

## **SOCIAL COHESION IN CANADA: POSSIBLE INDICATORS**

BY :  
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For  
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In June, 2000, the Social Cohesion Indicators Project, a sub-committee of the Policy Research Initiative of the Government of Canada, convened a workshop of officials and academic and other experts to discuss possible indicators of social cohesion. The primary purpose of the workshop was to move from conceptual definitions of social cohesion to the identification of quantitative indicators.

Following the workshop, officials prepared a summary of desired indicators and dimensions of social cohesion, including indicators of conditions favorable for social cohesion, and indicators of socially cohesive activity. Using this outcome of the workshop as a base, the CCSD research team and officials from Canadian Heritage and the Department of Justice met to further develop and agree upon a set of indicators for which data were available. The data were then collected and analyzed by the CCSD research team.

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## INTRODUCTION

### Identifying Indicators Of Social Cohesion

The Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD) was engaged by Canadian Heritage and the Department of Justice to identify and gather statistical indicators of social cohesion for the Social Cohesion Indicators Project, a sub-committee of the Policy Research Initiative.

The Social Cohesion Indicators Project held a workshop on June 26-27, 2000 whose primary purpose was to move from conceptual definitions of social cohesion to the identification of quantitative indicators. Indicator development is important in terms of giving greater precision to discussions of underlying concepts and, perhaps most importantly, in terms of arriving at judgement(s) on the direction(s) of change. We need indicators to begin to answer a key question for policy makers and citizens alike: is social cohesion increasing or eroding?

In practice, such a simple question cannot be answered easily or definitively since the concept of social cohesion is both multi-dimensional and contested. But distinct dimensions can be identified, and trends in indicators which most closely match the underlying concepts can also be identified and monitored.

Hopefully this report will spark further discussion of underlying concepts; of the matching of indicators to concepts; and of how to aggregate distinct dimensions of social cohesion.

### What Is Social Cohesion?

Here we make no attempt to survey the vast literature on social cohesion, but rather try to very briefly summarize the key dimensions identified in the research process to date.

The Policy Research Sub Committee on Social Cohesion has adopted a working definition of social cohesion:

“Social cohesion is the ongoing process of developing a community of shared values, shared challenges and equal opportunity within Canada, based on a sense of trust, hope and reciprocity among all Canadians.” (Social Cohesion Research Workplan, March, 1997.)

As stressed in the report from the workshop, social cohesion is centrally about the willingness of people to co-operate and engage in voluntary partnerships. Social cohesion is manifested directly in socially cohesive activities and practices: such as participation in formal and informal social networks, group activities and associations, and participation in civic life. The dimension of active participation in society is key.

At the workshop, there was much discussion of the importance of such shared activity to human well-being, and of the extent to which civic values are anchored in wider networks and patterns of social relationships.

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As will be apparent from the review of indicators, direct information on participation in social networks is quite limited.

Socially cohesive activity depends upon a community of shared values, as noted in the working definition. The commitment of citizens to democratic and civic values (so-called 'thin' values) is clearly central. Reciprocity can also be considered as a core democratic value, though it is clearly subject to a wide range of definitions. Note that the definition refers to the *development* of shared values, implying that they are not fixed and immutable but emerge from debate, discussion and change within an overarching framework which unites citizens.

Most would agree that the idea of shared values can be pushed too far in a pluralistic, diverse society and that recognition, inclusion and acceptance of diversity are themselves central elements of social cohesion. At the same time, diversity has been seen as a potential 'fault line' from a cohesion perspective.

Further, it was recognised that there is a close relation between values – such as trust in institutions and trust in others – and the actual substantive content of social relationships. (To give an obvious example, Medicare can be seen as important to social cohesion, embodying some core values; but trust in Medicare and adherence to the values it embodies is likely to vary with the quality and accessibility of health services.)

A clear distinction must be made between social cohesion and measures of economic well-being such as GDP. However, socially cohesive activity and shared democratic and civic values are clearly rooted to some considerable extent in objective social and economic conditions and outcomes. These can be judged to be more or less conducive to social cohesion to the extent that they promote and support equality of opportunity and reciprocity.

The working definition speaks to the importance of hope and reciprocity and, even more directly, to the importance of equal opportunity. The concept of social cohesion embodies the notion of social inclusion, which can be very broadly defined as active participation in society and broad equality of access to opportunities to develop individual talents, capacities and capabilities. Economic polarization has been seen as a major 'fault line' which potentially undermines social cohesion.

In the presentation of individual indicators which follows, an attempt has been made to briefly identify the connection of the indicator to the underlying concept or concepts which are linked to social cohesion. This identification has been undertaken by the CCSD to facilitate discussion.

## **Moving From Concepts To Indicators**

The workshop generally favoured an 'iterative' approach to the development of indicators, rather than a theoretically driven 'top down' approach (which would quickly run up against the constraint of data availability) or an empirically driven 'bottom-up' approach (which would risk just rounding up reams of unrelated data.) As noted, the identification of indicators may assist further conceptual discussion, and not just the further refinement of indicators.

There was general agreement that both objective data (such as that provided by Statistics Canada) and subjective, qualitative data (from opinion surveys) are relevant. As a general principle, it was also noted that data should be sensitive to the need for disaggregation (eg. by region, age, sex, minority status, socio-economic status etc.) and that data should be collected as relevant to different levels of analysis (eg. groups, institutions, the national level.)

It was generally agreed that any attempt to aggregate indicators into index/indices of social cohesion would be premature at this stage of discussion. It can be noted that aggregation would be possible only if all indicators could be reduced to a common metric (such as dollars, as in the Genuine Progress Indicator) or if there was agreement on how to weight the different components.

Following the workshop, officials prepared a one page summary of desired 'indicator areas' or dimensions, as reproduced below. An initial division was made between indicators of *conditions favourable for social cohesion*, and *elements of socially cohesive activity*. The former category - conditions - was sub-divided into economic conditions, life chances and quality of life indicators. The latter - socially cohesive activity - was sub-divided into measures of willingness to co-operate, and participation.

The CCSD undertook, in Stage I of the project, to match indicators to the identified concepts/dimensions in consultation with officials from Canadian Heritage and the Department of Justice, and also to identify data gaps. The consultation process resulted in the development of an agreed 'indicators template' (reproduced as an Appendix) which provides the basis for this report.

It is important to note that the CCSD agreed to draw on its (considerable) data base, but did not undertake to engage in extensive, original quantitative or qualitative research. Thus, for example, we have not run data which would have required special access to Statistics Canada or the purchase of micro-data files not already in our possession. In practice, the major effect has been to close off analysis of several income and poverty measures at the end of 1997. (Some data from the 1998 SLID has been released, but no public use data was available.) We have indicated where further disaggregation could be undertaken.

The CCSD has access to survey data for the Personal Security Index and we used the World Values Survey as a basis for some key indicators. Survey data from private firms is not in the public domain. In this report, we have flagged the availability of some relevant EKOS data. We have also, with the permission of EKOS (Patrick Beauchamp, October 17, 2000), reproduced data made available to the public on their web site.

It is worth making the general point that useful insights can be gained by combining quantitative and qualitative data, particularly in this area of research. Perceptions and values are clearly an important element of social cohesion, and these are not reducible to objective socio-economic conditions. Perceptions can be usefully compared to reported conditions and outcomes, recognising that both are important.

In the presentation of individual indicators we have tried to:

- Provide some sense of trends over time. Where possible, data have been provided for 1980, 1989 and 1999. These are three cyclically more or less neutral years which give a reasonable sense of some underlying 'structural' changes in socio-economic circumstances. A long time series is lacking for many indicators.
- Provide some disaggregation of indicators by age, gender, region or province, and to identify whether further disaggregation is possible. As a practical matter, we could not provide extensive disaggregation of more than 80 indicators. It would have been useful to have further disaggregation by socio-economic status and visible minority/aboriginal status.
- Provide information on data gaps.

### **Suggested Indicators Of Social Cohesion**

Levels of Analysis:

Individual Level  
Group Level  
Institutional Level  
Spatial Levels (local/regional/national)

Disaggregation on basis of:

Age  
Sex  
Ethnicity  
Household income

### **Conditions Favourable For Inclusive Social Cohesion**

#### **1. Economic conditions that impact socially cohesive activity**

- a. Distribution of income
- b. Income polarization
- c. Poverty
- d. Employment
- e. Mobility

#### **2. Life Chances**

- a. Health care
- b. Education
- c. Adequate and affordable housing

#### **3. Quality of Life**

- a. Population health
- b. Personal and family security
- c. Economic security
- d. State of the family
- e. Time use
  
- f. Built environment
  - i. Infrastructure (places to engage in social interaction)
  - ii. Communication networks
- g. Quality of natural environment

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## Elements Of Socially Cohesive Activity

### 4. Willingness to Co-operate

- a. Trust in people
- b. Confidence in institutions
- c. Respect for diversity
- d. Understanding of reciprocity
- e. Belonging

### 5. Participation

- a. Social consumption/ Social support networks
- b. Participation in networks and groups
  - i. Voluntarism
  - ii. Group Activities
  - iii. Levels of philanthropic activity
- c. Political participation

### 6. Literacy

## Part I - Economic Conditions That Impact Socially Cohesive Activity

### 1.a Distribution of Income

**Indicator:** I. Average disposable income per capita

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Disposable income is defined as total household income, minus taxes, and thus is the key measure of income available for personal and household consumption. Note that the measure does not include the benefit to households of public services, though it does include income transfers from governments.

Income inequality is highly relevant to social cohesion. It can be taken as a key indicator of limited opportunities to consume on the part of some, and is suggestive of wide differences in opportunities and life chances.

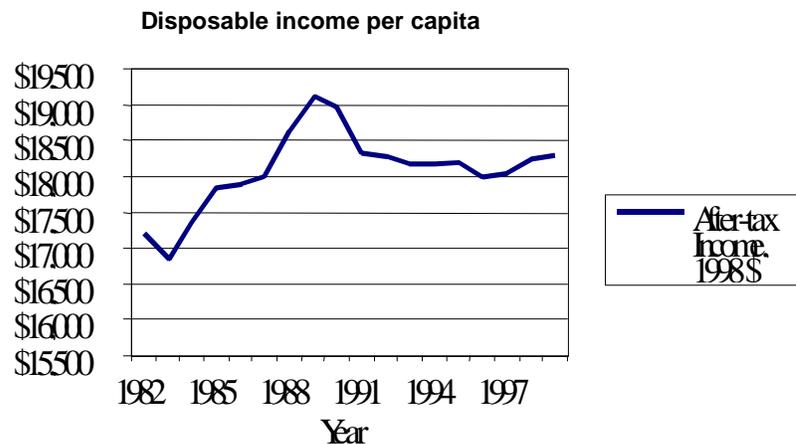
**Source:** SCF / SLID  
IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)  
Statistics Canada's National Income and Expenditure Accounts, various years

**Baseline data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

Trends in the distribution of income should be set in the context of the changing average level.

Average disposable income fell sharply in the recession of the early 1990s and then stagnated until late in the decade. A strong recovery has continued through 1999 and into 2000. Per capita disposable income in 1999 recovered to the 1989 level.



Source: Prepared by the Canadian Council on Social Development using Statistics Canada's National Income and Expenditure Accounts, various years

**Disaggregation:**

Further research must be conducted.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendations:**

Further research must be conducted.

**Indicator:** II. Distribution of disposable income by quintile

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Disposable income is defined as market income (ie. from employment, investments) plus transfers from governments (such as EI and social assistance and public pensions) minus income taxes. It is thus the broadest measure of the ability of individuals and households to consume goods and services provided by the market. The distribution of household income by quintile (5 equally sized groups) is the most frequently used and popularly accessible way to measure income inequality (as opposed to statistical measures such as the Gini).

Income inequality is highly relevant to social cohesion. It can be taken as a key indicator of limited opportunities to consume on the part of some, and is suggestive of wide differences in opportunities and life chances. Quintile shares provide a sense of the economic and social distances among the population.

**Source:** IDS or SCF or SLID  
IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

From the mid 1970s until very recently, there was a great deal of stability in the distribution of disposable income in Canada. However, this disguised some underlying changes, such as the shift in income shares from younger to older households. The changing income share of different income groups is driven by demographic changes (such as changes in family structures), by trends in earnings (driven by unemployment and by changes in the distribution of earnings) and by changes in government transfers.

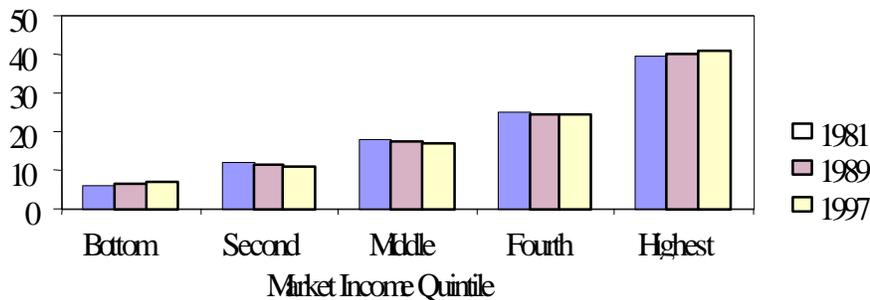
Disposable Income Share by Quintile, 1981, 1989, and 1997									
Market Income Quintile	Families			Unattached Individuals			All Households		
	1981	1989	1997	1981	1989	1997	1981	1989	1997
%									
Bottom	7.9	8.4	8.2	7.7	9.4	9.9	6.0	6.7	6.9
Second	13.8	13.7	13.2	9.9	11.1	11.1	11.8	11.4	11.0
Middle	18.7	18.1	17.9	16.4	16.3	16.5	18.1	17.4	16.9
Fourth	23.8	23.4	23.7	24.7	24.1	22.6	24.9	24.3	24.3
Highest	35.8	36.4	37.0	41.3	39.1	39.9	39.3	40.2	40.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: Numbers may not sum due to rounding.

Source: Tabulations by the authors based on Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances microdata. *The Canadian Fact Book on Poverty* (2000), p. 58.

The share of both the bottom and top quintiles have modestly expanded over time at the expense of the middle quintiles, but – in after tax terms – there is little sign of a ‘shrinking middle-class’ in Canada. That said, this has been achieved in spite of growing inequality in the distribution of market income.

**Disposable Income Share by Quintile, All Households, 1981, 1989, and 1997**



Source: Tabulations by the authors based on Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances microdata. *The Canadian Fact Book on Poverty* (2000), p. 58

Market Income Share as a Ratio of Disposable Income Share by Quintile, 1981, 1989, and 1997									
Market Income Quintile	Families			Unattached Individuals			All Households		
	1981	1989	1997	1981	1989	1997	1981	1989	1997
Bottom	0.44	0.36	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.25	0.18	0.09
Second	0.89	0.83	0.77	0.53	0.48	0.33	0.82	0.76	0.66
Middle	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.95	0.95	0.89	0.99	0.97	0.95
Fourth	1.06	1.07	1.09	1.14	1.16	1.17	1.06	1.07	1.09
Highest	1.12	1.17	1.20	1.24	1.31	1.38	1.13	1.17	1.21

Note: Numbers may not sum due to rounding.

Source: Tabulations by the authors based on Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances microdata. *The Canadian Fact Book on Poverty* (2000), p. 58.

The dependency on transfers of lower income families (the bottom 40%) has been growing over time, reflecting the aging of the population and increased reliance on EI and social assistance benefits.

The stability of after-tax income shares despite rising market income inequality indicates that the redistributive impact of the tax/transfer system increased from the early 1980s.

However, very recent data paint a somewhat different picture. Between 1996 and 1998, the after tax income share of the bottom 20% of families (defined by after tax quintile) has fallen from 7.6% to 6.3% of total after tax income. This appears to mainly recent reductions in social assistance benefits.

**Disaggregation:**

Using Statistics Canada's Income Distribution by Size or the Survey of Consumer Finances, we can disaggregate the indicator by age, gender and region/province. The Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics can be used to also examine visible minorities, aboriginal peoples and persons with disabilities.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Decile distributions can be obtained. Income data is now obtained from SLID rather than from the SCF. The break in series can create problems for examination of detailed trends over time.

**Indicator:** III. Distribution of earnings (holding hours of work constant)

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The distribution of market income is mainly driven by trends in the distribution of earnings from employment and self-employment (plus investment income but this is a relatively small share of total income.) The distribution of earnings is in turn, driven mainly by differences in hours worked (as the result of unemployment or individual and family choices) at different income levels, and by differences in pay rates.

The changing distribution of earnings – holding hours constant – is a key indicator of inequality of pay rates. While blunted by many other factors (government transfers, hours worked, taxes) pay inequality is linked to social cohesion in that it suggests major underlying differences in the quality of employment opportunities, and major differences within the working age population in terms of 'dependence' upon government social programs.

**Source:** G. Picot. Working Time, Wages and Earnings Inequality Among Men and Women in Canada, 1981-1993. (1996)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

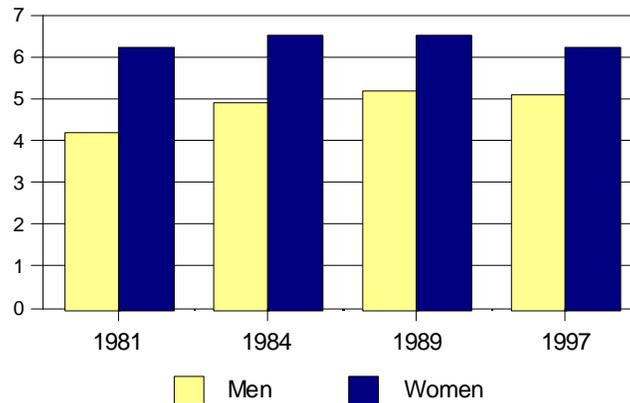
The major conclusion of Canadian research has been that there has been a very limited increase in earnings inequality in Canada, controlling for hours worked. In other words, increased inequality of market income has been driven more by unemployment, short hours employment and working long hours than by changes in the underlying structure of

pay. However, the research does show a decline in the relative pay of younger workers over time ie. an increase in inter-generational earnings inequality.

Weeks Worked in Year, 1981-1993					
		1981	1984	1989	1993
Decile					
<b>Men</b>					
(Aged 25-64)	1 (lowest)	31.0	24.0	28.7	21.9
	2	43.5	37.7	41.4	35.6
	5	50.5	50.2	50.4	49.9
	10 (highest)	51.6	51.6	51.7	51.7
<b>Women</b>					
(Aged 25-64)	1 (lowest)	20.4	20.3	24.3	21.3
	2	31.3	32.4	36.9	35.8
	5	48.3	48.2	49.1	49.6
	10 (highest)	51.2	51.3	51.7	51.8

Source: G. Picot, *Working Time, Wages and Earnings Inequality Among Men and Women in Canada, 1981-1993* (1996).

**Ratio of Highest Decile of Average Weekly Earnings to Lowest Decile of Earnings for Men and Women Aged 25-54 (Constant 1993 Dollars), 1981-1993**



Source: G. Picot, *Working Time, Wages and Earnings Inequality Among Men and Woman in Canada, 1981-1993* (1996)

y

**Disaggregation:**

Updated data and disaggregation can be obtained from SLID.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendations:**

SLID requires access to Statistics Canada.

**Indicator:** IV. Provincial income as a percentage of national average

**Definition/ Relevance:**

This is a good indicator of the extent of regional differences in terms of income – the result of differences in market income between provinces (driven mainly by different patterns of employment and earnings) in combination with the effects of equalizing federal transfers. (Provinces may also differ on the extent to which they wish to tax their own citizens to pay for public services, resulting in further variations in disposable income.)

Social cohesion at the national level could be undermined by large and persistent (or growing) differences between incomes at the provincial level.

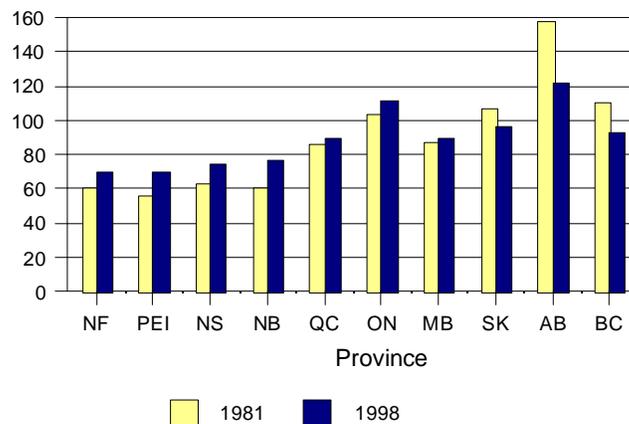
**Source:** Statistics Canada, *The Daily*, 26/09/00;  
 Statistics Canada, *Canadian Economic Observer*, Cat No 11-210XPB;  
 Department of Finance, *Economic Reference Tables*, Cat No F1-26/1996

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over time:**

Over the 1981-98 period, there was some closing of the income gap between ‘have’ and ‘have-not’ provinces. Fluctuations can be driven by cyclical changes in resource prices.

**Provincial Per Capita Gross Domestic Product as a Percentage of the National Average, 1981 and 1998**



Source: Statistics Canada, *The Daily*, 26/09/00; *Canadian Economic Observer*, at No 11-210XPB; Dept. of Finance, *Economic Reference Tables*, Cat No F1-26/1996E

**Disaggregation:**

Further research must be conducted.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Earlier years of Income Distribution by Size use region rather than province. SLID requires Statistics Canada access.

It should be noted that recent research by the CCSD (Urban Poverty in Canada) and Statistics Canada, using Census data, has shown an increased concentration over time in the proportion of all poor households living in very poor neighbourhoods ie. there has been an increased geographical concentration of low income at the neighbourhood level. This is directly relevant to social cohesion since, as an abundance of literature suggests, concentrated poverty (as in US urban ghettos) has major negative implications for health, education and life chances generally, and is strongly associated with social exclusion and inequality of opportunity. Research also indicates that the more affluent have become more concentrated in high income neighbourhoods. Put another way, the gap between low and high income neighbourhoods has, in many cities, grown faster than the overall after tax income gaps shown above. Such local indicators should be refined and developed.

**Indicator:** V. Visible minorities total income as a % of national total income

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Average total income of persons who are members of a visible minority group as a % of average total income of persons not members of a visible minority in Canada in 1995.

Large and persistent income gaps between racial/culturally defined communities could be an indicator of discriminatory exclusion from employment and other opportunities which directly and indirectly work against social cohesion. Irrespective of cause, large and persistent gaps may be considered inconsistent with conditions for inclusion and cohesion. There is some evidence that these gaps have increased from the 1980s to the 1990s, but that the gap has grown mainly because of the particularly poor relative earnings/incomes of recent immigrants. (Canadian born visible minority groups have, on average, fared well in comparison to all Canadians.) Controlling for education reduces large income gaps shown in the data, but there is strong evidence that foreign educational credentials are often not recognised in Canada. It should be noted that there have been major changes over time in the composition of visible minority communities in Canada (eg. as between countries of origin and as between immigrants and refugees.)

**Source:** Statistics Canada, CENSUS 96 / SLID – 1993 to 1998

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over time:**

The average total income of persons who were members of a visible minority in 1995 was \$20,190 compared to \$25,890 for non-members of a visible minority. The average total income of persons who are members of a visible minority represented 78% of average total income of non-members of a visible minority in 1995.

The average total income for male members of a visible minority was \$23,693 in 1995, compared to \$32,165 for men not members of a visible minority (74 %).

**Visible minority total income as a % of non-member of visible minority total income, Canada, 1995**



Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom data

The average total income for women members of a visible minority was \$16,634, compared to \$19,562 for women not members of a visible minority (85%).

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation can be done for many socio-demographic characteristics: age groups, gender, provinces, and socio-economic status.

**Average total income by province in 1995**

	Member of visible minority population	Non-member of visible minority population	Income ratio of visible minority population
Canada	\$ 20,190	\$ 25,890	78.0%
Newfoundland	\$ 30,140	\$ 19,640	153.5%
Prince Edward Island	\$ 20,875	\$ 20,557	101.5%
Nova Scotia	\$ 19,217	\$ 21,699	88.6%
New Brunswick	\$ 20,705	\$ 20,830	99.4%
Quebec	\$ 16,762	\$ 23,657	70.9%
Ontario	\$ 21,193	\$ 28,393	74.6%
Manitoba	\$ 18,445	\$ 23,472	78.6%
Saskatchewan	\$ 21,920	\$ 22,961	95.5%
Alberta	\$ 19,667	\$ 27,011	72.8%
British Columbia	\$ 20,159	\$ 27,706	72.8%

Source: Statistics Canada's Census 1996. CCSD's custom data.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

SLID requires Statistics Canada access, sample size might be small.

The Employment Equity Act defines visible minorities as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour". The visible minority population includes the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab/West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese, Korean and Pacific Islander. Counts of the visible minority population in Canada were first produced using 1981 Census data. Data on the visible minority population in 1981, 1986 and 1991 were derived primarily from responses to the ethnic origin question, in conjunction with responses from the place of birth and mother tongue questions. For the 1996 Census, a new question was introduced in order to measure the visible minority population more directly. Because of this difference in the method of collecting data, caution should be used in comparing visible minority data between the 1996 Census and previous censuses. For more information on the definition of the visible minority subgroups and on visible minority data collected in previous censuses, please refer to "Collecting Census Data on Canada's Visible Minority Population: A Historical Perspective" (Karen Kelly, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, March 1995, Product 89F0031MPE, 1995)

Far more active and ongoing use should be made of SLID to monitor the absolute and relative well-being of visible minorities in terms of incomes and access to employment. This recommendation also applies to persons with disabilities and Aboriginal Canadians.

**Indicator:** VI. Aboriginal total income as a % of national total income

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Average total income of persons of aboriginal identity as a % average total income of non-aboriginals in Canada. (Same as for visible minorities).

**Source:** CENSUS 96 / SLID – 1993 to 1998

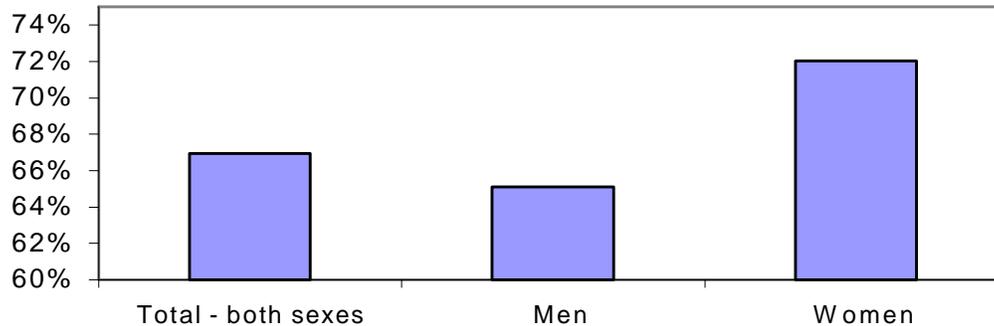
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over time:**

Average total income of aboriginals was \$17,032 compared to \$25,436 for non-aboriginals in 1995.

Average total income of aboriginals represented 67% of non-aboriginal average total income in 1995.

### Aboriginal identity total income as a % of non-Aboriginal identity total income, Canada, 1995



Source: Statistic Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom data.

Average total income of Aboriginal men was \$20,484 compared to \$31,456 for non-Aboriginal men in 1995 (65%).

Average total income of Aboriginal women was \$13,937, compared to \$19,350 for non-Aboriginal women in 1995 (72%).

#### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation can be done by many socio-demographic characteristics: age groups, gender, provinces, and socio-economic status.

#### Average total income by province in 1995

	Aboriginal identity	Non-Aboriginal identity	Income ratio
Canada	\$ 17,032	\$ 25,436	67.0%
Newfoundland	\$ 16,280	\$ 19,776	82.3%
Prince Edward Island	\$ 16,818	\$ 20,576	81.7%
Nova Scotia	\$ 17,224	\$ 21,648	79.6%
New Brunswick	\$ 15,632	\$ 20,856	75.0%
Quebec	\$ 17,601	\$ 23,320	75.5%
Ontario	\$ 19,164	\$ 27,455	69.8%
Manitoba	\$ 15,104	\$ 23,630	63.9%
Saskatchewan	\$ 14,240	\$ 23,447	60.7%
Alberta	\$ 16,951	\$ 26,579	63.8%
British Columbia	\$ 17,941	\$ 26,645	67.3%

Source: Statistic Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom data.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

SLID requires Statistics Canada access. Sample in SLID only off-reserve.

Census requires construction of custom tabulations.

Aboriginal refers to those persons who reported identifying with at least one Aboriginal group, i.e. North American Indian, Métis or Inuit (Eskimo) and/or those who reported being a Treaty Indian or a Registered Indian as defined by the Indian Act of Canada and/or who were members of an Indian Band or First Nation (Census dictionary).

There are major data problems and issues including non-reporting of data for on-reserve populations and under-reporting of urban aboriginal populations.

**Indicator:** VII. Persons with disabilities total income as a % of national total income

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Average total income of persons with activity limitation as a % of average total income of persons without activity limitation, Canada, 1995. As above.

**Source:** CENSUS 96 / SLID – 1993 to 1998

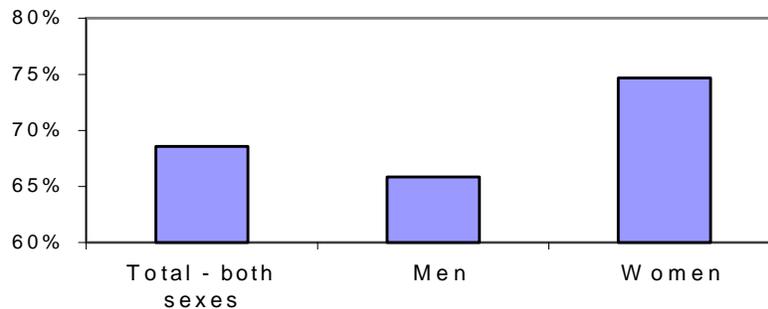
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over time:**

Average total income of persons with activity limitation (PWAL) was \$18,057 compared to \$26,334 for persons without an activity limitation in 1995.

Average total income of PWAL in 1995 represented 69% of average total income of persons without activity limitation.

Average total income of persons with activity limitation as a % of average total income of persons without activity limitation, Canada, 1995



Source: Statistic Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom tabulations.

Average total income of men with an activity limitation was \$21,480 compared to \$32,629 for men without activity limitation in 1995 (66%).

