Identifying with a National Ancestry or Ethnic Origin: A Comparative Study of Australia, Canada, and the U.S.

by

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Abstract

In ethnically diverse societies such as Australia, Canada, and the United States, ethnic population trends are understandably of great interest. Recently, there is a growing trend towards identifying with a national ethnicity or ancestry, such as "Australian" in Australia, "Canadian" in Canada, and "American" in the United States. The 1996 Canadian census showed that 29 percent of the population reported "Canadian" ethnic origin, a proportion that increased to 37 percent in the 2001 census. In Australia, 38 percent of the population reported their ancestry as "Australian" in the 2001 census, an increase from 24 percent in 1986. And in the United States, 9 percent of the population reported "American" ancestry in the 2000 Census compared with 6 percent in 1990. We adopt an inductive research strategy in this comparative study. We examine microdata from three censuses -- the 2001 Australian and Canadian censuses and the 2000 U.S. census -- to address the following questions: What factors are associated with identification with a national ancestry or ethnicity? Are there similarities or differences across the three societies? What are the implications of our findings for preliminary theorizing about identification with a national ancestry or ethnicity, and for future trends in ethnic identity in these three societies? We conduct both descriptive and multivariate analyses. Results reported in this paper show that the trend to identification with a national ancestry or ethnicity is not uniform and is mostly limited to the native-born population with long histories of residence in each country. We discuss the findings and outline preliminary ideas for theorizing about identification with a national ethnic ancestry or origin.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been an increased trend of reporting ancestry or ethnic origin as "American" in the United States, "Australian" in Australia, or "Canadian" in Canada, as shown in Table 1. Between 1986 and 2001, the percentage of people in Australia reporting their ancestry as "Australian" increased from 24 percent to over 38 percent. In Canada, the percentage reporting "Canadian" ethnic origin grew from 29 percent in 1996 to 37 percent in 2001. While the levels reporting "American" ancestry are much lower in the United States, the trend has been also been increasing from 6 percent in 1980 to 9 percent in 2000.

- Table 1 About Here -

The population in each of these three societies is largely composed of immigrants and their descendants over the years, together with smaller indigenous populations. Increased reporting of a *national* ancestry or ethnic origin, distinct from particular immigrant ethnic origins such as "English" or "French" or "German", in these three societies raises many questions about shifts in ethnic identity, the development of new ethnic identities, and the meaning of ethnicity in multiethnic immigrant-based societies.

Unlike government policies and actions to stimulate identification with a new national identity as part of nation-building (for example, "Malaysian" following the creation of Malaysia in 1961 or "Singaporean" following the separation of Singapore from Malaysia in 1963), or government policies to strengthen nationalistic pride through ascribed ethnicity (for example, "Aryan" and "German" during the Third Reich), the emergence of "American", "Australian", and "Canadian" as ethnic identities in the United States, Australia, and Canada, respectively, is not related to direct government efforts to encourage such identities. Indeed, in the U.S., the U.S. Census Bureau has actively sought to discourage reporting of "American" ancestry (see

Lieberson and Waters 1993 and further discussion in the "Data" section below). These trends may therefore reflect important social processes in how people understand and view their ethnic origins, and by implication, their ethnic identities.[1]

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Ethnicity and the related concept of race are powerful forces in social life. In some countries, ethnicity is more salient than in others, but its role as a common category for identity and action is apparent. There are many reasons why research on ethnicity has occupied a central place in many disciplines, including sociology, and we briefly mention three. First, the study of social groups – how they are formed, maintained, or transformed, and intergroup relations – is at the heart of disciplines such as sociology. It is apparent that ethnicity continues to be among the most important categories for how people think about their individual and collective identity, with profound influences on behaviour (we need only consider examples such as the Holocaust, "ethnic cleansing" in the Balkans, and the current situation in Darfur).

Second, the study of social change is another major focus of sociology, and ethnic group processes are key to many social transformations, for example, the role of immigration in transforming the ethnic landscape of countries such as Australia, Canada, and the United States. Finally, societies are often concerned with tracking demographic and related social changes, and regularly collect data on ethnicity, for example, in population censuses. Such government

[1] While a person's response to what his/her ancestry or ethnic origin is may not completely overlap with his/her current ethnic identity, census questions on ancestry and ethnic origin directly or indirectly suggest that responses to questions on ancestry or ethnic origin also reflect a person's sense of ethnic identity (we discuss this in greater detail in the section on "Data" below).

actions contribute to, and represent, the actual and/or perceived importance of ethnicity and ethnic groups in social life.

Identification with particular ethnic origins is highly symbolic along several dimensions. It can indicate awareness of one's ancestry, an awareness that may vary by place of birth, length of history and settlement in a country, context or place of residence (which is related to local history and norms on ethnic identity and ties), and other characteristics. Choosing to report particular ethnic origin(s) is likely associated with personal identification with those origins. For example, when an individual reports her ethnic origin as "Greek", her response can be interpreted as indicative of an identification of self as "Greek". Identification with an ethnic origin can also symbolize ethnic pride and loyalty that is beyond the individual personal sphere. Thus, a personal identity with "Japanese" ethnicity may represent identity with the larger Japanese ethnic community and its place in society.

While ethnicity's importance in social life is clear, it is a slippery concept that defies definitive definition, as a review of the literature will show (see for example, Barth 1969; Cornell 1996; Glazer 2000; Isajiw 1993; Sanders 2002). In addition to conceptual ambiguities, there are measurement challenges that have been noted by many (Boyd and Norris 2001; Edmonston et al. 1996; Lee 1993; and Nagel 1986). Lieberson (1993) provided a cogent summary of measurement challenges in his classic piece on "some devilish principles" in enumerating ethnic and racial groups in populations. We recognize these challenges but stress that this paper is not focused on conceptual or measurement issues. Instead, we examine responses to census questions on ethnic origins or ancestries to try and understand what factors are associated with identifying with a national ethnic origin or ancestry. Along with other users of census-based

ethnic data, we acknowledge that there are conceptual and measurement problems in studying ethnicity, and interpret our findings with appropriate caution.

The emergence of a national ethnic identity, for example, "Canadian" or "American" or "Australian", in multiethnic societies whose populations are mainly derived from immigrants and their descendants from diverse ethnic origins, is a relatively new phenomenon. Theorizing about this process is therefore relatively undeveloped. An important aspect of the trend towards identifying with new national ethnicities such as "Canadian" or "American" or "Australian" is the challenge that such new ethnicities represent for thinking about the formation and changes of ethnic identities.

In some of the earliest discussions of this process, Lieberson and Waters (1988, 1993) describe several factors related to identifying with "American" ethnicity in the United States, including the ability to trace one's ancestral roots back to when one's ancestors first arrived in North America, the person's beliefs about what his or her ancestry is, the ethnic group that the respondent identifies with, and what others consider the person's ethnicity to be. In analyzing responses to the ancestry question that was first asked in the 1980 U.S. Census, Lieberson and Waters (1993) conclude that reporting "American" ancestry appears to be a form of simplified response among European-origin people in the United States which "would mean the formation of a growing ethnic population of 'unhyphenated whites'" (Lieberson and Waters 1993: 445).

In the case of "Canadian" ethnicity, the first paper to explore the idea of a new "Canadian" ethnic identity was by Pryor et al. (1992), who asked if "Canadian" had emerged as an indigenous ethnic group in Canada. Because of the limited data examined and exploratory descriptive methods, their answer then was not conclusive: "*Apparently* (emphasis added), Canadian *is emerging* (emphasis added) as an ethnic concept of some significance" (Pryor et al.

1992, 231). More recent research suggest that reporting "Canadian" ethnic origin is more likely among people born in Canada, younger people, people with less education, and residents of non-metropolitan areas; the distinctive role of French home language and residence in the province of Quebec was also discussed (see for example, Boyd and Norris 2001; Lee and Edmonston 2009).

