CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE NO. 11-008

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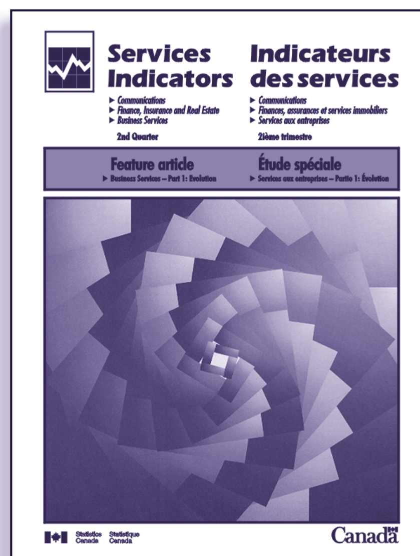

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Jay Li graduated from the Fine Art Academy of Guangzhou, China. During the past 10 years, he travelled around Europe and Australia to study and develop his oil painting. His works have been exhibited in several countries, including Canada. He now resides in Ottawa.

100 years of immigration in Canada

by Monica Boyd and Michael Vickers

Record numbers of immigrants came to Canada in the early 1900s. During World War I and the Depression years, numbers declined but by the close of the 20th century, they had again approached those recorded almost 100 years earlier. Despite the superficial similarities at the beginning and the end of a century of immigration, the characteristics of immigrants are quite different. This change reflects many factors: developments and modifications in Canada's immigration polices; the displacement of peoples by wars and political upheaval; the cycle of economic "booms and busts" in Canada and other countries; Canada's membership in the Commonwealth; the growth of communication, transportation, and economic networks linking people around the world.

These forces have operated throughout the 20th century to alter the basic characteristics of Canada's immigrant population in five fundamental ways. First, the numbers of immigrants arriving each year have waxed and waned, meaning that the importance of immigration for Canada's population growth has fluctuated. Second, immigrants increasingly chose to live in Canada's largest cities. Third, the predominance of men among adult immigrants declined as family migration grew and women came to represent slightly over half of immigrants. Fourth, the marked transformation in the countries in which immigrants had been born enhanced the ethnic diversity of Canadian society. Fifth, alongside Canada's transition from an agricultural to a knowledge-based economy, immigrants were increasingly employed in the manufacturing and service sectors of the economy. This article provides an overview of these important changes over the last 100 years.

The early years: 1900-1915

The 20th century opened with the arrival of nearly 42,000 immigrants in 1900. Numbers quickly escalated to a record high of over 400,000 in 1913. Canada's economy was growing rapidly during these years, and immigrants were drawn by the promise of good job prospects. The building of the transcontinental railway, the settlement of the prairies and expanding industrial production intensified demand for labour. Aggressive recruitment campaigns by the Canadian government to boost immigration and attract workers also increased arrivals: between 1900 and 1914, more than 2.9 million people entered Canada, nearly four times as many as had arrived in the previous 14-year period.

Such volumes of immigrants quickly enlarged Canada's population. Between 1901 and 1911, net migration (the excess of those arriving over those leaving) accounted for 44% of population growth, a level not reached again for another 75 years. The share of the overall population born outside Canada also increased in consequence, so that while immigrants accounted for 13% of the population in 1901, by 1911 they made up 22%.

Most of the foreign-born population lived in Ontario at the start of the century, but many later immigrants headed west. By 1911, 41% of Canada's immigrant population lived in the Prairies, up from 20% recorded in the 1901 Census. This influx had a profound effect on the populations of the western provinces. By 1911, immigrants represented 41% of people living in Manitoba, 50% in Saskatchewan, and 57% of those in Alberta and British Columbia. In contrast, they made up less than 10% of the population in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec, and only 20% in Ontario.

Men greatly outnumbered women among people settling in Canada in the first two decades of the 20th century.[1] The 1911 Census recorded 158 immigrant males for every 100 females, compared with 103 Canadian-born males for 100 females. These unbalanced gender ratios are not uncommon in the history of settlement countries such as Canada, Australia and the United States. They often reflect labour recruitment efforts targeted at men rather than women, as well as the behaviour of immigrants themselves. In migration

CST What you should know about this study

This article draws on numerous data sources, with the principal sources being the 1901 to 1996 Censuses of Population and immigration statistics collected by Citizenship and Immigration Canada. It also draws on research by historians and sociologists specializing in immigration issues. A full bibliography is available on the *Canadian Social Trends* website at http://www.statcan.ca/english/indepth/11-008/sthome.htm

Immigration: the movement of people into a country for purposes of legal settlement.

Net migration: the difference between immigration and emigration (the flow of people leaving the country permanently).

Immigrants/foreign-born: principally people who are, or have been, landed immigrants in Canada. A landed immigrant is a person who has been granted the right to live in Canada permanently by immigration authorities. Some are recent arrivals; others have resided in Canada for many years.

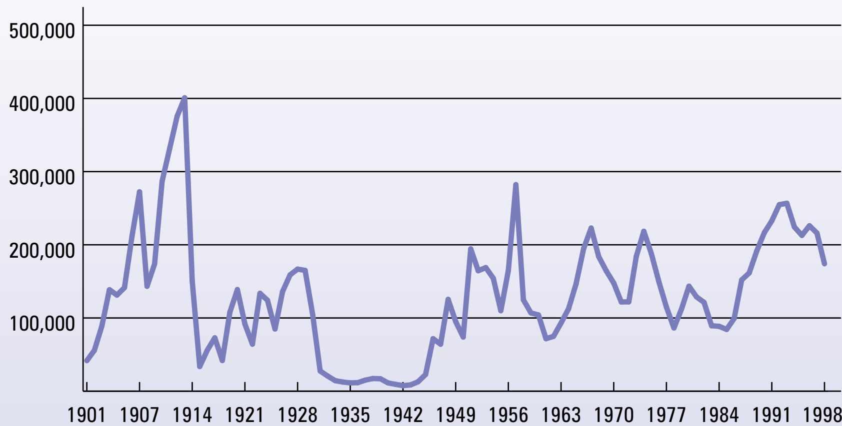
Non-permanent residents: people from another country who live in Canada and have work, student, or Minister's permits, or claim refugee status. They are not included in the immigrant population after 1986, except in growth projections.

Refugee: according to the 1951 United Nations Convention on refugees, a refugee is a person who "…owing to well founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country…" As a signatory to this convention, Canada uses the UN definition of a refugee in assessing who is eligible to enter Canada as a refugee.

Visible minority population: 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: Blacks, South Asians, Chinese, Koreans, Japanese, Southeast Asians, Filipinos, Arabs and West Asians, Latin Americans and Pacific Islanders.

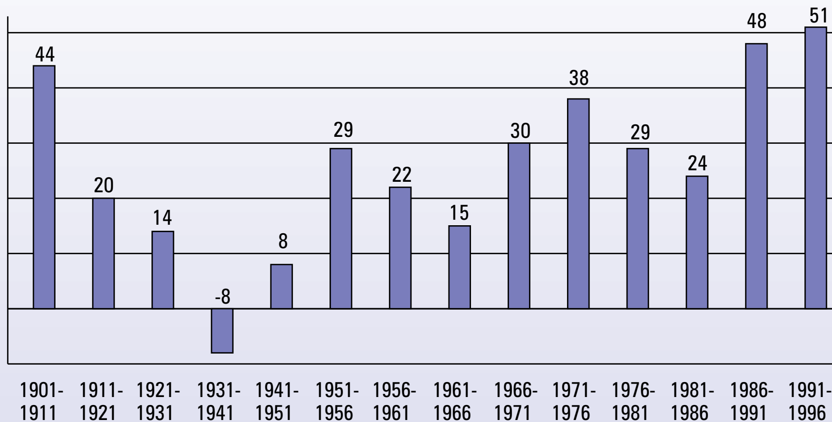
1. Urquhart, M.C. and K.A.H. Buckley. 1965. *Historical Statistics of Canada.*

Immigration has fluctuated over the century, with the biggest spikes occurring in the 1910s, 1950s and 1990s



Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada, Facts and Figures 1998: Immigration Overview.

Immigration has been an important contributor to total population growth throughout the 20th century



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-402-XPE.

flows, particularly those motivated by economic reasons, men frequently precede women, either because the move is viewed as temporary and there is no need to uproot family members, or because the man intends to become economically established before being joined by his family. By the time of the 1921 Census, the gender ratio for immigrants had become less skewed, standing at 125 immigrant males for every 100 immigrant females. It continued to decline throughout the century, reaching 94 per 100 in 1996.

Of course, women also immigrated for economic reasons in the early decades of the century. There was strong demand for female domestic workers, with women in England, Scotland and Wales being most often targeted for recruitment. Between 1904 and 1914, "domestic" was by far the most common occupation reported by adult women immigrants (almost 30%) arriving from overseas. Men immigrating from overseas during that period were more likely to be unskilled and semi-skilled labourers (36%) or to have a farming occupation (32%).[2] Historians observe that, contrary to the image of immigrants being farmers and homesteaders, immigrants at the turn of the century were also factory and construction workers. And although many did settle in the western provinces, many also worked building railroads or moved into the large cities, fueling the growth of industrial centres.

Immigration from outside Britain and the U.S. begins to grow in 1910s

At the start of the century, the majority of immigrants to Canada had originated in the United States or the United Kingdom. However, during the 1910s and 1920s, the number born in other European countries began to grow, slowly at first, and then rising to its highest levels in 1961 and 1971.

This change in countries of origin had begun in the closing decades of the 19th century, when many new groups began to arrive in Canada — Doukhobors and Jewish refugees from Russia, Hungarians, Mormons from the U.S., Italians and Ukrainians. This flow continued up until World War I. It generated public debate about who should be admitted to Canada: for some writers and politicians, recruiting labour was the key issue, not the changing origins of immigrants; for others, British and American immigrants were to be preferred to those from southern or eastern European countries.