Average total income of women with activity limitation was \$14,865, compared to \$19,911 for women without activity limitation in 1995 (75%).

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation can be done by many socio-demographic characteristics: age groups, gender, provinces, and socio-economic status.

Average total income by province in 1995

	With activity limitation	Without activity limitation	Income ratio
Canada	\$ 18,057	\$ 26,334	68.6%
Newfoundland	\$ 14,303	\$ 20,409	70.1%
Prince Edward Island	\$ 15,552	\$ 21,355	72.8%
Nova Scotia	\$ 15,871	\$ 22,817	69.6%
New Brunswick	\$ 14,891	\$ 21,865	68.1%
Quebec	\$ 15,216	\$ 24,078	63.2%
Ontario	\$ 19,460	\$ 28,638	68.0%
Manitoba	\$ 17,452	\$ 24,005	72.7%
Saskatchewan	\$ 17,582	\$ 23,774	74.0%
Alberta	\$ 18,745	\$ 27,350	68.5%
British Columbia	\$ 19,345	\$ 27,532	70.3%

Source: Statistics Canada's Census 1996. CCSD's custom data.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

SLID requires Statistics Canada access. Sample size might be very small.

Census requires construction of custom tabulations.

**1.b Income Polarization**

**Indicator:** I. Ratio P10/P90 (top to bottom decile of income distribution) for all economic families

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The ratio of the sum of total income for all economic families in the bottom decile to that of all economic families in the top decile.

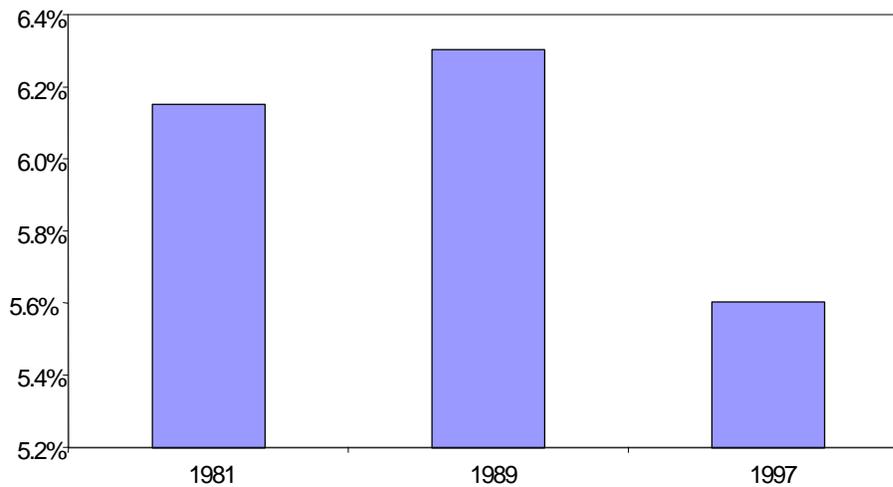
Polarization is a measure of the distance between the extremes of the income distribution. It indicates the size of the relative (and absolute) gap between the least and most affluent members of society. The measure used here is for all economic families.

**Source:** SCF/SLID (1996 onward)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available –1998

**Trend over Time:**

**Ratio of Lowest to Highest Decile for Canada**



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances, selected years.

### Disaggregation:

The gap between the very bottom and very top of the income distribution widened in the 1990s.

**Ratio of Lowest to Highest Decile**

Province	1981	1989	1997	Change from 1981 to 1997
Newfoundland	9.2%	--	--	--
Prince Edward Island	--	--	--	--
Nova Scotia	18.7%	13.6%	18.7%	0.1%
New Brunswick	14.7%	18.3%	14.7%	0.0%
Quebec	9.7%	14.0%	12.1%	2.5%
Ontario	4.6%	3.1%	3.0%	-1.6%
Manitoba	8.7%	8.6%	8.1%	-0.6%
Saskatchewan	7.2%	12.8%	8.5%	1.3%
Alberta	2.7%	5.7%	6.4%	3.7%
British Columbia	5.3%	7.9%	5.6%	0.3%
Canada	6.2%	6.3%	5.6%	-0.5%

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances, selected years.

Data will now be derived from SLID rather than SCF. Disaggregation is possible by gender of head of economic family, age of head of economic family, province, education of head of economic family, etc.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

SLID requires Statistics Canada access.

**Indicator:** II. Ratio of Earnings of Men and Women

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The pay gap between women and men is a key indicator of gender equality, and equality of opportunity between women and men. The earnings gap between all women and all men is driven by differences in time worked as well as by pay gaps in jobs. (A much higher percentage of women work part-time or for only part of the year.) The earnings gap between full-time, full-year workers is, accordingly, the most widely used indicator of the pay gap.

**Source:** Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217- XIB; Table 6.12, Statistics Canada. Catalogue no. 89-503-XPE

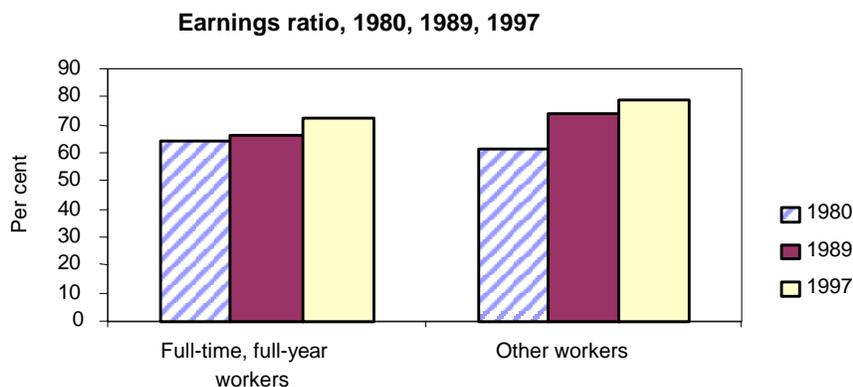
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over time:**

The full-year, full-time pay gap has closed through the 1980s and 1990s as the earnings of women have increased, while the earnings of men have stagnated.

Average annual earnings, 1980, 1989, 1997									
	Full-time, full-year workers			Other workers			All earners		
	Earnings		ratio	Earnings		ratio	Earnings		ratio
	Women	Men		Women	Men		Women	Men	
	\$		%	\$		%	\$		%
1980	27,405	42,586	64.4	9,358	15,240	61.4	17,485	33,837	51.7
1989	27,928	42,328	66.0	10,643	14,421	73.7	19,760	33,444	59.1
1997	30,915	42,626	72.5	10,870	13,821	78.6	21,167	33,185	63.8

Note: Expressed in constant 1997 dollars. Earnings ratio represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.  
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217- XIB; Table 6.12, Catalogue no. 89-503-XPE



Note: Earnings ratio represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XIB, 89-503-XPE

**Disaggregation:**

Data will now be derived from SLID rather than SCF. Disaggregation is possible by age, province, occupation, industry, education etc. Gaps are typically lower and even non-existent between well-educated younger workers.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

SLID requires Statistics Canada access.

**Indicator:** III. Intergenerational economic mobility

**Definition/ Relevance:**

In a society which provides genuine equality of opportunity, one would expect to see a high level of mobility up and down the income and socio-economic ladder between generations. In other words, income differences would reflect returns to individual skills and effort as opposed to inherited advantages (though other factors clearly come into play as well.)

**Source:** Statistics Canada study (Corak and Heisz in Cat 89-553-XIB)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998 (with the use of SLID)

**Trend over Time:**

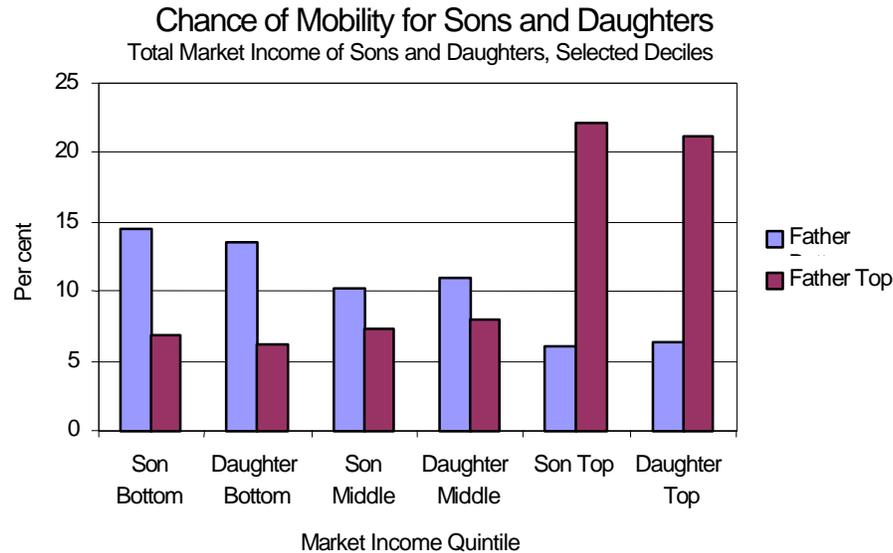
In fact, boys born to fathers in the bottom decile of earnings are, as adults much more likely to end up in the bottom decile than the top decile (14.5% vs. 6%). (13.6% vs. 6.4% for girls.) 22.1% of boys with a father in the top earnings decile ended up in the top decile, compared to just 6.9% in the bottom decile. (21.1% vs. 6.2% for girls.) However,

Transition Matrices for Sons and Daughters, Selected Deciles						
		Son's Total Market Income Decile				
		Bottom	2	5	9	Top
Father's Total Income Decile	Bottom	14.5	13.6	10.2	6.8	6.0
	2	12.4	12.3	11.0	7.0	5.9
	5	9.8	9.5	11.0	9.5	7.8
	9	7.7	8.6	8.8	12.8	14.2
	Top	6.9	7.8	7.4	12.5	22.1
		Daughter's Total Market Income Decile				
		Bottom	2	5	9	Top
Father's Total Income Decile	Bottom	13.6	11.4	11.0	7.7	6.4
	2	12.1	10.9	10.7	8.5	6.2
	5	10.5	10.2	10.3	9.5	7.6
	9	7.4	8.9	9.4	12.4	14.5
	Top	6.2	8.3	8.0	12.5	21.1

Note: Incomes have been age adjusted. Total market income refers to father's income in the late 1970s and the son's/daughter's income in 1994 (at age 28-31).

Source: Calculations by Corak and Heisz (1998) from Canadian administrative data, Statistics Canada.

inter-generational mobility appears to have been much higher in Canada than in the US or UK in the 1980s.



Source: Corak and Heisz (1998), p.87

### Disaggregation:

Further research is required.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Updating the data would require additional work by Statistics Canada.

### 1.c Poverty

**Indicator:** I. Poverty rate – LIMs

### Definition/ Relevance:

The Low Income Measure rates are defined as the head count ratios calculated on the base of a poverty line set at one half of median equivalent income.

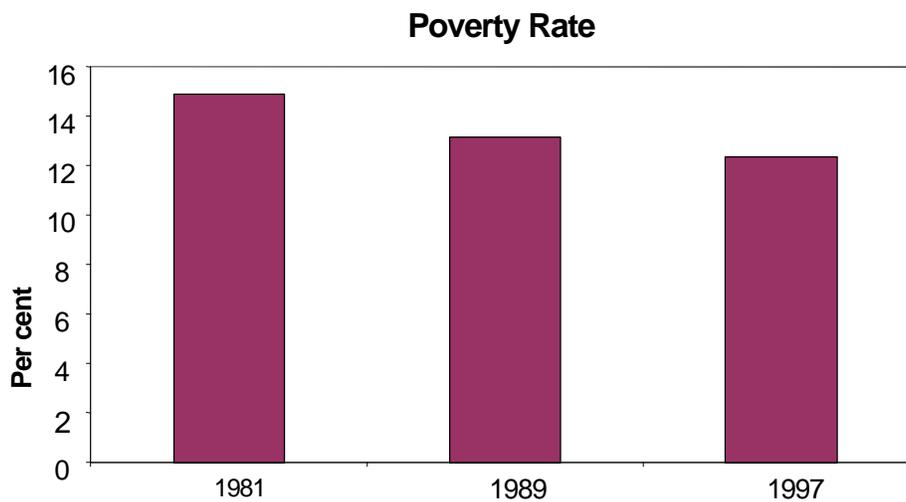
Poverty is defined here in relative terms, as falling below half of median household income (adjusted for household size, after tax.) This has become the standard benchmark for comparing the incidence of low income in advanced industrial countries. Conceptually, the LIM incorporates the view that a person or family is poor if they fall well below the social norm. This translates into exclusion in the sense of incapacity to match the consumption norms of the society, even though income may be at least barely adequate in absolute terms. Technically, changes in the LIM poverty rate are less cyclically driven than other measures, because recessions tend to affect all levels of society to some degree.

**Source:** Luxembourg Income Survey data from SCF in Osberg, L. and Sharpe A., "International Comparisons of Trends in Economic Well-being," Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Ontario, Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, January 7-9, 2000, Boston, Mass.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Relative poverty has been falling modestly over the 1980's and 1990's, perhaps reflecting the slow growth of median income.



Source: Osberg, L. and Sharpe A., "International Comparisons of Trends in Economic Well-being," Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Ontario, Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, January 7-9, 2000, Boston, Mass.

**Disaggregation:**

Data can be derived from SLID. Disaggregation is possible by age, province, occupation, industry, education etc.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

SLID requires Statistics Canada access. Statistics Canada could publish LIM data on a more complete and regular basis to supplement other more widely used poverty measures, such as pre and post tax LICOs.

**Indicator:** II. Depth of poverty – total, average

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The poverty gap is the ratio of the gap (between poverty line and mean equivalent income of those under poverty line) to poverty line.

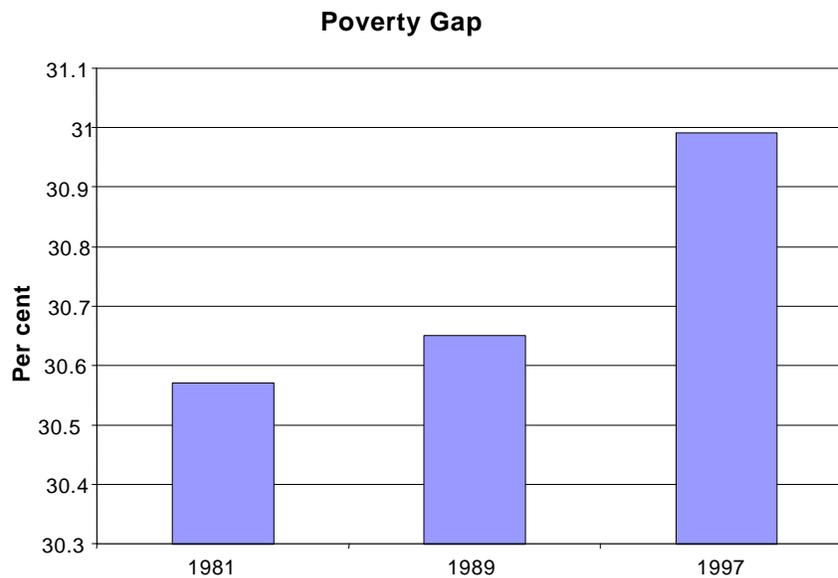
Theoretically, the rate of poverty could be reduced by redistributing income from the very poor to those just below the poverty line. From the point of view of measuring potential exclusion, we need to know not just how many people fall into poverty, but how far they fall below the poverty line. Studies show that a large portion of the poor in Canada – particularly those dependent on provincial social assistance benefits – fall well below the poverty line. This indicator primarily measures the adequacy of social benefits in terms of bringing beneficiaries closer to the social norm.

**Source:** Luxemburg Income Survey data from SCF in Osberg, L. and Sharpe A., "International Comparisons of Trends in Economic Well-being," Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Ontario, Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, January 7-9, 2000, Boston, Mass.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

The depth of poverty increased significantly in the 1990s.



Source: Luxemburg Income Survey data from SCF in Osberg, L. and Sharpe A., "International Comparisons of Trends in Economic Well-being," Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Ontario, Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, January 7-9, 2000, Boston, Mass.

**Disaggregation:**

Further research is required.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

SLID requires Statistics Canada access. Disaggregation of depth of poverty on a LIM basis requires custom tabulations.

**Indicator:** III. Duration of poverty – total, average

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The exclusionary impacts of low income are likely to be much greater the longer the period of time which is spent in poverty. The concept of an 'excluded underclass' is often used to describe those trapped in deep, continuing poverty. Canadian studies – made possible only in recent years with the SLID – show that there are significant annual flows in and out of low income, suggesting that poverty is a temporary experience for many of the poor (particularly couples). However, a large minority of the poor remain in poverty for several years, and there is a high risk of falling back into poverty for those who leave.

**Source:** Finnie, Ross (2000) "The Dynamics of Poverty in Canada - What We Know, What We Can Do", C.D. Howe Institute Commentary, No. 145, September 2000 - Table 5B. (This uses data from the LAD, a 10% sample of tax filers.)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

In the period from 1992-96, about 1 in 4 of adults (non-students aged 20 and above filing tax returns) experienced relative poverty (less than half median income) at least once, half of whom were in poverty for 3 of the 5 years.

**Total Number of Years Spent in Low Income, 1992-96 (by Family Type in First Year)**

	Never Poor	Short Term Poor - One or Two years	Long-term Poor - Three to Five years	Ever Poor
<b>Total</b>	73.6	13.1	13.4	26.4
<b>Males</b>	76.4	12.1	11.5	23.6
Single	61.2	16.6	22.3	38.8
Attached, with children	79.7	10.9	9.4	20.3
Attached, with no children	81.9	9.9	8.0	18.1
Lone parent	59.1	18.8	22.2	40.9
Filing Child	74.5	16.7	8.8	25.5
<b>Females</b>	70.8	14.0	15.2	29.2
Single	64.0	15.1	21.0	36.0
Attached, with children	72.7	14.6	12.7	27.3
Attached, with no children	85.1	9.5	5.4	14.9
Lone parent	33.3	21.6	45.2	66.7
Filing Child	74.4	16.8	8.8	25.6

Note: Low Income is based on 50 percent of median adjusted family income - an established international standard.

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Source: Finnie, Ross (2000) "The Dynamics of Poverty in Canada - What We Know, What We Can Do", C.D. Howe Institute Commentary, No. 145, September 2000 - Table 5B.

**Disaggregation:**

The Finnie paper and studies using SLID data present disaggregation showing the concentration of long term poverty among high risk groups such as single parents, some recent immigrants, persons with disabilities and the single near elderly.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research must be conducted.

**1.d Employment**

**Indicator:** I. Employment rate

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Number of persons in employment as a proportion of total population 15 years of age and over.

The employment rate is a key indicator of social participation and involvement. Most working age adults want paid work not just to earn an income, but also to develop their talents and capacities and to make a productive contribution to society. The employment rate measures social change over time as well. Entry into the work force has been delayed as more young adults remain in school, and the average age of retirement has fallen. The downward impact on the employment rate has been offset as the proportion of women seeking paid work has increased, though the employment rate for women remains lower largely because of time spent outside the work force raising children. The gradual convergence of the employment rates of men and women can be seen as a key indicator of the level of inclusion and participation of women in paid work.

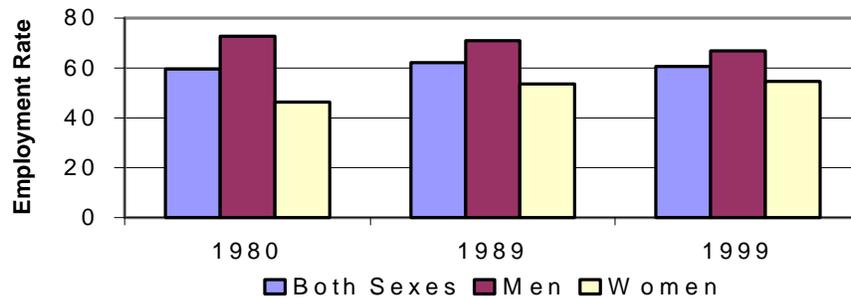
**Source:** Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

**Trend over Time:**

Employment rate trends have differed between men and women over the last decades. The employment rate of women has been increasing, while that of men has been decreasing. Overall, more than half of women and more than 2/3 of men aged 15 years and over in Canada were employed in 1999.

### Employment Rate in Canada, 1980, 1989 and 1999



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

There has been a sharp fall in the employment rates of younger and older adults. (See Tables)

The fall in the employment rate from 1989-99 mainly reflects the fall among youth. This partly reflects extended schooling, but many students want to work part-time. The decline partly reflects the relative absence of good job opportunities, and can be seen as an indicator of the growing exclusion of youth from job opportunities.

#### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation can be done by all major socio-demographic characteristics each month, with the exception of visible minorities and Aboriginals. For these groups, annual data is available from SLID.

#### Employment Rates by province, 1980, 1989 and 1999

	1980	1989	1999
Canada	59.4	62.1	60.6
Newfoundland	46.3	47.3	46.7
Prince Edward Island	53.2	56.3	56.8
Nova Scotia	51.6	55.3	55.2
New Brunswick	49.4	52.7	54.8
Québec	55.2	57.9	57
Ontario	62.2	66.4	62.4
Manitoba	60.7	62.5	63.7
Saskatchewan	60.3	61.5	62.9
Alberta	67.9	67.5	68.4
British Columbia	60.2	60.9	59.7

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

#### Employment Rates by age groups, 1980, 1989 and 1999

By age	1980	1989	1999
15 +	59.4	62.1	60.6
15 – 19	46.9	51.6	41.1
20 – 24	72.1	73.6	68.1
25 – 29	73.7	77.7	78.8
30 – 34	73.7	78.3	79.4
35 – 44	74.6	80.4	80.8

45 – 54	69.0	75.2	77.2
55 – 59	57.4	57.5	57.5
60 – 64	41.3	34.0	34.1
65 – 69	13.9	11.1	11.5
70 +	4.3	4.1	3.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Socio-demographic characteristics like members of a visible minority, persons with a disability or Aboriginal data are not available in the Labour Force Survey but can be obtained from SLID.

SLID requires access to Statistics Canada.

**Indicator:** II. Involuntary part-time employment rate

### Definition/ Relevance:

The involuntary part-time rate was calculated prior to 1997 by dividing those who reported they could only find part-time work by the total employed part-time.

The employment rate overstates (and the unemployment rate understates) the extent to which the desire of people to participate in paid work is met by the supply of available jobs in terms of hours. In 1999, just under 1 in 5 of all workers – about 1 in 5 of all adult women workers, and about 4 in 10 young workers – worked part-time. But about 1 in 3 part-timers would prefer to work full-time. Other measures of partial exclusion from the paid labour force might include employment in temporary jobs and involuntary 'own account' self-employment (as opposed to holding a paid job.)

There is growing evidence that so-called 'contingent' jobs – involuntary part-time, contract and 'own account' jobs – overlap heavily with jobs which provide low pay and benefits and, most importantly from a cohesion perspective – act as 'traps' rather than 'ladders' to better job opportunities. Many adults cycle between such 'contingent' jobs and dependency on income transfers, remaining distant from the desired social norm of holding a stable job which provides for involvement, participation and access to opportunities.

**Source:** Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey

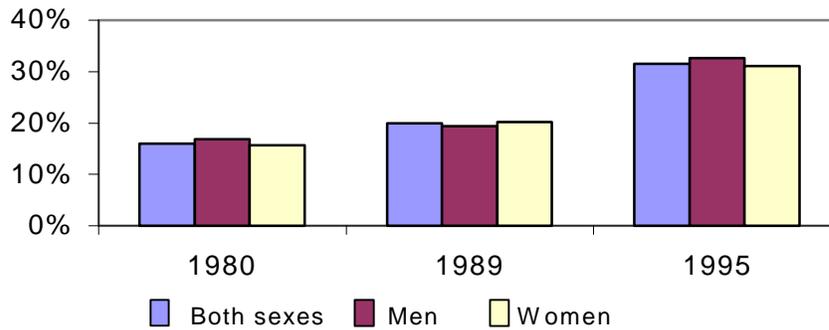
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

### Trend over Time:

Involuntary part-time working is rising; 32% of part-time workers are working part-time because they can only find this type of job.

The involuntary part-time rate is approximately the same for men and women, though a much higher proportion of women work part-time.

**Reason for part-time work: could only find part-time work.**



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

**Disaggregation:**

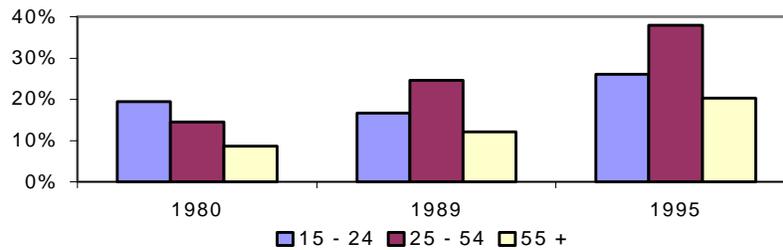
Disaggregation can be done by all major socio-demographic characteristics each month, with the exception of visible minorities and Aborigines.

**Involuntary part-time by province**

	1980	1989	1995
Canada	16.0%	19.9%	31.5%
Newfoundland	40.0%	50.2%	60.6%
Prince Edward Island	22.9%	31.3%	38.8%
Nova Scotia	20.5%	29.1%	42.9%
New Brunswick	24.0%	34.4%	44.9%
Québec	21.7%	28.3%	37.3%
Ontario	15.7%	12.5%	29.4%
Manitoba	9.0%	19.1%	27.6%
Saskatchewan	8.5%	21.1%	27.8%
Alberta	6.2%	17.0%	26.3%
British Columbia	16.1%	23.3%	27.4%

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

**Involuntary part-time by age groups, Canada, 1980, 1989 and 1995**



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

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**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Socio-demographic characteristics such as member of a visible minority and Aboriginal are not available in this survey.

*Reason for working part-time:* Prior to the introduction of the revised questionnaire in January 1997, the question on reason for working part-time was asked of all persons whose total usual work hours at all jobs or businesses were below 30 per week. Reasons included: own illness, personal or family responsibilities, going to school, could only find part-time work, did not want full-time work, other, and full-time work under 30 hours. This last category of respondents were redefined as full-time workers and not counted in any part-time estimates.

The involuntary part-time rate was calculated by dividing those who reported they could only find part-time work by the total employed part-time. Beginning January 1997, all respondents who usually worked less than 30 hours per week at their main or only job have been asked if they want to work more or less than 30 hours at a (single) job or business. Depending on the response, the main reason for working part-time is collected. For those who respond that they want to work less than 30 hours, the main reason for not wanting to work 30 or more hours per week is collected. Responses include: own illness, personal or family responsibilities, going to school, personal preference, other. For those who respond that they want to work 30 or more hours per week, the main reason for working less than 30 hours is collected. Responses include: own illness, personal or family responsibilities, going to school, business conditions, could not find work with 30 or more hours, other. Those whose response is business conditions or could not find work with 30 or more hours are then asked if they looked for work with 30 or more hours during the past four weeks. Those who searched for full-time work are considered to be involuntary part-time workers. The involuntary part-time rate is calculated by dividing this group by the total number of persons working part-time at their main or only job. The change in concepts and definitions introduced in January 1997 results in a complete break in the involuntary part-time series.

Wider Measures of Partial Labour Force Exclusion. The LFS provides monthly data on temporary and contract employment and on 'own account self-employment. Both have been rising in the 1990s, and have been seen as indicative of growing marginalisation and exclusion in the job market. Involuntary part-time, temporary and own account jobs tend to be low paid and provide few benefits. Also, there is evidence that they are more 'traps' than 'ladders' in terms of access to better job opportunities.

**Recommendation:**

Also of interest are other indicators of labour market exclusion such as the access to benefits, working time provisions etc.

**Indicator:** III. Long-term unemployment (6 months or more) as % of unemployed

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Number of persons on temporary layoff or without work for 27 weeks or more and looking for work as a proportion of total number of persons unemployed.

The long-term unemployment rate is a key indicator of exclusion from the job market and non participation in paid work. In Europe, long-term unemployment, particularly of young people and older male workers, has been seen as a key force undermining social cohesion. In Canada, as in the US, the duration of unemployment is typically much shorter than in most continental European countries, which can be seen as conducive to social cohesion. However, unemployment benefits are typically less ‘generous’ in Canada (which tightens the link between unemployment and low income) and jobs taken by the unemployed are typically more ‘precarious.’

The indicator suggests that about 20% of the working age population in Canada are long-term unemployed. However, broader measures of long-term unemployment take into account the fact that many long-term unemployed workers give up actively looking for work, in the belief or knowledge that no jobs are available.

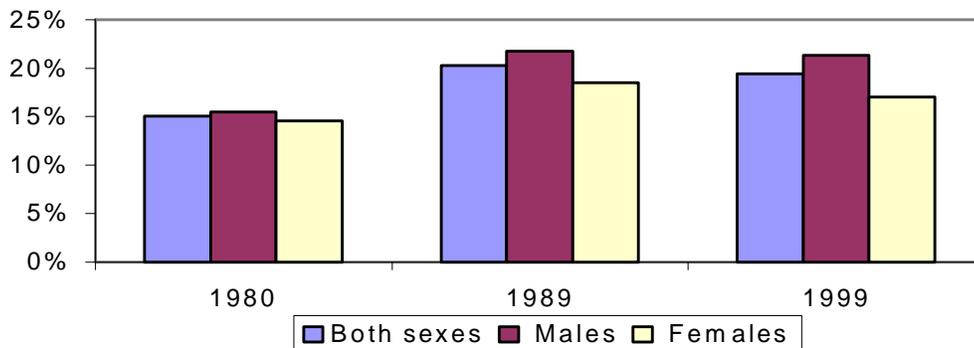
**Source:** Statistics Canada’s Labour Force Survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

**Trend over Time:**

The long term unemployment rate was higher in 1989 and 1999 than 1980. Men seem to be more affected by long term unemployment than before.

**Long Term Unemployment Rate**



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation is possible on a monthly basis for all major socio-demographic characteristics, with the exception of visible minorities and Aboriginals.