In Australia, the ancestry question was first asked in the 1986 Census and was not repeated until the 2001 Census.[2] Khoo and Lucas (2004) described patterns of responses to the ancestry question in the 2001 Census. Characteristics associated with reporting "Australian" ancestry include generation status (higher percents among the second and third or more generation compared with low percents among the first generation), younger age, lower education, and residence in non-metropolitan areas, many of the same characteristics associated with identifying as "Canadian" in Canada (Lee and Edmonston 2009).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

We adopt an inductive approach in this comparative study, given the relative lack of theorizing about identifying with a national ancestry or ethnicity in societies whose populations are derived from immigrants of diverse ethnic origins. We have four specific objectives. First, we examine factors associated with reporting a national ethnic identity or ancestry such as "Australian" or "Canadian" or "American" in Australia, Canada, and the United States, respectively. Second, we compare factors associated with reporting a national ethnicity or ancestry in the three societies and identity common and different findings. Third, based on the findings, we discuss preliminary theorizing on identifying with a national ancestry or ethnicity. Fourth, we discuss implications of our findings for future trends and for thinking about ethnicity and ethnic identity in the three countries included in the research, as well as areas for future research.

[2] The ancestry question was also asked in the most recent census, the 2006 Census.

DATA AND METHODS OF ANALYSIS

Data for the study come from the public-use microdata files of the 2001 Australia census (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003a), 2001 Canadian census (Statistics Canada 2001), and 2000 U.S. census (U.S. Census Bureau 2003).[3] We recognize that the questions on ethnic origin and ancestry in the three censuses are different and discuss this issue in more detail in the following section on data limitations and cautions. We restrict analysis to respondents 18 years and older in order to limit attention to those whose reported ethnicity or ancestry is more likely to be based on self-report (that is, either adults or older youths). This seeks to avoid the issue of whether the reported ethnic origin or ancestry represents the individual's own response or the response of the person filling out the census form, as is the likely case for an adult completing the census question for younger children. Still, we cannot tell from census data who actually completed the form and whether responses to the ancestry or ethnic origin question are the individual's own choice or that of the person completing the census form.

We conduct descriptive and multivariate analyses. We include as many comparable variables as possible from the three censuses in the multivariate analysis. The selection of independent variables is based on previous research on characteristics associated with identifying with a national ethnic ancestry or origin.

Variables

This section presents variable definitions and the coding definitions for categorical variables. In the multivariate analysis, we limit analysis to respondents who report only one response to the ancestry or ethnic origin question, as described below.

[3] The 2001 Canadian and Australian censuses are the most recent for which public-use microdata files are available, and the 2000 U.S. census is the closest in comparable time period. We also believe it would be important to establish a set of baseline results from censuses at the turn of the 21st century.

Ancestry. The response variable for the multivariate analysis is *single-origin* "Australian", "Canadian", or "American" ancestry. We focus on respondents who report only one response to the ancestry or ethnic origin question because of limitations associated with the U.S. data on "American" ancestry described below. We also note some specific limitations for interpreting this variable below.

The response variable for the logistic regression estimates is binary. A zero (0) value is coded for respondents who do not report that they have a single-origin ancestry that is "Australian" (for Australia), "Canadian" (for Canada), or "American" (for the United States). A value of one (1) is coded for respondents who report a single-origin ancestry that is "Australian", "Canadian", or "American" (we refer to these responses as "ACA" in the discussion below), for each of the three countries, respectively.

We next describe each explanatory variable.

Age. The censuses of Australia, Canada, and the United States collect information on birth date for all persons, and report age in their public-use data sets. Canada and the United States release data on age in single years for all persons. Australia's public-use data set reports single-year age for persons younger than 25 but grouped age data in 5-year age groups for adults aged 25 to 85 years. Because the multivariate analysis uses 10-year age groups, the variable codes for age are comparable for these purposes.

Sex. Sex is coded as either female or male for data analysis.

Nativity/Citizenship. We define three categories for nativity/citizenship: (a) respondents who are citizens at birth; (b) foreign-born respondents who immigrated and are now naturalized citizens; and (c) other foreign-born respondents who are immigrants without Australian, Canadian, or U.S. citizenship in Australia, Canada, or the United States, respectively.

Home Language. The great majority of respondents in Australia and the United States report that they speak English at home (83 percent in Australia and 88 percent in the United States). In Canada, 68 percent of respondents report that they mainly speak English at home, 22 percent report that they mainly speak French at home, and the remaining 10 percent speak other languages at home. As well as several aboriginal languages, Canada's other primary home languages include Chinese (mainly Cantonese), Italian, German, and Punjabi.

We code home language differently for Canada than Australia or the United States. Home language for Canada is coded as English, French, or other home language. For Australia and the United States, home language is coded as English or other home language.

Education. Educational attainment is a difficult variable for comparative analysis because national statistical offices often use different educational categories and educational certificates vary for countries. The requirements and meaning of a high school diploma, for example, vary considerably. In Canada and the United States, a high school diploma is given upon successful completion of high school (although the number of years of secondary education required for high school varies somewhat). For educational systems based on the British model, a certificate comparable to a high school diploma requires the successful completion of national examinations in selected subjects. European and other countries have different requirements for completion of certificates similar to a high school diploma. The implications for the different educational requirements mean that it is impossible to develop perfectly comparable educational attainment categories, based on census data, for comparative analysis. It also means that one should not make direct comparisons by categories of education.

For this paper, we developed a coding scheme that is as comparable as possible. Australian census data include two variables that we use: highest level of schooling offers

information on years of secondary schooling completed, and level of education offers information on post-secondary degrees completed. Australian public-use data do not report if an adult completed a vocational degree following their secondary education. Canadian census data include a variable on highest degree completed, which we use for this paper. U.S. census data report highest level of schooling completed, which we use for coding the education variable in this analysis.

Our analysis includes an education variable with the following 9 categories: advanced or professional degree, post-Bachelor's education, Bachelor's degree, some college or university education, vocational diploma, high school diploma, 11^{th} grade, 10^{th} grade, and 9^{th} grade or less.

As noted above, we do not regard these education categories as directly comparable for Australia, Canada and the United States. Rather, we regard these education categories as useful for indicating the association between education and single-origin ACA ancestry *within* each country. For comparative purposes, we limit our interpretation to the extent to which there is a meaningful pattern to the relationship between education and single-origin ACA ancestry.

Household Income. Household income is measured in units of $10,000 for constant 2001 U.S. dollars. The analysis also includes a variable for household income-squared in order to detect a possible curvilinear relationship between household income and ACA ancestry.

Marital Status. Comparable definitions for marital status are reported in the Australia, Canada, and United States public-use census data. The analysis below shows the following categories of marital status: single (that is, never-married), married (including in common-law unions), separated, divorced, and widowed.

Labour Force Status. We define three categories for labour force status: employed, unemployed (meaning that a respondent is in the labour force and looking for employment), and not in labour force.

Religion. Persons are asked about their religious affiliation in the Australian and Canadian censuses, but responses to the question on religion are optional in the Australian census. The U.S. census does not include a question on religious affiliation. We develop a common coding format for analyzing responses to the religion question, categorizing respondents as Protestant, Catholic, Other Christian Religions, Other Religions, and No Religion.

Region. We include a variable that has categorical codes for various regions in each country. We include a regional variable in order to examine possible geographical differences in identifying with ACA ancestry.

Metropolitan. Based on reported residence for the respondent, we develop a code for metropolitan residence as either (a) living in a metropolitan area or (b) not living in a metropolitan area. National statistical offices in Australia, Canada, and the United States (as well as other countries) have different definitions for "metropolitan" areas. The relationship between metropolitan residence and single-origin ACA ancestry is therefore affected to some degree by national differences in the definition of metropolitan areas.

Data Limitations

There are many challenges for research using census-based data on ancestry or ethnic origin and we have previously discussed some of the conceptual and measurement issues. In addition, comparative research presents unique challenges related to differences in the data. We discuss some of these data limitations and cautions below.

Wording, Format, and Meaning of the Census Question on Ancestry or Ethnic Origin. The question on ancestry or ethnic origin varies across the three censuses. For Australia, Khoo and Lucas (2004) describe the history behind the decision to include a question on ancestry for the first time in the 1986 Census, and again in the 2001 Census, because of interest in studying the changing ethnic composition of Australia's population. An important difference between the 1986 and 2001 questions on ancestry was that, in 2001, the ancestry question was seen as reflecting the ancestry or ancestries which the respondent most closely identified with (whereas in the 1986 Census, the emphasis was more on the ethnic or national origin groups from which the respondent descended from) – see Chapter 1, Khoo and Lucas (2004). Thus, the ancestry question in the 2001 Australian Census can be seen as reflecting the respondent's current ethnic identity. The 2001 question is shown in Exhibit 1.