2. Ibid.

By comparison, immigration from Asia was very low at this time, in dramatic contrast to the situation at the end of the 20th century. Government policies regulating immigration had been rudimentary during the late 1800s, but when legislation was enacted in the early 1900s, it focused primarily on preventing immigration on the grounds of poverty, mental incompetence or on the basis of non-European origins. Even though Chinese immigrant workers had helped to build the transcontinental railroad, in 1885 the first piece of legislation regulating future Chinese immigration required every person of Chinese origin to pay a tax of $50 upon entering Canada. At the time, this was a very large sum. The "head tax" was increased to $100 in 1900, and to $500 in 1903. This fee meant that many Chinese men could not afford to bring brides or wives to Canada.[3]

The *Act of 1906* prohibited the landing of persons defined as "feeble-minded," having "loathsome or contagious diseases," "paupers," persons "likely to become public charges," criminals and "those of undesirable morality." In 1908, the Act was amended to prohibit the landing of those persons who did not come to Canada directly from their country of origin. This provision effectively excluded the immigration of people from India, who had to book passage on ships sailing from countries outside India because there were no direct sailings between Calcutta and Vancouver. Also in the early 1900s, the Canadian government entered into a series of agreements with Japan that restricted Japanese migration.[4]

The Wars and the Great Depression: 1915-1946

With the outbreak of the First World War, immigration quickly came to a near standstill. From a record high of

Elderly immigrants

Most immigrants in Canada are adults between the ages of 25 and 64. However, the proportion of immigrants who are aged 65 and older has increased considerably over the decades, from less than 6% in 1921 to 18% in 1996. Two main demographic trends explain this development. The first is the ageing of the longer established immigrant population, many of whom arrived in Canada shortly after the Second World War. The second trend is the growth in the proportion of recent immigrants who are elderly; this has resulted from immigration policies that put greater emphasis on family reunification, thereby allowing Canadians to sponsor elderly relatives as immigrants.

Elderly immigrants from developing countries, who comprise the majority of more recent arrivals, exhibit a greater degree of income polarization than those from developed countries, who have generally lived in Canada much longer. Among immigrants from developing countries, the difference in the share of overall income held by those in the top income quartile and by those in the bottom quartile is much greater than the difference for other immigrants. This may be because many immigrants either have not worked long enough to have made significant contributions to public or private pension plans, or they have not resided in Canada long enough to qualify for basic old age security benefits. The educational attainment of immigrants at arrival also influences their income through its effect on their work history, further contributing to this polarization.

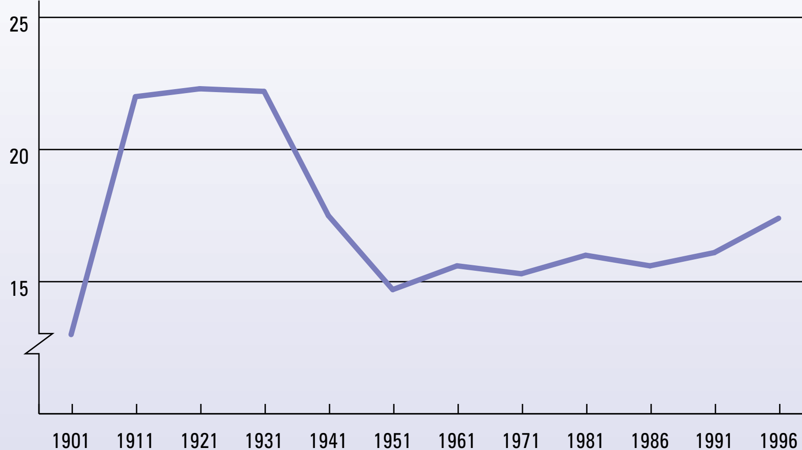
As with Canadian-born seniors, an important issue for elderly immigrants is the decline in their incomes as they age. Income security is particularly important for elderly immigrant women who, like Canadian-born women, live longer than men and so must stretch their retirement benefits further. A 1989 study found that elderly women who had arrived in Canada since the 1970s were more likely to have low incomes than women or men who were either Canadian-born or long-term immigrants. Furthermore, recent immigrants from developing countries were at a greater disadvantage than recent immigrants from developed countries.

However, concerns about the growth in the number of elderly low-income immigrants should be tempered by recent research on migration flows, which indicates that a considerable proportion of older immigrants leave Canada, perhaps to return to their countries of origin. Indeed, by age 75 net migration is negative, that is, more immigrants in this age group leave Canada than arrive.

- For more information, see K.G. Basavarajappa, 1999. *Distribution, Inequality and Concentration of Income Among Older Immigrants in Canada, 1990,* Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 11F0019MPE, #129; M. Boyd, 1989. "Immigration and income security policies in Canada: Implications for elderly immigrant women," *Population Research and Policy Review,* 8; M. Michalowski, 1993. "The elderly and international migration in Canada: 1971-1986," *Genus*, IL, 1-2.

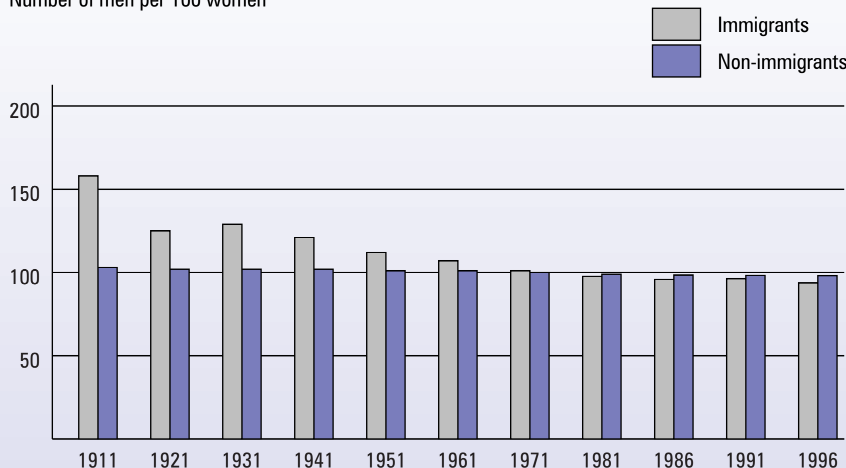
3. As evidence of this fact, the 1911 Census recorded 2,790 Chinese males for every 100 Chinese females, a figure far in excess of the overall ratio of 158 immigrant males for every 100 immigrant females.
4. It should be noted that although Asians were the most severely targeted by efforts to reduce immigration by non-Europeans, other ethnic groups such as blacks from the United States and the Caribbean also were singled out. Calliste, A. 1993. "Race, gender and Canadian immigration policy," *Journal of Canadian Studies,* 28; Kelley, N. and M. Trebilcock. 1998. *The Making of the mosaic: A history of Canadian immigration policy;* Troper, H. 1972. *Only farmers need apply.*

CST In the early decades of the 20th century, over one in five people in Canada were immigrants



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 99-936 and Product no. 93F0020XCB.

CST The ratio of men to women immigrants stabilized with family reunification programs



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 99-936, 93-155, 93-316 and Product no. 93F0020XCB

over 400,000 in 1913, arrivals dropped sharply to less than 34,000 by 1915. Although numbers rebounded after the war, they never again reached the levels attained before 1914. As a result, net immigration accounted for about 20% of Canada's population growth between 1911 and 1921, less than half the contribution made in the previous decade. However, the influence of earlier foreign-born arrivals continued, reinforced by the more modest levels of wartime and post-war immigration: at the time of the 1921 Census, immigrants still comprised 22% of the population.

The number of immigrants coming to Canada rose during the 1920s, with well above 150,000 per year entering in the last three years of the decade. But the Great Depression and the Second World War severely curtailed arrivals during the 1930s and early 1940s — numbers fluctuated between 7,600 and 27,500. Furthermore, there was actually a net migration loss of 92,000 as more people left Canada than entered between 1931 and 1941. The 1930s is the only decade in the 20th century in which this occurred. By the time of the 1941 Census, the percentage of the total population that was foreign-born had fallen to just under 18%.

While more men than women had immigrated to Canada in the first three decades of the century, the situation was reversed when immigration declined in the 1930s and 1940s. During this period, women outnumbered men, accounting for 60% of all adult arrivals between 1931 and 1940, and for 66% between 1941 and 1945.[5] As a result of these changes, the overall gender ratio of the immigrant population declined slightly.

While lower numbers and the predominance of women among adult immigrants represent shifts in previous immigration patterns, other trends were more stable. The majority of immigrants continued to settle in Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia. Increasingly, though, they gravitated to urban areas, foreshadowing the pattern of recent immigration concentration in large cities that became so evident in the last years of the century.

Britain was still the leading source of immigrants, but the arrival of people from other parts of the globe also continued. During the 1920s, the aftershocks of World War I and the Russian Revolution stimulated migration from Germany, Russia, the Ukraine, and eastern European

5. Urquhart and Buckley. 1965.

countries including Poland and Hungary.[6] During the Depression, the majority of immigrants came from Great Britain, Germany, Austria and the Ukraine. Fewer than 6% were of non-European origin.

Public debate over whom to admit and the development of immigration policy to regulate admissions was far from over. Regulations passed in 1919 provided new grounds for deportation and denied entry to enemy aliens, to those who were enemy aliens during the war, and to Doukhobors, Mennonites and Hutterites.[7] The 1923 *Chinese Immigration Act* restricted Chinese immigration still further.[8] Responding to labour market pressures following the Crash of 1929 and the collapse of the Prairie economy, farm workers, domestics and several other occupational groups, as well as relatives of landed immigrants, were struck from the list of admissible classes. Asian immigration was also cut back again.[9]

Then, with the declaration of war on Germany on September 10, 1939, new regulations were passed which prohibited the entry or landing of nationals of countries with which Canada was at war. In the absence of a refugee policy that distinguished between immigrants and refugees, the restrictions imposed in the interwar years raised barriers to those fleeing the chaos and devastation of World War II. Many of those turned away at this time were Jewish refugees attempting to leave Europe.[10] War-related measures also included the forced relocation — often to detention camps — of Japanese-Canadians living within a 100-mile area along the British Columbia coastline. It was argued that they might assist a Japanese invasion.

