>Ethno-religious group</b>	A derived measure combining ethnicity and religion.
<b>Formal volunteering</b>	Giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment.
<b>Harassment</b>	People were asked if they had personally experienced harassment because of their skin colour, ethnic origin or religion in the last two years. Harassment was defined as experience of verbal harassment, physical attack, damage to property and threats. Those with personal experience were asked what form this harassment took and whether it was due to their skin colour, ethnic group or religion.
<b>Index of Multiple Deprivation</b>	The index was developed by Communities and Local Government and combines a number of indicators which cover income, employment, health and disability, education, skills and training, housing and access to services into a single deprivation score for each area. The measure used in this report is based on the 2007 summary IMD index – see <a href="http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/communities/indicesdeprivation07">http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/communities/indicesdeprivation07</a> for further details. The index is calculated differently for Welsh areas compared with English areas.
<b>Informal volunteering</b>	Giving unpaid help as an individual to people who are not relatives.

<b>Integration (attitudes and behaviour relating to)</b>	Results/ information based on a range of variables relating to peoples' attitudes towards mixing with members of different ethnic and religious groups.
<b>Local area</b>	Area within 15-20 minutes walking distance of respondent's home.
<b>Long-term limiting illness or disability</b>	Respondents who report a long-standing illness, disability or infirmity.
<b>Meaningful interaction</b>	Defined as 'mixing with people on a personal level by having informal conversations with them at, for example, the shops, your work or a child's school, as well as meeting up with people to socialise'. However, it excludes 'situations where you've interacted with people for work or business, for example just to buy something'.
<b>Private mixing</b>	Defined as mixing with people from different ethnic or religious groups in a private place: your home or their home or at a group, club or organisation you belong to.
<b>Public mixing</b>	Defined as mixing with people from different ethnic or religious groups in a public place: work, school or college, a child's crèche, nursery or school, a pub, club, café or restaurant, the shops, or public buildings.
<b>Region</b>	A spatial administrative division of England and Wales, comprising nine regions in England (North East, North West, Yorkshire and the Humber, East Midlands, West Midlands, East of England, London, South West and South East) and Wales.
<b>Regular volunteering</b>	Defined as involvement at least once a month over the year before interview.
<b>Respondent religion</b>	Analysis by religion uses answers to the question ' <i>What is your religion even if you are not currently practising?</i> ' in order to define respondents' religion. This means that respondents are defined as belonging to a religion with which they identify, but do not necessarily actively practice. Respondents who said that they had a religion were then also asked ' <i>Do you consider that you are actively practising your religion?</i> ' The answers to this question are used to compare those who said they were practicing a religion with those who said they were not.
<b>Sample size</b>	The number of people interviewed for the survey. In 2009-10 this was 9,305 core interviews with an additional 6,835 interviews from ethnic minority and Muslim boost samples, resulting in a total 16,140 interviews (see Annex A for further details).
<b>Sexual identity</b>	People were asked which of the following best describes their sexual identity: heterosexual/straight, gay or lesbian, bisexual, other or if they would prefer not to say. People who said 'other' that they 'preferred not to say' or 'don't know' were excluded from analysis by sexual identity.

<b>Socio-economic group</b>	An occupationally-based measure derived from the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). See <a href="http://www.ons.gov.uk/about-statistics/classifications/current/ns-sec/index.html">http://www.ons.gov.uk/about-statistics/classifications/current/ns-sec/index.html</a> for further details.
<b>Statistical significance</b>	Because the survey uses responses from a random sample to estimate responses from the population, differences between estimates from successive years and between sub-groups may occur by chance due to sampling variation. Tests of statistical significance are used to identify which differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance; thus we can be reasonably confident that differences exist in the wider population. In these reports, tests at the five per cent significance levels have been applied. This is the level at which there is only a five per cent probability of an observed difference being solely due to chance) and a 95 per cent probability that the observed relationship exists in the population. All reported differences are statistically significant to the 95 per cent level, unless otherwise stated.
<b>Unemployed</b>	Measure based on the International Labour Organisation (ILO) guidelines which counts as unemployed those who are without a job, are available to start work in the next two weeks, who want a job and have been seeking a job in the last four weeks or are waiting to start a job already obtained.
<b>Urban/rural</b>	Areas are classified as urban if the settlement is above 20 hectares, the land use is urban in character and the population count is 10,000 or over.
<b>Users of public service organisations</b>	Defined as people who had used a particular public service organisation in the last five years as a member of the public.
<b>Weighting</b>	The data are weighted to ensure that the reported findings are representative of the population of England and Wales. Further details on the weighting process are included in the Citizenship 2009/10 Technical Report.
<b>Workplace discrimination</b>	Based on whether people had been discriminated against when refused or turned down for a job or with regard to a promotion or move to a better position in the last five years.