- Exhibit 1 About Here -

In the case of Canada, beginning with the 1951 Census, an "ethnic origin" question replaced the previous racial origin question (Boyd 1999).[4] The ethnic origin question was meant to trace the "roots" of Canada's population. The exact wording and format of the ethnic origin question has varied across censuses. For example, until the 1981 Census, the ethnic origin question specified ethnic origin on only the male side of the respondent's family. The 1981 census was the first that did not restrict reporting ethnic origin to one side of one's family, and was also the first to capture more than one ethnic origin response per person by providing one write-in box in addition to the check-off list of ethnicities (prior to the 1981 Census, multiple responses were reduced to one – see Statistics Canada 1981: 56-58). The 1986 Census question

[4] There is some uncertainty about the history of "race" and "ethnicity" questions in the Canadian censuses. An unpublished 1978 paper by Kralt (cited in Pryor et al. 1992: 219) stated that a specific question on ethnicity was included in every decennial census since 1901 and the 1986 Census was the first mid-decade census to include an ethnic origin question.

asked, “To which ethnic or cultural group(s) do you or did your ancestors belong?” and respondents were instructed to mark or specify as many ethnic groups as applicable, and three write-in boxes were supplied. In more recent censuses such as the 1991, 1996 and 2001 Censuses, the ethnic origin question asked, “To which ethnic or cultural group(s) did this person’s ancestors belong?” and beginning with the 1996 Census, there was no longer a check-off list of ethnic groups. Instead, respondents were instructed to specify as many ethnic groups as applicable in the write-in boxes provided.

The question on ethnic origin in the Canadian census appears to emphasize an individual’s roots or origins, rather than current ethnic identity (see Kalbach and Kalbach 1999 for a discussion of this issue). While the relationship between ethnic origin and current ethnic identity can be expected to overlap for most people, it is best to consider responses to Canada’s census question on ethnic origin as proxies of current ethnic identity. Most users of the ethnic origin data from the Canadian censuses, including us, recognize this issue and use the data with appropriate caution. The ethnic origin question in the 2001 Canadian Census is shown in Exhibit 2.

- Exhibit 2 About Here -

In the U.S., the 1980 Census was the first to include a question on ancestry that replaced a question on birthplace of parents. The ancestry question has been repeated in censuses since then. The U.S. Census Bureau defines ancestry as “a person’s ethnic origin, heritage, descent, or ‘roots’, which may reflect their place of birth, place of birth of parents or ancestors, and ethnic identities that have evolved within the United States” (Brittingham and de la Cruz 2004: 1). This definition of ancestry is quite broad, and suggests that responses to the ancestry question may reflect both ethnic origins as well as current ethnic identity. What’s particularly significant is the

last part of the definition, which explicitly refers to the development of endogenous or homegrown ethnic identities within the United States (for example, "American"). The U.S. census's question on ancestry is an open-ended question that allows one or two write-in responses, as shown in Exhibit 3.

- Exhibit 3 About Here -

The differences in wording, format, and possibly meanings of the census questions complicate a comparative analysis. However, given the overlaps in meaning – that is, each question refers to the respondent's ancestral or ethnic roots, two (Australia and the U.S.) directly refers to the respondent's current ethnic identity, and users of the Canadian data have also interpreted the data to reflect the respondent's ethnic identity, we believe it is reasonable to examine the data to understand identification with a national ethnicity in each of the three countries.

Recording of Responses. Another limitation of the data stems from the different procedures employed by each country's statistical agency in recording responses to the ancestry or ethnic origin question.

In the 2000 U.S. census data set, respondents were coded as "American" ancestry *only* if they reported "American" as their *sole* ancestry. If a respondent to the U.S. census reported "American" in conjunction with some other ancestry, they are placed in the other ancestry and *not* coded as "American" for either of the reported two ancestries. For example, if a U.S. respondent reported two ancestries, such as "American" and "Italian", the U.S. Census Bureau recoded and reported this person's ancestry as "Italian" only. This is a peculiar recoding of responses and is different from the practice and reporting of ancestry/ethnic origin data in the Australian and Canadian censuses. Because of the U.S. practice, for purposes of comparative

analysis, we limit attention in this paper for the most part to respondents who report only one response to the ancestry or ethnic origin question. Only in the descriptive findings below do we include discussion of single *and* multiple-origin ancestry responses.

FINDINGS

We begin with descriptive findings.

Descriptive Findings

- Table 2 About Here -

Table 2 contains descriptive statistics of the sample. As previously noted, we limit analysis to persons 18 years and older. The mean age and percent male or female are similar for all three samples. About 4 percent of the Canadian sample identifies as Aboriginal (that is, First Nations, Métis, or Inuit) and over 1 percent of the U.S. sample identifies as native people (American Indian, Alaskan Native, or Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander). As noted in Table 2, information on Aboriginal status is not available in the public-use Australian census data.

A higher percentage of the U.S. sample is native-born (88 percent), compared with 77 percent for the Canadian sample, and 67 percent for the Australian sample, reflecting the overall higher percentage of Australia and Canada's populations that are foreign-born. Differences in marital status are small, with a higher percentage married or living common-law for the Canadian sample and a higher percentage single or never married for the Australian sample.

The educational attainments of the Canadian and U.S. samples are relatively similar. Because of differences in how Australia categorizes education, there is quite a large percentage of respondents in the Australian sample that appears to have less than a high school education. Labour force status is fairly similar across the three samples, with 60 to 63 percent employed and a third or slightly more out of the labour force. The percent that own their homes is also similar,

with about 70 to 73 percent being homeowners. Mean household income is highest for the U.S. sample and lowest for the Australian sample. Finally, the majority of respondents in all three countries reside in urban or metropolitan areas.

Previous research identified several characteristics associated with identifying with a national ethnic origin or ancestry, and we examined some of these characteristics. For the Australian and Canadian samples, Table 3 shows the percentages in each category of selected characteristics that report "Australian" or "Canadian" as the only or single response and as part of multiple responses. As previously discussed (and noted in the table), for the U.S. sample, only single response as "American" is captured by the data.

- Table 3 About Here -

Beginning with age, we see that younger respondents are slightly more likely to identify with "Australian" or "Canadian" ancestry in Australia and Canada, respectively. This pattern holds for both those who identified with "Australian" or "Canadian" as their only response or as part of multiple responses. However, this is not the case with "American" ancestry where there are little age variations.

A large difference by nativity is observed: for all three samples, the native-born are much more likely to identify with a national ethnicity or ancestry: for example, comparing the "single" columns, we note that over 36 percent of native-born Australians reported "Australian" ancestry compared with 3 percent among the foreign-born; for the Canadian sample, 28 percent of the native-born reported "Canadian" ethnic origin compared with just 1 percent among the foreign-born; and for the U.S. sample, 10 percent of the native-born identified with "American" ancestry while hardly any foreign-born respondents do.

In Australia and the U.S., English is the dominant and official language, while Canada has two official languages, English and French, and French is the home language of over a fifth of the population. Table 3 shows that in all three countries, the percentages that identify with the respective national ancestry or ethnic origin are substantially higher among those whose home language is the dominant or official language (that is, English in Australia or the U.S., and English or French in Canada). The percentage of respondents in Canada whose home language is French that identify as "Canadian" ethnically is remarkable (a total of over 75 percent). Very few respondents whose home language is an "other" language identified with a national ancestry.

Education shows a similar pattern for all three samples: the percent identifying with the respective national ancestry or ethnic origin declines with increased education. For example, looking at the "single" columns, about 26 percent of the Canadian sample with high school or less education reported "Canadian" ethnic origin compared with 19 percent of those with some post-high school education and 13 percent of those with a Bachelor's degree or higher education. For the U.S., while over 10 percent of respondents with high school or less than high school report "American" ancestry, only 5 percent of those with a Bachelor's degree or higher did. Interestingly, there are only small variations by education among those reporting "Australian" or "Canadian" as part of multiple responses.

We also observe that in all three samples, a higher percentage of respondents who reside in non-metropolitan areas identify with a national ancestry: for example, about 5 percent of U.S. respondents who reside in metropolitan areas report "American" ancestry compared with 13 percent of those who reside in non-metropolitan areas.