The boom years: 1946-1970

The war in Europe ended with Germany's surrender on May 6, 1945; in the Pacific, Japan surrendered on August 14. With the return of peace, both Canada's economy and immigration boomed. Between 1946 and 1950, over 430,000 immigrants arrived, exceeding the total number admitted in the previous 15 years.

The immediate post-war immigration boom included the dependents of Canadian servicemen who had married abroad, refugees, and people seeking economic opportunities in Canada. Beginning in July 1946, and continuing throughout the late 1940s, Orders-in-Council paved the way for the admission of people who had been displaced from their homelands by the war and for whom return was not possible.[11] The ruination of the European economy and the unprecedented boom in Canada also favoured high immigration levels.

Numbers continued to grow throughout most of the 1950s, peaking at over 282,000 admissions in 1957. By 1958, immigration levels were beginning to fall, partly because economic conditions were improving in Europe, and partly because, with the Canadian economy slowing, the government introduced administrative policies designed to reduce the rate of immigration. By 1962, however, the economy had recovered and arrivals increased for six successive years. Although admissions never reached the record highs observed in the early part of the century, the total number of immigrants entering Canada in the 1950s and 1960s far exceeded the levels observed in the preceding three decades.

During this time, net migration was higher than it had been in almost 50 years, but it accounted for no more than 30% of total population growth between 1951 and 1971. The population effect of the large number of foreign-born arrivals was muted by the magnitude of natural growth caused by the unprecedented birth rates recorded during the baby boom from 1946 to 1965.

Many of the new immigrants settled in cities, so that by 1961, 81% of foreign-born Canadians lived in an urban area, compared with 68% of Canadian-born. The proportion of the immigrant population living in Ontario continued to grow, accelerating a trend that had begun earlier in the century; in contrast, the proportion living in the Prairie provinces declined.

Such shifts in residential location went hand-in-hand with Canada's transformation from a rural agricultural and resource-based economy in the early years of the century to an urban manufacturing and service-based economy in the later years. Postwar immigrants were important sources of labour for this emerging economy, especially in the early 1950s. Compared to those arriving at the turn of the century, the postwar immigrants were more likely to be professional or skilled workers and they accounted for over half of the growth in these occupations between 1951 and 1961.

Although the largest number of immigrants arriving after World War II were from the United Kingdom, people from other European countries were an increasingly predominant part of the mix. During the late 1940s and 1950s, substantial numbers also

6. Kelley and Trebilcock. 1998; Knowles, V. 1997. *Strangers at our gates: Canadian immigration and immigration policy, 1540-1997.*
7. Kalbach, W. 1970. *The impact of immigration on Canada's population.* Knowles. 1997.
8. Avery, D.H. 2000. "Immigration: Peopling Canada," *The Beaver;* Kalbach, W. 1970.
9. Kalbach. 1970; Statistics Canada. *Immigrants in Canada: Selected highlights.* 1990.
10. Abella, I. and H. Troper. 1982. *None is too many: Canada and the Jews of Europe, 1933-1948.* Kelley and Trebilcock. 1998; Knowles. 1997.
11. Kalbach. 1970; Knowles, 1997.

arrived from Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, Poland and the U.S.S.R. Following the 1956 Soviet invasion of Hungary, Canada also admitted over 37,000 Hungarians, while the Suez Crisis of the same year saw the arrival of almost 109,000 British immigrants.[12] During the 1960s, the trend increased. By the time of the 1971 Census, less than one-third of the foreign-born population had been born in the United Kingdom; half came from other European countries, many from Italy.

New policies help direct postwar immigration trends

Much of the postwar immigration to Canada was stimulated by people displaced by war or political upheaval, as well as by the weakness of the European economies. However, Canada's postwar immigration policies also were an important factor. Because they were statements of who would be admitted and under what conditions, these policies influenced the numbers of arrivals, the types of immigrants, and the country of origin of new arrivals.

Within two years of the war ending, on May 1, 1947, Prime Minister MacKenzie King reaffirmed that immigration was vital for Canada's growth, but he also indicated that the numbers and country of origin of immigrants would be regulated. Five years later, the *Immigration Act* of 1952 consolidated many postwar changes to immigration regulations that had been enacted since the previous Act of 1927. Subsequent regulations that spelled out the possible grounds for limiting admissions included national origin; on this basis, admissible persons were defined to be those with birth or citizenship in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa and selected European countries.

In 1962, however, new regulations effectively removed national origins as a criterion of admission. Further regulations enacted in 1967 confirmed this principle and instead introduced a system that assigned points based on the age, education, language skills and economic characteristics of applicants. These policy changes made it much easier for persons born outside Europe and the United States to immigrate to Canada.

The 1967 regulations also reaffirmed the right, first extended in the 1950s, of immigrants to sponsor relatives to enter Canada. Family-based immigration had always co-existed alongside economically motivated immigration, but now it was clearly defined. As wives, mothers, aunts and sisters, women participated in these family reunification endeavours:

12. Kalbach. 1970; Kelley and Trebilcock. 1998; Avery. 2000; Hawkins, F. 1972. *Canada and Immigration: Public Policy and Public Concern.*

Children of immigrants

One of the main reasons why people choose to uproot themselves and immigrate to another country is their desire to provide greater opportunities for their children. Thus, one of the main indicators used to measure the success of an immigrant's adaptation to Canadian society is the degree of success that their children achieve.

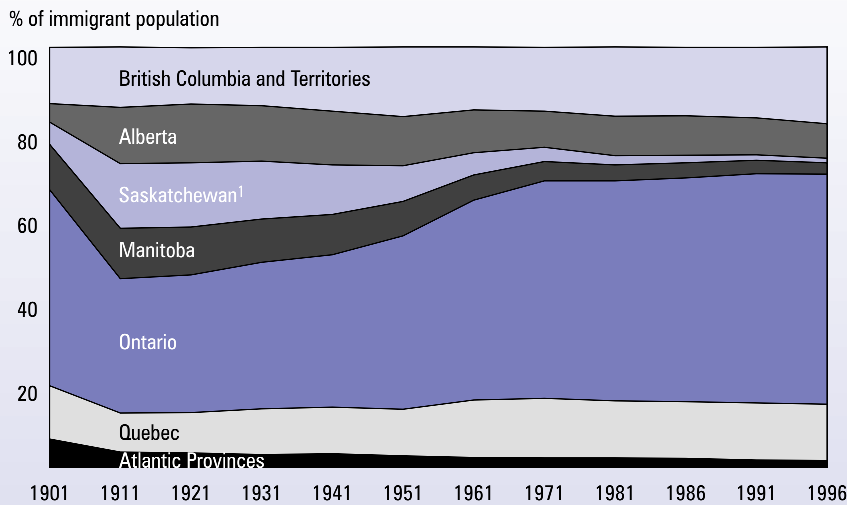
Such success is measured primarily in terms of socioeconomic factors, such as increased educational attainment and level of occupational status, compared with the preceding generation. Analysis of data from the 1986 and 1994 General Social Surveys indicate that second generation immigrants (Canadian-born children with at least one foreign-born parent) are generally more successful than their immigrant parents, and equally or more successful than third generation children (both of whose parents are Canadian-born).

These findings are consistent with the "straight line" theory of the process of immigrant integration, which asserts that integration is cumulative: with each passing generation since immigration, the measurable differences between the descendants of immigrants and the Canadian-born are reduced until they are virtually indistinguishable. However, this theory's dominance has been challenged in recent years by analysts who argue that it is based primarily on the experiences of immigrants who were largely white and European, and whose children grew up during a period of unprecedented economic growth. They argue that this theory applies less well to more recent immigrants because it ignores changes in the social and economic structure of Canada in the latter half of the 20th century. Also, it discounts the impact of barriers facing young immigrants, who are predominantly visible minorities, in their ability to integrate successfully.

Possible evidence of such barriers to the integration of the children of immigrants may be seen in an analysis of ethnic origin data for Canada's largest cities from the 1991 Census. This study found that among members of the so-called "1.5 generation" — the foreign-born children of immigrant parents — non-European ethnic origin groups were more likely to live in households that were more crowded and had lower per-capita household incomes than those with European origins.

- For more information, see M. Boyd and E.M. Grieco. 1998. "Triumphant transitions: Socio-economic achievements of the second generation in Canada," *International Migration Review;* M. Boyd, 2000. "Ethnicity and immigrant offspring," *Race and Ethnicity: A Reader.*

CST For most of the 20th century, most immigrants settled in Ontario, British Columbia and Quebec



Sources: Statistics Canada, Product no. 93F0020XCB and 1901 Census of Population (Bulletin VIII).

women accounted for almost half of all adult immigrants entering Canada during the 1950s and 1960s. As a result of this gender parity in immigration flows, gender ratios declined over time for the foreign-born population.

Growth and diversity: 1970-1996

In the 1960s, changes in immigration policy were made by altering the regulations that governed implementation of the *Immigration Act* of 1952. But in 1978, a new *Immigration Act* came into effect. This Act upheld the principles of admissions laid out in the regulations of the 1960s: family reunification and economic contributions. For the first time in Canada's history, the new Act also incorporated the principle of admissions based on humanitarian grounds. Previously, refugee admissions had been handled through special procedures and regulations. The Act also required the Minister responsible for the immigration portfolio to set annual immigration targets in consultation with the provinces.

From the 1970s through the 1990s, immigration numbers fluctuated. The overall impact, however, continued to be a significant contribution to Canada's total population growth that increased as the century drew to a close. During the early and mid-1970s, net migration represented nearly 38% of the total increase in the population; with consistently high levels of arrivals between 1986 and 1996, it accounted for about half of the population growth. These percentages exceeded those recorded in the 1910s and the 1920s. The cumulative effect of net migration from the 1970s onward was a gradual increase in the percentage of foreign-born Canadians. By the time of the 1996 Census, immigrants comprised just over 17% of the population, the largest proportion in more than 50 years.