**Long term unemployment rates by province**

	1980	1989	1999
Canada	15.1%	20.3%	19.5%
Newfoundland	22.4%	21.5%	23.5%
Prince Edward Island	14.3%	13.8%	10.7%
Nova Scotia	16.1%	17.9%	15.7%
New Brunswick	20.3%	19.1%	15.3%
Québec	18.5%	27.4%	23.6%
Ontario	13.8%	13.2%	19.0%
Manitoba	10.1%	20.4%	13.7%
Saskatchewan	6.4%	20.0%	14.2%
Alberta	0.0%	17.6%	8.8%
British Columbia	12.3%	20.4%	21.5%

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

Long term employment rate by sex and age groups, Canada, 1980, 1989 and 1999

	1980		1989		1999	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
15 +	15%	15%	22%	18%	21%	17%
15 - 24	11%	11%	10%	10%	10%	8%
25 - 54	19%	17%	25%	21%	25%	20%
55 +	24%	22%	37%	34%	33%	31%

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

*Duration of unemployment:* Number of continuous weeks during which a person has been on temporary layoff or without work and looking for work. Respondents are required to look for work at least once every four weeks, they are not required to undertake job search activities each week in order to be counted as unemployed. The LFS measures the duration of incomplete spells of unemployment, since the information is collected only from those currently unemployed. A spell of unemployment is interrupted or completed by any period of work or by withdrawal from the labour force.

**Indicator:** IV. Number (%) of persons and families affected by unemployment over a year

**Definition/ Relevance:**

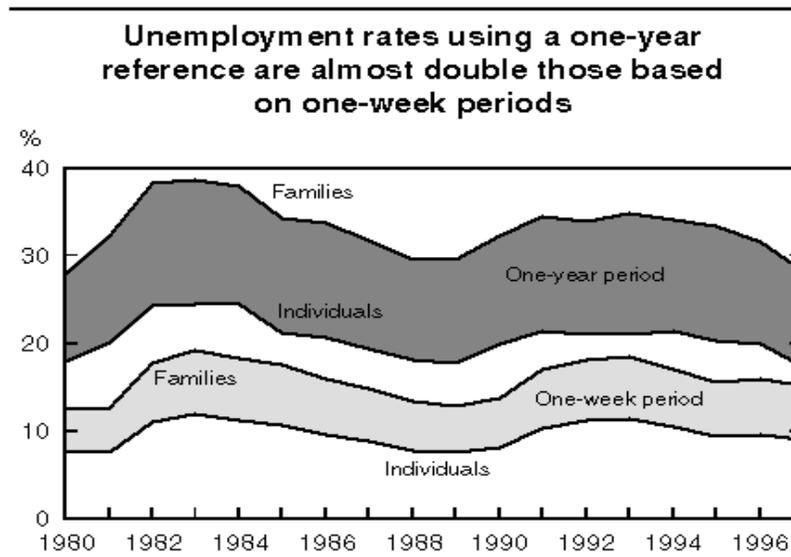
Number of weeks unemployed during the year.

Unemployment impacts a few people for a long-time, and many others for a short-time. On average, the percentage of the work force affected by unemployment in a given year in Canada is about double the ‘headline’ monthly reported unemployment rate (ie. if the average monthly unemployment rate in a year is 10%, about 1 in 5 workers will be impacted over the course of a year). The impact of unemployment is also much higher if it is examined in terms of the proportion of families affected in a given week or over the course of the year.

The annual incidence of unemployment for individuals and families is a maximum measure of vulnerability to low employment and total income, and a measure of employment and income instability. In some cases, unemployed workers will return to the same job after a temporary layoff, but in most cases unemployment is ended by finding a new job. From a social cohesion perspective, employment instability is a threat since it may undermine social relationships at the workplace and community level. There are also well-established linkages between unemployment and ill health (defined in both physical and mental terms).

**Source:** SLID/LFS

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998/1999



Source: The Daily, September 6, 2000, Statistics Canada

Note that for individuals, the proportion of unemployed at least once over the year is about double the proportion of unemployed in a given one week period in the year.

The unemployment rate among families in 1997 was more than one-and-a-half times higher than the official rate for individuals.

In 1997, the official unemployment rate for individuals was 9.1%, compared with 15.2% among families. These rates are based on the monthly Labour Force Survey's one-week reference period.

In other words, while almost 1 in every 11 people on average in the labour force was unemployed, almost one in seven families with at least one member in the labour force was affected.

This is not surprising because a family (consisting of two or more people related by blood, marriage [including common-law] or adoption, and living in the same dwelling) has greater exposure to the labour force and to the possibility of at least one member experiencing unemployment. Indeed, family unemployment rates have been consistently higher than individual unemployment rates during the past 20 years.

#### **Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation can be done by all major socio-demographic characteristics.

#### **Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

These indicators could be reported on at least an annual basis.

### **1.e Mobility**

**Indicator:** I. Interprovincial and Intraprovincial mobility

#### **Definition/ Relevance:**

This refers to the relationship between a person's usual place of residence on Census Day and his or her usual place of residence five years earlier.

The extent of geographical mobility over time is directly linked to the ability of individuals and families to maintain ongoing contact with extended family, and to form deep social relationships at the community level. Roughly 1 in 2 Canadians move house every 5 years, 1 in 4 make a major move every 5 years (moving at least between cities) and about 1 in 12 make a very major move (either immigrating to Canada or moving between provinces).

*Mobility Status: Place of Residence 5 Years Ago:* Refers to the relationship between a person's usual place of residence on Census Day and his or her usual place of residence five years earlier.

*Non-Movers:* Persons who on Census Day were living at the same address they lived at five years earlier.

**Movers:** Persons who on Census Day were living at a different address than the one they lived at five years earlier. Movers are further categorized as:

**Non-migrants:** Persons who were living at a different address but in the same census subdivision (CSD).

**Migrants:** Persons who were living in a different CSD (*internal migrants*) or outside the country (*external migrants*).

**Source:** Statistics Canada's Census 1991 and 1996

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1995

**Trend over Time:**

In 1990 and 1995, more than half (53% and 57% respectively) of the population were non-movers. Of these movers, about half were non-migrants (ie. they moved residence within a census district or city) and about half were migrants (moving residence within a city).

Interprovincial and Intraprovincial mobility in 1990 and 1995

	1990	1995	1990	1995
	Number		%	
Total	24,927,870	26,604,135	100%	100%
Non-movers	13,290,690	15,079,410	53.3%	56.7%
Movers	11,637,180	11,524,725	46.7%	43.3%
Non-migrants	5,776,215	6,130,740	49.6%	53.2%
Migrants	5,860,970	5,393,985	50.4%	46.8%
Internal migrants	4,947,645	4,465,295	84.4%	82.8%
Intraprovincial migrants	3,970,595	3,575,025	80.3%	80.1%
Interprovincial migrants	977,050	890,270	19.7%	19.9%
External migrants	913,320	928,690	15.6%	17.2%

Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1991 and 1996.

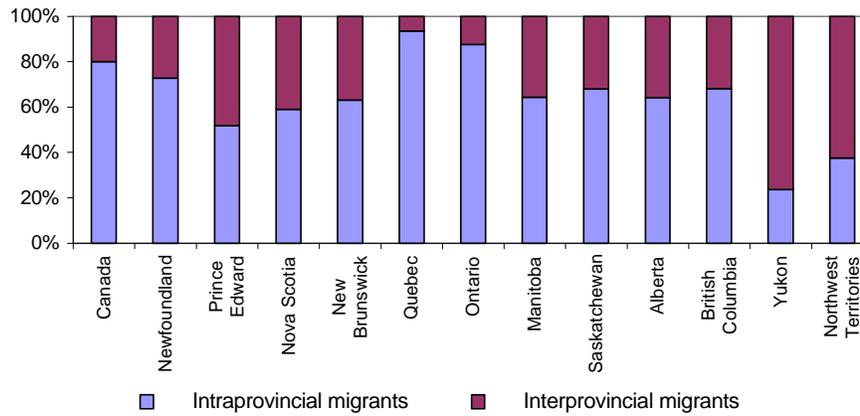
Eighty per cent of the internal migrants were people who moved from one census district (city) to another within a province (intraprovincial migrants). Some of these moves may not have been to distant locations. Twenty per cent of the internal migrants moved from one province to another.

About 20% of the migrants – or about 1 in 25 of all Canadians – were external migrants arriving from outside Canada.

**Disaggregation:**

Can be disaggregated by census socio-demographic variables.

### Intra and Interprovincial migration in Canada, 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

From a social cohesion perspective, it would be useful to determine mobility rates by age group to determine if 'core age' households are becoming more mobile.

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## Part 2 - Life Chances

### 2.a Health Care

**Indicator:** I. Private health care spending as % of household budget

**Definition/Relevance:**

Public health care (Medicare) has come to be seen as a key embodiment of Canadian values, with the basic principle being that access to needed health care should be provided as a right of citizenship – paid for out of taxes – rather than as a consumer good paid for from (unequal) incomes. To the extent that public health care is associated with better health outcomes, particularly for lower income groups, it contributes directly to equality of opportunity and life chances.

Private health care spending as a percentage of total household spending seeks to capture the extent to which Medicare does not provide full coverage. Recent increases have been seen as an indicator of the erosion of public coverage but also reflect increased spending on health care items which have never been covered (eg. drugs for those without benefit plans, eyeglasses etc.)

**Source:** Famex, Survey of Household Spending, Statistics Canada. Spending Patterns in Canada 1997, 1998. Cat no. 62-202XPB.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

In 1997 and 1998, health expenditures represented 2.3% of total household expenditures.

In 1997, households spent an average of \$1,153 on health care, up an estimated 15% from 1996. In 1998, they spent an average of \$1,191 (representing a 3% increase over 1997).

The increase between 1996 and 1997 was due mainly to spending on medicines, pharmaceutical products and health insurance premiums. The one-fifth of households in the lowest income increased their spending on health care by 23%, compared to 2% for the one-fifth of households with the highest incomes. These figures represent out of pocket expenditures on everything from dental care to vitamins, expenses not covered or reimbursed by an insurance plan.

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation is possible by income quintiles, household type (2-parent family, lone parent family, unattached individuals), age grouping, provincial data and CMAs.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Health expenditure as a % of total expenditures was used, but one can also calculate it as a percentage of total consumption.

**Indicator:** II. Health spending as % of GDP

**Definition/Relevance:**

Total health care spending can be seen as a positive indicator of social well-being and life chances, assuming that there are no great expenditure inefficiencies. Given the predominantly public nature of health care in Canada, total spending can be seen as a measure of willingness to maintain a good health care system. More sophisticated indicators would adjust the measure for changing pressures on the system driven by factors such as an ageing population.

**Source:** Canadian Institute for Health Information, National Health Expenditures 1975-1999;  
Statistics Canada; Health Statistics at a Glance;  
OECD, Health Statistics Database.

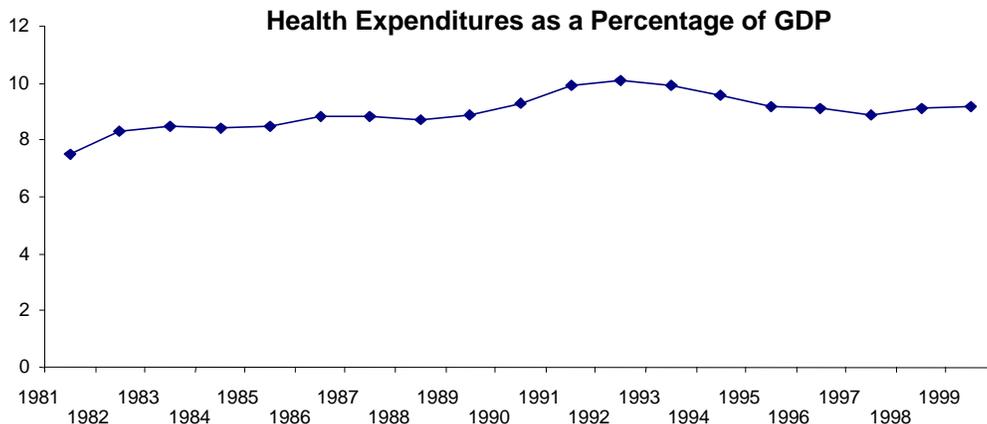
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997 (1998 and 1999 are forecasts)

**Trend over Time:**

Canada's ratio of total health care spending to Gross Domestic Product was estimated at 9.2% in 1999. It was fourth highest among the G7 countries in 1997.

Total health spending levelled off at 10.1% of GDP in 1992 and 1993 and decreased modestly until 1997.

In 1999, total public and private health care spending is expected to have reached \$86 billion, up 5% or about \$100 per person from the year before.

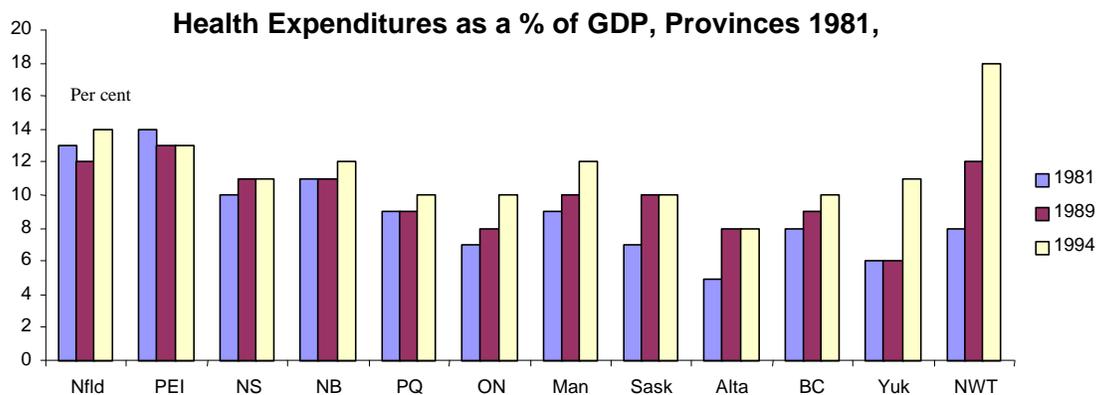


Source: Prepared by the CCSD using CIHI's National Health Expenditures, 1999.

Data on health care spending show substantial compositional changes over the last 20 years. Currently almost 70% of health care costs are publicly funded. Growth in private spending on health care expenses outpaced growth in public sector spending in the early to mid 1990s. All other G7 countries, except the US, had larger public shares of total health expenditures than Canada in 1997. However, Canada ranked 4<sup>th</sup> in terms of the level of public health care spending per person.

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation is possible through provincial comparisons and international data (comparisons with the G7 using OECD data).



Source: Statistics Canada. Health Statistics Compendium.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Data was released through Health Canada prior to 1995. Now it is part of CIHI's mandate. OECD data and statistics collected by CIHI do not match.

It is still not certain how changes in health care expenditures directly affect the health of Canadians.

Cost(s) and spending trends for treating specific diseases are not measured.

It is unsure how spending varies on health care from community to community across Canada but this data gap may soon be remedied by CIHI.

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**Indicator:** III. Health care system usage – waiting times

**Definition/Relevance:**

Waiting times are one key indicator of availability of health services relative to needs. Beyond certain limits, waiting times become injurious to health and well-being.

**Source:** Anecdotal/ Macleans Magazine Report based on CIHI source.

**Baseline Data:** No comparable studies.

**Trend over Time:**

Waiting times for services such as cancer therapy, cardiac surgery and diagnostic tests are affected by a range of factors, including changes in the burden of diseases, supply of health care practitioners, referral patterns and availability of operating room times or other resources.

Studies in several provinces confirm that ER visits peak with the winter flu season. For example, a Quebec government report published in 1999 found that the average number of visits per month was 6.7 times higher in 1998/99 than in 1994/95 due to the severity of the flu season. Similar patterns occur across Canada.

There are just “pockets” of information about “who is waiting for what and for how long.” In BC, research shows that waiting times vary from hospital to hospital and specialist to specialist. They found that waiting times for elective surgery were relatively stable between 1992/93 and 1996/97.

**Disaggregation:**

Further research would have to be conducted but is most likely the case that except for a geographic breakdown, any further disaggregation would not be possible given the lack of data.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

A research team commissioned by Health Canada to study the issue in 1998 found that there are huge data gaps and no comparable data between provinces.

Some questions that remain unanswered:

What types of services are provided in emergency room departments.

Are the waiting times in emergency rooms and other types of hospital care within the prescribed guidelines.

What are the health impacts of extended waits.

**Indicator:** IV. If you or a family member were hospitalized would you be worried about how to pay for it?

**Definition/Relevance:**

This indicator is relevant to the sense of trust Canadians have in the social provision of health care and may also reflect levels of financial insecurity.

**Source:** CCSD/PSI survey

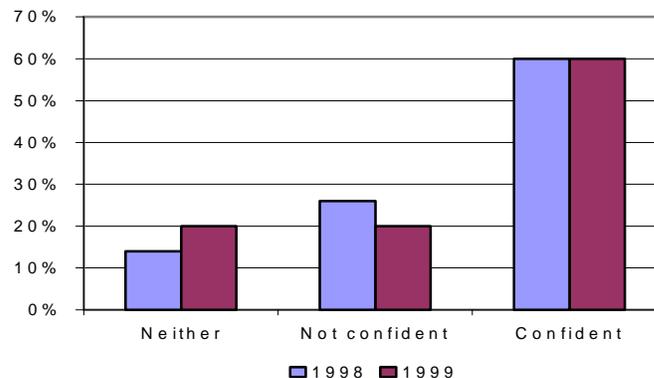
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – December 1999

**Trend over Time:**

Government cut-backs to the health care system have caused many Canadians to worry that they will not have access to affordable and adequate health services. Long waiting lists, crowded emergency rooms, shortened hospital stays, and the growing cost of medications have all contributed to peoples’ concerns about their health security. The CCSD’s PSI monitors Canadians’ level of confidence in the health care system.

Perhaps due to ongoing changes and uncertainties regarding the health care system, less than two-thirds of Canadians in 1999 were confident that they would have access to the necessary health care services should the need arise. This proportion remained relatively stable between 1998 and 1999, at 60 per cent. However, 26 per cent of respondents in 1998 expressed a lack of confidence, and this fell to 20 per cent in 1999, indicating an improvement in confidence levels.<sup>1</sup>

"I am confident that if I or a family member were to become seriously ill, we would be able to access the necessary health care services."

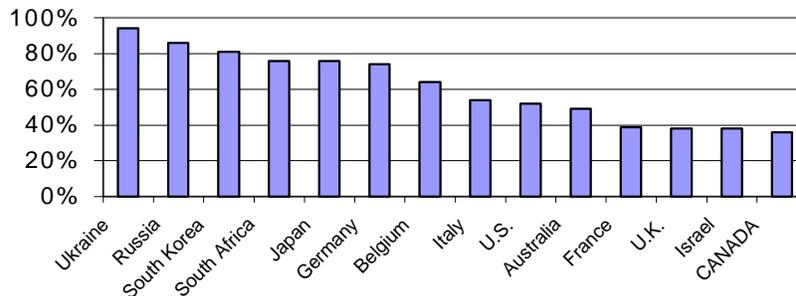


Source: CCSD Personal Security Index 2000

<sup>1</sup> Respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: "I am confident that if I or a member of my family were to become ill, we would be able to access the necessary health care services." The scale ranged from one (for "strongly disagree") to seven (for "strongly agree"), with a rating of four indicating that the respondent either agreed nor disagreed with the statement.

Compared to people in other countries, Canadians have a high level of confidence in their access to health care services. In response to the survey question: “If a member of my family had to be hospitalized, I would be worried about how to pay for it,” only 36 per cent of Canadians expressed worry compared to 38 per cent of people in the U.K., 52 per cent in the U.S., 74 per cent in Germany, 76 per cent in Japan, and 86 per cent in Russia.

**"If a member of my family had to be hospitalized,  
I would be worried about how to pay for it."**



Source: Angus Reid. *Canada and the World Report 1997*.

### Disaggregation:

Across the country, the highest proportion of people expressing confidence in Canada's healthcare system were in Saskatchewan and Manitoba (67 per cent), with the lowest levels of confidence expressed by residents of Quebec (59 per cent) and B.C. (55 per cent). Women were less confident than men (57 per cent versus 64 per cent) and people aged 18 to 34 had the highest confidence level of any age group (68 per cent).

Confidence in the health care system increased with education level and income. Two-thirds of those with incomes of \$60,000 or more expressed confidence in the health care system, compared to 54 per cent of those with incomes of \$30,000 or less. And 64 per cent of university graduates expressed confidence compared to 52 per cent of those who did not complete high school. Single people without children were the most confident that they would be able to access necessary health care services (69 per cent), but only 52 per cent of lone parents expressed similar confidence.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

PSI has to continue to keep tracking these indicators.

**Indicator:** V. If you were ill at home, is there a friend, family member who would look after you?

**Definition/Relevance:**

This indicator is directly relevant to social cohesion in terms of measuring the availability of social supports in time of need.

**Source:** CCSD/PSI survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – December 1999

**Trend over Time:**

*Can Canadians rely on informal health care and social support in time of need?*

Not all health care is delivered through the formal health care system: much is provided by family, friends and neighbours. Having such social support provides a sense of security in the event that health problems strike. The following question was asked in the survey: “If you were seriously ill at home, is there a friend, neighbour or family member who would look after you?”

Overall, 86 per cent responded that they could rely on social supports in the event of a serious illness.

**Disaggregation:**

There were regional variations, ranging from a high of 90 per cent in the Atlantic provinces to 81 per cent in Quebec. The responses did not vary by gender, but the proportion who indicated having social supports declined by age, falling from a high of 90 per cent among those aged 18 to 34, to 82 per cent among those aged 55 and older.

There was little difference by education level, but households with incomes of \$30,000 or less registered a lower level of support (80 per cent) than households with incomes of \$60,000 or more (89 per cent).

There were variations by employment status. Retired persons registered a support rate of 80 per cent, compared to 91 per cent among the self-employed, and 89 per cent among part-time workers.

Only three-quarters of people living alone thought they could count on social support. And while 80 per cent of lone parents said they could count on support, this was less than the 89 per cent reported by married couples with children.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

This question was not asked in 1998, so it is not known whether there has been any change. However, this question will be asked in subsequent years.

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## 2.b Education

**Indicator:** I. Private education spending as % household budget

**Definition/Relevance:**

High and/or rising levels of participation in private education can be viewed as potentially undermining social cohesion. This can take place by undermining the 'commonality' of public education and the shared inculcation of civic values which takes place in the public education system; and/or by undermining equality of opportunity and life-chances through cost barriers to (high quality) education. While higher education remains overwhelmingly public, more of the costs have been privatized in recent years, potentially undercutting access.

**Source:** Statistics Canada. FAMEX (now replaced by the Household Spending Survey)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Spending on education in 1998 increased by 3% from 1997 to an average of \$679. Forty-three per cent of households reported an expenditure on education. For these households, the average amount spent was \$1,565 or 1.3% of total household expenditures.

Spending on education in 1997 increased by 19% from 1996 to an average of \$659, due largely to a sharp rise in spending on Post Secondary Education (PSE) tuition fees.

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation is possible by family type, income quintiles, provincial and selected city data.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Total expenditure includes total consumption plus personal taxes, personal insurance, pension plans and gifts of money. Total expenditure cannot be used to compare data before 1996.

Data should be collected on participation in private pre and post secondary education, which remains very low compared to many other countries.

**Indicator:** II. Average student debt

**Definition/Relevance:**

This is an indicator of potential loss of equality of opportunity arising from cost barriers to participation in PSE. While debt is a sign of access rather than lack of access, others may have chosen not to participate, and heavily indebted students may be placed at a disadvantage compared to other students (eg. in terms of access to graduate school, future career options).

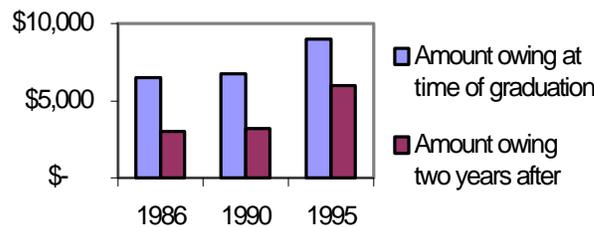
**Source:** National Graduates Survey, Statistics Canada

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

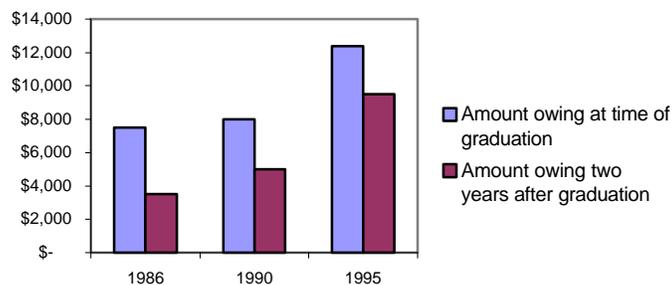
The student debt level for the class of 1995 was higher than for the graduating classes from 1990 and 1986 (in 1995 constant dollars). The average 1995 graduate who borrowed from a government program owed 38% more in student loans than the average 1990 graduate and 61% more than the average 1986 graduate (Class of 1995, HRDC).

**Average amount (in 1995\$) owing to a student loan program by college graduates who borrowed money to a student loan program, at the time of graduation and two years after graduation, by year of graduation.**



Source: Report of the 1997 National Survey of 1995

**Average amount (in 1995\$) owing to a student loan program by university graduates who borrowed money to a student loan program, at the time of graduation and two years after graduation, by year of graduation.**



Source: Report of the 1997 National Survey of 1995 Graduates (HRDC)

Despite their relative success at finding work, university and college graduates in 1995 who borrowed from a student loan program – 48% and 46%, respectively – were paying off their student loans at a slower rate than previous graduating classes. The higher levels for the class of '95 compared to earlier years are the result of having a higher debt level at the time of graduation and a lower level of reimbursement two years after graduation. (Class of 1995, HRDC).

**Disaggregation:**

Could be disaggregated by age, province, education of parents and field of study.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The main content of the NGS survey contains data on the link between education experience and outcomes; program characteristics; activities before completing studies; information on jobs held since graduation; financial and loan information; reasons for enrolling in post-secondary education; satisfaction with education; activities since completing post-secondary studies; employability skills; additional training after graduation; and socio-economic background. It calculates student loans only for post-secondary graduates. This survey is potentially a rich source of data on changes in equality of opportunity.

**Indicator:** III. High school Dropout Rates

**Definition/Relevance:**

The proportion of high school dropouts expressed as a percentage of the age cohort is a key indicator of vulnerability to economic exclusion and marginalization in a 'knowledge based economy' and of potential social and civic exclusion because of low literacy and numeracy levels. The 'dropout rate' has often been overstated by failure to take into account the fact that many young adults who apparently 'dropout' in fact return to complete high school after a period of absence. In light of traditionally high estimates of non-completion (in the range of 30%), Employment and Immigration Canada commissioned Statistics Canada to conduct a School Leavers Survey (SLS) to estimate the magnitude of the problem and to identify the circumstances associated with dropping out. The 'true' dropout rate is, in fact, under 20%.

**Source:** After High School: The First Years, 1996 (HRDC)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1995

**Trend over Time:**

By age 24, only 15% of youth had left high school without graduating. Based on the results of the 1991 School Leavers Survey, the school leaver rate of 20-year-olds was 18%. (Only youth aged 20 were included in this calculation because substantial proportions of those aged 18 and 19 were still in high school.) Now, data from the 1995 School Leavers Follow-up Survey indicate that by the time these people had reached

age 24, the high school leaver rate was down to 15%. For some, finishing high school is a longer process than it is for others.

High school leaver rates of youth aged 20 in 1991 and 24 in 1995, Canada and the provinces		
	1991 (age 20)	1995 (age 24)
Canada	18%	15%
Newfoundland	24%	19%
Prince Edward Island	25%	21%
Nova Scotia	22%	17%
New Brunswick	20%	16%
Québec	22%	19%
Ontario	17%	14%
Manitoba	19%	14%
Saskatchewan	16%	11%
Alberta	14%	11%
British Columbia	16%	13%

Source: After High School: The First Years, 1996 (HRDC)

In 1991, 63% of youth aged 18 to 20 were high school graduates, 16% were school leavers (had left high school without graduating), and 21% were high school continuers (still attending high school). By 1995, these young people were aged 22 to 24: 85% had graduated and 14% were school leavers. In absolute numbers, over 160,000 youth aged 22 to 24 in 1995 had left high school without completing their diploma. Only 1% of youth aged 22 to 24 were still attending high school in 1995.

One-quarter of the youth who were high school leavers in 1991 had completed high school by 1995. Among youth who were high school leavers as of 1991, 25% returned to high school and had obtained their diploma by 1995. In addition nearly nine in ten (88%) of those who were still attending high school in 1991 (high school continuers) had graduated by 1995.

### Disaggregation:

Young women aged 22 to 24 in 1995 were more likely than young men of the same age to have completed high school. Among women aged 22 to 24, 89% had completed their high school diploma by 1995, while 10% were still classified as high school leavers. In comparison, 81% of young men had graduated from high school by 1995 and 18% were high school leavers. Men accounted for nearly two-thirds of people aged 22 to 24 who had not completed high school by 1995. This gender pattern – where smaller proportions of men than of women were high school graduates – was evident in every province.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

The term "dropout" has been used to describe all high school non-completers regardless of the reasons or conditions which marked their leaving. It also carries a pejorative or stigmatizing connotation associated with individual failure. Non-completers are, however, a relatively heterogeneous group. The more neutral designation "school leaver" is used to describe the SLS findings.

School Leavers Survey: this survey collected information on the level of education attained, experiences in school, family background, etc., from individuals 18-20 years old who are classified into one of three groups: dropped out of high school before graduation; still in high school; and graduated. YITS could become a useful databank, starts in 2000-2001.

**Indicator:** IV. Ratio of high school graduates who do not go on to PSE/training

**Definition/Relevance:**

In a 'knowledge based economy', high school graduation may be considered insufficient to provide access to reasonably paid employment or opportunities to access 'career ladders.'

**Source:** High School May Not Be Enough: An Analysis of Results from the School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995 (HRDC);  
After High School: the first years, 1996 (HRDC)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1995

**Trend over Time:**

High school graduates are most likely to have taken further education or training. Four out of five youth (80%) who were high school graduates in 1995 undertook further education or training toward a certificate, diploma or degree beyond high school. In contrast, this was the case for just one in four high school leavers (24%). Some non-graduates may have chosen not to enroll, while others may have been unable to do so because they lacked required credentials.