The descriptive findings in Table 3 are generally consistent with previous findings reported for Australia (see Khoo and Lucas 2004) and Canada (see Lee and Edmonston 2009).

Multivariate Findings

This section describes results from logistic regression analyses for *single-origin* "Australian", "Canadian", or "American" ancestry. We focus on respondents who report only one response to the ancestry or ethnic origin question because of limitations associated with the U.S. data on "American" ancestry described earlier.

Overall Findings

Table 4 is shown in three parts: the first part (Table 4.a) reports results for Australia, the second (Table 4.b) for Canada, and the third (Table 4.c) for the United States. Each part of Table 4 follows the same format. The first two columns on the left-hand side list the explanatory variables and variable categories. The next four columns report the logistic regression coefficients, the standard errors for the coefficients, the t-test for the coefficients, and the odds ratio (that is, the exponential function for the coefficient).

- Table 4 About Here -

First, concerning overall statistical results, all explanatory variables are statistically significant at the 0.05 level, using a t-test for continuous variables or for differences between variable categories and the reference category for categorical variables. Overall, the Cox and Snell R-squared (shown at the end of each country's results) is 17.8 percent for the Australian sample, 22.2 percent for the Canadian sample, and 6.4 percent for the U.S. sample, suggesting that explanatory variables provide a poorer prediction of "American" ancestry than for "Australian" and "Canadian" ancestries.

The overall percentage of response variables predicted correctly is a useful comparative statistic for analyses of these three data sets. For this statistic (shown at the end of each country's results), we count the percentage of cases in which the predicted response variable,

based on the estimated logistic regression equation, is the same as the observed response variable. Using this statistical measure, 74.3 percent of the cases for Australia are correctly predicted, compared to 81.2 percent for Canada, and 91.1 percent for United States. This suggests the included explanatory variables provide a useful description of factors related to respondents reporting ACA ancestry.

Variable Effects

We describe the effects of each explanatory variable in the following section.

Age. Younger adults are more likely to report ACA ancestry. There is a similar relationship between age and ACA ancestry in all three countries. Increasing age is associated with decreasing levels of reporting ACA ancestry. There are some variations in this relationship, however, because the Canadian results show a somewhat steeper relationship. Canadian respondents less than 30 years of age are 66 percent more likely to report themselves as "Canadian" ethnically than persons 80 years or older, compared to 36 percent of Australian respondents and 28 percent of U.S. respondents for similar age groups.

Sex. Although females are slightly less likely to report ACA ancestry than males, the differences by sex are modest. Australian females are .996 less likely than males to report "Australian" ancestry, compared to .993 for Canadian females and .999 for U.S. females for a similar comparison. This suggests that differences by sex, although statistically significant, are trivial.

Nativity/Citizenship. Without exception, respondents who are citizens at birth are considerably more likely to report ACA ancestry. Compared to immigrants who are not naturalized citizens, native-born citizens are 13-times more likely to report their ancestry as "Australian" in Australia, compared to 17-times more likely to report as "Canadian" ethnically in

Canada, and 88-times more likely to report "American" ancestry in the United States. Naturalized citizens are somewhat more likely to report themselves as ACA ancestries than non-naturalized immigrants, but the differences are modest compared to the large difference for native-born citizens.

Home Language. In Australia and the United States, respondents who speak mainly English at home are much more likely to report ACA ancestry: almost 14-times more likely in Australia and more than 6-times more likely in the United States. The situation is more complicated in Canada because of a greater diversity of home languages. Compared to residents who do not speak English or French at home, residents who speak mainly English at home are more than 5-times more likely to report "Canadian" ethnic origin, and residents who speak mainly French at home are more than 16-times more likely to report themselves as "Canadian" ethnically.

Comparing the role of home language for these three countries, it appears that speaking English at home in Australia or the United States, and either English or French at home in Canada, greatly increases the likelihood of reporting ACA ancestry, compared to those who speak other languages at home.

Education. Respondents with more education, in all three countries, are generally less likely to identify with ACA ancestry. In Australia, persons with 11 years of education are more than twice as likely to identify as "Australian" compared to persons with an advanced or professional university degree. Persons with 9 or 10 years of education in Australia are somewhat less likely to report themselves as "Australian" compared to adults with 11 years of education, so there is a curvilinear relationship between education and "Australian" ancestry, as shown in Table 4.a.

For Canada and the United States, the relationship between education and ACA ancestry is fairly straightforward. Persons with 9 years or less of education, holding all other factors constant, are about 3-times more likely to identify ethnically as "Canadian" (in Canada) or "American" (in the United States), compared to adults with advanced or professional university degrees. In both Canada and the United States, persons with high school degrees or less are the main education groups with higher levels of reporting ACA ancestry.

Household Income. The multivariate analysis includes household income, measured in units of $10,000 for constant 2001 U.S. dollars, and household income-squared in order to detect possible curvilinear relationship between household income and ACA ancestry. As shown in Table 4 and illustrated in Figure 1, the relationship varies for the three countries.

- Figure 1 About Here -

For Australia, increasing household income is associated with decreases in reporting "Australian" ancestry, with a decrease of 6 percentage points between household incomes of zero and $50,000. For Canada and United States, there is a slightly curvilinear relationship: the percentage reporting ACA ancestry decreases slightly for household incomes between zero and about $25,000, and then increases slightly for household incomes over $25,000. For all three countries, however, household income does not appear to have as strong an association with identifying with ACA ancestry or ethnicity, compared with other explanatory variables.

Marital Status. With the exception of the United States, marital status does not have a pronounced association with reporting ACA ancestry. For Australia and Canada, there are only minor differences in the reporting of ACA ancestry for different categories of marital status. For the United States, single and separated adults have lower levels of reporting "American"

ancestry, while married, divorced, and widowed adults are about 40 percent more likely to report "American" ancestry.

Labour Force Status. There are no marked differences in identifying with ACA ancestry for different categories of labour force status, with the single exception of unemployed persons in the United States, who are 20 percent less likely to report "American" ancestry. Overall, it does not appear that labour force status has important relationships with ACA ancestry.

Religion. Persons are asked about their religious affiliation in the Australian and Canadian censuses but not in the U.S. census. For both Australia and Canada, there is a similar relationship between religious affiliation and reporting ACA ancestry. Compared to Protestants, Catholics are somewhat less likely (24 percent less likely in Australia and 15 percent less likely in Canada) to identify with ACA ancestry.

Region. We include a variable that has categorical codes for various regions in order to examine possible geographical differences in identifying with ACA ancestry. As shown in Table 4, there are minor variations in identifying as "Australian" for different regions in Australia; but the differences are not large.

For Canada, compared to the Atlantic Provinces (Newfoundland and Labrador, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island), respondents in Quebec are almost 20 percent more likely to identify as "Canadian". For the other regions of Canada, respondents are much less likely to identify as "Canadian": 40 percent less likely in Ontario, 65 percent less likely in the Prairies, 66 percent less likely in British Columbia, and 73 percent less likely in the combined region of Yukon Territory, Northwest Territory, and Nunavut. Stated differently, persons in the Atlantic Provinces and Quebec have relatively high levels of reporting themselves as "Canadian" ethnically.

For the United States, compared to the New England region, respondents in all other areas are relatively more likely to report themselves as "American". Persons in the Southern states, including the South Atlantic, East South Central, and West South Central regions, are especially likely to report themselves as "American": in these areas, persons are about 3-times or more likely to identify as "American" compared to persons in the New England region.

Metropolitan. Respondents living in metropolitan areas are less likely to identify with ACA ancestry, compared to persons living outside metropolitan areas. For Australia and Canada, respondents living in metropolitan areas are about 20 percent less likely to identify with ACA ancestry, compared to residents of non-metropolitan areas. Differences are wider in the United States, where metropolitan adults are 43 percent less likely to report themselves as "American" ancestry, compared to those living outside metropolitan areas. For all three countries, the reporting of ACA ancestry is more likely in rural areas and smaller towns that are outside metropolitan areas.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This first comparative study of identification with a national ethnic ancestry or origin in three countries – Australia, Canada, and the United States – has yielded many interesting findings, and also raises many equally interesting questions. The main findings suggest that identifying with a national ancestry or ethnic origin in each of the three countries is associated with several common factors, including being native-born, having a home language background associated with the majority population (English in Australia and the United States, English or French in Canada), younger age, lower education, religion (in Australia and Canada, Catholics are less likely than Protestants) and living in non-metropolitan areas. Some factors that have different

effects include area of residence (we observe regional differences in the U.S. and Canada but not in Australia) and marital status in the U.S. (never married and separated persons are less likely to identify as "American" ancestry).