Having an immigration policy based on principles of family reunification and labour market contribution also recast the composition of the immigrant population. It meant that people from all nations could be admitted if they met the criteria as described in the immigration regulations. The inclusion of humanitarian-based admissions also permitted the entry of refugees from countries outside Europe. As a result, the immigrants who entered Canada from 1966 onward came from many different countries and possessed more diverse cultural backgrounds than earlier immigrants. Each successive Census recorded declining percentages of the immigrant population that had been born in European countries, the United Kingdom and the United States.

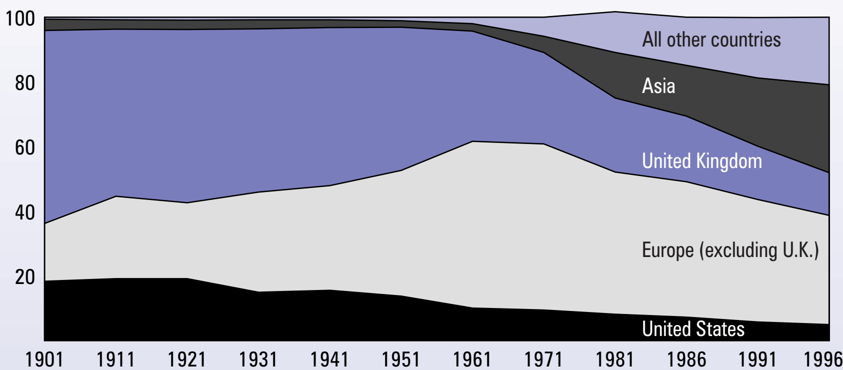
Meanwhile, the proportion of immigrants born in Asian countries and other regions of the world began to rise, slowly at first and then more quickly through the 1980s. By 1996, 27% of the immigrant population in Canada had been born in Asia and another 21% came from places other than the United States, the United Kingdom or Europe. The top five countries of birth for immigrants arriving between 1991 and 1996 were Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, India, the Philippines and Sri Lanka. Together, these five countries accounted for more than one-third of all immigrants who arrived in those five years.

Immigration the largest contributor to growth of visible minority population

The visible minority population has grown dramatically in the last two decades. In 1996, 11.2 % of Canada's population — 3.2 million people — identified themselves as members of a visible minority group, up from under 5% in 1981. Immigration has been a big contributor to this growth: about seven in 10 visible minorities are immigrants, almost half of whom have arrived since 1981.

Most immigrants live in Canada's big cities, with the largest numbers concentrated in the census metropolitan areas (CMAs) of Toronto, Montréal and Vancouver. This continues the trend established earlier in the century. Proportionally more immigrants than Canadian-born have preferred to settle in urban areas, attracted by economic opportunities

CST The birthplaces of Canada's immigrant population began to change in the 1950s



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 99-517 (Vol.VII, Part 1), 92-727 (Vol.I, Part 3), 92-913 and Product no. 93F0020XCB.

and by the presence of other immigrants from the same countries or regions of the world. In 1996, 85% of all immigrants lived in a CMA, compared with just 57% of the Canadian-born population. As a result, the largest CMAs have a higher concentration of immigrants than the national average of just over 17%. In 1996, 42% of Toronto's population, 35% of Vancouver's and 18% of Montréal's were foreign-born.

The attraction to urban centres helps to explain the provincial distribution of immigrants. Since the 1940s, a disproportionate share has lived in Ontario and the percentage has continued to rise over time. By 1996, 55% of all immigrants lived in Ontario, compared with 18% in British Columbia and 13% in Quebec.

Recent immigrants' adjustment to labour force can be difficult

Just as immigrants have contributed to the growth in Canada's population, to its diversity and to its cities, so too have they contributed to its economy. During the last few decades, most employment opportunities have shifted from manufacturing to service industries, and immigrants are an important source of labour for some of these industries. However, compared with non-immigrants, they are more likely to be employed in the personal services industries, manufacturing and construction. Moreover, the likelihood of being employed in one industry rather than another often differs depending on the immigrant's sex, age at arrival, education, knowledge of English and/or French and length of time in Canada.

Living in a new society generally entails a period of adjustment, particularly when a person must look for work, learn a new language, or deal with an educational system, medical services, government agencies, and laws that may differ significantly from those in his or her country of origin. The difficulty of transition may be seen in the labour market profile of recent immigrants: compared with longer-established immigrants, and with those born in Canada, many may experience higher unemployment rates, hold jobs that do not reflect their level of training and education, and earn lower incomes.

In 1996, immigrants aged 25 to 44 who had arrived in the previous five years had lower labour force participation rates and lower employment rates than the Canadian-born, even though they were generally better educated and more than 90% could speak at least one official language.[13] Both male and female immigrants who were recent arrivals were more likely than the Canadian-born to be employed in sales and services occupations and in processing, manufacturing and utilities jobs. However, the proportion of immigrant men in many professional occupations was similar to that of Canadian-born men; in contrast, recent immigrant women were considerably less likely than Canadian-born women to be employed in occupations in business, finance, administration, health, social sciences, education and government services. Recent immigrants also earned less on average than the Canadian-born.[14]

In the past, the disparities between recent immigrants and the Canadian-born have often disappeared over time, indicating that initial labour market difficulties reflect the adjustment process. The differences in the 1990s may also result from the diminished employment opportunities available during the recession, also a period of difficulty for the Canadian-born who were new entrants to the job market. Nevertheless, the gaps in employment rates and earnings widened between recent immigrants and the Canadian-born during the 1980s and 1990s, suggesting that newcomers were having an increasingly difficult time in the initial stages of labour market adjustment.

13. Badets, J. and L. Howatson-Leo. 1999. "Recent immigrants in the labour force," *Canadian Social Trends*, Spring 1999.

14. Picot, G. and A. Heisz. 2000. *The performance of the 1990s Canadian labour market.* Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 11F0019MIE00148, #148.

Summary

Few would quarrel with the statement that the 20th century in Canada was an era of enormous change. Every area of life, ranging from the economy to family to law, was altered over the course of a hundred years. Immigration was not immune to these transformative forces. The size and character of immigration flows were influenced by economic booms and busts, by world wars and national immigration policies, and indirectly by expanding communication, transportation and economic links around the world.

The ebb and flow of immigration has presented the most volatile changes over the last 100 years. The century began with the greatest number of immigrant arrivals ever recorded. Thereafter, levels fluctuated, often with dramatic swings from one decade to the next. The lowest levels were recorded in the 1930s during the Depression. By the close of the century, though, the number of immigrants arriving annually were again sufficiently large that net migration accounted for over half of Canada's population growth.

Other changes in immigration are better described as trends, for they followed a course that was cumulative rather than reversible. The high ratio of men to women immigrants dropped steadily throughout the century. There were two main reasons for this decline. First, the number of men immigrating fell during the two wars and the Depression; and second, the number of women immigrants increased in the last half of the century as a result of family reunification after World War II and of family migration, in which women, men and their children immigrated together.

Even in the 1900s and 1910s, the foreign-born were more likely to live in urban areas. After the initial settlement of the Prairies in the early 1900s, the trend toward urban settlement accelerated. By the 1990s, the vast majority of recent immigrants were residing in census metropolitan areas, mainly those of Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal.

Government policies regulating who would be admitted and under what conditions also evolved. Much of the effort during the first 50 years of the century focused on restricting immigration from regions of the world other than the U.S., Britain, and Europe. This position changed in the 1960s, when national origin was

Non-permanent residents

One category of newcomers to Canada that has grown considerably in recent years is that of non-permanent residents. Although they accounted for less than one percent of the total national population (or 167,000 persons) at the time of the 1996 Census, the importance of these people, particularly to the labour force, is growing.

Non-permanent residents comprise a diverse group: they include highly skilled managers and technicians, semi-skilled agricultural and domestic workers, refugee claimants and foreign students. They differ from landed immigrants in that they are more likely to be of prime working age (20 to 49 years old) and men significantly outnumber women. They do, however, resemble recent immigrants in that they have congregated primarily in Canada's largest urban areas: nearly three-quarters of them live in the CMAs of Toronto, Vancouver and Montreal. Temporary residents probably congregate in the cities because that is where the work is (for temporary workers) and where the major educational institutions are located (for foreign students). Refugee claimants also tend to settle in larger cities, partly because they represent the principal entry points to the country, and partly because work and support services are more likely to be available.

The largest group of non-permanent residents is that of persons admitted for temporary employment. Since the early 1980s, the number of temporary workers has exceeded the number of working-age immigrants (15 to 64 years), sometimes by a ratio of more than two to one. Although foreign managers and business people have historically resided in Canada to direct the operations of foreign-owned enterprises, the image of temporary workers also includes persons from developing countries working in low-skilled jobs. However, in the wake of the FTA and NAFTA agreements, and with the growing demand for labour from information technology industries, this image of the temporary worker is quickly being replaced by one of highly skilled managerial or technical employees.

Another significant group of non-permanent residents is composed of persons waiting for rulings on their refugee claims. Indeed, one of the largest single increases in the number of non-permanent residents occurred in 1989. Almost 100,000 refugee claimants and out of status foreigners were given the opportunity to apply for permanent residence from inside Canada, under a special Backlog Clearance Program and were given the right to work without having to apply for Employment Authorization.

- For more information, see M. Michalowski, 1996. "Visitors and visa workers: Old wine in new bottles?" *International Migration, Refugee Flows and Human Rights in North America: The Impact of Free Trade and Restructuring*; C. McKie, 1994. "Temporary residents of Canada," *Canadian Social Trends*, Spring 1994.

removed as a criterion for entry. The policies enacted thereafter entrenched the basic principles guiding admissions, such as family reunification, economic contributions, and humanitarian concerns. With these changes, the source countries of immigrants to Canada substantially altered. By 1996, close to half of the foreign-born in Canada were from countries other than the U.K., the U.S. and Europe.

As a result of these changes, Canada at the close of the 20th century contrasted sharply with Canada 100 years before. Immigrants had increased the population; they had diversified the ethnic and linguistic composition of the country; and they had laboured in both the agrarian economy of old, and in the new industrial and service-based economy of the future.