Among high school graduates, a larger proportion of women (83%) than of men (77%) had gone on to further their education or training toward a certificate, diploma or degree beyond high school. Among high school leavers, however, men (26%) were somewhat more likely than women (20%) to have gone on to further their education or training.

Four in ten high school graduates attend university. Among high school graduates, 42% received university education. Female high school graduates (45%) were somewhat more likely than their male counterparts (39%) to have taken university-level education. About the same proportion of female (30%) and male high school graduates (28%) had attended college or CEGEP. (These proportions do not include high school graduates who also attended university.) Also, 7% of high school graduates took further education or training at a trade or vocational school, or through a registered apprenticeship program. Male high school graduates (9%) were slightly more likely than their female counterparts (5%) to have undergone this type of education or training. (These proportions do not include high school graduates who also attended university, college or CEGEP.) An additional 2% of high school graduates had received education or training toward a certificate, diploma or degree through some other type of program. Examples included those offered by private business or commercial schools, and

programs offered by various professional associations (eg., accounting, banking or insurance). (The above proportion does not include high school graduates who also attended university, college or CEGEP, or who received trade, vocational or apprenticeship training.)

Twelve per cent of high school leavers receive trade, vocational or apprenticeship training. Among those who had not graduated from high school, 12% received further education or training at a trade or vocational school, or through a registered apprenticeship program. Getting further education of this type was most common among young men who had left high school (15%). (These proportions do not include high school leavers who also attended university, college or CEGEP.) In addition, 8% of high school leavers took further education or training at a college or CEGEP. (This does not include a very small proportion of high school leavers who also attended university.)

**Disaggregation:**

Further research must be conducted. Need access to SLS.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

YITS could become a useful databank for this indicator.

**2.c Adequate and Affordable Housing**

**Indicator:** I. Housing cost as % of household income

**Definition/Relevance:**

Housing is an important dimension of well-being in terms of quality and suitability. Both have been linked to health and developmental outcomes for children. Affordability is a major concern for many lower income households, and housing costs – particularly rental costs – can squeeze other areas of household budgets, undermining equality of opportunity and life chances.

**Source:** Statistics Canada, Survey of Household Spending, 1998;  
Statistics Canada, The Nation Series, Catalogue no. 93F0030XDB96015  
and 93F0030XDB96016

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Census data show that more than 4 of 10 renters pay more than 30% of their income on shelter costs.

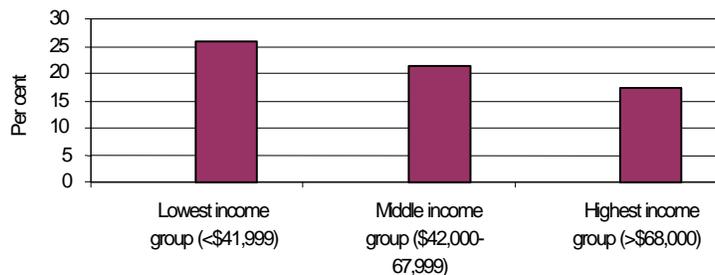
<b>Private Households with Income by Tenure and Housing Affordability, Showing Number, Average Shelter Costs and Average Household Income, for Canada, 1996 Census (20% Sample Data)</b>			
	Private households with income	Average shelter costs (\$)	Average household income (\$)
Total - Tenure and housing affordability	10,534,760	696	48,766
Total - Owned	6,666,880	754	59,285
With mortgage	3,544,185	1,128	63,686
<30% of household income spent on shelter costs	2,612,080	1,056	74,526
>30% of household income spent on shelter costs	932,105	1,331	33,309
Without mortgage	3,122,695	330	54,289
<30% of household income spent on shelter costs	2,925,800	325	57,255
>30% of household income spent on shelter costs	196,900	402	10,213
Total - Rented	3,867,880	595	30,635
<30% of household income spent on shelter costs	2,197,105	566	43,212
>30% of household income spent on shelter costs	1,670,775	634	14,096

Note: non-farm, non-reserve dwellings

Source: Statistics Canada, The Nation Series, Catalogue no. 93F0030XDB96015 and 93F0030XDB96016

For families in the highest income group (>\$68,000), shelter costs accounted for 17.2 % of their total expenditures. In the lowest income group (<\$41,999), shelter costs comprised 25.7% of total expenditures, while they accounted for 21.5% of expenditures for middle income families.

**Families with children under 17 years by shelter expenditures as a percentage of total expenditure, 1998**



Total expenditure includes expenditure on personal income tax

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Household Spending, 1998

### Disaggregation:

Further research must be conducted.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Data are available on housing suitability (eg. degree of crowding) and state of repair which could be included in a future set of indicators. Recent CCSD research has established important linkages between problem housing and child outcomes.

**Indicator:** II. Renter/owner ratio

**Definition/Relevance:**

The extent of home-ownership can be seen as an indicator of community stability and owner occupied housing has been viewed as desirable in terms of giving households a major 'stake' in society. Owner occupied housing is likely to be more suitable for families with children.

**Source:** Census or FAMEX, HFE

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

**Trend over Time:**

In 1995, there were 1.74 owners for every renter in Canada. The owners/renters ratio is highest in Atlantic Canada and on the prairies, and lowest in Quebec and the North.

	% Owners	% Renters	Owners/renters ratio
Canada	63.6%	36.4%	1.74
Newfoundland	77.1%	22.9%	3.37
Prince Edward Island	72.1%	27.9%	2.58
Nova Scotia	70.4%	29.6%	2.38
New Brunswick	73.8%	26.2%	2.81
Quebec	56.5%	43.5%	1.30
Ontario	64.3%	35.7%	1.80
Manitoba	66.4%	33.6%	1.97
Saskatchewan	68.8%	31.2%	2.20
Alberta	67.8%	32.2%	2.11
British Columbia	65.2%	34.8%	1.87
Yukon Territory	58.6%	41.5%	1.41
Northwest Territories	38.6%	61.4%	0.63

Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996 Nation Series.

**Disaggregation:** Not available.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

FAMEX and HFE are no longer being developed.

## 2.c Adequate and affordable Housing

**Indicator:** III. Homelessness

### **Definition/Relevance:**

Homelessness is defined as those who are absolutely, periodically, or temporally without shelter, as well as those who are at substantial risk of being in the street in the immediate future, as used by Springer, J.H., J.H. Mars, and Melissa Dennison in “A Profile of the Homeless Population in Toronto” Report Prepared for the Homelessness Action Task Force, Draft, June, 1998.

The Springer, Mars, Dennison report for the Task Force based its estimates of the homeless population on a careful analysis of a nine-year data set (from 1988 to 1996) maintained by the Hostel Services Division of the new City of Toronto. These data allow the number of different individual users of the shelter/hostel system in the city to be counted on an average daily basis as well as over the nine-year period. Thus, we obtain an analysis of homelessness over time, avoiding problems inherent in a simple ‘snapshot’ approach, and are less likely to have excluded any people affected by homelessness in this period.

**Source:** *Taking Responsibility for Homelessness: An Action Plan for Toronto.* Report of the Mayor’s Homelessness Action Task Force (1999).

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

### **Trend over Time:**

In 1996, almost 26,000 different individuals, or about 3,200 per night, used hostels in Toronto, and this increased during the winter months. One hundred and seventy thousand (170,000) different individuals used shelters in the nine years between 1988 and 1996.

Families represented about 46% of the people using hostels in Toronto in 1996. Based on data for Toronto, youth under the age of 18 and families with children are the fastest growing group of homeless and at-risk populations. In fact, 19% of the homeless population were children.

Between 30 and 35% of homeless people suffer from mental illness, although the estimates are higher for particular segments of the population. For example, 75% of homeless women suffer from mental illness.

About 17% of hostel users stayed in the hostel system for at least one year. This group of “chronic hostel users” account for about 46% of the beds and services.

More than one-third of applicants for social housing in Toronto have incomes of less than \$800 a month, and 100,000 people are on the waiting list for social housing.

Nearly half (47%) of hostel users in Toronto come from outside the city.

### **Disaggregation:**

Seventy one per cent of hostel users were male and 29% were female.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

There is no survey or national data available that determines/estimates the number of homeless.

We would have to rely on a random survey of social service agencies in large metropolitan centres. HRDC is currently working on a project to compile data.

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## Part 3 - Quality of Life

### 3.a Population Health

**Indicator:** I. Potential years of life lost (before age 75)

**Definition/Relevance:**

Potential Years of Life Lost (PYLL) is the ratio of the total years of life lost before the age of 75 to the population under 75 years of age. This is an indicator of premature death. Declining death due to ill health is an indirect indicator of improving social, economic and environmental conditions (and vice versa). Inclusion and active participation as well as quality of life can be seen as directly undermined by ill health and premature death.

**Source:** Health Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

Canada's rate of premature death continues to drop. Every year, thousands of Canadians die prematurely from injuries or disease. One way to measure the impact of these causes of death is by calculating how many years the person might have lived had they not died prematurely (meaning before the age of 75, the average life expectancy for men). This indicator is known as the "potential years of life lost" or PYLL. It is a ratio of the total years of life lost before the age of 75 to the population under 75 years of age.

Canada's PYLL declined between 1990 and 1997, indicating that fewer people are dying prematurely from various diseases and injuries.<sup>1</sup> In 1997, potential years of life lost were 55 years per 1,000 persons. This compares to 63 potential years of life lost per 1,000 persons in 1990, representing a 13 per cent reduction. Between 1996 and 1997, a drop of 1.5 years per 1,000 persons was recorded, representing a 2.6 per cent improvement in one year.

The three leading causes of potential years of life lost account for 69 per cent of the total years lost: cancer accounted for 29 per cent; unintentional injuries (accidents, poisonings, violence) and suicide accounted for 22 per cent; and cardiovascular disease accounted for 18 per cent. Between 1996 and 1997, the contribution to years lost decreased by about 3 per cent for each of these three leading causes of death.

The drop in the PYLL was particularly notable with respect to cardiovascular disease – which fell by 13 per cent between 1990 and 1997. However, premature deaths from cancer decreased by only 4 per cent between 1990 and 1997. The continuing high rates of potential years of life lost due to cancer were largely the result of the high incidence of lung and breast cancers.

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<sup>1</sup> Walsh, P. Cardiovascular Disease Division, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, Health Canada. Personal communication, January-February 2000.

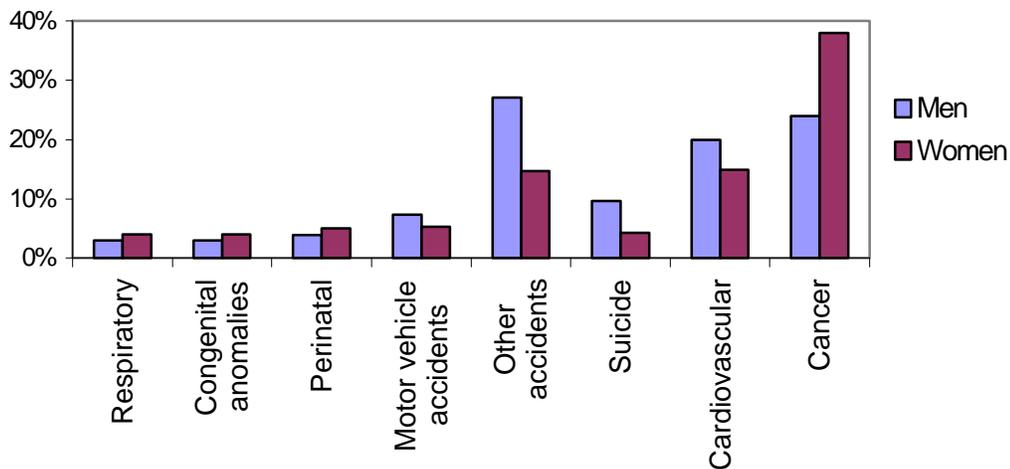
**Disaggregation:**

Of particular concern is the increase in the incidence of lung cancer. Teenaged girls are now more likely to smoke than adolescent boys, and if the increased rates of smoking among young women are not reversed, lung cancer rates among women will continue to climb.

Equally troubling is the incidence of suicide, which made up just under eight per cent of the total of potential years lost in 1997, down slightly from 1996. Canada's suicide rate remains high, particularly among young men. Diabetes is another cause of premature loss that has been rising. Years lost due to diabetes rose 25 per cent between 1990 and 1997, compared to the 13 per cent drop in Canada's PYLL due to all causes. This increase in years lost due to diabetes was particularly concentrated among men, rising by 40 per cent compared to a 7 per cent rise in years lost among women.

In other areas, more noticeable progress was being made. Deaths from motor vehicle crashes, which accounted for 7 per cent of total years lost, were down 31 per cent from 1990. Potential years lost due to HIV/AIDS rose by 70 per cent between 1990 and 1995, but between 1995 and 1997, the rate fell by 66 per cent, due in part to enhanced treatments.

**Reasons For Potential Years of Life Lost**



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using data from Health Canada, Laboratory Centre For Disease Control.

There were considerable gender differences in the premature loss of life before age 75. In 1997, the rate for men was 1.7 times that for women. The leading cause of potential years of life lost for women was cancer, accounting for 38 per cent of total years lost, compared to 24 per cent for men. For men, the leading cause was unintentional injuries and suicides (27 per cent). For women, this category accounted for only 15 per cent of

total years lost. Cardiovascular disease caused the premature death of a higher percentage of men (20 per cent) than women (15 per cent).

People who are economically disadvantaged are more vulnerable to early death due to a variety of causes. A 1995 Canadian study found that residents of the poorest neighbourhoods had significantly higher death rates from cardiovascular disease, lung cancer, injuries and suicide than the rates among residents in the richest neighbourhoods.<sup>2</sup> If the death rates in the highest income group for all causes of death were applied to all Canadians, more than one-fifth of all years of life lost before age 65 could be prevented.

In a 1995 comparison among the developed countries of the OECD which ranked countries by the potential years of life lost, Canada fell behind Australia, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden. Canada had the same rate as the U.K., and they ranked ahead of the U.S.<sup>3</sup>

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research is required.

**Indicator:** II. Major reasons for death (leading causes of death)

**Definition/Relevance:**

As with years of life lost.

**Source:** Statistics Canada. Deaths;  
Statistics Canada. Vital Statistics.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over time:**

The average life expectancy of Canadians born in 1997 is 78.6 years – 75.8 years for men and 81.4 years for women. Provincially, life expectancy varies among women from a low of 79.8 years in Newfoundland, to 82.7 years in Prince Edward Island, while for men it varies from 74.3 years in Newfoundland, to 76.6 years in B.C.<sup>4</sup> Since 1987, men have gained 2.5 years in life expectancy and women have gained 1.4 years. This continuing trend is the result of impressive advances over the 20<sup>th</sup> century in Canada's sanitation practices, the prevention and treatment of diseases, and increased access to health services.

<sup>2</sup> Wilkins, R. "Mortality by Neighbourhood Income in Canada, 1986 to 1991." Paper presented at the Conference of the Canadian Society for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, St. John's, Newfoundland, August 1995.

<sup>3</sup> OECD. *OECD Health Data 1999: Comparative Analysis on 29 Countries*. (CD-ROM).

<sup>4</sup> Statistics Canada. "Deaths 1997," in *The Daily*, May 13, 1999.

However, cancer and heart disease remain serious threats to the health of Canadians. In 1997, these two diseases accounted for 54 per cent of all deaths.<sup>5</sup> While overall cancer death rates for men have declined, the rates among women have been stubbornly persistent. Suicide rates among young men are high in Canada compared to rates in other countries. And suicides among Aboriginal peoples are reported to be two to seven times higher than among the Canadian population at large.

In addition to gender, geography and population group, income also plays a role in determining life expectancy. According to a 1991 study, Canadian men in the top quarter of the income distribution can expect to live 6.3 years longer and 14.3 more years free of disability than men in the bottom quarter of the income distribution. For women, the differences are three and 7.6 years respectively.<sup>6</sup>

Canada does well in international comparisons of life expectancy. Among 24 developed countries in 1997, life expectancy for Canadian men ranked behind only Japan and Sweden. Among women, Canada ranked behind Japan, Sweden, France, Spain, and Switzerland. Compared to the U.S., both Canadian men and women could expect to live 2.5 years longer.<sup>7</sup>

The preceding section provides an extensive breakdown of reasons for premature loss of life.

**Disaggregation:** Available from Vital Statistics

The top ten leading causes of death for males and females. Leading causes of death and age standardized mortality rates by sex. Deaths and crude mortality rates by age, Canada and the provinces & territories 1986-1996. International – age standardized mortality rates in OECD member countries by sex, selected causes 1992-1995. Hospitalization data by cause is much less reliable at this time than Vital Statistics data.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Data release is often slow – not released yearly.

**Indicator:** III. How would you rate your own health?

**Definition/Relevance:**

Research has shown that one of the most reliable indicators of a person's health status is, quite simply, their own assessment of their health. With that in mind, the PSI incorporates a survey question which asks Canadians to rate their own health. This can be taken as a broad indicator of well-being and of hope.

**Source:** CCSD/PSI survey

<sup>5</sup> Statistics Canada. "Deaths 1997," in *The Daily*, May 13, 1999.

<sup>6</sup> Robin, J. and Ritchie, K. "Healthy Life Expectancy: Evaluation of Global Indicators of Change in Population Health," in *British Medical Journal* 302 (1991): 457-60.

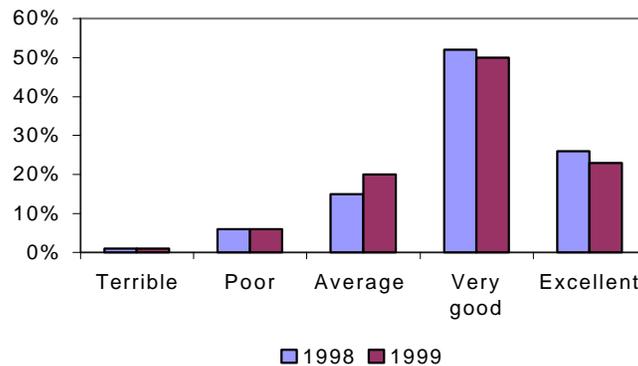
<sup>7</sup> Statistics Canada. *Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada 1998-1999*. Ottawa: Ministry of Industry, December 1999.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

In 1999, 73 per cent of respondents reported being in good or excellent health, representing a decline from 78 per cent in 1998. Twenty per cent considered themselves to be in average health, up from 15 per cent in 1998, and seven per cent considered themselves to be in poor or terrible health, the same proportion as in 1998.

**"How would you rate your health?"**



Source: CCSD Personal Security Index

**Disaggregation:**

Residents of Quebec were the most likely to rate their health as excellent (31 per cent), whereas only 19 per cent of residents in the Prairies reported being in excellent health. The proportion of those reporting excellent health declined with age, and a greater proportion of women (26 per cent) than men (21 per cent) said their health was excellent.

These survey results also correspond with existing research which shows that non-medical factors – such as income and education – have an important impact on people’s health. Eighty-three per cent of Canadians with a household income over \$60,000 reported being in good or excellent health, but only 62 per cent of Canadians with incomes of less than \$30,000 rated their health in this way. And only 5 per cent of high-income Canadians reported being in poor health, compared to 12 per cent of low-income Canadians. Eighty-two per cent of Canadians with a university education reported being in good or excellent health, compared to 54 per cent of those with less than a high school certificate.

Employment status also appears to be linked to health. Eighty per cent of those working full-time reported good or excellent health, while only 62 per cent of respondents who were unemployed did so. Moreover, 14 per cent of the unemployed reported being in poor or terrible health.

By family type, lone-parents gave the most negative assessments of their health. Seventy per cent rated their health good or excellent, compared to 76 per cent of married couples with children. And 10 per cent of lone-parents reported poor or terrible health, compared to 6 per cent of married couples with children.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Indicators from CCSD's PSI.

**Indicator:** IV. How stressful is your life?

**Definition/Relevance:**

A growing feature of modern life is the prevalence of stress. The strains and insecurities of a changing labour market, combined with the family obligations of working parents have made life more stressful for a growing number of Canadians. Stress has serious consequences for people's health. It has been linked to work-related injuries, exhaustion, cardiovascular disease, and psychological distress. As an indicator of insecurity and well-being, the PSI tracks the proportion of Canadians who reported that their lives were stressful.<sup>8</sup>

**Source:** CCSD. PSI survey

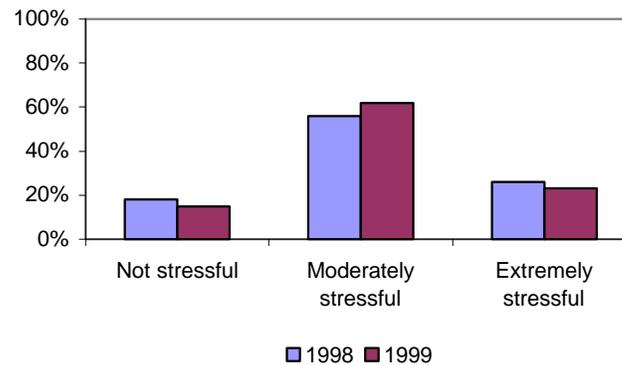
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

In 1999, 23 per cent of Canadians described their lives as extremely stressful, down from 26 per cent in 1998. However, 62 per cent described their lives as moderately stressful, up from 56 per cent in 1998. The proportion of Canadians who said their lives were not stressful at all fell from 18 to 15 per cent. There was a shift away from the two extremes towards the middle, with a greater proportion of Canadians feeling moderately stressed in 1999 compared to a year earlier.

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<sup>8</sup> The question asked: "How stressful would you say your life is? Please use a scale from one, not at all, to seven, extremely, where the midpoint, four, is moderately." For this question, ratings of 6 and 7 were used to build our overall score for "extremely stressful," ratings of 3 to 5 for "moderately stressful," and ratings of 1 and 2 for "not stressful."

**"How stressful is your life?"**

Source: CCSD PSI, 1998 and 1999.

**Disaggregation:**

Across the country, residents of Ontario and the Prairie provinces reported living the most stressful lives (27 per cent), while residents of Quebec reported the least stressful lives (18 per cent).

Men were more likely than women to describe their lives as not stressful (18 per cent compared to 14 per cent). Age was also a factor, as 28 per cent of those aged 55 and older described their lives as not stressful, compared to only 11 per cent of Canadians under age 55.

Canadians with incomes over \$60,000 were least likely to report having a stress-free life. For these upper-income Canadians, 13 per cent reported said they lead a stress-free life, compared to 17 per cent among Canadians with incomes below this level. And stress appears to increase with education levels: 25 per cent of university graduates reported having stressful lives, compared to 19 per cent of those with less than a high school education.

Single parents reported leading very stressful lives, with 39 per cent indicating high stress levels and only 9 per cent reporting no stress. These stress levels are much higher than for any other family type.

A Statistics Canada survey that focussed exclusively on time-stress found that in 1998, 21 per cent of women and 16 per cent of men felt time-stressed, an increase of about 35 per cent since 1992.<sup>9</sup> Time-stress levels were highest for married women and women aged 25 to 44 who were employed full time with children at home (38 per cent). Among these mothers, almost half who had a child under age five at home reported time-stress. More people in 1998 than in 1992 indicated that they did not have enough time for their family.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Indicators from PSI. Data from GSS is not available on a regular basis (it follows a cycle).

<sup>9</sup> Statistics Canada. "General Social Survey: Time Use," in *The Daily*, November 9, 1999.

### 3.b Personal and Family Security

**Indicator:** I. Homicide rate (per 100,000)

#### Definition/Relevance

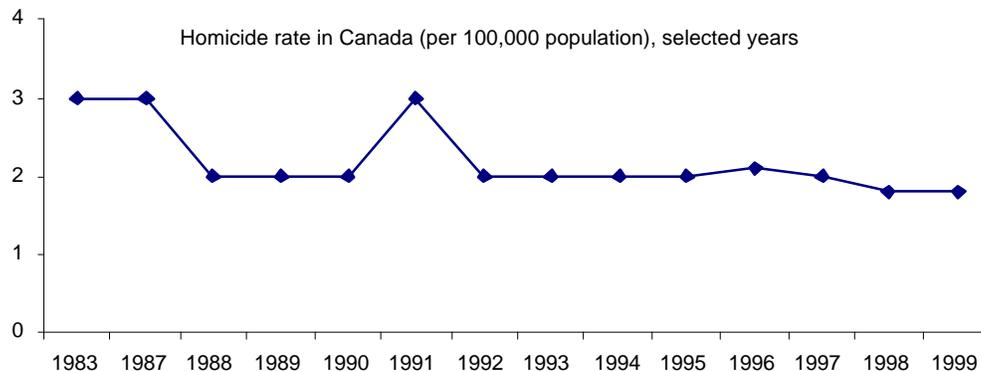
Homicide includes first and second degree murder, manslaughter and infanticide. As with other crime, but to a much greater degree, the incidence of homicides can be seen as a direct indicator of loss of social cohesion to the extent that it is linked to the loss of shared values and more specifically to loss of the sense of hope, trust and reciprocity associated with social cohesion. This loss can be at the family or neighbourhood or overall societal level. Homicide can also be viewed as an extreme product of socio-economic conditions which are negative for cohesion – such as unemployment, and large disparities of income, wealth and opportunity.

**Source:** Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. Crime Statistics in Canada in *Juristat*. 1999 and *Canadian Crime Statistics*. This annual report provides a statistical summary of police-reported crime in Canada and the provinces/territories back to 1962. The bulk of the data presented are in two databases: the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) and the Incident-based Uniform Crime Reporting (UCRII) databases.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

#### Trend over Time:

The homicide rate has generally been falling since the mid-1970s. There were 536 homicides in 1999, 22 fewer than in the previous year (down 2%). The 1999 rate of 1.8 homicides per 100,000 population is the lowest since 1967. The rate of attempted murders also fell in 1999 (-9%), the lowest since 1973.



Source: Statistics Canada. Canadian Crime Statistics, selected years.

#### Disaggregation:

Between 1998 and 1999, the number of youth charged with homicide was 45. This is 9 fewer than in 1998. Between 1989 to 1999, the number of youth charged with homicide ranged from 36 in 1993 to a high of 68 in 1995, an average of 51 youth per year.

*Canadian Crime Statistics* includes standard tables on crime at three geographical levels (Canada, provinces, census metropolitan areas [CMA]). A set of tables using microdata from UCRII describes characteristics of criminal incidents, victims and the accused persons. These tables include information such as the accused-victim relationship, weapon use, age and sex of accused and victims.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research is required.

**Indicator:** II. Rate of aggravated assault (per 100,000)

**Definition/Relevance:**

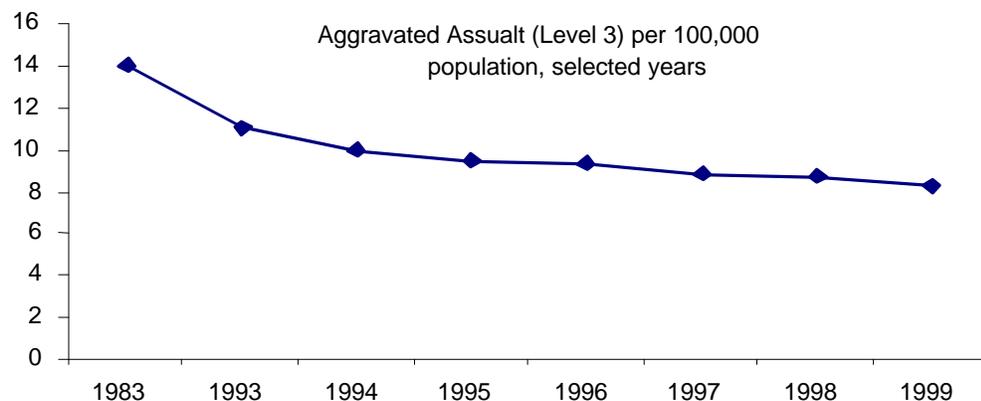
Assaults are divided into three levels – level 3 are aggravated assaults. It is calculated as a rate per 100,000 population. Societal factors are linked with crime such as dropping out of school, exclusion from the labour market, family instability, and overuse of alcohol and drugs.

**Source:** Statistics Canada. Crime Statistics in Canada.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

Like all other incidents of crime, level 3 assaults have also been decreasing over time.



Source: Statistics Canada. Canadian Crime Statistics, selected years.

**Disaggregation:**

Further research is required.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

It may be just as beneficial to use the “violent crime rate” as the indicator.

**Indicator:** III. Property crime rate (per 100,000) – break and enter, MV theft

**Definition/Relevance:**

Property crime incidents involve unlawful acts with the intent of gaining property but do not involve the use or threat of violence.

Property crime can be seen as a by product of SES conditions which are negative for cohesion – such as unemployment, disparities of income, wealth and opportunity.

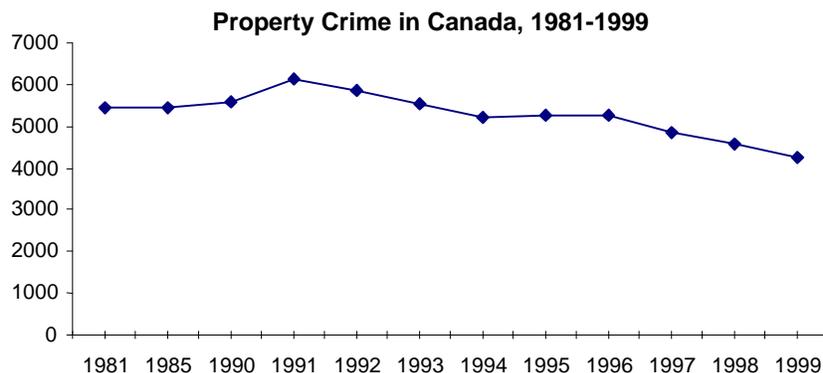
**Source:** Statistics Canada. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. Canadian Crime Statistics, selected years and Juristat.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

In 1999, there were approximately 1.3 million property crime incidents reported by police. The rate of these crimes generally been decreasing since 1991, including a 6% drop in 1999.