We interpret the findings to provide a preliminary theoretical outline for why people identify with a national ethnic ancestry or origin. We group these preliminary theoretical generalizations into three dimensions of identification with a national ancestry or ethnic origin: (i) simplification process; (ii) social marginality; and (iii) regional and/or ethnic sub-cultures.

(i) Simplification Process: The effects of native birth and majority group home language suggest that identification with a national ethnic ancestry or origin may reflect the simplification process described by Lieberson and Waters (1993) in their analysis of ancestry data from the 1980 U.S. Census. People whose families have been in a country for multiple generations[5] and who belong to the majority cultural group (indicated by home language in this study) are more likely to simplify their reported ancestry for various reasons.

First, families who have been in the country for many generations may no longer identify with the original ethnic ancestries of their ancestors, such as "English" or "Scottish". Instead of being hyphenated Americans, for example, "English-American", they may identify simply as "American" -- the unhyphenated whites discussed by Lieberson and Waters (1993). Second, a longer history in the country is also associated with higher rates of intermarriage, which expands the number of ethnicities in the family. People with multiple ethnicities as a result of generations of ethnic intermarriage may either not know what all these ethnicities may be because there are

[5] We are unable to measure generation status with the U.S. data as we know only whether the respondent is U.S. or foreign-born. Immigrant generation is available for Canada and Australia, and other studies show that identifying with either "Canadian" or "Australian" ethnicities is more likely with higher generation (see Khoo and Lucas 2004 and Lee and Edmonston 2009).

so many, or because these ethnicities may no longer be salient or meaningful, may *simplify* their ethnic identity with a national ethnicity such as "Australian" or "American". A third factor may be the evolution of an endogenous ethnicity among the native born from groups with very long histories in the country such that being "Australian" or "Canadian" or "American" carries distinctive cultural meanings and contours for these sub-groups (we discuss this possibility further in the section on future research).

(ii) Social Marginality: The set of findings related to the effects of younger age, less education, and non-metropolitan residence suggests a different dimension to identification with a national ethnic origin or ancestry. Could identification with a national ethnicity such as "Australian", "Canadian", or "American" reflect some aspect of social marginality? One could argue that younger people, those with less education, and those who do not live in the large metropolitan centres of the country may perceive or feel marginalized from the mainstream. Identification with a national ethnicity may represent an effort to claim or exert membership in the larger society. The inverse relationship between household income and identification as "Australian" provides additional support for this idea, which will require additional research with different data to confirm (for example, data with direct measures of marginalization or alienation, and the subjective meaning of a national ethnicity for these sub-groups).

(iii) Regional and/or ethnic sub-cultures: The regional effects observed in Canada and the United States suggest a third dimension for theorizing about identification with a national ethnicity or ancestry. In Canada, residents of the Atlantic Provinces and Quebec are much more likely to identify as "Canadian", while in the United States, residents of southern states are more likely to identify as "American". Regional variations implicate the role of different histories and regional sub-cultures in identification with national ethnicities.

In the case of Canada, other studies have discussed the unique history of Quebec, the people of Quebec, and French background (see for example, Boyd and Norris 2001; Lee and Edmonston 2009) related to identification as "Canadian" or "Canadien" (in French). The southern states in the U.S. also have distinctive histories and cultures within the United States that could also play a part in why people in these states are more likely to report "American" ancestry (Lieberson and Waters 1993). These regional differences are probably related to a long history in each country, but are in addition to the effects of nativity and home language discussed above.

Taking these three dimensions together, it seems that identification with national ethnic ancestries or origins in Australia, Canada, and the United States is associated with different processes, including simplification, marginalization, and regionalism. Each process reflects different reasons for why various sub-groups in each country are more likely to identify with a national ethnic ancestry.

While this study has produced some intriguing findings, it also raises many questions for future research. One such question will be the analysis of additional data to see if the trend continues, and if the same characteristics continue to have similar effects. This will be important to provide confirmation that identification as "Australian" in Australia, "Canadian" in Canada, and "American" in the United States is not temporary or artifactual, related to measurement issues. Although this is a cross-sectional study, given the trends shown in Table 1, we believe census trend data suggest that identification with "Australian", "Canadian", and "American" is a genuine development with important implications for thinking about ethnicity and ethnic identity in Australia, Canada, and the United States, respectively. That this is not an isolated trend for a single country further strengthens our belief that this is a social fact with important implications.

Another research question is to examine the meanings that such national ethnic ancestries hold for people who identify with them. We had alluded to this process earlier in our discussion of factors related to the simplification of ancestry responses, that is, national ethnic ancestries or ethnicities are endogenous home-grown identities with distinct meanings. What does it mean to say that one's ancestry or ethnic origin is "Australian" or "Canadian" or "American"? Are there distinctive and unique *content* and *boundaries* for each of these national ethnicities? For example, what sets a person who identifies with "American" ancestry apart from those who do not? Our analysis suggests that such a person will be native-born, most likely descended from ethnic groups that have been in the U.S. for multiple generations, and more likely to live in one of the southern states. These factors may represent boundaries for the ethnic ancestry group, "American". How about content? How do people identifying as "American" differ from those who do not, in terms of behaviour, life-style, and values and attitudes? Similar questions can be asked about "Australian" and "Canadian" ethnic ancestries and origins.

While this paper's pioneering effort at comparing Australia, Canada, and the United States on an important and significant trend in ethnicity has produced and stimulated several interesting findings and questions for further research, we would like to conclude with some cautionary notes. First, as with all comparative research, there are unique challenges. Among the more important limitations of comparative research is the need to have "harmonized" variables. In describing the variables used in this study, we explained how we tried to derive measures that are as comparable as possible. However, this is not always possible, and the measures of education for Australia were particularly challenging. Another data limitation is the lack of some variables in some data sets, for example, data on religion are forbidden by law to be collected in the U.S. census., so it is not always possible to compare all three countries on all

variables. In addition, as we had also discussed, there are differences in wording and format of the question on ancestry and ethnic origin, as well as differences in how the responses are captured and recorded.

Our final comments expand on the last point of the above paragraph. Unlike Australia and Canada, the U.S. Census Bureau has adopted the approach of only recording "American" ancestry when it is the only response provided even though space for two responses to the ancestry question is provided (as shown in Exhibit 3). Therefore, when "American" ancestry is one of two responses, it is essentially deleted and only the other response is recorded. For example, if a person wrote "American" only, he would be recorded as identifying as "American" on the ancestry question. However, if he had written in "American" and "Italian", he would be placed in the "Italian" category and his "American" response would not be recorded.

This strikes us as a major limitation of the U.S. data in several ways. First, the U.S. Census Bureau ignores its own rule to allow respondents to self identify their ancestry (just as with the other census questions on race and Hispanic origin). In the case of responses to the race and Hispanic origin questions, the U.S. Census Bureau no longer recodes or deletes responses but instead retains whatever responses are reported (see for example, Lee and Tafoya 2006). It is therefore puzzling why the ancestry data are not similarly recorded. To make matters worse, it appears that the U.S. Census Bureau is not even recording "American" as a response to the ancestry question in the American Community Surveys, which will replace the long-form census beginning with the 2010 Census.[6]

These decisions at the U.S. Census Bureau are hard to understand, given the large numbers of people in the United States who identify with "American" ancestry, and the

[6] We examined public-use American Community Survey microdata for 2001 to 2007 and were surprised to see no records of "American" ancestry.

possibility that this reflects the development of an indigenous ethnic group with distinctive meanings. This practice also misrepresents the *actual* number and percentage of "American" ancestry responses, which researchers and others would not be able to discover. The policies by the Australian and Canadian federal statistical agencies are far more appropriate for many reasons, including allowing census data to accurately reflect the population's responses to important ethnic identification questions as well as maintaining integrity of data. One important consequence of this study is our recommendation that the U.S. Census Bureau revise its current practice on ancestry data to be more similar to those at the Australian Bureau of Statistics and Statistics Canada, given the importance and usefulness of ancestry data for understanding important developments in ethnicity in these three countries.