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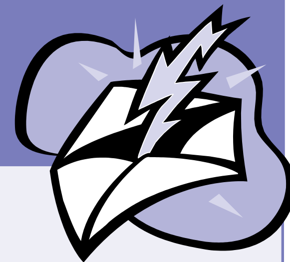

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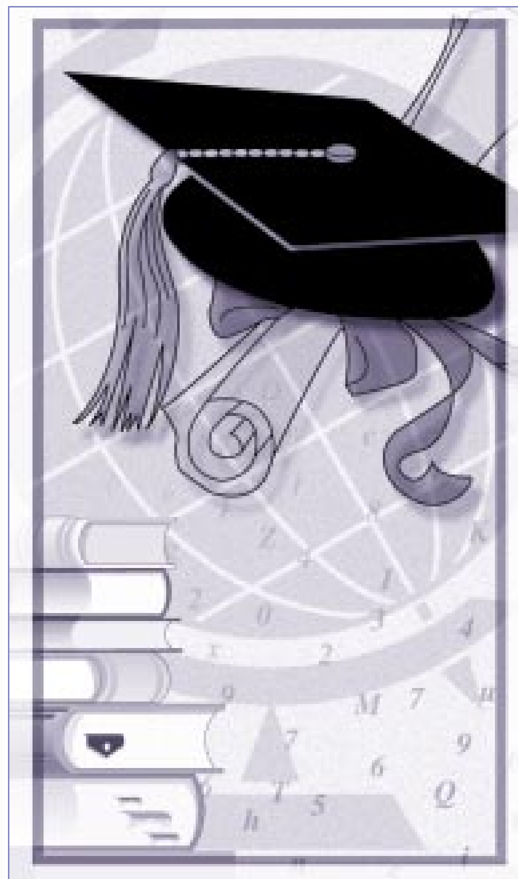

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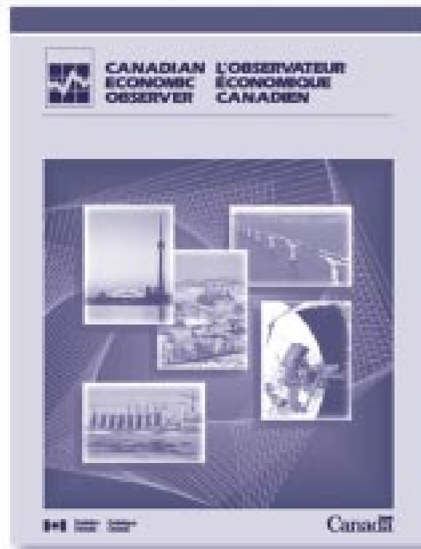

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Passing on the language: Heritage language diversity in Canada

by Brian Harrison

One of the most striking effects of immigration in the last quarter of the 20th century has been the diversity of new languages introduced in Canada. The number of people whose mother tongue was neither French nor English rose from 2.8 million in 1971 to 4.7 million in 1996. This multilingual aspect of the nation is one of its defining social characteristics, as few countries are home to such a broad range of cultural and linguistic groups.

While fluency in at least one of the official languages is generally necessary for socioeconomic success, maintaining one's mother tongue, and passing it on to the next generation, are often perceived as important to immigrants' cultural and personal well-being. To this end, many children participate in heritage language training, which is often held on weekends in schools, community centres and churches across the country. These programs signal the value that new Canadians place on their children speaking a heritage language.

Another indication of the importance of heritage languages is their proliferation in the broadcast and print media. Ethnic radio and television stations that broadcast in languages such as Chinese, Italian, Spanish and Polish have sprung up in cities with significant immigrant populations. For example, CFMT International in Ontario has a range of programming in more than fifteen languages and estimates their total audience at more than 800,000 (excluding English language programming). There is an abundance of weekly and monthly newspapers and newsletters in languages other than English and French, but there are also daily publications for the larger ethnic populations. These include Chinese daily

CST What you should know about this study

This study uses language data from the Censuses of Population. Analysis focuses on the thirteen heritage language groups with a mother tongue population of more than 100,000 in 1996: Chinese, Italian, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Polish, Punjabi, Ukrainian, Arabic, Tagalog, Dutch, Greek and Vietnamese.

Heritage language: a language other than English or French.

Mother tongue: language first learned at home in childhood and still understood at the time of the census.

Home language: language spoken most often at home by the individual at the time of the census.

Knowledge of heritage language: the ability to conduct a conversation in a language other than English or French.

Children: children aged 5 to 14 in two-parent families.

Endogamous marriage: marriage within a group (i.e. both parents have the same heritage language as mother tongue).

Exogamous marriage: marriage outside a group (i.e. parents do not have the same heritage language mother tongue).

newspapers that are published in Vancouver and Toronto, and an Italian daily, based in Toronto, which has been published for more than 40 years.

Obviously, there are many people in Canada who read, write, understand or speak a language other than English or French. This article looks at the evolution of heritage languages in the last half of the 20th century, with a focus on their transmission from one generation to the next.

Language changes in the 20th century reflect different origins of immigrants

Except for Aboriginal languages, the heritage languages are an imported phenomenon. Immigrants and their countries of origin changed considerably throughout the last century, contributing to a major transformation in the language composition of the nation. The most prominent heritage languages identified by the 1996 Census differ considerably from those of 1941, when the modern definition of mother tongue was used for the first time.

In 1941, German and Ukrainian were the most frequently reported heritage mother tongue languages in Canada. Many people had immigrated to Canada from Austria, Germany, the Ukraine and Russia in the first decades of the century. German has remained a major language group ever since, largely due to an influx of immigrants during the 1950s, but the number of Canadians with German mother tongue has declined since 1961. Ukrainian, which grew substantially until 1961, has also been declining since that time. Other languages, such as Yiddish, Norwegian, Swedish and Finnish — all major language groups in 1941 — were not replenished by new generations of immigrants from the same language groups, and have faded from the top ten.[1]

Changes in the ranking of the top 10 heritage language groups reflect shifts in immigrants' countries of origin

	1941	1961	1981	1991	1996
Top 10 in 1941	(000s with language as mother tongue)				
German	322	564	516	491	471
Ukrainian	313	361	285	201	175
Yiddish	130	82	31	28	24
Polish	129	162	127	200	222
Italian	80	340	531	539	514
Norwegian	60	40	19	14	11
Russian	52	43	31	38	60
Swedish	50	33	17	13	11
Finnish	37	45	33	29	26
Chinese	34	49	224	517	736
Top 10 in 1996					
Chinese	34	49	224	517	736
Italian	80	340	531	539	514
German	322	564	516	491	471
Spanish	1	7	70	188	229
Portuguese	n/a	n/a	165	221	223
Polish	129	162	127	200	222
Punjabi	n/a	n/a	54	147	215
Ukrainian	313	361	285	201	175
Arabic	n/a	n/a	69	119	166
Tagalog	n/a	n/a	8	116	158

Note: Data for 1991 and 1996 include both single and multiple responses. Data not collected for Portuguese and Arabic until 1971; data not collected for Punjabi and Tagalog until 1981.
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

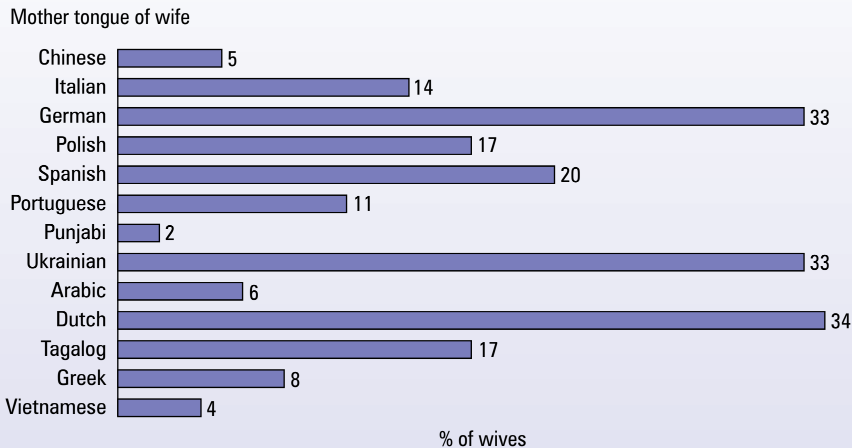
In contrast, the number of people claiming Chinese as their mother tongue increased sevenfold in the 40 years from 1941 to 1981, and then almost tripled in the next 15 years. By 1996, Chinese was by far the most common heritage language in Canada, reported as mother tongue by almost three-quarters of a million people. Italian also became a major language group in the last half of the 20th century, fuelled by heavy immigration during the two decades between 1951 and 1971. Meanwhile, languages as diverse as Spanish, Punjabi, Arabic and Tagalog, some of them with so few speakers that data were not even tabulated for them before 1981, were all major heritage language groups by the 1990s.

The process of integration

The process of cultural integration in the 20th century is behind much of the shift in rankings of the early heritage language groups in Canada. When immigrants first arrive here,

1. In 1996, Yiddish was 34th, Norwegian 46th, Swedish 48th and Finnish 31st.

Having a husband with English or French mother tongue is generally more common among women from older heritage language groups



Note: Data for single responses only.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Population.

they often have limited ability in the official languages and they identify strongly with their cultural heritage. Consequently, they often retain their mother tongue as the language they speak most often in the home. However, the children will be exposed to English or French at school, in playgrounds, on television and radio and often through sports and other community activities. In many cases, the children have a greater knowledge of the official languages than their parents. With the passage of time, both the immigrants and their children tend to function more within the dominant cultures, whether English or French. Eventually, the children may marry outside their linguistic and cultural group and when they have children of their own, those children may have little opportunity to speak the heritage language.[2]

Marriage into the mainstream

Although today's heritage language groups include people who were born in Canada, most have a very high proportion of immigrants. In 1996, immigrants comprised 71% of the population of the 13 largest language groups. The proportion varies widely between the groups, from a high of 92% for Tagalog to a low of 25% for Ukrainian, but only four language groups — Italian, Greek, German and Ukrainian — were below the overall average of 71%.