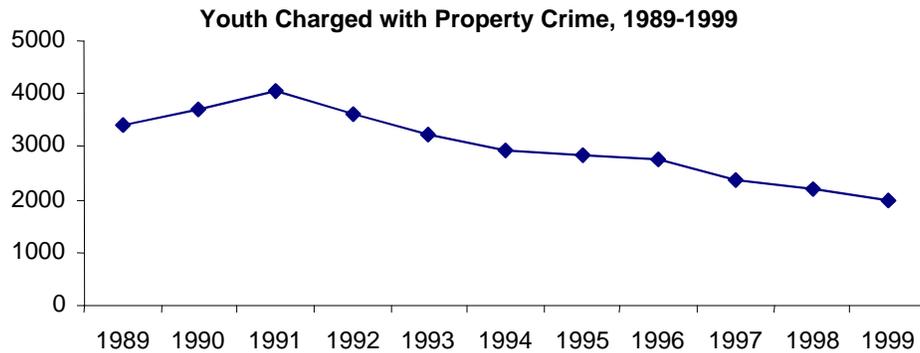
The 1999 rate (4,266) was the lowest recorded by police services since 1974. It was also 19% lower than 10 years ago, 13% lower than 20 years ago but still 37% higher than 30 years ago.



Source: Statistics Canada. Canadian Crime Statistics 1995 (cat 85-20XPE) and Source: Sylvain Tremblay. "Crime Statistics in Canada, 1999," in Juristat. Vol 20 no 5. Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.

**Disaggregation:**

Canadian Crime Statistics includes standard tables on crime at three geographical levels (Canada, provinces, census metropolitan areas [CMA]). A set of tables using microdata from UCRII describes characteristics of criminal incidents, their victims and the accused persons. These tables include information such as the accused-victim relationship, weapon use, age and sex of accused and victims.



Source: Sylvain Tremblay. "Crime Statistics in Canada, 1999," in Juristat. Vol 20 no 5. Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Youth charge rate is not a totally appropriate indicator because youth that are dealt with through alternative means are not included in the charge rate. Need to also use the "youth not charged rate".

**Indicator:** IV. Victimization rates

**Definition/Relevance:**

The extent of victimization is an important indicator of quality of life and reflects social conditions in the family, community and the wider society.

**Source:** GSS, victimization surveys such as the Violence Against Women Survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Comparisons between the 1999 GSS and the 1993 Survey on Violence against Women point to a decline in the rate of spousal violence against women over time.

An estimated 1.2 million men and women faced some form of violence in their marriage or common-law relationship during the 5 years up to and including 1999, according to the 1999 GSS.

An estimated 8% of women and 7% of men who were married or living common-law during the previous 5 year period experienced some type of violence by their partner on at least one occasion. This amounts to about 690,000 women and 549,000 men.

**Disaggregation:**

Provincial rates of spousal violence against women ranged from 4% in Newfoundland to 12% in PEI. Among men, rates of spousal violence ranged from 5% in Newfoundland and Ontario to 9% in Alberta and BC. Other than in Ontario, the differences in provincial rates of spousal violence between women and men were not statistically significant.

Can also examine a variety of aspects of victimization. One can examine age of victims, familial relationships, degree of victimization (injury versus homicide).

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Require GSS cycles that deal with personal security to conduct any type of comprehensive analysis.

**Indicator:** V. How would you rate your family's safety?

**Definition/Relevance:**

A sense of fear – even one unsupported by objective indicators – can be seen as a key indicator of loss of trust in fellow citizens and thus corrosive of social cohesion.

**Source:** CCSD's PSI survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

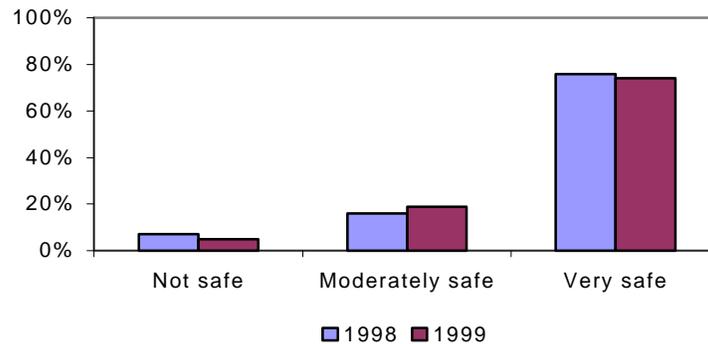
**Trend over Time:**

In order to gauge Canadians' own sense of their personal security, a PSI survey question asks respondents how they would rate their families' safety in their own neighbourhoods with respect to violent crime. The majority of Canadians reported feeling very safe from violent crime, and there was only a slight decline between 1998 and 1999 in the proportion who felt this way, from 76 to 74 per cent.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> The question read: "Thinking of your family's exposure to violent crime, how safe is your neighbourhood? Please use a scale from one, not at all, to seven, extremely, where the midpoint, four, is moderately."

"In terms of your family's exposure to violent crime, how safe is your neighbourhood?"



Source: CCSD's PSI

### Disaggregation:

Regionally, people in the Atlantic provinces felt the safest: 82 per cent felt very safe, while only four per cent felt unsafe. Eighty-one per cent of Albertans felt that they were very safe from violent crime, while residents of Quebec were the most fearful of crime in their neighbourhoods: 66 per cent felt very safe, compared to 7 per cent who felt unsafe. By age group, 78 per cent of those aged 35 to 54 felt the safest, followed by young people. Those over 55 years of age reported the lowest proportion of feeling very safe, but it was still 69 per cent. A smaller proportion of women than men felt very safe (72 per cent compared to 78 per cent).

People with higher incomes and higher education levels were more likely to feel very safe than others. Eighty-two per cent of university graduates reported feeling very safe, compared to 58 per cent of those without a high school certificate. And 85 per cent of persons with an income of \$60,000 or more felt very safe, whereas only 61 per cent of households with incomes of \$30,000 or less felt this way. Moreover, 12 per cent of low-income households did not feel safe – double the national average.

Single parents – who are predominantly women – and people living alone felt the least safe. Only two-thirds of the people in both of these groups reported feeling very safe, compared to 80 per cent among married couples with children.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Indicators from PSI.

**Indicator:** VI. How safe do you feel walking along in your area after dark? (and other indicators of fear of victimization.)

**Source:** International Crime Victimization Survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

**Trend over Time:**

In response to the question “do you feel safe or unsafe when walking alone in your area after dark?”, 82.7% felt fairly safe or very safe in 2000, a higher percentage than in either 1996 (73.3%) or 1992 (78.3%) . Only 4.7% felt very unsafe in 2000, compared to 8.3% in 1996 and 7.4% in 1992.

There is some indication of an increase in “avoiding places and people”.

<b>Fear of crime (percent)</b>				
	<u>1989</u>	<u>1992</u>	<u>1996</u>	<u>2000</u>
<b>Walking in neighbourhood</b>				
Very safe	---	41.1	34.4	42.5
Fairly safe	---	37.2	38.9	40.2
Bit unsafe	---	12.8	17.4	11.4
Very unsafe	---	7.4	8.3	4.7
Don't know	---	1.6	0.9	1.3
<b>Avoid places and people</b>				
Yes	19.6	21.4	24.2	---
No	73.6	71.1	67.2	---
Never goes out	6.3	7.3	8.2	---
Don't know	0.6	0.2	0.5	---
<b>Probability of burglary</b>				
Very likely	4.8	5.9	4.9	4.7
Likely	28.4	27.5	25.4	24.7
Not likely	66.9	62.8	64	66.1
Don't know	---	3.7	5.8	4.6
<b>Feeling safe at home alone</b>				
Very safe	---	---	---	66
Fairly safe	---	---	---	29.6
Bit unsafe	---	---	---	3.3
Very unsafe	---	---	---	1
Don't know	---	---	---	0.2

Source: International Crime Victimization Survey, 1989, 1992, 1996, and 2000

Possession of firearms – an objective indicator of risk – has fallen somewhat.

<b>Possession of firearms (percent)</b>			
	<u>1992</u>	<u>1996</u>	<u>2000</u>
<b>Possession</b>			
Yes	26.0	23.5	21.1
No	71.8	74.7	77.4
Don't know	1.0	0.4	0.4
Refuse to answer	1.2	1.4	1.2
<b>Type of Firearm</b>			
Handgun	13.9	10.0	8.8
Shotgun	54.8	53.5	50.1
Rifle	68.5	55.5	50.1
Air rifle	---	14.2	19.0
Other	---	5.4	5.1
Don't know	---	2.2	5.5
Refuse to answer	---	2.4	4.1
<b>Purpose</b>			
Hunting	---	72.7	68.7
Target shooting	---	18.4	17.9
Collection	---	7.4	5.6
Crime prevention	8.1	4.6	4.4
Army/police	---	0.6	1.9
Always there	---	10.0	7.3
Other purposes	---	---	11.5
Refuse to answer	---	0.4	0.6

Source: International Crime Victimization Survey, 1992, 1996, and 2000

#### **Disaggregation:**

Further research is required.

#### **Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research is required.

### **3.c Economic Security**

**Indicator:** I. Ratio of total mortgage and consumer debt to disposable income

#### **Definition/Relevance:**

Personal indebtedness is an indicator of the potential fragility of household finances and of vulnerability to negative changes such as unemployment or an increase in interest rates. Debt may result from too little income, or too high a level of spending in relation to income, but is likely to be a source of stress and anxiety irrespective.

**Source:** National Accounts

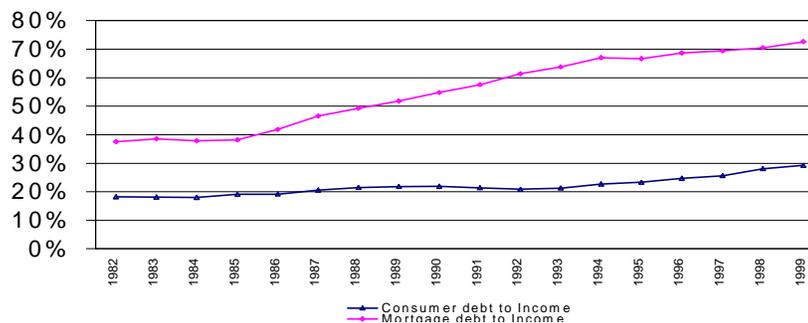
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

**Trend over Time:**

To measure the degree to which Canadians are financially vulnerable, the PSI tracks the ratio of Canadians' total mortgage and consumer debt to their total disposable income. Since 1984, the amount that Canadians collectively borrowed to buy homes and consumer goods increased from 56 per cent of their total disposable income to 99 per cent by 1998. In 1999, this percentage rose to 102 per cent.<sup>11</sup>

The largest part of Canadians' increased indebtedness is due to the size of their mortgages, which increased from 38 per cent of disposable income in 1984, to 73 per cent in 1999. Consumer credit, however, has also grown from 18 to 29 per cent.

**Mortgage and consumer debt as % of after-tax income, 1982 to 1999**



Source: Statistics Canada. National Income and Expenditure Accounts; Bank of Canada. Canadian Monetary and Credit Aggregates and Interest Rates, various years.

According to the most recent data available, Canada ranks fourth among G-7 countries when it comes to personal indebtedness. Using a broader measure of debt that includes personal loans, France led the way at 114 per cent of disposable income, followed by Japan at 112 per cent, the U.K. at 110 per cent, Canada at 105 per cent, and the U.S. at 98 per cent. Citizens of Germany and Italy had the lowest levels of indebtedness with rates of 60 and 49 per cent respectively. However, Canadians experienced the largest increase in indebtedness between 1985 and 1995.

**Disaggregation:**

This data cannot be disaggregated.

<sup>11</sup> Statistics Canada. *National Income and Expenditure Accounts*; Bank of Canada. *Canadian Monetary and Credit Aggregates and Interest Rates*, various years.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

There is a debate among economists on the significance of debt, with some arguing that rising debt as a percentage of income should not be a cause for concern to the extent that it is balanced by rising assets. In the aggregate, the growth of assets in the 1990s (house values, share values) has indeed outpaced the growth of liabilities. However, we do not know – and certainly cannot assume – that household assets and liabilities are evenly let alone equally distributed. In the US, data show an increased concentration of wealth in relatively few hands through the past two decades, and increased net indebtedness of the ‘middle’ class and poor. (See Economic Policy Institute, State of Working America.) There was no household survey of assets and liabilities in Canada from 1984 until this year, and no data from the new survey has yet been published. It will provide a rich source of information on the distribution of assets and debts of Canadians which can be compared to the benchmark 1984 data.

**Indicator:** II. If you were in financial distress, is there a friend, neighbour or family member you could count on to help?

**Definition/Relevance:**

This is a key indicator of levels of trust, reciprocity and social connectedness. The availability of financial assistance from family, friends and neighbourhoods has been seen by economists as a key indicator of the level of ‘social capital’, particularly in developing credits where the poor lack access to credit markets.

**Source:** CCSD’s PSI survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

If people are in financial distress, they rely on both formal income security programs and on the informal support provided by friends and family. This type of support is a key ingredient in determining how financially secure Canadians feel. Consequently, the following question was asked in the survey: “If you lost your job, or were in financial distress, is there a friend, neighbour or family member who you could count on to help you?”

Overall, 78 per cent of respondents said they could count on support. This ranged from 74 per cent in Quebec, to 85 per cent in the Atlantic provinces. Confidence in receiving support dropped with age: 86 per cent of those aged 18 to 34 said they would have support, but among persons 55 years and older, only 71 per cent were confident of receiving such support. There was little difference in proportions by gender.

Confidence in receiving support from family and friends in the event of financial distress rose with both income and education levels. While only 69 per cent of those without a high school graduation certificate claimed that they could count on support, this rose to 80 per cent among university graduates. And only 71 per cent of households with

incomes of \$30,000 or less indicated that they could count on receiving support, compared to 82 per cent of households with incomes of \$60,000 or more.

By employment status, support levels ranged from 67 per cent among retired persons, to 84 per cent among the self-employed and 88 per cent among students.

Lone parents registered one of the lowest levels of support. Less than two-thirds (63 per cent) reported that they could count on receiving support from family and friends. This contrasts with a figure of 80 per cent among married couples.

**Disaggregation:**

The indicator is disaggregated by family type, education level, income, employment status and provincial/regional breakdowns.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Indicators from PSI.

It would be interesting to have hard data on the extent to which families, friends and neighbourhoods do effectively pool capital by assisting one another. This is relevant to social cohesion in the sense that a high level of ongoing income sharing may promote or undermine equality of opportunity. For example, income sharing will favour the children of the affluent, but may also favour more rapid economic progress for immigrant communities.

**Indicator:** III. How long could you sustain your family if you had to rely on savings?

**Definition/Relevance:**

This is a direct indicator of financial vulnerability. In order to better gauge how financially vulnerable Canadians were feeling, respondents were asked how long they would be able to sustain themselves and their families if they had to rely only on their savings. Savings were defined as liquid assets such as bank accounts and RRSPs.

**Source:** CCSD's PSI survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1999

**Trend over Time:**

In 1999, about one in five working-age Canadians (19 per cent) reported that they would not be able to sustain themselves for more than one month if they and their spouse lost their jobs. This was down slightly from 22 per cent in 1998. At the other extreme, 20 per cent of Canadians polled in 1999 had adequate resources to last more than a year, down from 28 per cent in 1998. The time-frame that is most often used by financial planners to measure the adequacy of savings is for households to be able to sustain themselves for more than six months. Using this criterion, 39 per cent of Canadian

households in 1999 responded that they could sustain themselves for more than six months, almost identical to the results in 1998.

**Disaggregation:**

Canadians living in Alberta and the Atlantic provinces were the most vulnerable, with 23 per cent reporting that they would not have enough savings to last beyond one month. Only 15 per cent of the residents of Saskatchewan and Manitoba reported being in such a vulnerable financial situation. The difference between average income level and perceived insecurity is interesting. Age was an important factor, with 26 per cent of those aged 18 to 34 reporting that they had sufficient savings to last for only one month or less, compared to only 9 per cent of those aged 55 or older. In fact, 46 per cent of these older working respondents reported having enough savings to tide them over for more than one year.

Gender also plays a role, but it was not as pronounced. Twenty-one per cent of women and 17 per cent of men had sufficient savings to sustain themselves for only one month or less. However, among different family types, lone-parents – who are primarily women – were much more vulnerable, with 37 per cent reporting total savings that would not permit them to sustain their households beyond one month.

As might be expected, the most financially secure Canadians are those with higher household incomes and higher levels of education. Twenty-seven per cent of working respondents with less than a high school education and one-third of households with incomes below \$30,000 had a level of savings that would not permit them to sustain themselves beyond one month. This compares with only 13 per cent of university graduates and 9 per cent of people with incomes over \$60,000.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Indicators from CCSD's PSI.

### 3.d State of the Family

**Indicator:** I. Custodial arrangements

**Definition/Relevance:**

The percentage of children involved in divorces awarded solely to their mothers, fathers or jointly to both parents.

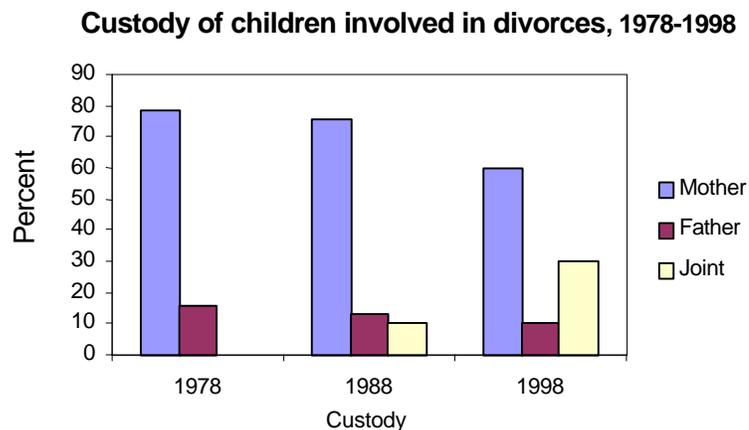
Family based indicators are of importance in terms of looking at social cohesion at the level of the family itself. Family functioning can be seen as particularly critical to the well-being of children, affecting their degree of overall inclusion and participation in society as both children and in later life as adults.

**Source:** Statistics Canada, Cat. No. 82-003s16, 82-003s17, 84-205, 84-213; The Daily, 28/09/00

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Custody of children involved in divorces is primarily awarded to mothers. In 1998, mothers were awarded sole custody in 60% of divorces involving children, compared to 10% of cases in which custody was given solely to fathers. In 30% of divorces involving children, custody was awarded jointly to both parents.



Source: Statistics Canada, Cat. No. 82-003s16, 82-003s17, 84-205, 84-213, The Daily 28/09/00

Although custody of children is still awarded solely to mothers in most cases, this pattern has been declining over the past twenty years (from 78.7% in 1978 to 60.0% in 1998). The children who were awarded jointly to mothers and fathers increased from 10.1% in 1988 to 30.0% in 1998.

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation may be available from Vital Statistics. Disaggregations from the NLSCY would be possible by age and gender of child, region/province, and household income.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Custody data from the perspective of the child can be obtained from the NLSCY 1994 and 1996.

**Indicator:** II. Family functioning scale

**Definition/Relevance:**

The family functioning scale looks at the health of relationships among all family members, an important indicator of healthy child development. Scores on the family functioning scale are based on a number of questions, and the total score varies between 0 and 36, with a high score indicating family dysfunction.

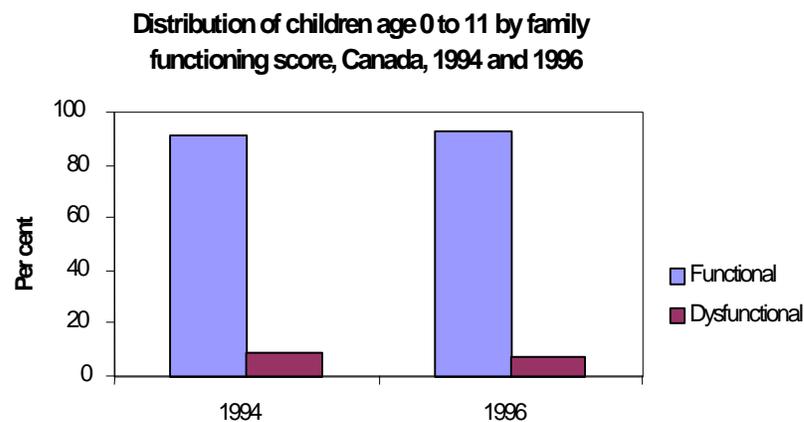
**Source:** National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY), 1994 and 1996

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

**Trend over Time:**

One of the parents of children aged 0 to 11 years was asked a range of questions focusing on activities that reflect how well the family works together: problem solving, communication, roles, emotional responsiveness and involvement, and behaviour control.

Using a clinical cut-off developed by researchers at Chedoke-McMaster Hospital in Hamilton, scores of 0 to 14 indicated healthy functioning while scores of 15 and over reveal dysfunction in the family.



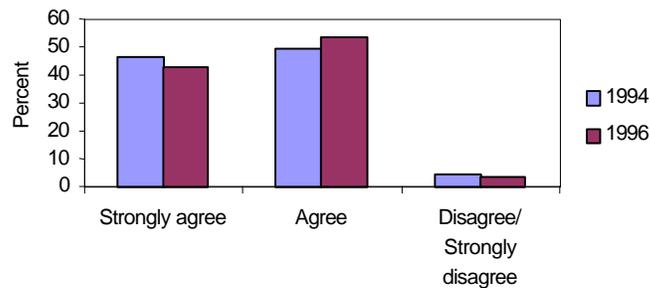
Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY), 1994 and 1996

The vast majority of children in Canada live in families that function in a healthy manner. This was true in both 1994 (91.5%) and 1996 (92.7%).

**Disaggregation:**

Disaggregation is possible for the family functioning scale, as well as its components, by age of child, gender of child, household income, or region/province.

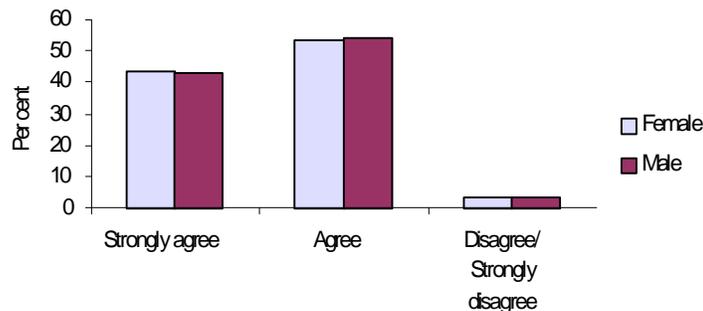
Distribution of children aged 0 to 11 by parental response to "We feel accepted for who we are", 1994 and 1996



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

Most children are living in families in which the members feel accepted for who they are. Over two-fifths of children (43.2%) lived in families where the person most knowledgeable about the child (typically the mother) strongly agreed with the statement that "we feel accepted for who we are". This was a slight decrease from the 1994 figure (46.7%).

Distribution of children aged 0 to 11 by parental response to "We feel accepted for who we are", 1996



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1996

In 1996, most children, regardless of gender, live in families where it's members feel accepted.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The first release of Cycle 3 of the NLSCY data will be available in Autumn 2000.

Analysis could be conducted using the family functioning scale or on any of the 12 individual items. Examples of the scale components include:

“In times of crisis we can turn to each other for support.”  
 “We avoid discussing our fears or concerns.”  
 “There are lots of bad feelings in our family.”  
 “We feel accepted for who we are.”

**Indicator:** III. Quantity / quality of interaction between parents and children

**Source:** NLSCY, 1994 and 1996

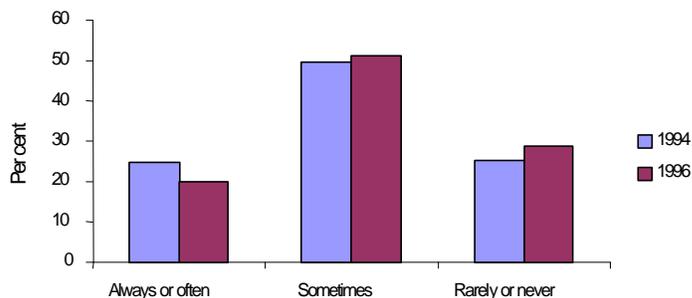
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

**Trend over Time:**

In 1994, about one-quarter (24.9%) of children lived in families whose parents often or always raised their voice when the children broke rules or misbehaved compared to 19.9% in 1996.

In 1996, a slightly higher percentage of children lived in families in which their parents rarely or never raised their voices, scolded or yelled at their children for misbehaviour than in 1994 (28.7% and 25.4%, respectively).

Distribution of children aged 0 to 11 by parental response to “When child breaks the rules or does things that he/she is not supposed to, how often do you raise your voice, scold or yell at him/her?”, 1994 and 1996

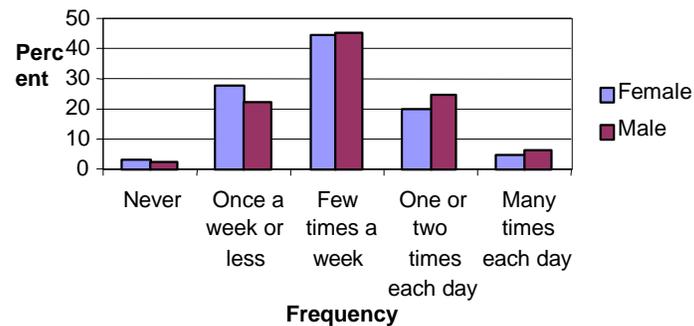


Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

Parents are more likely to get annoyed with their sons than with their daughters on a daily basis. About one in three boys (30.6%) have parents who get annoyed with their disobedience at least once a day compared to 24.4% of girls.

In contrast, 31.3% of girls have a parent who gets annoyed with their disobedience once a week or less to never at all, while this is the case for 24.7% of boys.

Distribution of children aged 6 to 11 by how often parents get annoyed with child for disobedience by gender, 1996



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1996

### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation is possible by age of child, gender of child, household income, or province.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

The first release of Cycle 3 NLSCY data will be available in Autumn 2000.

A very large set of child development indicators are available from the NLSCY, and it would be appropriate to define which are most relevant to social cohesion. Data are available on participation of children in social networks, matching indicators for adults from the General Social Survey.

Analysis could be conducted using any parenting scales (positive interaction, ineffective, consistency, rational), or any of the many individual parenting items. Examples of the parenting questions include:

- How often do you praise the child?
- How often do you do something special with the child?
- How often do you use physical punishment when the child breaks the rules?
- How often do you get annoyed with the child for being disobedient?

**Indicator:** IV. Child outcomes (i.e. behavioural, learning, etc.)

### Definition/Relevance:

These indicators are highly relevant to equality of opportunity and civic capacities as adults.

**Source:** NLSCY, 1994 and 1996

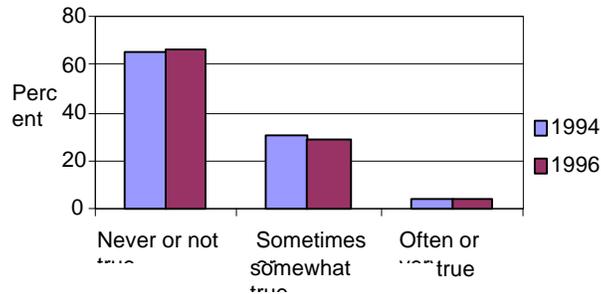
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

### Trend over Time:

Most children do not seem to have a problem with being fearful or anxious. In 1996, two-thirds of children were living in families where the person most knowledgeable about them (i.e., their mothers in most cases) responded “never or not true” to a question on whether their children were too fearful or anxious. Only 4.1% of children were identified as often having this as an issue.

There was little change in the percentages of children who were seen as too fearful or anxious. In 1996, this was “never or not true” for about 66.7% of children while in 1994 this figure was 65.3%.

Distribution of children aged 2-11 who are seen as too fearful or anxious by their parents, 1994 and 1996



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

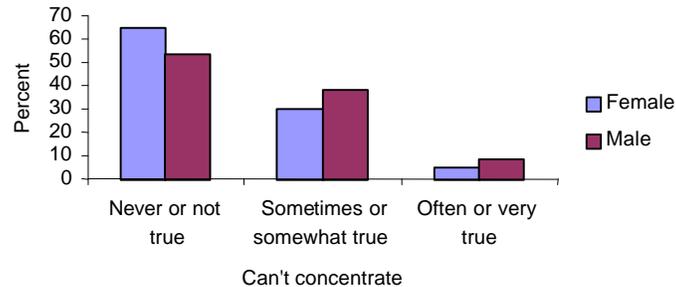
### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation is possible by age of child, gender of child, household income, or province.

Girls are less likely to be seen by their parents as having concentration difficulties than are boys. In 1996, 64.7% of parents said that inability to concentrate was not true for girls compared to 53.4% for boys.

In contrast, 8.5% of boys and 5.1% of girls are seen by their parents as often having a lack of concentration for long periods of time.

**Distribution of children seen as their parents  
as unable to concentrate for long periods of  
time by gender, 1996**



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1996

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The first release of Cycle 3 NLSCY data will be available in Autumn 2000. The NLSCY does provide data on how well children are doing at school, generally, and by grade and subject area. The Council of Ministers of Education are also now providing educational achievement indicators.

Analysis could be conducted using any of the child behaviour scales (e.g., hyperactivity-inattention, prosocial behaviour, emotional disorder-anxiety, conduct disorder-physical aggression, indirect aggression, property offences), or on any of the many individual items which comprise these scales. Examples of the child outcome questions include:

- How often will child try to help someone who has been hurt?
- How often does child get into fights?
- How often is child fearful or anxious?
- How often is child unable to concentrate, or pay attention for long?

**Indicator:** V. Families with adult children at home

**Definition/Relevance:**

Adults living with parents includes any man or woman aged 20-34 who are co-residing with at least one biological or adoptive parent.

**Source:** Census; Boyd and Norris, Canadian Social Trends (Spring,1999)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996

**Trend over Time:**

From 1981 to 1996, the percentage of young adults (aged 20 to 34) living with their parents was – as one would expect – far higher for those who were unmarried than for those who were married. The level appears to be stable, with modest increases in periods of high unemployment.

Proportion of young adults living at home, 1981-1996			
Percent living with parents			
		Unmarried	Married
Women	1981	44	1
	1986	46	2
	1991	44	2
	1996	47	3
Men	1981	55	2
	1986	57	2
	1991	53	3
	1996	56	4

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population;  
Canadian Social Trends, Spring 1999

### Disaggregation:

Living with one's parents was also higher for young men than for women across all census years. For example, in 1996, it was 56% of unmarried males aged 20 to 34 lived at home compared to 47% of unmarried females in the same age range.