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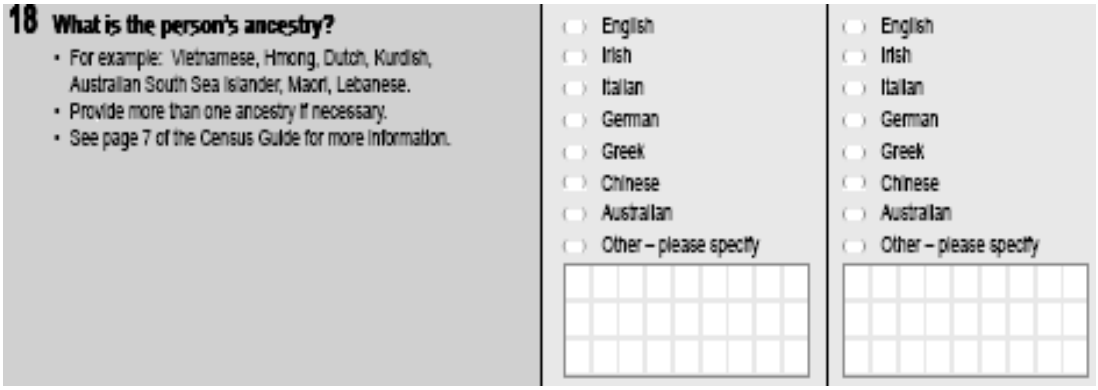
EXHIBIT 1: ANCESTRY QUESTION, 2001 CENSUS OF AUSTRALIA



18 What is the person's ancestry?

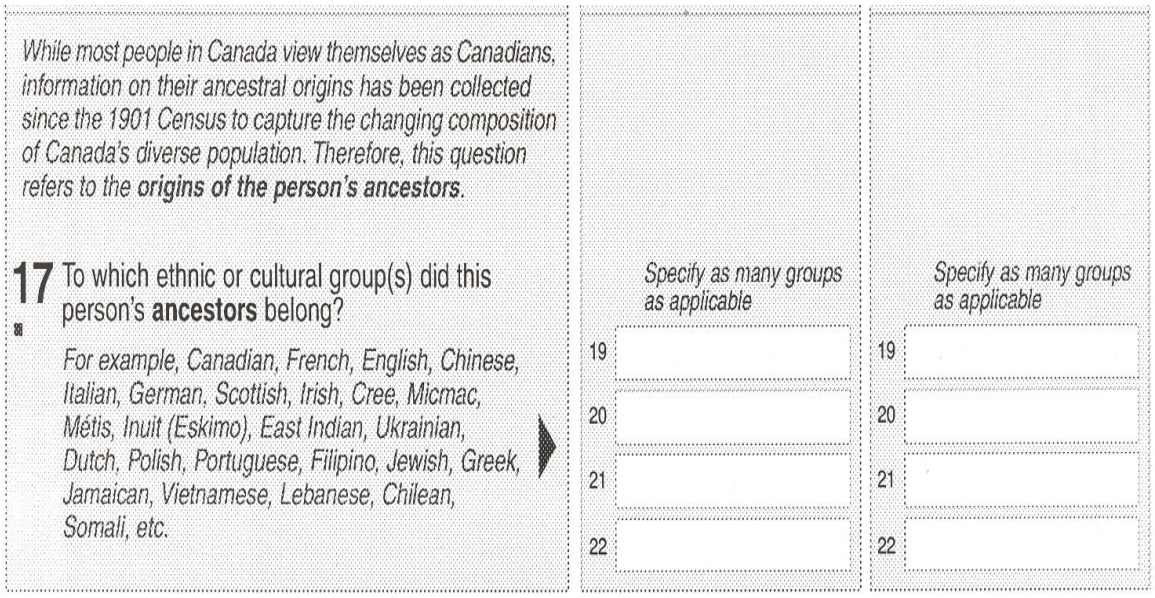
- For example: Vietnamese, Hmong, Dutch, Kurdish, Australian South Sea Islander, Maori, Lebanese.
- Provide more than one ancestry if necessary.
- See page 7 of the Census Guide for more information.

English
Irish
Italian
German
Greek
Chinese
Australian
Other – please specify

English
Irish
Italian
German
Greek
Chinese
Australian
Other – please specify

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001 Census questionnaire.

EXHIBIT 2: ETHNIC ORIGIN QUESTION, 2001 CENSUS OF CANADA



While most people in Canada view themselves as Canadians, information on their ancestral origins has been collected since the 1901 Census to capture the changing composition of Canada's diverse population. Therefore, this question refers to the ***origins of the person's ancestors****.*

17 To which ethnic or cultural group(s) did this person's **ancestors** belong?

For example, Canadian, French, English, Chinese, Italian, German, Scottish, Irish, Cree, Micmac, Métis, Inuit (Eskimo), East Indian, Ukrainian, Dutch, Polish, Portuguese, Filipino, Jewish, Greek, Jamaican, Vietnamese, Lebanese, Chilean, Somali, etc.

Specify as many groups as applicable

19
20
21
22

Specify as many groups as applicable

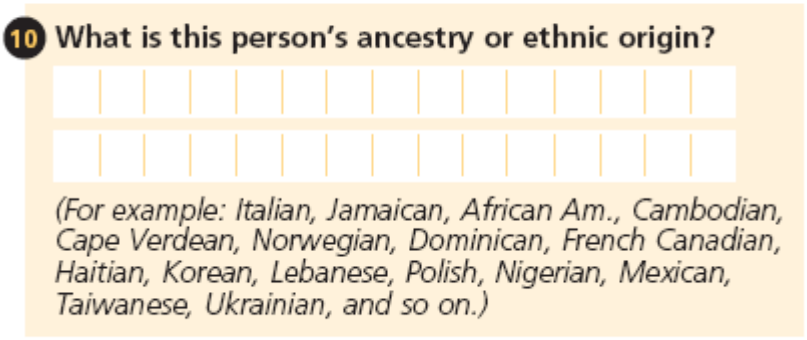
19
20
21
22

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census questionnaire.

EXHIBIT 3: ANCESTRY QUESTION, 2000 CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES

Figure 1.

Reproduction of the Question on Ancestry From Census 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Census 2000 questionnaire.

Table 1: Percent Reporting "Australian", "Canadian" or "American" Ancestry or Ethnic Origin

Category and Year	As Only Response	As One of Multiple Responses	Total
"Australian"			
1986	n.a.	n.a.	24.0[a]
2001	29.0	9.4	38.4[b]
"Canadian"[c]			
1991	2.7	1.1	3.8
1996	17.6	11.3	28.9
2001	22.1	14.9	37.0
"American"[d]			
1980	6.3	0.1	6.4
1990	5.6	n.a.	5.6
2000	9.0	n.a.	9.0

Notes:
n.a. Not available.

[a] Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (2003b).

[b] Authors' analysis of public-use microdata from the 2001 Census.

[c] Figures for "Canadian" are based on authors' analysis of public-use microdata from the 1991, 1996, and 2001 Censuses.

[d] Based on authors' analysis of the 1% IPUMS for the 1980, 1990, and 2000 Censuses. The percents for 1990 and 2000 differ from those reported in Brittingham and de la Cruz (2004) because Brittingham and de la Cruz (2004) included everyone in the denominator (including people who failed to provide any response to the question) whereas the percents in this table are based on those who provided responses to the ancestry question, which we consider to be the correct denominator. In addition, beginning with the 1990 Census, the U.S. Census Bureau considered "American" a valid response only when it was the only response; thus, there is no information on people who reported "American" as one of multiple responses as these respondents were allocated to the non-"American" ancestry.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Sample, Persons 18 Years and Older

Characteristic	Australia	Canada	United States
Mean Age	45.8	45.4	45.1
% Female	51.4	51.5	51.8
% Aboriginal or Native Peoples	n.a.[a]	3.7	1.5
Citizenship (%)			
Citizen by Birth	66.6	77.3	86.7
Citizen by Naturalization	20.0	17.0	5.7
Not a Citizen	13.4	5.7	7.6
Marital Status (%)			
Never Married	27.8	23.0	23.1
Married or in Common-Law Relationship	54.1	62.9	57.4
Separated or Divorced	11.5	8.3	12.6
Widowed	6.6	5.8	7.0
Education (%)			
Less than High School	66.7	28.2	20.3
High School Graduate	14.2	24.8	28.7
Some Post-High School	5.7	30.7	28.8
Bachelor's Degree or More	13.4	16.3	22.3
Labor Force Status (%)			
Employed	59.9	63.1	61.4
Unemployed	4.5	4.9	3.5
Not in Labor Force	35.6	32.0	35.1
% Homeowner	72.6	71.7	70.0
Mean Household Income (in constant 2001 US $)	34,271	45,197	65,454
% Residing in Metropolitan Area	61.0	62.4	55.6
Unweighted Number of Cases	141,367	612,608	2,086,381

Notes:

[a] This variable was not available in the public-use file for Australia.