It is not surprising to find that marriage to someone with a different mother tongue is generally more common among groups that came to Canada earlier in the century; among those that have a high percentage of newer immigrants, marriage into an official language group is uncommon. For example, in 1996, only 5% of wives whose mother tongue was Chinese had a husband whose mother tongue was English or French; by contrast, the figure was 34% for wives whose mother tongue was Dutch. Exogamous marriage is clearly a rarity in the newer Chinese community, but not in the older established Dutch, German and Ukrainian communities. However, some groups characterized by high immigration in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s (such as the Italian and Portuguese) have not experienced the same degree of exogamy.

Passing the language to the next generation easier in endogamous marriages

A common result of marriage outside one's own heritage language group is the adoption of an official language as the children's mother tongue. When only one parent has a heritage language as a mother tongue, the chances of the child having it as well are slim indeed. The percentages range from highs of 20% for children with a Spanish or Punjabi mother tongue parent to lows of 3% for those with an Italian or Ukrainian and only 1% for those with a Dutch mother tongue parent.

As one might expect, though, people in endogamous marriages where both parents have the same mother tongue have a far greater tendency to pass a heritage language on to their children. At least three-quarters of children whose parents' mother tongue was Polish, Chinese, Spanish, Punjabi or Vietnamese had the same mother tongue. On the other hand, some groups have a lower tendency to pass on the language. Such is the case for Dutch, Italian and Tagalog, where fewer than half of these children shared their parents' mother tongue.

The reasons why parents choose to transmit the heritage language are complex. Many new immigrants wish to promote a certain type of bilingualism for their children. They often want their children to identify with their cultural heritage and learn the concomitant language, but at the same time they recognize the economic and

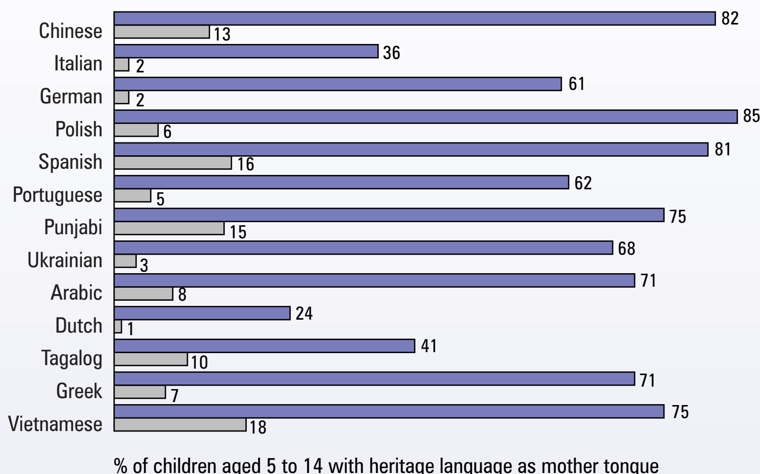
2. This model does not describe the process for all groups in all circumstances. Some language groups can maintain or even increase their numbers because they are relatively isolated or because the people who speak those languages are highly concentrated in a geographic area, as, for example, the German Mennonite community.

social value of being fluent in one or both of the official languages. In addition, some heritage languages may be perceived as being very useful in the labour market of the future.

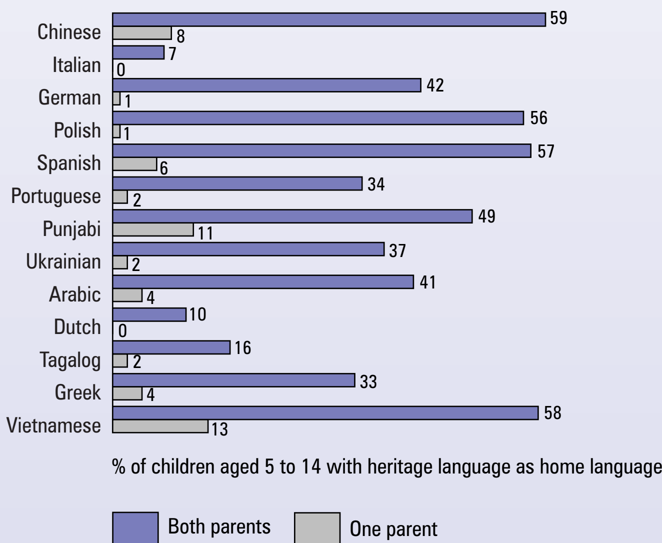
Another important language transfer issue occurs with respect to the next generation's use of the heritage language as the language they speak most often at home. Far fewer children have the heritage language as their home language than as their mother tongue; in other words, although the heritage language may be the first language they learned, they do not use it as their main language in the home. Even in endogamous marriages, fewer than half of the children use the heritage language as their home language, except in Polish, Chinese, Spanish or Vietnamese heritage language families. When only one of the parents has the heritage language as mother tongue, its use as the home language is very rare — less than one in 10 children. The only exceptions are children of exogamous marriages where one parent's mother tongue is Chinese, Punjabi or Vietnamese.

Although many children may not employ their parent's heritage language as their mother tongue or use it as their home language, they are often able to speak it. In seven of the 13 largest language groups, at least 90% of children of endogamous marriages knew the heritage language well enough to conduct a conversation. Similarly, the children of exogamous marriages had a far greater tendency to know the heritage language. It is apparent that many children learn their parents' mother tongue as a second language.

Children whose parents have the same heritage language are much more likely to learn it as their mother tongue...



... but fewer children use it as their home language



Note: Data for single responses only.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Population.

Inability to speak official languages preserves heritage language communities

Maintaining one's heritage language is important for cultural reasons, but knowledge of one of the official languages is generally the best means to ensure economic integration and improve the family's prospects. However, the 1996 Census showed that the percentage of people unable to speak either official language was higher than at any other time during the 20th century.[3]

When large numbers of people in a heritage language group cannot speak either official language, other members of that community speak to them in their mother tongue. This activity has the effect of increasing the use of that language. For example, one of the reasons that the Chinese language

3. This was largely attributable to heavy immigration in the first half of the nineties.

CST Language ability: A growing phenomenon

While immigrants are usually the focus of studies of heritage language groups, it should not be forgotten that many Canadian-born people learn a heritage language. The extent of this phenomenon can be measured using the "language ability index," a ratio of people able to speak a language to people with that language as their mother tongue.[1] All 13 of the largest heritage languages have an ability index of more than 100, meaning that the population able to conduct a conversation in that language is greater than the mother tongue population. The highest score on the index appears for Spanish (221), followed by German (139), Italian (135) and Arabic (134).

The very high score for Spanish reflects the fact that it is often taught in Canadian schools and is a global language that facilitates communication in the countries to which many Canadians travel. Canada's growing economic and social links with Mexico and Latin America may further enhance the desirability of learning Spanish.

	Mother tongue (MT)	Knowledge (Kn)	Ability index (Kn/MT)
		(000s)	
Spanish	229	506	221
German	471	654	139
Italian	514	694	135
Arabic	167	223	134
Vietnamese	112	148	132
Greek	128	162	126
Ukrainian	175	218	125
Tagalog	158	192	121
Dutch	139	166	119
Portuguese	223	259	116
Polish	222	258	116
Punjabi	215	249	116
Chinese	736	791	108

Note: Data include both single and multiple responses.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Population.

1. Note that some Canadians can understand conversations in their mother tongue but can no longer speak the language, according to the Census.

has such a high rate of use is because one in five people who have Chinese mother tongue speaks neither French nor English.

Interestingly, it is not only new-immigrant heritage language groups in which this situation exists. About one in six Canadians with Portuguese mother tongue and one in 10 of those with Italian mother tongue cannot converse in either official language. The reason may be linked to labour market activity. An earlier study has shown that a large percentage of immigrants from southern Europe who were unable to speak English or French were women who were not in the labour force, or else were employed in low-paying manual occupations where knowledge of an official language was not essential to do the job.[4]

Summary

The late 20th century saw a considerable increase in the number and diversity of heritage languages spoken in Canada. Immigration from non-European countries was largely responsible for the shift towards a varied range of languages with non-European origins: almost eight in 10 immigrants who arrived in

4. Harrison, B. 1985. *Non-English Speaking Immigrants in Ontario, 1981: Socio-Economic Characteristics.* Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Citizenship and Culture.

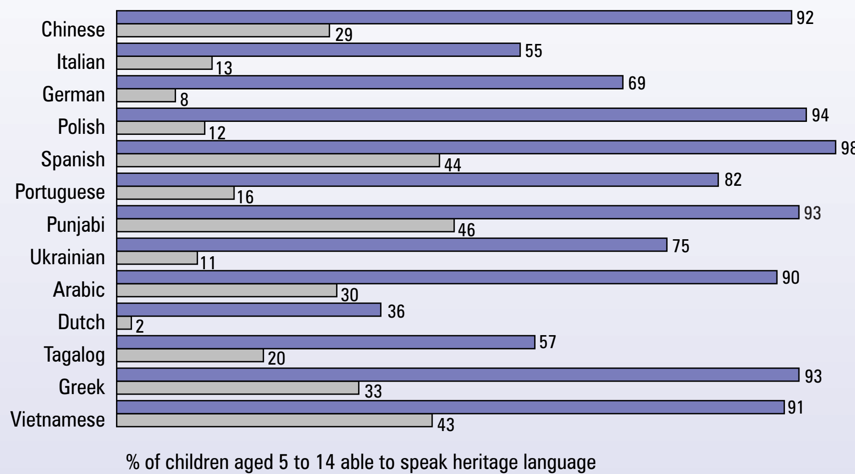
Canada between 1991 and 1996 were from countries outside Europe or the United States.

The tendency to pass the heritage language to the next generation is affected by a number of factors, including time spent in Canada and the degree of exposure to the language of the majority. It is also highly related to exogamy — the propensity to marry outside the original linguistic group. Children of parents who have the same heritage language mother tongue are far more likely to speak the language than children of exogamous marriages. As immigrant groups spend more time in Canada, there is a tendency to marry more often outside the language group, making it less likely that the children will speak the heritage language.