The likelihood of unmarried young adults in their twenties living at home decreased as income rose for both men and women. At the lowest income level, for those earning less than \$5,000, 69% of unmarried women and 75% of unmarried men lived at home. However, once earnings rose above \$10,000, unmarried men were more likely to live with their parents than were women. Even at the highest income level, \$40,000 or more, over one-third of unmarried men (33%) lived at home as did more than one-quarter (27%) of women.

Per cent of unmarried young adults aged 20-29 living at home, 1996		
	Women	Men
<\$5,000	69	75
\$5,000-9,999	65	70
\$10,000-14,999	47	66
\$15,000-19,999	43	61
\$20,000-29,999	42	54
\$30,000-39,000	34	43
\$40,000+	27	33

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population; Canadian Social Trends, Spring 1999

Further analysis can be done by region/province.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

It is not possible to identify whether these young adults have continually lived with their parents or have returned after living elsewhere for a period of time.

### 3.e Time Use

**Indicator:** I. Average time spent in paid work, unpaid work, personal care, leisure

**Definition/Relevance:**

Time is a critical dimension of conditions favourable or unfavourable to social cohesion. Key variables include time spent in various activities (particularly paid and domestic work) and time potentially available for family, friends and community.

*Average time spent:* Average time (in hours) obtained when the estimate total daily time spent per day on the activity is divided by the estimated total number of persons in a given population.

*Paid work and related activities:* include all functions directed toward market activity including commuting to and from work, and other related activities including looking for employment.

*Unpaid work:* includes all work directed toward non-market oriented activity. It comprises household work and related activities (including shopping and child care), as well as social support, civic and voluntary activities.

*Personal care:* includes three main activities: sleep (night or essential sleep), meals (excluding those at restaurants or with people from outside the household), and other personal care (washing, dressing, relaxing, naps).

*Free time or leisure time:* comprises the residual of the 24-hour day, time that is not allocated to either paid work, unpaid work, or personal care. It is time over which individuals have the most discretion. Leisure was classified into three components: socializing (in homes, restaurants, bars, etc.), passive leisure (primarily at home: television, reading and listening to music) and active leisure (predominantly out of home: attending and participating in entertainment/sports events).

**Source:** Statistics Canada, Cat. No. 12F0080XIE; General Social Survey, 1998

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

The most time consuming activity for most people during the day is personal care (includes sleeping, meals, dressing etc). On average, in 1998 10.4 hours per day was spent on this activity.

Average time spent on various activities for the population 15 years and over, 1998	
Paid work and related activities	3.6
Unpaid Work	3.6
Personal care	10.4
Leisure	5.8

Source: 1998 General Social Survey

Hours per day, averaged over a 7-day week

Identical amounts of time were spent on each of paid work and related activities, and on unpaid work (3.6 hours). On average, 5.8 hours were spent on leisure time each day.

### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation would be possible by age, gender, household income and region/province.

Average time spent on various activities for the population aged 25-64 by gender, 1998						
	Age 25-34		Age 35-44		Age 45-54	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Paid work and related activities	6.2	3.9	6.2	3.8	5.8	3.8
Unpaid Work	2.6	4.8	3.1	5.4	2.9	4.6
Personal care	9.7	10.1	9.8	10.2	10	10.5
Leisure	5.2	4.7	4.8	4.5	5.2	5.0

Source: 1998 General Social Survey; Statistics Canada Cat. No. 12F008XIE

Hours per day, averaged over a 7-day week

There were differences by gender for all age groups as women spent less time on paid work and related activities than men. For example, between the ages of 35 and 44, women spent an average of 3.8 hours per day on this activity compared to 6.2 hours per day for men.

In contrast, women spent more time on unpaid work than do men. At ages 35 to 44, women typically spent 5.4 hours per day on unpaid work while men spent 3.1 hours per day on this activity.

Gender differences were also evident in the areas of personal care and leisure time, although the differential was not as great as for paid work and unpaid work. For all age groups, women spent more time each day on personal care and less time engaged in leisure activities compared to men.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Further research is required.

**Indicator:** II. Time stress among 25-54 year-olds

### Definition/Relevance:

Time-stress can be considered a key indicator of conditions for social cohesion, since work/family time stress will clearly tend to undercut time available for friends and community based activities.

Respondents who agreed with 7 out of 10 questions about stress were determined to be severely time-stressed.

**Source:** Statistics Canada, The Daily, 09/11/99; General Social Survey, 1992 and 1998

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

On average, Canadians reported greater time-stress in 1998 than in 1992. In 1998, about 21% of all women aged 15 and over identified themselves as time-stressed, compared to 16% in 1992. The corresponding figures for men were 16% in 1998 and 12% in 1992.

Time-related stress tended to decrease with age. In 1998, 8% of men aged 55-64 reported that they were time-stressed and 14% of women in the same age group felt the same way.

Time-stress was more common for women than it was for men at all age groups, but particularly for the youngest age group. For example, 22% of women aged 15 to 24 in 1998 reported being time-stressed compared to 10% of men.

Distribution of time-stressed population, 1992				
Age	Men		Women	
	1992	1998	1992	1998
15-24	7	10	18	22
25-34	16	25	23	29
35-44	16	23	22	27
45-54	16	20	18	22
55-64	---	8	9	14

Source: General Social Survey, 1992 and 1998; Canada, The Daily, 09/11/99  
 --- Estimate too small to be released.

**Disaggregation:**

Between 1992 and 1998, the percentage of men and women who reported time stress increased. At age 25 to 34 in 1992, 16% of men said they were time-stressed, rising to 25% in 1998. Rates of increase were not as dramatic for women, rising from 23% for the 25 to 34 age group in the first survey year to 29% in 1998.

Disaggregations are available for age, gender, household income, and region/province.

Average time spent on various activities by level of time-stress for age 25-44, 1998				
Activity	Men		Women	
	Low time-stress	Time-stressed	Low time-stress	Time-stressed
Paid work and related activities	5.6	7.0	3.4	4.2
Unpaid Work	2.8	3.0	5.0	5.4
Personal care	9.8	9.6	10.4	9.9
Leisure	5.6	4.2	5.1	4.1

Source: General Social Survey, 1998; Statistics Canada, The Daily, 09/11/99

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research must be conducted.

**Indicator:** III. Hours spent watching TV / playing on computer / playing video games

**Definition/ Relevance:**

On days when tv or videos are watched (or computer or video games are played), how many hours are spent watching tv or playing on the computer or video games.

These can be considered individualized activities which take away potential time for interaction with family, friends, neighbours etc. TV watching has been viewed by Putnam as a major cause for the decline of community involvement in the US.

**Source:** NLSCY (children aged 4 to 9), GSS (TV watching)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – NLSCY 1996 (1998 for GSS)

**Trend over Time:**

Based on the 1998 General Social Survey, males watched more television, on average, per day than do females at each age group. For example, at age 25-34, males watched 2.0 hours of television per day in 1998 while their female counterparts watched 1.6 hours.

Distribution of hours of television watched per day by age and gender, 1998		
Age	Male	Female
15-24	2.1	1.8
25-34	2.0	1.6
35-44	1.9	1.6
45-54	2.3	1.7
55-64	2.7	2.4
65+	4.0	3.4

Source: General Social Survey, 1998; Statistics Canada Cat. No. 12F008XIE

Note: Hours per day, averaged over a 7-day week

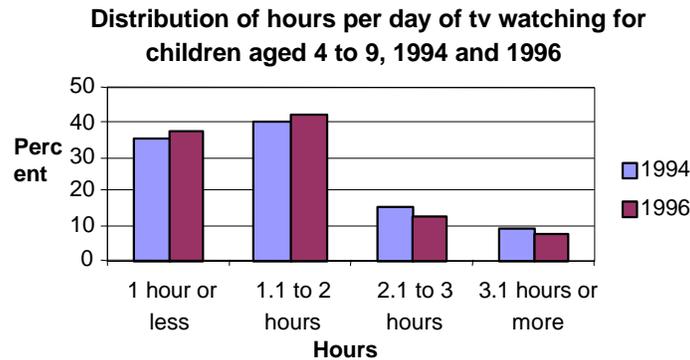
Daily television viewing was highest during the senior years. Men aged 65 and over watched 4.0 hours of television per day, on average, compared to 3.4 hours for females.

**Disaggregation:**

Most children aged 4 to 9 who watched television viewed 2 hours or less per day (79.9% in 1996 and 75.5% in 1994). In 1996, 37.8% of children in this age range watched 1 hour or less of television, and an additional 42.1% viewed TV for between 1 and 2 hours. The corresponding figures in the earlier survey year were 35.4% and 40.1%.

Between the survey years, the percentage of children who viewed more than 2 hours per of television per day decreased, while those watching 2 hours or less increased. In

1996, 20.1% of children aged 4 to 9 watched more than 2 hours of TV per day, a drop from 24.5% in 1994.



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

Using the NLSCY and GSS, disaggregations are available by region/province, household income, age of child, gender of child.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Can use GSS Time Use data (1992 and 1998) and/or the NLSCY 1994 and 1996 for children's viewing habits.

It might be useful to gather data on content of TV watching insofar as watching eg. Canadian news, local news, Canadian content etc. could be seen as socially cohesive activity or conducive to cohesion.

**Indicator:** IV. Commuting times (and distance commuted)

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Lengthy, time-consuming commuting takes away from potential time spent with family, friends and community. Car-based commuting has been seen as socially isolating. Length commuting tends to sever or separate social life at work and in the community.

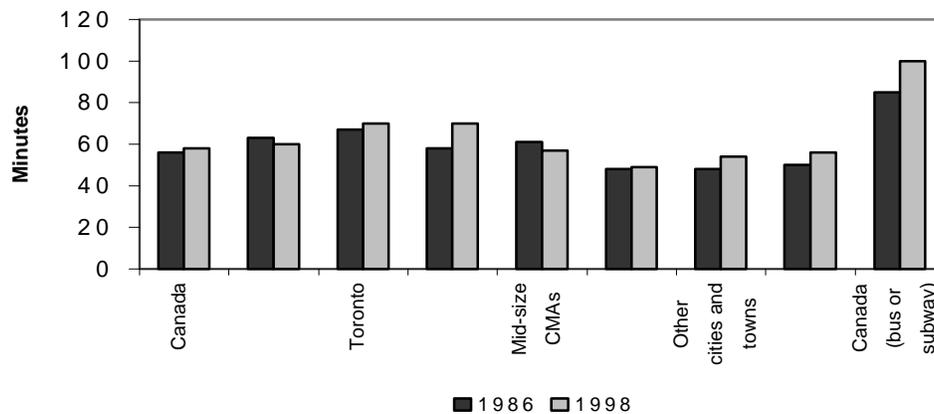
**Source:** Transport Canada / GSS / Census

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

While trends vary by city, there has been a modest upward trend in commuting times.

Average travel time going to and from work,  
1986 and 1998



Source: Statistics Canada, GSS 1998 published in Traffic report: Weekday commuting patterns, Canadian Social Trends. Spring 2000, No. 11-008 (Note: Mid-size Cmas includes Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, Quebec city, Winnipeg, Hamilton, London and Kitchener. Small CMAs includes St-Catherines-Niagara, Halifax, Victoria, Windsor, Oshawa, Saskatoon, Regina, St-John's, Chicoutimi, Sudbury, Sherbrooke, Trois-Rivière, Thunder Bay and Saint John)

### Disaggregation:

Disaggregation are available by gender, province and mode of transportation.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

GSS Time Use Cycle and Census contain information on commuting times and distances. Would need GSS 1992 and 1998.

### 3.f Built Environment:

**Indicator:** I. Infrastructure (places to engage in social interaction – eg. data on community recreation centres, public parks, etc.)

### Definition/ Relevance:

Social cohesive activity can be viewed as partly dependent upon the availability of 'public spaces' such as community parks and recreational facilities.

**Source:** None established

**Trend over Time:** Further research needs to be conducted.

**Disaggregation:** Further research needs to be conducted.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

For parks, data available for national parks only, from an occasional paper. Can be established if they have historic data or whether there are detailed breakdowns.

A recreation survey (facilities for children) is currently being undertaken by CCSD, focusing on increases in user fees as a barrier to use/participation. The NLSCY provides data on the proportion of children engaged in organized recreational and cultural activities.

It would be very useful to gather data on child/youth/adult participation in organised community activities and the extent to which there has been any trend from public to private space and facilities in sports/recreation etc. We have been unable to locate readily accessible data, though some relevant academic studies do exist. Surveys of municipal and other providers would be a possible source of data.

**Indicator:** II. Communication Networks Canadian/local newspaper readership & Computer/internet ownership internet use

### **Computer ownership internet use**

#### **Definition/ Relevance:**

Social cohesion depends in part on the level of “connectedness” among Canadians.

**Source:** HFE,  
GSS (1994),  
Household Internet Survey,  
Survey of Household Spending,  
Internet Household Use Survey

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

#### **Trend over Time:**

Households with higher incomes are more likely to own a computer. (In 1998, the top quintile were four times more likely to own a computer than those in the lowest income quintile and were 6 times more likely to have access to the Internet from home.)

Other factors that influence ownership are gender and family type. Men are more likely to own computers than women and families with children are more likely to own a computer.

Canadians are logging onto the Internet in growing numbers. In 1999, the proportion of households that contained at least 1 regular user jumped to 41.8% from 35.9% in 1998.

Alberta continued to lead with the highest proportion of households with regular Internet users.

#### **Disaggregation:**

This indicator can be disaggregated by household income; education level of household head; age of household head; family type and by province and major cities.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Data from the Survey of Household Spending were collected as of December 31, 1998, two months after the Household Internet Use Survey. Both surveys collect information on the proportion of homes with access to the Internet. However, the Survey of Household Spending also collects information about spending on computer hardware, software and supplies and about the proportion of homes with computers and modems. Can also examine who owns a computer and modem using HFE and Household Spending Survey.

#### Newspaper Readership

Daily Newspaper Circulation data available (at cost) from Audit Bureau of Circulation. Data for 16 large Canadian cities are published in Table 8.4, The Federation of Canadian Municipalities Quality of Life Reporting System. Household penetration ranges from 36% (Peel) to 67% (Halifax) and declined generally 1995-97.

Further research must be conducted on this indicator.

### 3.g Quality of Natural Environment

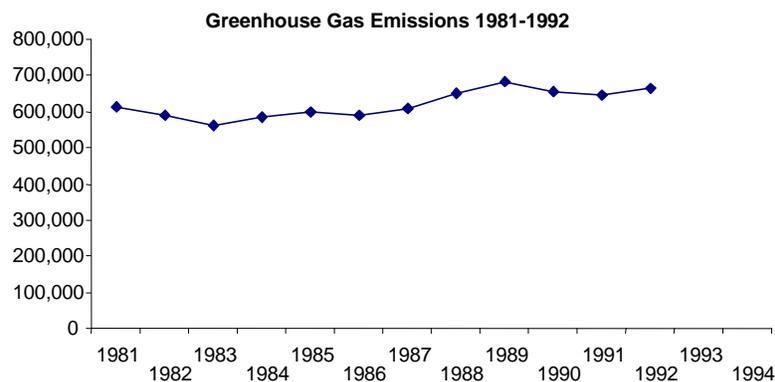
**Indicator:** I. Air quality data

**Source:** Selected cities, Greenhouse Gas Emissions – Outlook to 2020 (<http://www.ec.gc.ca/climate/fact/greenhou.html>)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1995

#### Trend over Time:

Emissions grew by 9.5 per cent from 1990 to 1995\* following a slight dampening of this growth in the recent economic recession. The trend in emissions is still steadily upward. (\*Data from CSLS indicators only go up to 1992. Text information does not provide hard data.)



**Disaggregation:**

GHG Emissions; GHG by Sector; GHG Emissions by province.

In the recent past, emissions growth was greater than the national average in Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia. These increases are associated with the resource boom in the west and, in the case of British Columbia, population increases.

In the longer term, however, growth in emissions is more evenly distributed across provinces, with Ontario and British Columbia recording above average increases. For Ontario, the chief reasons for the increases are the greater use of natural gas and coal for electricity generation. The chart does not reflect the decision by Ontario Hydro to lay-up some of its nuclear units.

The results for Alberta and, to a lesser extent, Saskatchewan suggest a deceleration in the growth of emissions after 2000. This is largely the result of the increasing effectiveness of the oil and gas industry initiatives to constrain emissions.

While Quebec and the Atlantic region have minimal emissions growth to 2000, their results thereafter are more in line with national trends.

Within the Atlantic region, the growth in emissions is above the regional average in New Brunswick and Newfoundland, reflecting, for the latter in particular, their strong resource-based development.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

\*Public, easy-to-read data is not available post 1994. Data from CSLS indicators only go up to 1992. Text information does not provide hard data.

Air Quality Index, selected cities by EnvCan.

Air Quality Indicators Database.

**Indicator:** II. Water quality data

**Disaggregation:** Requires further research.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Water quality data is not regularly measured. No standards. Will vary from province to province.

The Sierra Legal Defence Fund has conducted 2 studies focusing on Ontario.

The Sierra Club of Canada has produced 2 reports on sewage treatment across Canada and presented a major cities report card.

**Indicator:** III. Food and waterborne diseases

**Source:** National Notifiable Disease Registry, LCDC, H.C.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1995 (data verified)

**Disaggregation:** Requires further research.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The number of cases of enteric infections reported in a given year, expressed as a rate per 100,000 population.(Requires further research to identify the type of information available for Canada and the provinces and if is available in popularly accessible format).

## Part 4 - Willingness to Cooperate

### 4.a Trust in People

**Indicator:** I. Would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can never be too careful in your dealings with people?

**Definition/ Relevance:**

This is a direct indicator of trust in people, a central part of the definition of social cohesion.

**Source:** World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1990

**Trend over Time:**

Just over half of the people surveyed in 1990 (53.5%) reported that most people can be trusted.

Between 1981 and 1990 there was an increase in the percentage of people who indicated that “most people can be trusted” from 48.5% to 53.1%, and a corresponding decrease in the percentage of people who reported that “you can never be too careful in your dealings with people” (from 51.5% to 46.9%).

Distribution of trusting other people, 1981 and 1990		
	1981	1990
Can be trusted	48.5	53.1
Can never be too careful	51.5	46.9
Total	100.0	100.0
(N)	(1217)	(1673)

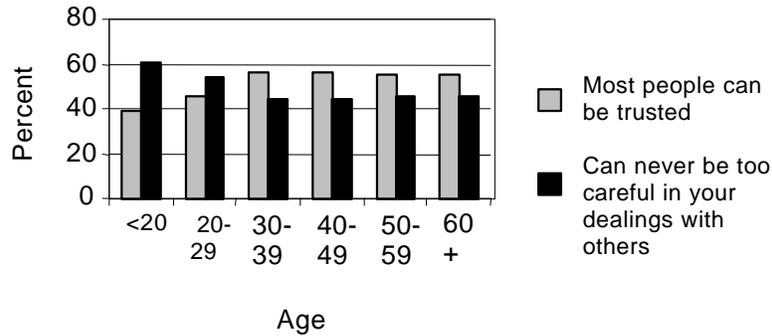
Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

**Disaggregation:**

Being able to trust most people is an attitude that increases with age. In 1990, only 39.3% of respondents who were under the age of 20 felt that most people can be trusted compared to 54.8% for those over age 60.

Similarly, the proportion of respondents who felt that “you can never be too careful in your dealings with other people” decreased from 60.7% to 45.2% for the youngest and oldest age groups.

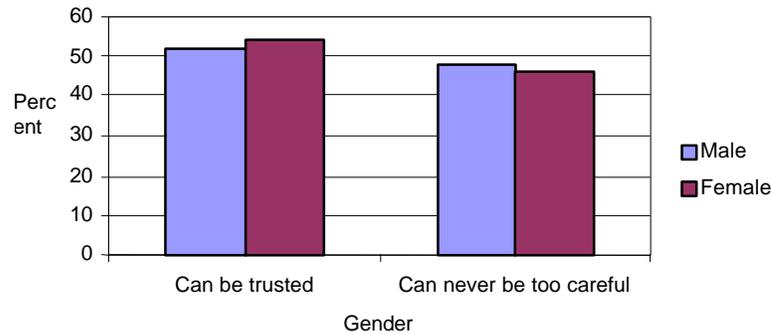
### Distribution of trusting people



Source: World Values Survey, 1990

In 1990, female respondents (54.2%) were slightly more likely than males (52.0%) to be trusting of others. This differential is consistent with the 1981 figures (49.8% for females and 47.2% for males).

### Distribution of trusting other people by gender, 1990



Source: World Values Survey, 1990

It is also possible to disaggregate this indicator by household income.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Disaggregation is not available by region/province.

#### 4.b Confidence in Institutions

**Indicator:** I. Confidence in health care system, public education, justice, parliament (shared sense of ownership over governing process)

#### Definition/ Relevance:

Degree of confidence in the education system, the police, the legal system, and Parliament. These indicators speak to the existence of a community of shared values.

**Source:** World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1990

**Trend over Time:**

In 1990, most respondents had at least quite a lot of confidence in (in declining order) the police (84%) the education system (72.4%), and the legal system (54%), but not in Parliament (37.3%). Respondents who reported “a lot” of confidence in the education system increased between 1981 and 1990 (from 15.9% to 18.2%). Confidence in the policy slipped from “a lot” to “quite” but remained high. Confidence in the legal system and Parliament declined significantly between the survey years. For example, in 1981, 14.1% of the respondents indicated they had “a lot” confidence in the legal system, which fell to 10.0% in 1990. Similarly, 29.1% of respondents had “a lot” of confidence in the Parliament in 1981, dropping to 24.1% in 1990.

	Education		Legal system		Police		Parliament	
	1981	1990	1981	1990	1981	1990	1981	1990
a lot	15.9	18.2	14.1	10.0	29.1	24.1	7.1	5.6
quite	50.6	54.2	50.3	44.0	55.8	60.1	36.0	31.7
not very	29.3	24.5	31.5	39.2	12.6	13.1	44.3	52.0
not at all	4.2	3.1	4.1	6.8	2.6	2.7	12.6	10.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(1230)	(1723)	(1224)	(1720)	(1241)	(1722)	(1214)	(1718)

Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

Another measure of confidence in government, that is, trust in them “to do what is right”, showed that 5% of respondents almost always felt this way. The majority of respondents, 53%, felt that government could be trusted to do what is right only some of the time.

Distribution	%
Almost always	5
Most of the time	24
Only some of the time	53
Almost never	17
Don't know	1
Total	100
(N)	(2165)

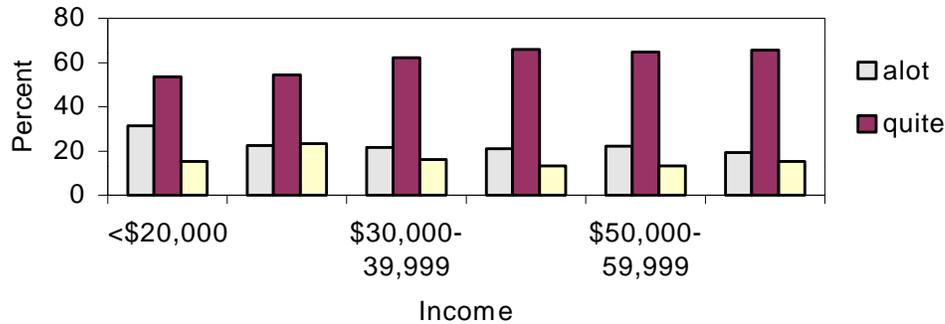
Source: www.ekos.com, 2000

**Disaggregation:**

Confidence in the police was generally high in 1990. Most respondents indicated that they had at least quite a lot of confidence in the police regardless of household income.

However, a higher percentage of lower income households had “a lot” of confidence in the police compared to higher income households. For example, 31.4% of respondents living in households with an income of less than \$20,000 had a lot of confidence in the police while only 19.3% of respondents with a household income of \$60,000 or more identified themselves as having this same degree of confidence.

### Distribution of confidence in the police, by household income, 1990



Source: World Values Survey, 1990

More female than male respondents were at least quite confident in the legal system, police, and Parliament. Looking at the police, 87.7% of females had quite a lot or a lot of confidence in this institution, compared to 80.7% of males. In terms of the educational system, there was little difference by gender in their confidence level.

	Education		Legal system		Police		Parliament	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
a lot	17.7	18.6	11.0	9.0	23.7	24.5	5.8	5.5
quite	55.2	53.2	40.1	47.8	57.0	63.2	28.6	34.7
not very	23.8	25.2	40.8	37.7	15.6	10.5	52.9	51.1
not at all	3.3	3.0	8.2	5.5	3.7	1.7	12.7	8.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)								

Source: World Values Survey, 1990

Confidence in the institutions of education, the legal system, the police, and Parliament can be disaggregated by age, gender, and household income.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Disaggregation by region is not possible using the World Values Surveys. Trust in government to do what is right is available from the World Values Surveys. Confidence in the health system is not available in the World Values Surveys. EKOS website has a question on perception of whether the quality of health care over the past two years has improved, deteriorated, or stayed the same.

**Indicator:** II. Political efficacy

**Definition/ Relevance:**

“Given all the demands made on the federal government, they usually do a good job of getting things done”. This question measures trust in government.

**Source:** Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters, July 2000, vol 1, no.5 (p.65)

**Baseline Data:** 2000

**Trend over Time:**

Many respondents agreed (53.1%) that “given the demands on the federal government, they usually do a good job at getting things done” (6.0% strongly agreed and 47.1% somewhat agreed).

About one in seven respondents (14.3%) strongly disagreed with this statement, while nearly one in three respondents (29.7%) were somewhat in agreement.

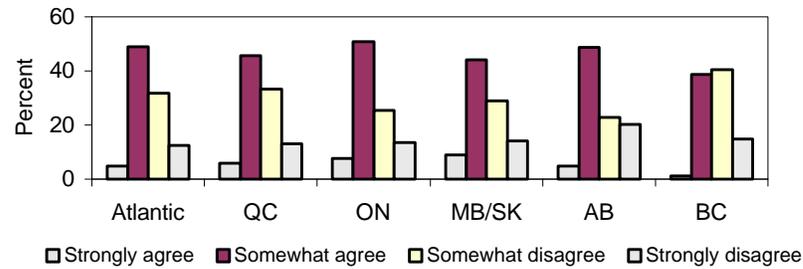
Distribution of respondent agreement with statement "Given all the demands made on the federal government, they usually do a good job of getting things done", 2000	
	%
Strongly agree	6.0
Somewhat agree	47.1
Somewhat disagree	29.7
Strongly disagree	14.3
Don't know	2.8
Total	100.0
(N)	1278

Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, 2000

**Disaggregation:**

Although most respondents surveyed in 2000 agreed that the government is doing a good job of getting things done, regardless of region, there is some variation. About 40% of respondents in British Columbia agreed that the government is doing a good job compared to 58.4% (50.7% agree and 7.7% strongly disagree) in Ontario.

Distribution of government doing a good job by region, 2000



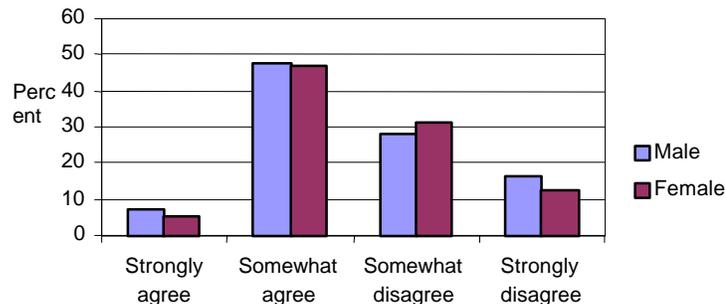
Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, 2000

Excludes "Don't know" 2%-4%

The highest percentage of respondents who strongly disagree that the government is doing a good job was highest in Alberta (20.3%), and lowest in the Atlantic provinces (12.5%).

Male respondents were more likely to strongly disagree that the government is doing a good job compared to females (16.1% and 12.6%, respectively).

Distribution of whether government is doing a good job, by gender



Source: Institute for Research in Public Policy, 2000

Excludes "Don't know" 1% for males and 4% for females

Disaggregation is available for age, education, household income, region and gender.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Only available at one time point. It is not known if the survey will be conducted again.

#### 4.c Respect for Diversity

**Indicator:** I. In your opinion, do you feel there are too many, too few, or about the right number of immigrants coming to Canada?

**Definition/ Relevance:**

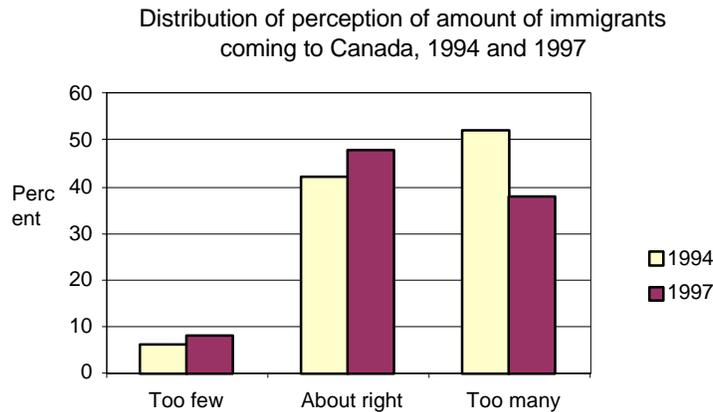
This is a good potential indicator of recognition and acceptance of cultural diversity.

**Source:** EKOS ([www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com), 2000), 1994 and 1997

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

Overall, in 1997, almost half of respondents indicated the current amount of immigrants coming to Canada is “about right” (48%). Another 8% of individuals surveyed felt that Canada has too few immigrants entering the country.



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know" 1% in 1994 and 6% in 1997

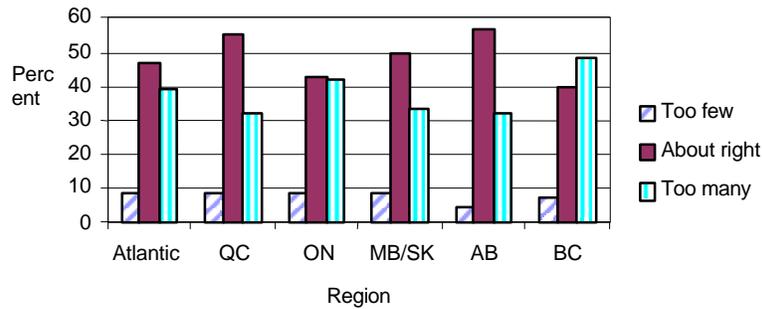
There was a decrease between the survey years in the percentage of respondents who stated that there are too many immigrants coming to Canada. About 38% of respondents in 1997 felt this way compared to 52% in 1994.