Table 3: Percent in Each Category of Selected Characteristics Reporting "Australian", "Canadian" or "American" Ancestry, Persons 18 years and older: 2000/2001

Characteristic	"Australian"			"Canadian"			"American"
	Single[a]	Multiple[b]	Total	Single[a]	Multiple[b]	Total	Single[a]
Age Groups							
18 to 29	28.5	11.1	39.6	23.1	16.2	39.3	8.0
30 to 59	25.8	7.9	33.7	22.2	15.1	37.3	8.2
60 and older	24.8	6.1	30.9	19.9	12.5	32.4	9.7
Nativity							
Native-Born	36.1	11.1	47.2	28.1	18.5	46.6	10.0
Foreign-Born	3.3	1.5	4.8	1.0	1.9	2.9	0.1
Home Language							
English	31.2	9.7	40.9	14.8	14.4	29.2	10.0
French	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	53.4	22.5	75.9	n.a.
Other	0.9	0.7	1.6	0.6	1.8	2.4	0.1
Education							
Less than High School	27.8	7.6	35.4	26.6	12.5	39.1	10.2
High School	26.7	8.4	35.1	25.7	15.6	41.3	11.5
Some Post-High School	21.6	8.9	30.5	19.1	15.9	35.0	7.4
Bachelor's Degree or More	20.2	10.1	30.3	13.1	15.5	28.6	5.2
Residence							
Metropolitan Area	21.1	8.0	29.1	17.9	13.5	31.4	5.4
Non-Metropolitan Area	34.1	8.5	42.6	28.6	16.8	45.4	12.9

Notes:
n.a.: Not applicable. In Canada, English and French are official and dominant languages while only English is in Australia and the United States.

[a] "Single" means this was the only ancestry provided by the respondent. Only single responses are available in the U.S. data, so the total is the same as for "Single".

[b] "Multiple" means "Australian" or "Canadian" was reported together with other responses, for example, Irish or French, in Australia and Canada, respectively.

Table 4.a: Logistical Regression Analysis, Predicting Single-Origin "Australian" Ancestry, Australia, 2001

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Constant		-5.9631	0.0309	-193.0646	0.0021
Age	Less than 30	0.3052	0.0051	59.4337	1.3569
	30-39	0.2447	0.0049	50.1065	1.2773
	40-49	0.2831	0.0049	58.0415	1.3273
	50-59	0.1850	0.0048	38.2439	1.2032
	60-69	0.0504	0.0048	10.5446	1.0517
	70-79	0.0450	0.0047	9.5180	1.0460
	80 and Older	---[a]			
Sex	Female	-0.0042	0.0016	-2.6634	0.9958
	Male	---[a]			
Citizenship	Citizen by Birth	2.5369	0.0059	429.1611	12.6404
	Citizen by Naturalization	0.1953	0.0071	27.3707	1.2157
	Not a Citizen	---[a]			
Home Language	English	2.6360	0.0085	310.4695	13.9566
	French	---[b]			
	Other	---[a]			
Education	Advanced Degree	---[a]			
	Post Bachelor's	-0.0561	0.0087	-6.4823	0.9455
	Bachelor's Degree	-0.0081	0.0066	-1.2193	0.9919
	Some College/University	0.0146	0.0069	2.1081	1.0147
	Vocational Diploma	---[b]			
	High School Diploma	0.1989	0.0065	30.5840	1.2200
	11th Grade	0.8120	0.0077	105.3240	2.2525
	10th Grade	0.1759	0.0065	26.9836	1.1923
	9th Grade or Less	0.3914	0.0063	61.6590	1.4790
Household Income (10,000s)		-0.0125	0.0018	-7.0144	1.0125
Household Income-Squared		0.0001	0.0002	0.5878	1.0012

Table 4.a. (continued)

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Marital Status	Never-Married	---[a]			
	Married/Common-Law	-0.0065	0.0022	-2.9582	0.9935
	Separated	0.0042	0.0043	0.9878	1.0042
	Divorced	-0.0614	0.0033	-18.6025	0.9405
	Widowed	0.0853	0.0041	20.6831	1.0890
Labour Force Status	Employed	---[a]			
	Unemployed	0.0140	0.0039	3.6197	1.0141
	Not in the Labour Force	0.0541	0.0021	25.9421	1.0556
Religion	Protestant	---[a]			
	Catholic	-0.2710	0.0018	-151.0334	0.7626
	Other Christian	-0.3541	0.0037	-97.0018	0.7018
	Other Religion	-0.6241	0.0073	-85.4335	0.5358
	No Religion	-0.0333	0.0021	-15.6890	0.9673
Region	New South Wales	---[a]			
	Victoria	-0.1162	0.0020	-56.8838	0.8903
	Queensland	-0.1059	0.0020	-51.7654	0.8995
	South Australia	-0.1030	0.0029	-35.3712	0.9021
	Western Australia	-0.1611	0.0028	-56.7202	0.8512
	Tasmania	0.0023	0.0044	0.5179	1.0023
	Northern Territories	-0.2416	0.0081	-29.9575	0.7854
	Australian Capital	-0.0811	0.0060	-13.4172	0.9221
Metropolitan	Metropolitan	-0.2405	0.0016	-149.9319	0.7863
	Non-Metropolitan	---[a]			

Model Summary

Number of Observations	113,978
Weighted Sample	11,397,800
-2 Log likelihood	10,754,395
Cox & Snell R Squared	0.1780
Overall Percentage Predicted Correctly	74.31

Notes:

[a] Reference or excluded category.

[b] Not applicable.

Table 4.b: Logistical Regression Analysis, Predicting Single-Origin "Canadian" Ancestry, Canada, 2001

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Constant		-6.4989	0.0187	-348.2624	0.0011
Age	Less than 30	0.4991	0.0043	115.3218	1.6472
	30-39	0.5109	0.0042	120.4419	1.6667
	40-49	0.4400	0.0042	104.7196	1.5527
	50-59	0.2933	0.0042	70.2958	1.3408
	60-69	0.1488	0.0041	36.2138	1.1605
	70-79	0.0694	0.0041	16.8061	1.0718
	80 and Older	---[a]			
Sex	Female	-0.0066	0.0012	-5.5196	0.9934
	Male	---[a]			
Citizenship	Citizen by Birth	2.8603	0.0106	271.0771	17.4662
	Citizen by Naturalization	0.2189	0.0117	18.7670	1.2447
	Not a Citizen	---[a]			
Home Language	English	1.6200	0.0085	191.7018	5.0532
	French	2.7746	0.0086	322.7860	16.0321
	Other	---[a]			
Education	Advanced Degree	---[a]			
	Post Bachelor's	0.1376	0.0124	11.1175	1.1475
	Bachelor's Degree	0.2808	0.0121	23.2877	1.3242
	Some College/University	0.5994	0.0120	50.1153	1.8210
	Vocational Diploma	0.5660	0.0123	45.9669	1.7612
	High School Diploma	0.8697	0.0120	72.7241	2.3861
	11th Grade	1.0733	0.0122	87.6650	2.9249
	10th Grade	1.1154	0.0122	91.7028	3.0508
	9th Grade or Less	1.1314	0.0120	94.3397	3.1001
Household Income (10,000s)		-0.0088	0.0007	-12.5556	0.9912
Household Income-Squared		0.0002	0.0001	2.9492	1.0002

Table 4.b. (continued)