Whether new immigrants to Canada will follow a pattern similar to that of their predecessors is a matter of debate, and will be the result of a number of factors which have divergent effects on language maintenance. In the past, a greater concentration of ethnic groups in specific neighbourhoods and labour markets tended to increase language maintenance, and this trend is likely to continue. On the other hand, children of immigrants will spend much of their time in front of personal computers that have a considerable amount of information in English and French — an activity which hastens the learning of an official language. However, the Internet may also give them more access to content in their heritage language and this may increase their knowledge of the language of their parents and grandparents.

Brian Harrison began work on the study of heritage languages as a senior analyst with the Demography Division, Statistics Canada. He is now with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division.

CST Many more children speak a heritage language than have it as their mother tongue



Note: Data for single responses only.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Population.

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A family affair: Children's participation in sports

by Frances Kremarik

"What do you mean, you went and joined the rugby team?" Kids love to do different things, sometimes with and sometimes without their parents' permission. But no matter what their parents may think, kids probably don't join sports teams on a whim. Certainly having fun and feeling good about themselves are probably the primary determinants of a child's decision to play a sport,[1] but the family environment in which they live also counts.

CST What you should know about this study

This article is based on data from the 1998 General Social Survey (GSS) on time use. The survey interviewed almost 11,000 Canadians aged 15 and over in the 10 provinces and provides information about how people spent their time and who was with them during one day's activities. Included in the data collected is information pertaining to the sports activities of household members. Respondents were asked whether they or any other household members had regularly participated in any sport during the previous 12 months; they were also asked whether they or any other household member had participated in amateur sport as a coach, sports official/referee/umpire, administrator or helper. About 2,200 respondents in households with at least one child between the ages of 5 and 14 were identified in order to examine children's sport participation in terms of various parental and household characteristics.

Sport: mainly team or organized sports such as hockey, basketball, baseball, golf, competitive swimming, downhill skiing, soccer, volleyball and tennis. A number of popular recreational physical activities were not defined as sport by the survey, so data were not collected for them; for example, walking, aerobics/dancercize, aquafit, bicycling for recreation or transportation, body building, hiking, jogging, and skate boarding.

Athletically active/athlete: parent or child who regularly participates in organized sports. Regular participation was defined as being active at least once a week during the season or for a certain part of the year. Parents and children classified as "inactive" may in fact be very physically active in activities that were excluded from the survey's definition of sport.

Volunteer administrator/volunteer: parent involved in amateur sports in secondary or support roles as a coach, sports official/referee/umpire, administrator, or a team helper within a structured organization.

Parents provide an environment that can significantly influence a child's desire to participate in organized athletic activities, and their support may be paramount in encouraging participation during a child's formative and adolescent years.[2] Furthermore, parents who instill a belief in the value of athletic activity may exert a lasting effect on their children.[3] This article uses the 1998 General Social Survey (GSS) to look at the household characteristics of children aged 5 to 14 who play sports, with special focus on their parents' involvement in sport.

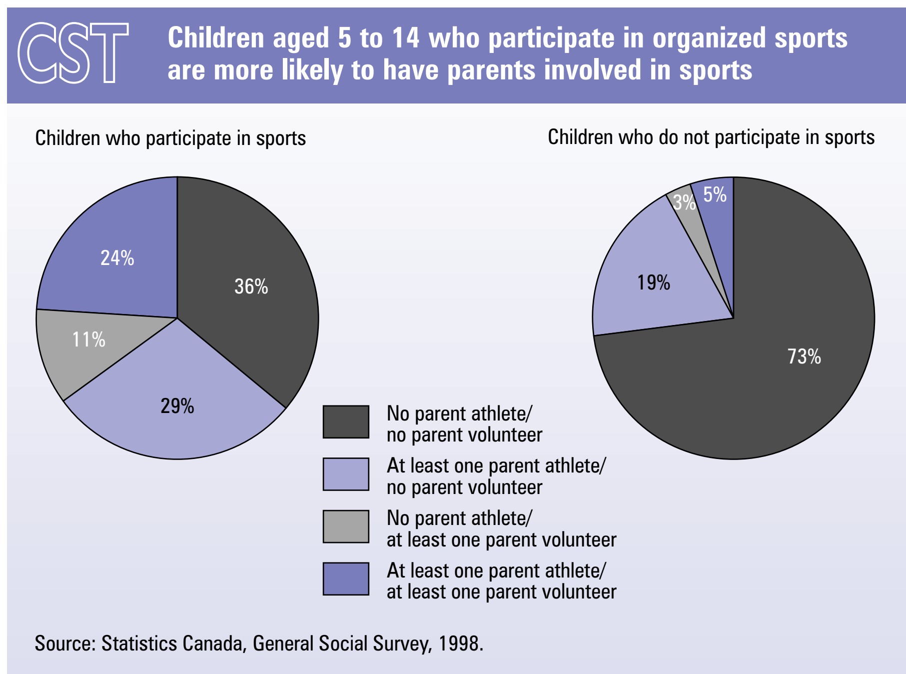
The apple doesn't fall far from the tree

In 1998, about 54% of Canadian children aged 5 to 14 living in two- or one-parent households — almost 2.2 million — regularly took part in some kind of organized sport activity. Almost 48% of these active children participated in more than one sport over the year.

Soccer is the king of sports among children aged 5 to 14, with 31% of athletically active kids participating regularly. Swimming and hockey are tied for second and third place, at 24% each. At the bottom of the top 10 list were figure skating and karate (6% each), volleyball (5%) and cycling (3%).

Active kids generally have supportive families: almost two-thirds of them (1.4 million) had at least one parent who was also involved in organized sport. Most often these parents were athletes themselves; they were also volunteer administrators (for example, coach, manager, fund-raiser); and both athletes and volunteers. Not surprisingly, a far smaller proportion of inactive kids (27%) had parents who were involved in sport.[4]

One might expect family structure would affect children's participation, since it is probably easier to support a child's involvement in organized sports — for instance, taking the child



CST — Soccer, swimming and hockey are the most popular sports among children aged 5 to 14

Top 10 sports	%[1]
Soccer	31
Swimming	24
Hockey	24
Baseball	22
Basketball	13
Downhill skiing	7
Figure skating	6
Karate	6
Volleyball	5[2]
Cycling	3[2]

1. Figures will not add to 100 due to multiple response. For example, about half of all active children participate in more than one sport.
2. Subject to high sampling variability.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1998.

1. Martens, R. 1996. "Turning Kids on to Physical Activity for a Lifetime," *Quest,* 48, 3: 303-310.
2. Martin, S., A. Jackson, P. Richardson, and K. Weiller. 1999. "Coaching Preferences of Adolescent Youths and Their Parents," *Journal of Applied Sports Psychology,* 11: 247-262.
3. Welk, G.J. 1999. "The Youth Physical Activity Model: A Conceptual Bridge Between Theory and Practice," *Quest,* 51: 5-23.
4. It should be noted that "inactive" individuals (both parents and children) might in fact be very involved in recreational activities like running, hiking, biking for recreation, and aerobics/fitness classes. These types of non-competitive activities were not classified as sports by the GSS.

to and from practices, attending games or competitions — if two adults are able to share the responsibilities. But participation rates were similar whether the children lived in two-parent (54%) or lone-parent (53%) families.

Nor do participation rates seem to differ depending on which parent is involved in sports. In two-parent households where only the father is involved, either as an athlete or in an administrative role, 66% of children participated in organized sports; in those where the mother was the only involved parent, the rate was just over 64%. In lone-mother families, over 81% of children whose mother was athletically active or a volunteer administrator took part in organized sports activities.[5]

The rate of children's sports participation does differ, though, depending upon the type of involvement their parents have. For example, 64% of children with at least one athletically active parent were also involved in sport. If at least one parent helped as a volunteer administrator, 83% of kids participated in sports; when parents were both athletes and volunteers, the proportion was even higher, at 86%. In contrast, in households where neither parent was involved in organized sports, only 36% of children were active.

Children's much higher rate of participation if their parents are volunteers is easily explained, since many sports organizations rely upon volunteers to function successfully. In children's sports, most volunteer labour is provided by parents whose assistance is implicitly mandated by their children's membership on the team. Thus parents take on duties as coaches, team managers, umpires, fund-raisers and so on. On the other hand, a parent currently involved as a volunteer may be a former athlete who maintains his or her ties to their old sport in an administrative capacity.

CST **Children's participation in sports differs depending on their parents' involvement in sports**

Parental involvement	% of children aged 5 to 14 active in sports
All families	**54**
Neither athlete/neither volunteer	36
At least one athlete/neither volunteer	64
Neither athlete/at least one volunteer	83
At least one athlete/at least one volunteer	86
Two-parent families	**54**
Neither athlete/neither volunteer	35
At least one athlete/neither volunteer	64
Neither athlete/at least one volunteer	83
At least one athlete/at least one volunteer	85
Lone-parent families	**53**
Not athlete/not volunteer	41
Athlete/volunteer or both	76

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1998.

Often, children and their parents are athletically active in the same sport, even though the principle of self-determination states that children prefer sports they can choose themselves. In families where both the parents and the children were athletically active, over 30% of children had at least one sport in common with a parent.

Family income also a key determinant of sports activity

Participating in organized sports may require the purchase of equipment, the payment of user fees, contribution to travel costs and so on. Spending can range from tens to thousands of dollars. Although research in the United States has suggested that cost and lack of equipment are not deterrents to a child's participation,[6] a recent Canadian study has strongly suggested that income is a barrier for children from households in lower income groups.[7]

Data from the GSS support the Canadian findings. Only 49% of children in households with incomes under $40,000 were active in sports, compared with 73% of those in households with incomes over $80,000. And while about one in five children from lower- and higher-income households played hockey, those from homes with incomes under $40,000 were more likely to be involved in relatively inexpensive sports (baseball and basketball) than children from households with incomes over $80,000. As well, high-income kids were more likely to be downhill skiers and swimmers than children from lower-income families.