**Disaggregation:**

Although respondents in all regions perceived that the current amount of immigrants coming to Canada is “about right”, they were most positive in Alberta, and least positive in British Columbia.

In Alberta, 5% of the respondents reported that there are “too few” coming. Respondents in British Columbia were most likely to state there were “too many” immigrants (48%) compared to 32% of respondents in each of Alberta and Quebec who felt this way.

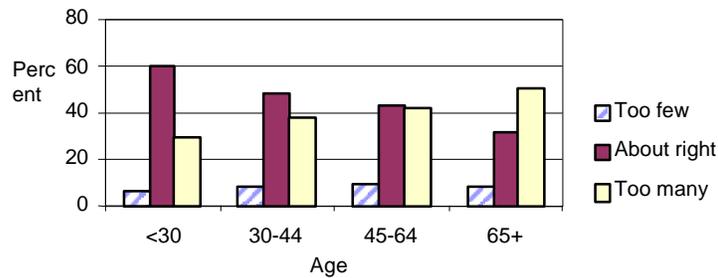
**Distribution of perception of amount of immigrants coming to Canada by region, 1997**



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know" 5%-7%

As age increased, respondents were more likely to feel that there are too many immigrants coming to Canada. For example, 29% of individuals surveyed under the 30 felt this way compared to 51% of those over the age of 65.

**Distribution of perception of amount of immigrants coming to Canada by age, 1997**



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know" 4%-9%

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Could look into attitudes towards other groups as well: ethnocultural minorities, linguistic minorities, etc. Disaggregation will depend on the question/not detailed.

**Indicator:** II. Does the fact that we accept immigrants from many different cultures make our culture stronger or weaker?

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Another indicator of acceptance of cultural diversity.

**Source:** EKOS ([www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com), 2000)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

In response to the question “Does the fact that we accept immigrants from many different cultures make our culture stronger or weaker?” most respondents felt that immigration makes Canadian culture stronger (40% said “stronger” and an additional 12% said “much stronger”).

Distribution of perception of immigrant impact on Canadian culture, 1997	
	%
Much weaker	6
Weaker	18
Neither weaker or stronger	21
Stronger	40
Much stronger	12
Don't know	2
Total	100
(N)	(2994)

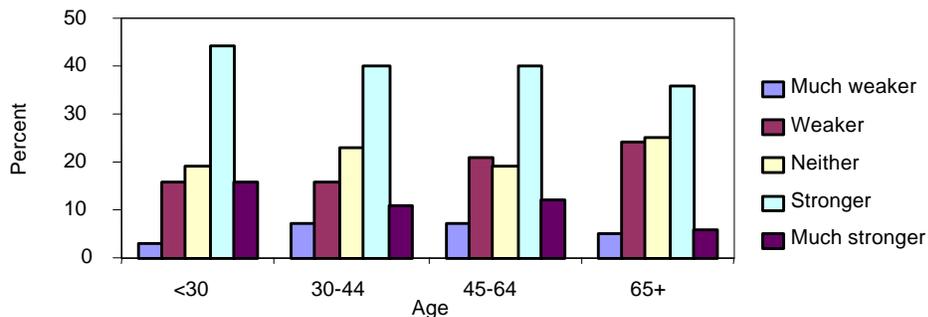
Source: www.ekos.com, 2000

About one-fifth of the respondents (21%) stated that immigration has no impact on Canadian culture. However, 18% of respondents felt that accepting immigrants from other culture makes our culture weaker, and an additional 6% said “much weaker”.

**Disaggregation:**

Most respondents, regardless of their age, perceived that immigration would strengthen our culture. However, the perception of immigration on Canadian culture did become more negative with age. That is, 19% of respondents under the age of 30 felt that accepting immigrants into our culture would make it either weaker or much weaker, whereas 29% of those aged 65 and over felt this way.

**Distribution of perception of immigrant impact on Canadian culture, 1997**



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know" 1%-4%

In contrast, 60% of younger respondents (under age 30) said that immigration would strengthen Canadian culture compared to 42% of those aged 65 and older.

Disaggregation is possible by age, gender, household income, and region for 1997.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Rethinking Government Survey (1994) by EKOS has two questions:

“One of the best sources of our Canadian identity is the fact that we are a nation of immigrants.”

“I worry that the traditional Canadian way of life is being threatened by high levels of immigration.”

**4.d Understanding of Reciprocity**

**Indicator:** I. These days I'm so hard pressed to take care of my own needs that I worry less about the needs of others.

**Definition/ Relevance:**

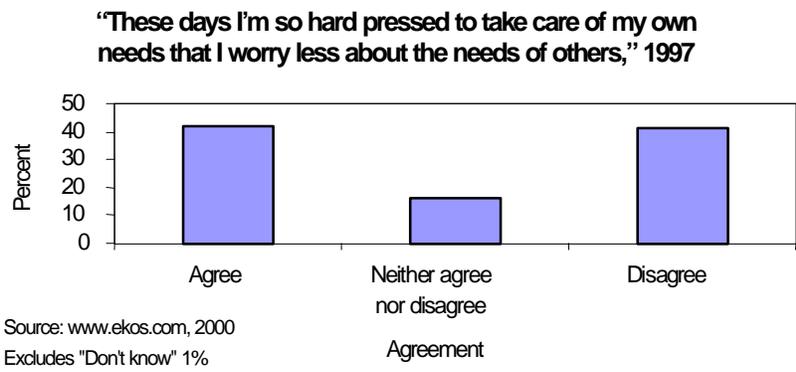
This is a direct indicator of barriers to reciprocity.

**Source:** EKOS, ([www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com), 2000)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

Nearly identical percentages of respondents agree (42%) as well as disagree (41%) that because they are pressed to take care of their own needs that they worry less about the needs of others.

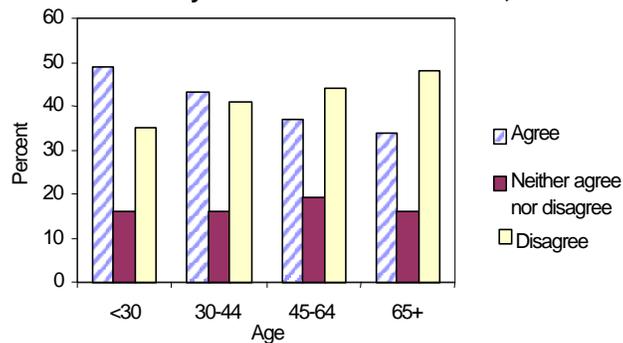


**Disaggregation:**

Disagreement with this statement increases with age. Nearly half (48%) of respondents aged 65 and over disagreed that they worry less about the needs of others compared to 35% of those under the age of 30.

In contrast, 49% of those under the age of 30 agree that they worry less about the needs of others while 34% of seniors felt this way.

**“These days I’m so hard pressed to take care of my own needs that I worry less about the needs of others,” 1997**



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know 1%-2%"

Disaggregation is possible by age, gender, household income, and region.

#### **Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Only available for one time point, 1997.

**Indicator:** II. Support/ "buy in" into public system

#### **Definition/ Relevance:**

Satisfaction with government is an indicator of the extent to which government is perceived as an expression of broadly shared values.

**Source:** Paul Howe and David Northrup, Policy Matters, Institute for Research on Public Policy, July 2000, vol 1, no.5 (p.59)

**Baseline Data:** One time point 2000

#### **Trend over Time:**

Most respondents were at least fairly satisfied with the way the government works. In 2000, 52.0% of respondents said they felt this way about the government, and an additional 6.4% stated that they were very satisfied.

However, the level of dissatisfaction among respondents was quite high, with 37.3% of those surveyed indicated they were not satisfied with they way the government works (27.7% were not very satisfied, and 9.6% were not at all satisfied).

the way the government works, 2000	
	%
Very	6.4
Fairly	52
Not very	27.7
Not at all	9.6
Don't	4.3
Total	100
(N)	(1278)

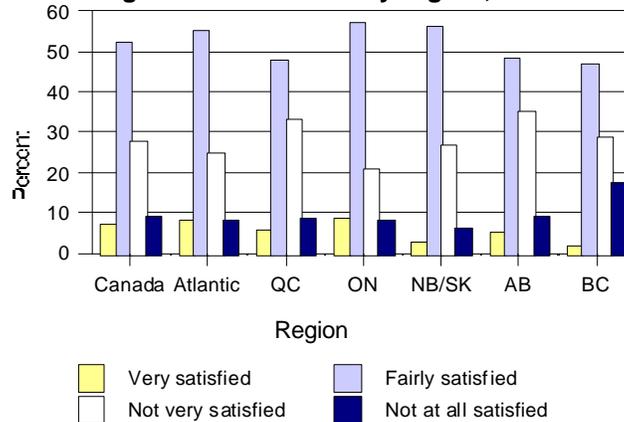
Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters, July 2000, vol 1, no.5 (p.59)

**Disaggregation:**

The distribution of people that were “fairly” or “very satisfied” with the way the government works was lowest in British Columbia (47.6%), Alberta (53.2%), and Quebec (53.4%). Satisfaction levels were highest in the Atlantic Provinces (64.2%) and Ontario (65.2%).

Respondents in the western provinces reported the highest levels of dissatisfaction with the way the government works. Fourteen percent of individuals surveyed in Manitoba, and 13.8% in each of Alberta and British Columbia were not at all satisfied with the government workings.

**Distribution of satisfaction with the way the government works by region, 2000**



Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, 2000  
Excludes “Don't Know” 2% - 7%

Disaggregation is possible for age, gender, region, household income, and education.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

EKOS (2000) has additional questions on their website:

“Thinking about the values and attitudes of the top decision-makers in government and business, do you think they are mostly the same or mostly different from your own.”

“In your view, how similar or different from each other are the goals and priorities of politicians and the general public.”

A 1998 survey by EKOS asked the question: “We would probably solve most of our big national problems if decisions could be brought to people at the grassroots.”

**Indicator:** III. Responsibilities of citizenship

**Definition/ Relevance:**

Perception of importance of voting in elections is an indicator of potential willingness to participate in civic activity.

**Source:** Paul Howe and David Northrup, Policy Matters, Institute for Research on Public Policy, July 2000, vol 1, no.5 (p.81)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 2000

**Trend over Time:**

In response to the question, “In your view, how important is it that people vote in elections?” 84% of the respondents said that voting is very important (43.2%) or essential (40.8%).

Very few people, only 3.1%, stated that voting in elections is “not at all important.

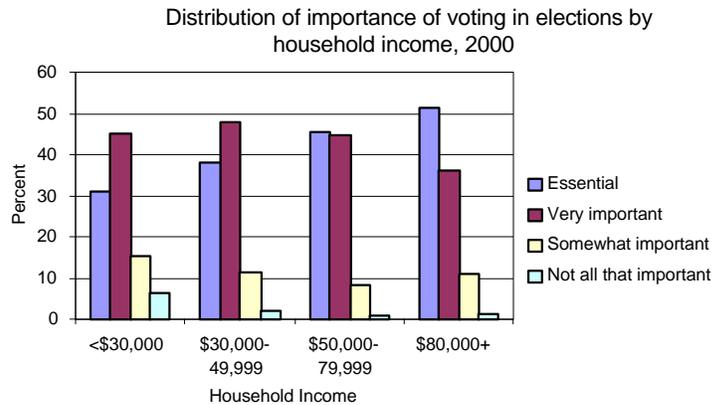
Distribution of importance of voting in elections, 2000	
	%
Essential	40.8
Very	43.2
Somewhat	11.8
Not all that	3.1
Don't	1.1
Total	100
(N)	(1278)

Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters, July 2000, vol 1, no 5 (p. 81)

**Disaggregation:**

The perceived importance of voting in elections increased with household income. For respondents living in households in which the income was less than \$30,000, 30.8% of the individuals surveyed said it was essential to vote. When the household income of respondents was \$80,000 or more, 51.4% said that voting was essential.

Respondents who felt that voting in elections is only somewhat important or not at all important was also lower among low income households. Over one-fifth (21.7%) of respondents living in households earning less than \$30,000 felt this way compared to 12.2% of those living in households with incomes of \$80,000 or more.



Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, 2000  
Excludes "Don't know" 1%-2%

Disaggregation is possible for age, gender, region, household income, and education.

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

This is not a regularly published survey.

#### 4.e Belonging

**Indicator:** I. Attachment to Community, Canada

#### Definition/ Relevance:

How proud respondent is to be Canadian. This indicator can be taken as important in terms of understanding whether Canada is a community of shared values.

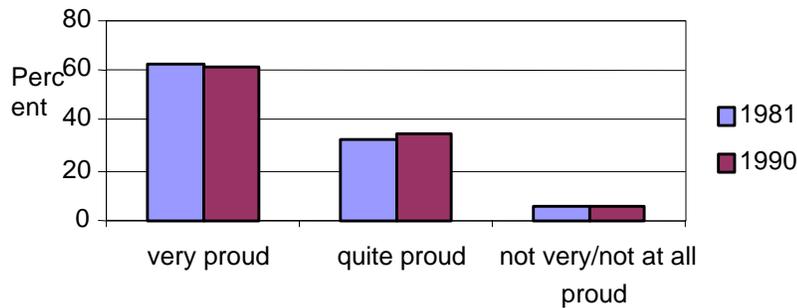
**Source:** World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990  
EKOS ([www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com), 2000)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1990

#### Trend over Time:

The majority of respondents took great pride in being Canadian. In 1981, 62.2% of respondents were very proud, decreasing slightly to 60.2% in 1990.

### Distribution of how proud to be Canadian, 1981 and 1990



Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

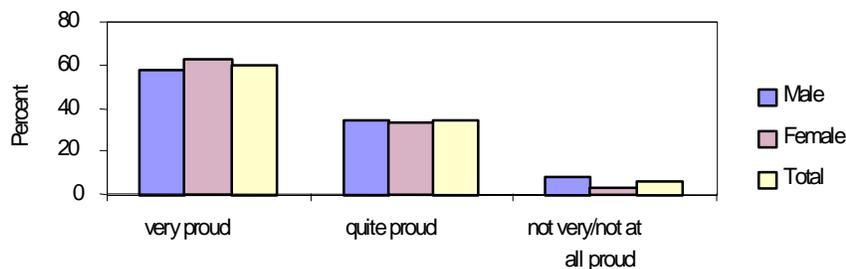
The percentage of respondents who reported they were not very proud or not at all proud to be Canadian remained relatively stable across the survey years (5.3% and 5.7%, respectively).

The EKOS website reports no significant change in pride in Canadian culture during the past 15 years.

#### Disaggregation:

In 1990, females (62.7%) were more likely to indicate they were very proud to be Canadian than were males (57.8%). In contrast, a higher percentage of males said they were not very or not proud at all to be Canadian (57.8%) during the most recent survey year.

### Distribution of proud to be Canadian by gender, 1990



Source: World Values Survey, 1990

#### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

EKOS has several possible questions on agreement with statements:

“Canadian culture is something we can all take pride in.”

“It may be difficult to identify precisely but there definitely is a unique Canadian culture.”

**Indicator:** II. Sense of belonging to community, Canada

**Definition/ Relevance:**

The question “to which group you belong first of all” establishes the primary source of identification in terms of community. Contrary to the view that national identity is receding in favour of global/local connections, the national community represents a strong and continuing source of belonging in Canada. This suggests that, for Canadians, the community of shared values exists at the national and then regional/local level.

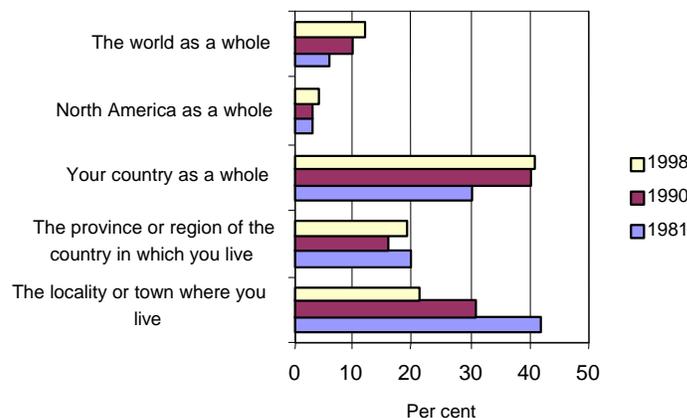
**Source:** World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990  
EKOS ([www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com), 2000)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

According to an EKOS survey, in 1998, 95% of respondents felt a strong sense of belonging to their family. In terms of geographic area, 81% indicated a strong sense of belonging to Canada. However, there was significant regional variation, for example, only 55% of respondents in Quebec felt this way about Canada.

**"To which of these groups would you say you belong, first of all?"**



Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990  
Rethinking Government, March 1998, [www.ekos.com](http://www.ekos.com)

A sense of belonging to Canada increased between 1981 and 1998 (from 30% to 41%). In contrast, sense of belonging to community decreased during this same time period (from 42% to 21%).

**Disaggregation:**

In 1981, 45.1% of females and 38.6% of males felt a sense of belonging to their town or community. By 1990, these figures had decreased for both men and women, and the differential had narrowed (29.4% of men and 32.4% of women).

Distribution of sense of belonging to selected items, 1981 and 1990

	1981		1990	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
The locality or town where you live	38.6	45.1	29.4	32.4
The province or region of the country in which you live	20.3	19.7	16.8	15.6
Your country as a whole	29.8	28.8	39.6	39.7
North America as a whole	4.1	1.6	3.3	2.5
The world as a whole	7.2	4.8	10.9	9.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

Disaggregation is possible by age, gender, and household income using the World Values Survey.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

This indicator indicates the utility of replicating World Values Survey questions on contemporary Canadian surveys (in terms of providing a time series and international comparisons).

## Part 5 – Participation

### 5.a Social Consumption / Social Support Networks

**Indicator:** I. Social support index

**Definition/Relevance:**

Social support is measured using a composite index of questions regarding whether the respondent has someone they can confide in, count on in a crisis situation, obtain advice when making important decisions, and someone who makes them feel loved and cared for. A higher score indicates greater social support.

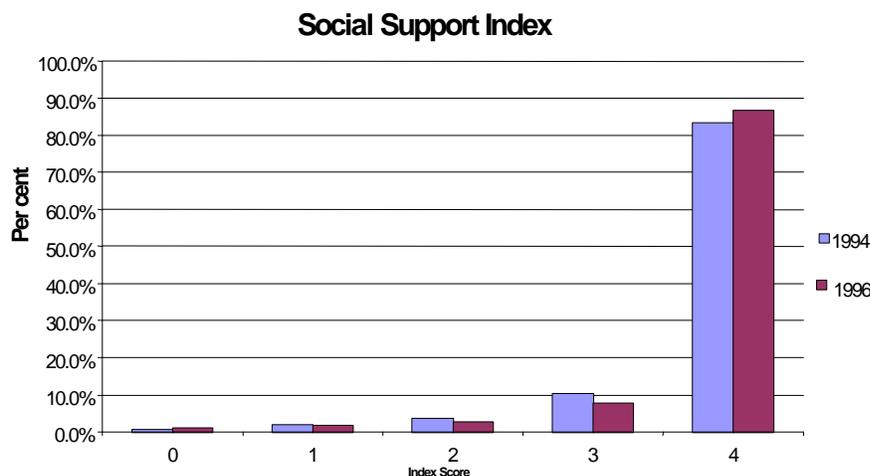
This is a direct indicator of social participation and participation in intimate social networks.

**Source:** Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

There has been a slight increase in the proportion of Canadians who scored high on the index between 1994 and 1996. This suggests that more Canadians are integrated into a socially supportive environment that includes support from family, friends and other support groups.



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Disaggregation:**

Data are presented for Canada and by gender for 1994 and 1996. In both 1994 and 1996 the overwhelming majority of males and females had high social support scores. However, the proportion of males who score highly on the social support index is relatively lower than the proportion of females. This gap decreased slightly over this time period.

The index information can be further disaggregated by age, province and income groups.

**Social Support Index, by Gender, 1994 and 1996**

Social Support Index	1994			1996		
	Male	Female	Canada	Male	Female	Canada
0	0.9%	0.6%	0.7%	1.5%	0.7%	1.1%
1	2.3%	1.5%	1.9%	2.4%	1.2%	1.8%
2	4.5%	3.2%	3.8%	3.0%	2.2%	2.6%
3	12.3%	8.6%	10.4%	8.9%	6.6%	7.7%
4	80.1%	86.0%	83.2%	84.2%	89.3%	86.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The NPHS has changed the social support questions for 1998 – some are similar, but not all. While the General Social Survey cycle 7 does provide social support questions they are not as well constructed.

**Indicator:** II. Attendance at Religious Services/Meetings

**Definition/Relevance:**

Respondents to the NPHS were asked to determine the frequency of their attendance at religious services or meetings on an annual basis.

This is a direct indicator of social participation and activities for those who attend religious services or meetings as well as an indicator of potential communal support and participation in social networks.

**Source:** Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996.

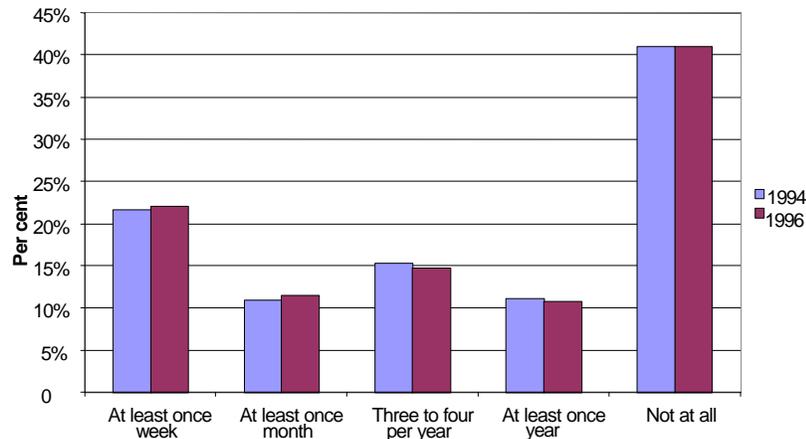
**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

The majority of Canadians attended a religious service or meeting at least once a year or more in both 1994 and 1996. However, a large proportion of Canadians did not attend any religious services at all. Of those Canadians who do attend religious services or

meetings over half attend these services at least once a month or more frequently. In fact, there has been a slight increase between 1994 and 1996 in the proportion of Canadians who attend religious services more frequently.

**Attendance at Religious Services/Meetings**



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Disaggregation:**

Females were much more likely than males to attend religious services or meetings on a frequent basis in both 1994 and 1996. There was a small increase in the proportion of females who attended religious services frequently from 1994 to 1996 – the proportion for males remained relatively unchanged.

This information can be further disaggregated by age, province and income groups.

**Attendance at Religious Services/Meetings in the Past Year, by Gender, 1994 and 1996**

Attended Religious Services	1994			1996		
	Male	Female	Canada	Male	Female	Canada
At least once per week	18.6%	24.5%	21.7%	18.5%	25.3%	22.0%
At least once per month	10.3%	11.6%	10.9%	10.8%	12.1%	11.5%
Three to four times per year	14.5%	16.0%	15.3%	14.2%	15.2%	14.7%
At least once per year	11.9%	10.4%	11.1%	11.7%	10.0%	10.8%
Not at all	44.7%	37.5%	41.0%	44.8%	37.4%	41.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The NPHS did not ask the question in 1998. It is not known whether the question will be included in subsequent cycles of the survey or has been permanently removed.

**Indicator:** III. Social involvement index

**Definition/Relevance:**

Social involvement is measured using a composite index that includes questions on a respondent's frequency of participation in associations or voluntary organizations and frequency of attendance at religious services in the last year. A higher score indicates greater social involvement.

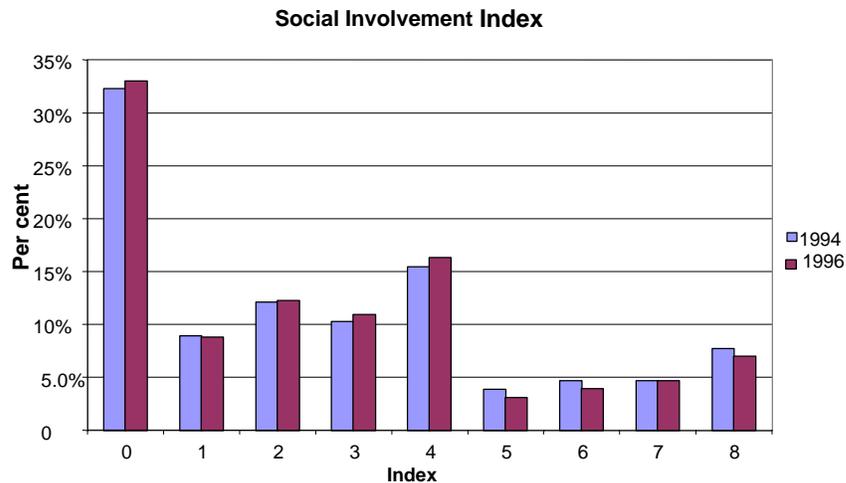
This indicator is a composite index that directly measures the social participation of Canadians in particular organizations and associations.

**Source:** Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

Most Canadians scored low on the social involvement index in both 1994 and 1996. This suggests that many Canadians are not involved very frequently in voluntary associations or religious groups. Just over one-third of Canadians obtained a score of 4 or more on the index in 1994 (36.5 per cent) and 1996 (35 per cent). There was a small decrease in the proportion of Canadians who scored high on the index between 1994 and 1996.



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Disaggregation:**

Females in Canada were somewhat more likely to be socially involved than males. However, the majority of both genders did not score very high on the index. Both genders experienced decreases in the proportion who scored above four on the index from 1994 to 1996. This decrease is slightly higher among males (from 34.2 to 32.4 per cent) than females (38.4 to 37.5 per cent).

This index information can be further disaggregated by age, province and income groups.

**Social Involvement Index, by Gender, 1994 and 1996**

Social Involvement Index	1994			1996		
	Male	Female	Canada	Male	Female	Canada
0	35.0%	29.8%	32.3%	36.0%	30.2%	33.0%
1	9.3%	8.5%	8.9%	9.4%	8.2%	8.8%
2	11.4%	12.7%	12.1%	11.9%	12.6%	12.2%
3	10.1%	10.6%	10.3%	10.5%	11.4%	11.0%
4	15.2%	15.8%	15.5%	15.4%	17.2%	16.3%
5	4.3%	3.4%	3.9%	3.2%	2.9%	3.1%
6	4.5%	4.8%	4.7%	3.8%	4.1%	3.9%
7	3.9%	5.4%	4.7%	4.1%	5.2%	4.7%
8	6.3%	9.0%	7.7%	5.9%	8.1%	7.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's *National Population Health Survey*, 1994 and 1996.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

The NPHS did not ask the questions pertaining to religious attendance and participation in voluntary organizations, which compose the social involvement index, for the 1998 cycle of the survey. It is not known whether these questions will be included in subsequent cycles of the survey or have been permanently removed.

**Indicator:** IV. Frequency of contact with family, friends

**Definition/Relevance:**

This is a direct indicator of social participation and participation in intimate social networks.

**Source:** Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey, General Social Survey (cycle 5 and cycle 12)

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1996/97

**Trend over Time:**

Most people aged 15 and over had weekly contact with family and friends. Weekly contact was most likely to occur with close friends (81%), followed by daughters/daughters-in-law (78%) and sons/son-in-law (74%).

Less than one in four Canadians had weekly contact with either their grandparents (23%) or other relatives (24%).

Percentage of Population Age 15 and Over Having Weekly Contact with Selected Family and Friends, (1996/97)	
Contact with:	%
grandparents	23
other relatives	24
siblings	46
neighbours	55
parental in-laws	67
sons/ sons-in-law	74
daughters/ daughters-in-law	78
close friends	81

Note: Percentages based on applicable population. For example, the population aged 15 and over with at least one living grandparent.

Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey microdata, 1996/97; The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

### Disaggregation:

Further research must be conducted.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

National Population Health Survey 1998 does not contain frequency of contact questions. Would need to purchase General Social Survey 5, and General Social Survey 12 when it comes out.

**Indicator:** V. Direct acts of support for family, friends

### Definition/Relevance:

*Unpaid Assistance* refers to the hours spent providing unpaid assistance to seniors for the week prior to Census day in 1996. Unpaid assistance includes such things as providing personal care, visiting, helping with shopping, baking or helping seniors take their medicine.

This is an indicator or reciprocity, of participation, and of the existence of close social networks.

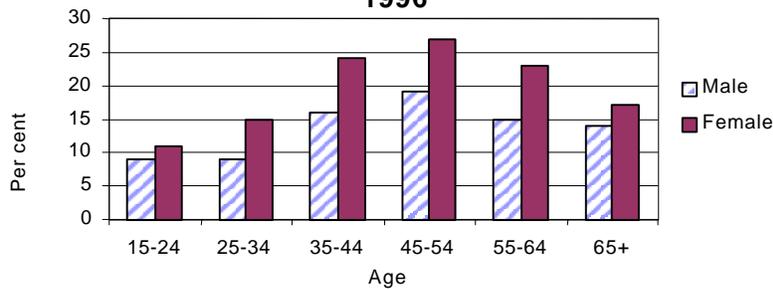
**Source:** 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey;  
1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating;  
Table 2.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE;  
Health Canada, Division of Aging and Seniors, *Canada's Seniors*, No. 34;  
Statistics Canada, 1996 Census, The Nation Series CD-Rom,  
93F0020XCB96004;  
The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

According to the 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, 16.7 million Canadians provided assistance to individuals outside of their household. This figure represents 71% of the population aged 15 and over, and is an increase of four percentage points compared to the 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey. Without going through an organization, these individuals provided a total of 62.5 million acts of support such as taking care of a child, visiting the elderly or shoveling a walkway.