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Marital Status	Never-Married	---[a]			
	Married/Common-Law	0.0709	0.0017	42.0756	1.0735
	Separated	0.0945	0.0039	23.9506	1.0991
	Divorced	0.0556	0.0029	19.0867	1.0572
	Widowed	0.1661	0.0033	49.7780	1.1807
Labour Force Status	Employed	---[a]			
	Unemployed	-0.0655	0.0027	-23.9859	0.9366
	Not in the Labour Force	-0.0194	0.0017	-11.5903	0.9808
Religion	Protestant	---[a]			
	Catholic	-0.1654	0.0017	-96.0938	0.8475
	Other Christian	-0.3073	0.0044	-69.1106	0.7354
	Other Religion	-1.1397	0.0069	-164.8537	0.3199
	No Religion	0.1903	0.0020	96.3794	1.2096
Region	Atlantic Provinces	---[a]			
	Quebec	0.1709	0.0028	60.3188	1.1864
	Ontario	-0.5272	0.0021	-248.8037	0.5902
	Prairies	-1.0401	0.0025	-415.4451	0.3534
	British Columbia	-1.0701	0.0028	-376.7904	0.3430
	Northwest Territory/Yukon Territory/Nunavut	-1.3080	0.0148	-88.4659	0.2704
Metropolitan	Metropolitan	-0.2034	0.0013	-160.7804	0.8160
	Non-Metropolitan	---[a]			
Model Summary					
Number of Observations				609,806	
Weighted Sample				22,559,429	
-2 Log likelihood				18,077,619	
Cox & Snell R Squared				0.2215	
Overall Percentage Predicted Correctly				81.24	

Notes:

[a] Reference or excluded category.

Table 4.c: Logistical Regression Analysis, Predicting Single-Origin "American" Ancestry, United States, 2000

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Constant		-10.5528	0.0329	-320.7135	0.0000
Age	Less than 30	0.2482	0.0018	135.7624	1.2818
	30-39	0.1979	0.0018	111.7796	1.2188
	40-49	0.0623	0.0018	35.3345	1.0643
	50-59	0.0444	0.0018	25.1449	1.0454
	60-69	0.0586	0.0017	33.7120	1.0604
	70-79	0.0256	0.0017	14.7451	1.0259
	80 and Older	---[a]			
Sex	Female	-0.0010	0.0006	-1.7402	0.9990
	Male	---[a]			
Citizenship	Citizen by Birth	4.4775	0.0359	124.6510	88.0182
	Citizen by Naturalization	1.0715	0.0139	77.0114	2.9197
	Not a Citizen	---[a]			
Home Language	English	1.8183	0.0198	91.6402	6.1616
	French	---[b]			
	Other	---[a]			
Education	Advanced Degree	---[a]			
	Post Bachelor's	-0.0483	0.0028	-17.3538	0.9528
	Bachelor's Degree	0.1454	0.0025	59.0436	1.1565
	Some College/University	0.3846	0.0024	159.6068	1.4690
	Vocational Diploma	0.3320	0.0026	126.4956	1.3938
	High School Diploma	0.8415	0.0024	353.0276	2.3197
	11th Grade	0.8221	0.0026	321.8875	2.2753
	10th Grade	1.0162	0.0027	369.5721	2.7626
	9th Grade or Less	1.0585	0.0026	411.5217	2.8820
Household Income (10,000s)		-0.0112	0.0001	-114.1166	0.9889
Household Income-Squared		0.0002	0.0000	82.2364	1.0002

Table 4.c. (continued)

Explanatory Variables	Variable Categories	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-test	Exp(B)
Marital Status	Never-Married	---[a]			
	Married/Common-Law	0.3862	0.0009	430.5574	1.4714
	Separated	0.0129	0.0022	5.8282	1.0129
	Divorced	0.3115	0.0012	260.3703	1.3655
	Widowed	0.3246	0.0015	211.1327	1.3834
Labour Force Status	Employed	---[a]			
	Unemployed	-0.2360	0.0018	-132.1817	0.7898
	Not in the Labour Force	0.0063	0.0007	8.4608	1.0063
Religion	Protestant	---[b]			
	Catholic	---[b]			
	Other Christian	---[b]			
	Other Religion	---[b]			
	No Religion	---[b]			
Region	New England	---[a]			
	Middle Atlantic	0.1556	0.0019	81.7126	1.1683
	East North Central	0.5400	0.0018	305.3707	1.7160
	West North Central	0.4238	0.0020	216.0893	1.5277
	South Atlantic	1.2258	0.0017	721.6999	3.4070
	East South Central	1.6699	0.0018	931.3733	5.3115
	West South Central	1.0265	0.0018	575.8283	2.7912
	Mountain	0.3855	0.0021	187.4194	1.4704
	Pacific	0.3207	0.0019	169.4185	1.3781
Metropolitan	Metropolitan	0.5656	0.0006	915.4767	1.7606
	Non-Metropolitan	---[a]			

Model Summary

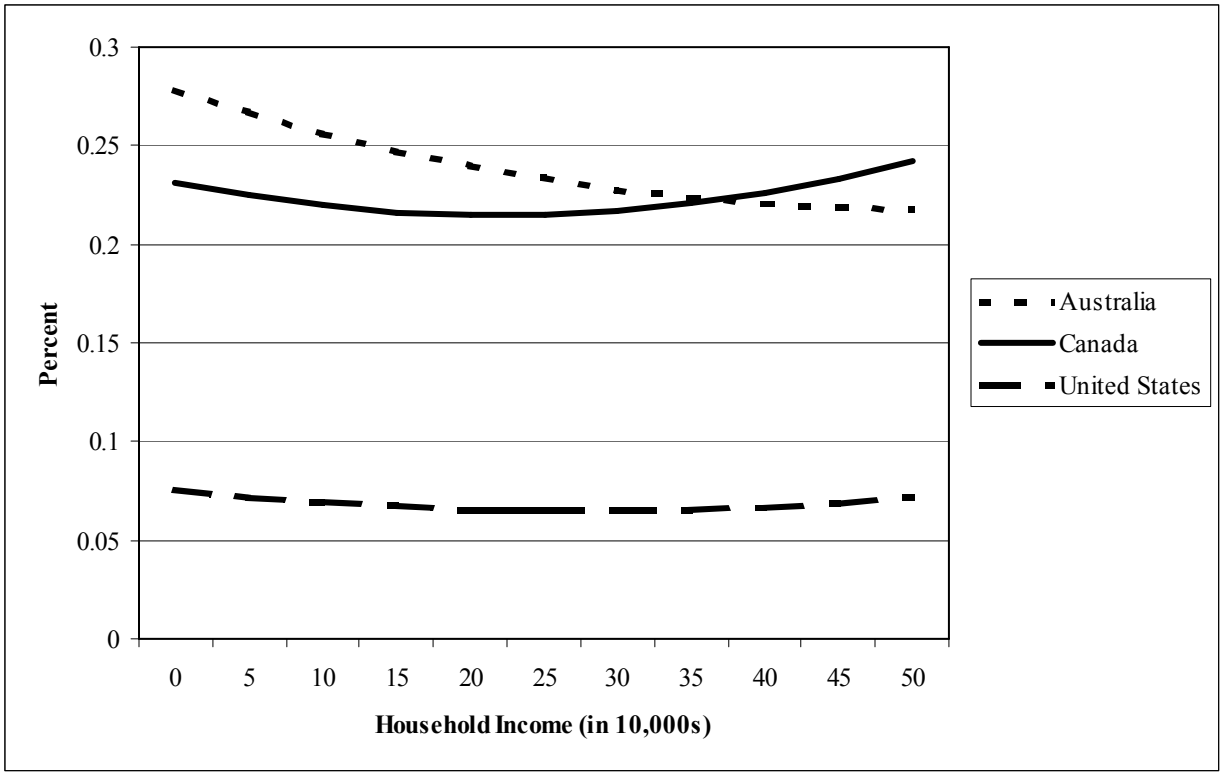
Number of Observations	1,590,357
Weighted Sample	160,840,917
-2 Log likelihood	85,733,339
Cox & Snell R Squared	0.0641
Overall Percentage Predicted Correctly	91.12

Notes:

[a] Reference or excluded category.

[b] Not applicable.

Figure 1: Relationship of Predicted Single-Origin ACA Ancestry with Household Income



Source: Authors' calculation from results reported in Tables 4.a, 4.b, and 4.c.