**Percentage of Population Providing Unpaid Assistance to Seniors, by Age and Gender, 1996**



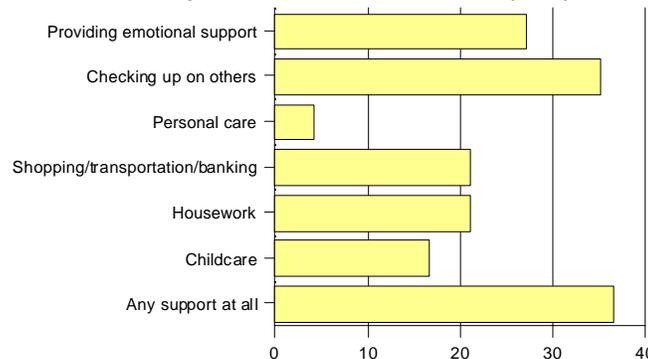
Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census, The Nation Series CD-Rom, 93F0020XCB96004, The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

**Disaggregation:**

In 1996, females were more likely than males, in all age groups, to provide unpaid assistance to seniors in the form of personal care, visiting, helping with shopping, baking or taking medicine.

Canadians aged 35-64 were most apt to provide support to seniors, particularly during the ages 45-54. In this age range, 19% of males and 27% of females provided unpaid assistance.

**Percentage of seniors providing assistance with personal or household chores (1996)**



Source: Health Canada, Canada's Senior's, No 34; The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

Almost one in four seniors (37%) provided support in the form of unpaid assistance. The most common source of support is checking up on others (35%), but seniors also contributed emotional support (27%) to others.

Over one in five seniors (21%) assisted others with tasks related to shopping/transportation/banking or with childcare.

Further disaggregation for unpaid care to seniors, unpaid housework and unpaid childcare from the Census is possible for age, gender, and province.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Further research must be conducted.

### 5.b Participation in Networks and Groups

**Indicator:** I. Voluntarism: average annual hours, participation in civic and voluntary activity

**Definition/Relevance:**

*Volunteers* are persons who volunteer, i.e. who willingly perform a service without pay, through a group or organization. The data refer to persons who volunteered at least once in the 12-month reference period preceding the survey.

**Source:** 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey;  
1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating;  
Table 2.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

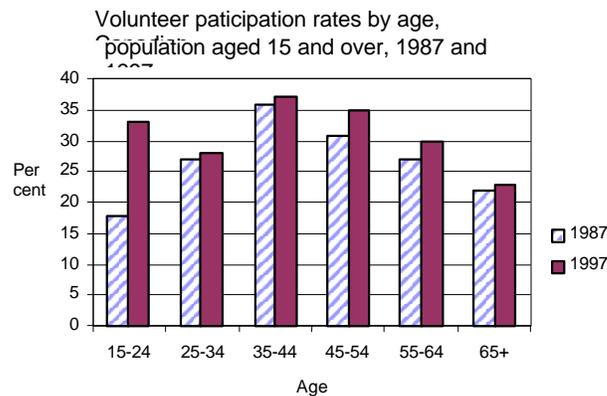
According to Statistics Canada, 26.8% of Canadians volunteered their time for at least one organization or group in 1987, rising to 31.4% in 1997. Although a higher percentage of Canadians volunteered in the most recent survey, the average number of hours volunteered per year has declined from 191 in 1987 to 149 in 1997.

Rate of volunteering and number of hours volunteered in the reference year, Canadian population aged 15 and over, 1987 and 1997		
	1987	1997
<b>Rate of volunteering</b>		
Total population (thousands)	19,902	23,808
Total volunteers	5,337	7,472
Volunteer participation rate	26.8%	31.4%
<b>Hours volunteered</b>		
Total hours volunteered (thousands)	1,017,548	1,108,924
Full-time year-round job equivalence	530,000	578,000
Average hours volunteered per year	191	149

Note: 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey, Statistics Canada Assuming 40 hours per week for 48 weeks.  
Source: Table 2.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

### Disaggregation:

Between 1987 and 1997, the percentage of volunteers increased for each age group. Volunteering was most common for those aged 35-44, however, the most dramatic increase was for Canadians aged 15-24. In 1997, 33% of Canadians in the youngest age group were more likely to engage in volunteer activity, compared to 18% a decade earlier.



Source: 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey; 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, Statistics Canada; Table 2.2 Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

Disaggregation for volunteer participation rates and average hours volunteered during the reference year is also available for gender, province, marital status, education, labour force status, and household income.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Further research must be conducted.

**Indicator:** II. Group Activities: membership in voluntary organizations, frequency of participation in organizations, membership in political organizations

**Definition/ Relevance:**

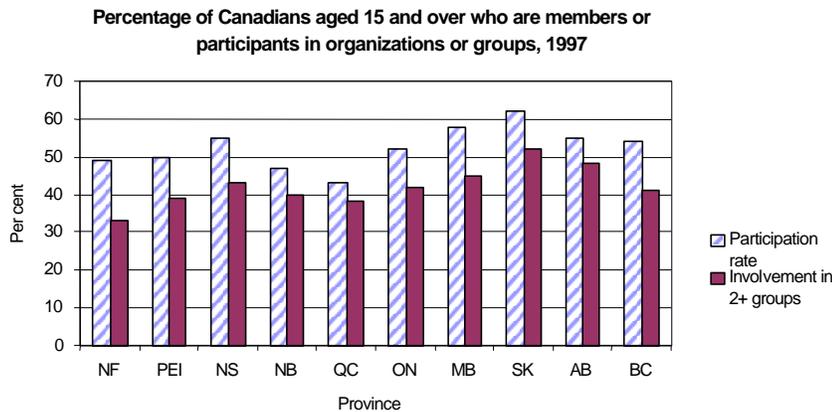
Civic participation can be measured as a broad set of activities that include involvement in civic or community life.

**Source:** 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; Table 2.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1998

**Trend over Time:**

The percentage of Canadians participating in organizations or groups is highest in Saskatchewan (62%) and Manitoba (58%) and is lowest in Quebec (43%). Saskatchewan also has the highest percentage of volunteers who are involved with two or more groups (52%) while Newfoundland has the lowest (33%).



Source: 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

Between November 1, 1996 and October 31, 1997, more than 12 million Canadians aged 15 and over were members of, or participated in, at least one community organization. Most commonly, respondents were involved with work-related groups or organizations, such as unions or professional associations (19% of respondents), sports and recreation organizations (18%), and groups affiliated with religious organizations (13%). Approximately 3% of respondents were involved with political organizations.

Percentage distribution of respondents to question "Have you ever been a member of a political party?", 2000	
Total (%)	
Yes	15.7
No	83.6
Don't know	0.6
Total	100.0
(N)	1278

Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters July 2000, vol. 1, no. 5, p.89

According to recent findings by the Institute for Research on Public Policy, 15.7% of respondents had belonged to a political party at some point in their lives.

The results from the 1981 and 1990 World Values Survey show that the percentage of respondents who belonged to political parties or groups at the time of the surveys was higher than those belonging to local community action groups. However, from 1981 to 1990 the likelihood of participation increased for both types of groups.

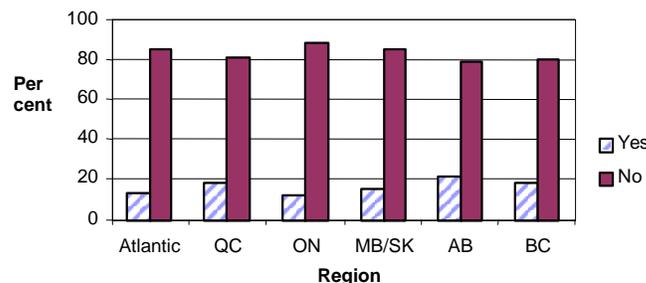
Do you belong to:	1981		1990	
	%	(n)	%	(n)
Political parties or groups	5.3	(66)	7.3	(127)
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	1.3	(16)	5.1	(89)

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

### Disaggregation:

Civic participation can be disaggregated by age, sex, marital status, education, labour force status, household income, and religious commitment. The percentage of participants who are involved in two or more organizations or groups can also be disaggregated by these characteristics.

Percentage distribution of respondents to question "Have you ever been a member of a political party?" by region, 2000



Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters, July 2000, vol 1. No. 5, p.89  
Excludes "Don't know" 0%-2%

Regionally, Albertans were most likely to have ever been a member of a political party (21.1%) while those living in Ontario were least likely to have ever been a political party member (12.1%).

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Additional question by the Institute for Research on Public Policy, *Policy Matters* July 2000, vol. 1, no. 5: “Have you ever been a member of an interest group working for change on a particular social or political issue?”

**Indicator:** III. Levels of philanthropic activity: number of charitable donors (\$)

**Definition/Relevance:**

*Donors* are persons who made donations of money to a charitable/non-profit organization during the period from November 1, 1996 to October 31, 1997. This definition excludes those who made donations of loose change to coin collection boxes (located beside cash registers at store check-outs).

**Source:** 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; Table 1.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE; Statistics Canada, *The Daily*, November 25, 1999

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

According to the 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, 78% of Canadians aged 15 and over (or 18.6 million) made donations of money to a charitable/non-profit organization during the 12-month period prior to the survey.

Donating rate, average and median of donations made by donors, population aged 15 and over,	
Donating rate (%)	78
Average donation (\$)	239
Median (\$)	76

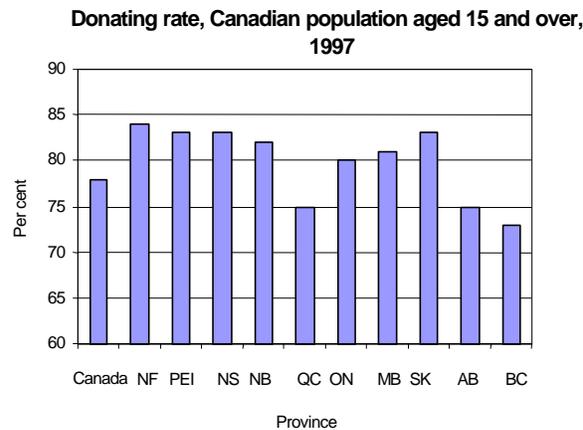
Note: Statistics Canada, 1997 National Survey Giving, Volunteering, and  
Source: Table 1.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-542-XPE

The average financial donation in the 12-month period prior to the survey was \$239 (excluding deposits of spare change). A small percentage of donors accounted for most of the donations. One-third of donors, gave \$150 or more during the year, and accounted for 86% of all donations.

In 1998, 5.4 million Canadians reported charitable donations on their income tax return<sup>12</sup>. Charitable donations increased from \$4.3 billion in 1997 to \$4.6 billion in 1998, after adjusting for inflation as measured by the Consumer Price Index. Since 1991, the total amount of donations has increased continuously every year.

### Disaggregation:

In terms of regional variation, the Atlantic provinces had the highest proportion of donors (e.g., 84% in Newfoundland) while British Columbia had the lowest (73%).



Source: Table 1.2 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE, 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating

Disaggregation is also available for age, gender, marital status, education, labour force status, and household income.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

No regular surveys are conducted, with the exception of tax data. Can check Charity Village or Canadian Centre for Philanthropy.

## 5.c Political Participation

**Indicator:** I. Voter turnout by level of government

### Definition/Relevance:

This is a key possible indicator of the level of civic engagement.

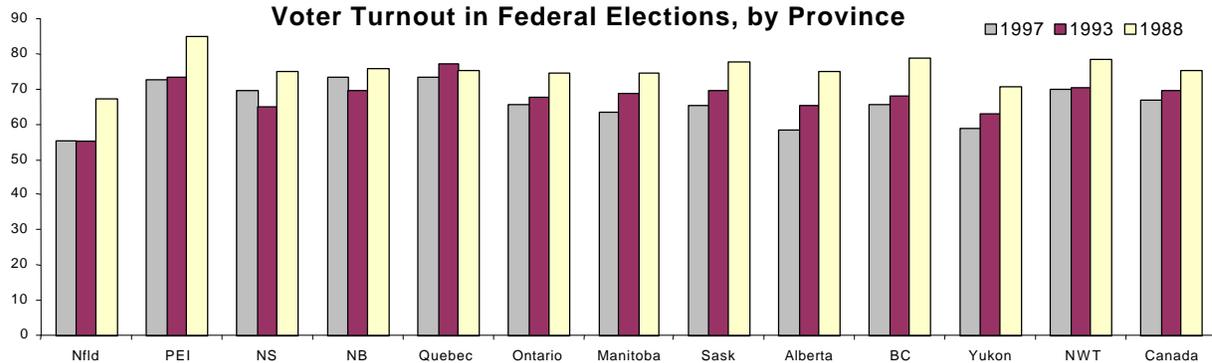
<sup>12</sup> Note: The databank on charitable donors provides information on taxfilers who claimed a tax credit for charitable donations on their income tax return in 1998. Only the amounts given to charities and approved organizations for which official tax receipts were provided can be deducted. It is possible to carry donations forward for up to five years after the year in which they were made. Therefore, donations reported for the 1998 taxation year could include donations made in any of the five previous years, but that were only claimed in 1998. According to tax laws, taxfilers are permitted to claim both their donations and those made by their spouses to get better tax benefits. Consequently, the number of persons who made charitable donations may be higher than the number of persons who claimed tax credits.

**Source:** Elections Canada and the provincial electoral officers.

**Baseline Data:** Last year for which data are available – 1997

**Trend over Time:**

In federal elections, voter turnout has been decreasing since 1988 and is now about 70%.



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using information provided by Elections Canada.

In provincial elections, only Saskatchewan and Yukon have shown increases in voter turnout over the past decade.

Canadian voter turnout still remains quite high relative to other countries, particularly the US.

**Disaggregation:**

There are no breakdowns by SES. There are however Provincial breakdowns and studies on voter behaviour which can provide extensive decomposition of turnout.

**Data gaps, limits and recommendation:**

Municipal elections would be a better measure of social cohesion at the neighbourhood level. The Federation of Canadian Municipalities Quality of Life Reporting System provides voter turnout data for 16 large municipalities, indicating a range from 27% to 58% in the most recent year. It is possible to go further back in time.

## Part 6 - Literacy

**Indicator:** I. Functional literacy levels

### Definition/Relevance:

Literacy can be seen as a key indirect and direct indicator of social cohesion. Lack of literacy skills is associated with potential exclusion from labour market opportunities, and with at least partial exclusion from cultural and community processes to the extent that these require literacy skills.

**Source:** IALS, Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities.  
Source: <http://www.nald.ca/NLS/nlsild/fact3.htm>

**Baseline data:** Last year for which data are available – 1994

### Trend over time:

The 1994 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) identified three types of literacy – prose literacy, document literacy and quantitative literacy – and measured proficiency at five different levels within each literacy type.

	Level			
	1	2	3	4/5
	Per cent			
Prose Scale	22	26	33	20
Document Scale	23	24	30	22
Quantitative Scale	22	26	32	20

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's and OECD IALS data.

Twenty two per cent of Canadians are at level 1. These people have difficulty reading and have few basic skills or strategies for decoding and working with text. Generally, they are aware that they have a literacy problem.

Twenty six per cent of Canadians are at level 2. These are people with limited skills who read but do not read well. Canadians at this level can deal only with material that is simple and clearly laid out. People at this level often do not recognize their limitations.

Thirty three per cent of Canadians are at level 3, which means that they can read well but may have problems with more complex tasks. This level is considered by many countries to be the minimum skill level for successful participation in society.

Only 20% of Canadians are at levels 4 or 5. These people have strong literacy skills, including a wide range of reading skills and many strategies for dealing with complex materials. These Canadians can meet most reading demands and can handle new reading challenges.

Note: the above percentages may not add up to 100 because of rounding.

### Disaggregation:

There is a marked difference in literacy between those who were educated primarily after WWII and those who were educated before that period. The disparity can be explained in large part by significant differences in educational attainment.

<b>Distribution of literacy by age group across three scales, Canadian adults aged 16 and over</b>				
Prose scale				
Level				
Age group	1	2	3	4/5
Per cent				
16 to 25	11	26	44	20
26 to 35	12	29	33	26
36 to 45	13	19	37	31
46 to 55	21	30	31	18
56 to 65	38	26	28	8
Over 65	53	27	19	...
Document scale				
Level				
Age group	1	2	3	4/5
16 to 25	10	22	36	31
26 to 35	14	25	34	28
36 to 45	14	22	37	27
46 to 55	23	31	24	22
56 to 65	44	24	24	...
Over 65	58	22	18	...
Quantitative scale				
Level				
Age group	1	2	3	4/5
16 to 25	10	29	45	17
26 to 35	12	26	35	28
36 to 45	12	22	36	30
46 to 55	24	32	25	19
56 to 65	40	22	31	7
Over 65	53	27	16	...

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using the International Adult Literacy Survey, 1994.

Further disaggregation is possible in the following areas: provincial differences, age (generational differences), gender, income, educational levels, occupation and employment status.

### Data gaps, limits and recommendation:

Not all aspects of literacy are comparable but the LSDA survey provided the basis for IALS. There are only 2 points in time. The next IALS is being developed.

*The Value of Words: Literacy and Economic Security in Canada.* (by Grant Schellenberg and Vivian Shallah, CCSD) addresses the issue of literacy and income in 1994.

*Literacy in the Information Age* (Statistics Canada and OECD, 2000) provides detailed comparisons between countries, and an analysis of the determinants of literacy. One key finding is that literacy levels are much ‘flatter’ in relative high income equality countries and that the link between socio-economic background and literacy is much weaker in these countries. Like health status and outcomes, literacy appears to be influenced by relative equality.

**Appendix I : Suggested Indicators of Social Cohesion:  
Conditions Favorable for Inclusive Social Cohesion**

Main Indicator	Suggested Measure	Years	Disaggregation	Source
<b>1. Economic conditions that impact socially cohesive</b>				
<b>1.a Distribution of Income</b>	* distribution of disposable income by pre-tax quintile	IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)	IDS or SCF - (A, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab,)	IDS or SCF or SLID
	* distribution of earnings (hourly/weekly) holding hours of work constant	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)	IDS or SCF - (A, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab,)	SCF / SLID
	* average disposable provincial income as % national average	IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)		IDS or SCF or SLID
	* visible minority total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (born in CA, outside CA, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
	* Aboriginal total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (A, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
	* PWD total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (A, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
<b>1.b Income Polarization</b>	* gini or ratio of P10/P90	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	SCF (A, G, R/P) / SLID	SCF / SLID
	* ratio of total income	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	SCF (A - youth/prime age, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab, PWD)	SCF / SLID, Earnings of Men and Women
	* intergenerational economic mobility			Corak re: inter-generational income mobility
<b>1.c Poverty</b>	* poverty rate (after tax LIM)	81, 89, 98	A, G, R/P	SCF/SLID
	* depth of poverty - total, average	81, 89, 98	A, G, R/P	SCF/SLID
	* duration of poverty	93-98	A, G, R/P	SLID
<b>1.d Employment</b>	* employment rate	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* IPT employment	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* % long-term unemployed (> 6 months)	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* % affected by unemployment over the year	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	SCF / SLID
<b>1.e Mobility</b>	* people in different residence 5 years earlier - within same municipality, within province, different province, different	90, 95	A, G, R/P	Census A, Annual Demographics
<b>2. Life Chances</b>				
<b>2.a Health Care</b>	* private health care spending as % household budget	92,96, 97	A, R/P, SES	FAMEX, Survey of Household
	* health spending as % GDP	80,89,97	R/P/int'l	CIHI (also found in OECD at a
	* waiting times / health care system usage	yrs vary depending on province and study	R/P	CIHI / Maclean's
	* CCSD survey: if you or a family member were hospitalized, would you be worried about how to pay for it?	98, 99	R/P, G, A, SES	
	* CCSD survey: if you were ill at home, is there a friend, family member who would look after you?	98, 99	R/P, G, A, SES	
<b>2.b Education</b>	* private education spending as % household budget	92,97	R/P, G, F, SES	FAMEX, HHLD Spending Survey
	* average student debt by amount of debt categories if available	86, 95	A, G, R/P	National Graduate Survey
	* high school and pse dropout rates		A, G, R/P	SCF, SLID, NGS
	* rate of high school graduates who do not go on to pse / training		A, G, R/P	NGS
<b>2.c Adequate and Affordable Housing</b>	* housing costs as % of hhld income	Famex (90, 92, 96) or Hife (81, 89, 96 - renters only)	owners/ renters, A, G, R/P	FAMEX, HFE
	* renter / owner ratio	Famex (90, 92, 96) / Hife (81, 89, 96) / SCF (80, 89,	(Depends on Dataset used - A, G, R/P)	FAMEX, SCF, HFE
	* homelessness			

3. Quality of Life				
<b>3.a Population Health</b>				
<b>Real</b>	* potential years of life lost (before age	81, 89, 97	G, R/P, SES	LCDC
	* major reasons for hospitalization and		A, G, R/P, SES	CIHI
<b>Perceived</b>	* CCSD survey: how would you rate your own health?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	CCSD
	* CCSD survey: how stressful is your life?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	CCSD
<b>3.b Personal and Family Security</b>				
<b>Real</b>	* homicide rate (per 100,000)	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	Juristat. Crime Statistics in Canada 1999
	* rate of aggravated assault (per 100,000)	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	
	* property crime rate (per 100,000) - break and enter, MV theft	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	Juristat
<b>Perceived</b>	* victimization rates	87, 93, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
	* CCSD survey: how would you rate your families safety?	98, 99	A, G, R/P	
	* how safe do you feel walking along in your area after dark?	87, 93, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
<b>3.c Economic Security</b>				
<b>Real</b>	* see section 1			
	* ratio of total mortgage and consumer debt to disposable income	80, 89, 99		National Accounts
<b>Perceived</b>	* CCSD survey: if you were in financial distress, is there a friend, neighbour or	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	
	* CCSD survey: how long could you sustain your family if you had to rely on	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	
<b>3.d State of the Family</b>				
	* custodial arrangements	94, 96, 98	A	NLSCY
	* family functioning scale	94, 96, 98	A, G, R/P, SES	NLSCY
	* quantity / quality of interaction between parents and children	94, 96, 98		NLSCY
	* child outcomes, i.e., behavioural, learning, etc.	94, 96, 98	A, G, R/P, SES	NLSCY
	* families with adult children at home	98	R/P, SES	
<b>3.e Time Use</b>				
	* average time spent in paid work, unpaid work, personal care, leisure	86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
	* time stress among 25-54 year-olds	96	A, G, R/P	NPHS
	* hours spent watching TV / playing on computer / playing video games	NLSCY - 94, 96, 98 // GSS - 86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	NLSCY, GSS
	* commuting times (and distance commuted)	86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	Transport Canada / GSS /
<b>3.f Built Environment:</b>				
<b>i. Infrastructure (places to engage in social</b>				
	*Attendance at nature parks	84/85,91/92,97/99	uncertain	Heritage Institutions
<b>ii. Communication Networks</b>				
	* data on community recreation centres, public parks, etc.			GSS
	* Canadian/local newspaper readership			GSS
	* computer/internet ownership	94, 96, 97,98	R/P, SES,F	HFE, GSS (1994) Household Internet Survey and Survey of Household Spending
	* internet use	97,98	R/P, SES,F	Internet Household Use Survey
<b>3.g Quality of Natural Environment</b>				
	* air quality data	91, 95	selected cities	Air Quality Index, selected cities by EnvCan. Air Quality Indicators Database
	* water quality data			
	* food and waterborne diseases		R/P	National Notifiable Disease Registry, LCDC, H.C.

<b>Elements of Socially Cohesive Activity</b>				
<b>Main Indicator</b>	<b>Suggested Measure</b>	<b>Years</b>	<b>Disaggregation</b>	<b>Source</b>
<b>4. Willingness to Cooperate</b>				
4.a Trust in People	* would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can never be too careful in your dealings with		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.b Confidence in Institutions	* confidence in health care system, public education, justice, parliament (shared sense of ownership over governing process)		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* political efficacy		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.c Respect for Diversity	* In your opinion, do you feel there are too many, too few, ...immigrants coming to Canada?	94, 95, 96, 97, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* Does the fact that we accept immigrants from many different cultures make our culture stronger or weaker?	96, 97, 98, 99	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.d Understanding of Reciprocity	* These days I'm so hard pressed to take care of my own needs that I worry less about the needs of others. (principles of reciprocity)	94, 97, 99	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* support for "buy in" into public system		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* responsibilities of citizenship		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.e Belonging	* attachment to community, Canada		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* sense of belonging to community, Canada		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
<b>5. Participation</b>				
5.a Social Consumption / Social Support Networks	* social support index - community involvement, church attendance, parental involvement with school	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS
	* frequency of contact with family, friends	94, 96, 98 (GSS 5, 10)	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS 5, 10)
	* direct acts of support for family, friends	87, 97	A,G, R/P, SES	Volunteering survey
5.b Participation in Networks and Groups				
i. Voluntarism	* average annual hours	87, 97	A,G, R/P, SES	Volunteering survey
	* participation in civic and voluntary activity	86, 92, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	GSS
ii. Group Activities	* participation in sport activities	86, 92, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	GSS
	* membership in voluntary organizations	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS, volunteering survey)
	* frequency of participation in organization	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS, volunteering survey)
	* membership in political organizations		A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS
iii. Levels of Philanthropic Activity	* number of charitable donors (\$)		A,G, R/P, SES	Tax data, volunteering survey (97)
5.c Political Participation	* voter turnout by level of government	fed, prov (years will vary)	R/P	Elections Canada
6. Literacy	* functional literacy levels	89, 94	A,G, R/P, SES	IALS, Survey of literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities.

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## Appendix II – Databases and Abbreviations

### **Major Databases:**

#### *National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY)*

The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY), developed by Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, collects information on over 20,000 children (newborns to 13 years of age). Starting in 1994, the NLSCY will survey these children every two years until they reach adulthood. In the first cycle of the survey, both the child's primary caregiver and teacher were asked to provide information, as were children aged 10 and 11. In the second cycle of the survey in 1996, children aged 12 and 13 were also included. The NLSCY includes a broad range of family, household, and community characteristics affecting child development.

#### *National Population Health Survey (NPHS)*

The National Population Health Survey (NPHS), conducted by Statistics Canada, collects information related to the health of the Canadian population. A cross-section of information is obtained by surveying all members of the survey households (58,000 individuals). To collect longitudinal information, one respondent per household, aged 12 years and older, is surveyed (18,000 individuals). Data will be collected every two years, starting in 1994.

#### *Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF)*

The Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF) is an annual Statistics Canada survey that provides a cross-section of information on the sources and distribution of income for families and individuals. Data are obtained from approximately 38,000 households in Canada, excluding persons living in the Yukon, Northwest Territories, on Indian reserves and Crown lands, and residents of institutions.

#### *1996 Census*

Statistics Canada's 1996 Census provides national coverage of the entire Canadian population, including variables on demographic, social, cultural, labour force, and income data as well as details on dwellings, households and families. Generally, data are presented for Canada, the provinces, territories and for Census Metropolitan Areas. Some tables include comparisons with data from earlier Censuses.

#### *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID)*

Beginning in 1993, the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) is an ongoing longitudinal survey that interviews each sample member over a six-year period. The longitudinal nature of this survey as well as the extensive data content allow analysis of issues related to the labour market and income, including low income and changes in income over time.

#### *National Graduate Survey (NGS)*

This Statistics Canada survey, sponsored by Human Resources Development Canada, provides information on the integration of recent graduates into the labour market. Data are collected on such things as jobs obtained since graduation (number, type and duration of jobs) the length of the job search, the relationship between the students' education or training and the jobs obtained, and any additional studies or

training since graduation. Surveys were conducted in 1978, 1984, 1988, 1992, and 1997 for students who had graduated two years earlier. Data used in this report are from the 1992 and 1997 surveys.

#### *Personal Security Index Survey (PSI)*

This survey is commissioned by CCSD and is conducted in December of each year. Sample size of the survey population was 1500 persons in 1998 and more than 3000 persons in 1999.

#### *World Value Survey (WVS)*

This data collection is designed to enable cross-national comparison of values and norms in a wide variety of areas and to monitor changes in values and attitudes of mass publics in 45 societies around the world. Broad topics covered are work, the meaning and purpose of life, family life, and contemporary social issues.

#### *Labour Force Survey (LFS)*

The Canadian Labour Force Survey (LFS) is a source of monthly estimates of employment and unemployment. Following each decennial census, the LFS has undergone a sample redesign to reflect changes in population characteristics and to respond to changes in the information needs to be satisfied by the survey. The redesign program following the 1991 census culminated with the introduction of a new sample at the beginning of 1995.

#### *Survey of Household Spending (HFS)*

The public-use microdata file for the Survey of Household Spending provides detailed information on household expenditures, dwelling characteristics, and ownership of household equipment such as appliances, audio and video equipment, and vehicles. Expenditure categories include: shelter expenses, furnishings and equipment, cost of running the home, communications, child care, food, alcohol and tobacco products, clothing, gifts, medical and health care, transportation and travel, recreation, reading materials, education, taxes, insurance payments and pension contributions.

#### *General Social Survey – Time use cycles (GSS)*

The General Social Survey, cycle 12, collected data from persons 15 years and older. The core content of time use repeats that of Cycle 7 (1992) and Cycle 2(1986), and provides data on the daily activities of Canadians. Question modules were also included on unpaid work activities, cultural activities and participation in sports. The target population of the General Social Survey consisted of all individuals aged 15 and over living in a private household in one of the ten provinces.

#### *National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating*

The purpose of the survey was to ask Canadians 15 years of age and over about the ways in which they support one another and their communities through their involvement in giving, volunteering and participating. This survey is a first for Canada and given the scale of the survey, it is one of the first times internationally that volunteering, giving and civic participation have been looked at in such a large and integrated fashion.

#### *The Survey of Family expenditures (FAMEX)*

The Survey of Family expenditures provides detailed information on household expenditures including: housing (type and value of dwelling, mortgage, additions,

renovations and installations); characteristics of reference person and spouse (income by source, occupation, employment); household characteristics (members, employment insurance and social assistance indicators); food and shelter; household operation (communication, child care, household supplies); household furnishings and equipment; clothing (by age, sex of household members); transportation (public and private); health care; personal care; recreation; reading materials and other printed matter; education (tuition and supplies); tobacco products and alcoholic beverages; miscellaneous (interest payments, games of chance, taxes, insurance payments and pension contributions, money gifts and contributions); and total expenditure.

*Abbreviations:*

**IDS: Income Distribution by Size from Statistics Canada**

*A: Age*

*G: Gender*

*R/P: Regional/Provincial*

*SES: Socio-economic Status*

*VM: Member of a visible minority*

*CIHI: Canadian Institute on Health Information*

*OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development*