5. Children's participation rates cannot be calculated for male lone-parent families because the sample size is too small to produce reliable estimates.

6. Welk, G.J. 1999. "The Youth Physical Activity Model: A Conceptual Bridge Between Theory and Practice," *Quest*, 51: 5-23.

7. Offord, D., E. Lipman and E. Duku. 1998. *Sports, The Arts and Community Programs: Rates and Correlates of Participation*. Ottawa: Human Resources Development Canada. 19.

Households with active parents and higher incomes are key predictors of a child's participation in sports

Child's age		Odds ratio
5		**1.0**
6		1.2*
7		2.0
8		2.1
9		2.8
10		2.4
11		3.7
12		3.2
13		2.5
14		3.4
Income/activity[1]		
Less than $40,000	Both parents inactive	**1.0**
	Mother active/father inactive	1.5*
	Father active/mother inactive	1.2*
	Both parents active	4.8
$40,000 to $79,999	Both parents inactive	1.2*
	Mother active/father inactive	3.6
	Father active/mother inactive	3.9
	Both parents active	13.3
$80,000 and over	Both parents inactive	1.5
	Mother active/father inactive	3.9
	Father active/mother inactive	5.4
	Both parents active	12.2

* Not statistically significant difference from benchmark group.
1. Involvement as athlete, volunteer or both.
Note: This table presents the odds that a child participates regularly in sports, relative to the odds that a bench mark group participates (odds ratio) when all other variables in the analysis are held constant. The benchmark group is shown in boldface for each characteristic.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1998.

What has the greatest influence on children's sports participation?

A logistic regression was used to estimate the likelihood that a child would participate in organized sport, when controlling for the effects of selected characteristics. The model was developed for two-parent households only, and parents were defined as being active, whether their involvement was as an athlete, a volunteer administrator or both. (A model for lone parents was not developed due to data constraints.)

Results show that, compared with a child aged five, the odds of a child participating in sport increases steadily from age seven onward. This may be due to more organized athletic activities being available to children as they grow older.

More importantly though, the results show that households with active parents and higher incomes are key predictors of a child's participation in organized sport. Children with two active parents and a household income of $80,000 or more have odds over 12 times higher than those of children with inactive parents in a household whose income is under $40,000. Nevertheless, even in lower-income households, children with two active parents have 4.8 times higher odds of sports participation than children with inactive parents. When parents are not involved in sports, however, household income has little effect upon the odds of children's sport participation.

Why playing sports is good for kids

Physical activity — whether playing team soccer or going for a bike ride with the family — provides both immediate and long-term health benefits to children. Most importantly in the short term, a physically active lifestyle helps combat childhood obesity, a condition that has been steadily increasing since 1980.[8] Not only are children who become obese likely to develop into obese adults, but the earlier the onset of the condition, the greater the likelihood of retaining it into adulthood.[9] Furthermore, the earlier onset of obesity in children has resulted in previously "adult" conditions, such as Type II diabetes, now being observed in children.

Participating in organized sports appears to have benefits additional to physical health. Research in other countries indicates that young people

8. Flegal, K.M. 1999. "The obesity epidemic in children and adults: current evidence and research issues," *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, supplement, 31, 11: s510-s511.
9. N.A. 2000. "Med Watch," *Globe & Mail*, January 25, 2000: R8.

who are involved in athletics are less likely to engage in risk behaviours.[10] Team sports can also provide an environment that enables children to integrate and develop in a group setting. For example, researchers studying children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder at a sports camp found that low intensity intervention involving instruction and positive reinforcement produced some positive outcomes.[11]

Summary

More than half of Canadian children aged 5 to 14 are active in organized sports like soccer, swimming, hockey, basketball and baseball. If their family provides a supportive environment for athletic pursuits, however, children are more likely to take part than if the family does not. Children who come from families where parents are involved in organized sports as athletes or volunteer administrators are significantly more likely to participate than other children. But income also plays an important role in determining whether children will be athletically active. Having adequate funds gives children more opportunities to have fun playing sports.

10. Thorlindsson, T. 1999. "Sport participation, smoking and drug and alcohol use among Icelandic youth," *Sociology of Sport Journal,* 6: 136-143; Hasted, D.N. et al. 1984. "Youth sport participation and deviant behaviour," *Sociology of Sport Journal,* 1: 366-373; Miller, K.E. et al. 1999. "Sports, sexual behaviour, contraceptive use and pregnancy among female and male high school students: Testing cultural resource theory," *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 16: 366-387.

11. Hupp, S. and D. Reitman. 1999. "Improving sports skills and sportsmanship in children diagnosed with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder," *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 2, 3: 35-51.

Frances Kremarik is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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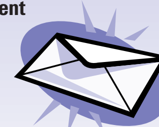

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Eating out costs one-third of food budget

Canadians spent a higher proportion of their food dollar on meals outside the home during the 1990s than in the 1980s. Of every $100 spent on food in 1998, an average of $34.60 went to meals outside the home, up from $32.70 in 1989. People who live alone, those with higher incomes, and people without children are the most likely to eat out. There are significant differences among provinces, with residents of Atlantic Canada spending relatively less on eating out and people in British Columbia, Quebec and Alberta spending more. Meanwhile, food service providers and food stores have been adjusting to changing consumer preferences. As a result, today there are more fast-food, delivery, take-out and drive-through food service outlets, as well as pre-prepared meals.

Services indicators, Fourth quarter 1999
Catalogue no. 63-016-XPB
(Internet 63-016-XIB)

Cases in adult criminal court taking longer to resolve

In 1998/99, adult criminal courts handled almost 400,000 cases, down over 11% from 1994/95. But about 30% of cases took six or more appearances to resolve, compared with only 23% five years earlier. Also, 47% of cases involved multiple charges, up from 44% in 1994/95. Multiple-charge cases take longer to process — an average of 5.2 court appearances as opposed to 4.3 for single-charge cases in 1998/99. Over one-third (35%) of convictions resulted in a jail term. While this represents only a slight increase in convictions involving imprisonment, the median length of prison sentences has risen substantially from 30 days in 1994/95 to 45 days in 1998/99. (N.B. Based on data from courts in seven provinces and the two territories, excluding British Columbia, Manitoba and New Brunswick.)

Juristat: Adult criminal court statistics, 1998/99
Catalogue no. 85-002-XPE
(Internet 85-002-XIE)

Most special education students are male

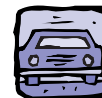
In 1994/95, about one in 10 Canadian children in elementary school received special education because of a problem that affected their ability to do school work. Special needs children most often had learning disabilities (51%), followed by emotional or behavioural problems (23%). Boys made up almost two-thirds of elementary special needs students. The majority (59%) of children who received special needs education were taught in a regular classroom, with only part of their instruction being given in a special education classroom or resource room. Teachers generally rated special education students near the bottom of the class in all areas of academic achievement. However, most special education students looked forward to attending school. Children from families with low socio-economic status or from lone-parent families were more likely to receive special education.

Education Quarterly Review, Vol. 6, no. 2 (Winter 1999)
Catalogue no. 81-003-XPB

Overall smoking trend is down, but not for teens

There has been a significant drop in Canadian smoking rates — about 10 percentage points — over the period 1985 to 1999. The majority of this decline occurred after 1994. Men aged 15 and older recorded a larger overall drop in smoking rates than women, although their current smoking prevalence is actually higher (27% compared with 23% for women in 1999). Declines were most noticeable among Canadians aged 45 to 64, as smoking rates dropped from about 36% to 21%; much of this change occurred between 1996 and 1999. In contrast to older adults, youths aged 15 to 19 recorded an increase of 6.5 percentage points between 1991 and 1994. Rates have remained stable in this age group since then.

Report on smoking prevalence in Canada, 1985 to 1999
Product no. 82F0077XIE



Travel patterns of families and adults alone not very different

Travelling by car was the most common mode of transportation for adults travelling in Canada, whether with or without children. However, adults-only trips were an average of 120 kilometres longer than trips taken by families. Families were more active, though; they visited theme parks, zoos, national parks and historic sites, and took part in outdoor and aquatic activities, swimming and hiking, far more often than adults only. When they travelled abroad, Canadian families chose the United States most often (85% of trips); so did adults travelling alone, but they were more likely to choose an overseas destination (25% versus 15%). For adults only, taking a trip overseas was twice as expensive as visiting the U.S. — $1,300 per person per trip versus $600 — but it was three times more expensive for families — $900 compared with only $300 for each family member.

Travel-log, Vol. 19, no. 2 (Spring 2000)
Catalogue no. 87-003-XPB
(Internet 87-003-XIE)

Dependence-free life expectancy in Canada

by Laurent Martel and Alain Bélanger

In 1901, a woman born in Canada could expect to live, on average, until the age of 50, and a man until the age of 47. Only 44% of women and 38% of men reached the age of 65. The minority who did reach 65 could hope to live about another 10 years.

This article is adapted from "An Analysis of the Change in Dependence-Free Life Expectancy in Canada between 1986 and 1996," *Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada, 1998-1999,* Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 91-209-XPE.

Nearly a century later, the situation has changed greatly. As a result of public health measures and new medical knowledge and interventions (particularly vaccination), infectious and parasitic diseases common throughout Canada in the early 1900s are now virtually unknown. Today, a newborn male can expect to live an average of 75.7 years and a female 81.4 years.[1] More than 80% of men and almost 90% of women will live to celebrate their 65th birthday. With people routinely reaching retirement age, much of the population now experiences a new phase in the life cycle: a "third age", a period lived in good health, free of work obligations that can be devoted to the fulfillment of personal goals. Only in the "fourth age" does an individual see health deteriorate to the point where activities are limited.

But while the increase in expected longevity is encouraging at the individual level, it does raise concerns at the societal level. This is especially true in the context of below-replacement fertility,[2] when the proportion of older people in the general population is rising. Health authorities are already warning of considerable increases in the costs of health care and related services as seniors of advanced years begin to experience deteriorating health. Yet the aging of the Canadian population will not really begin to accelerate until 2011, when the vanguard of the baby boom generation reaches age 65.

This article uses the measure of dependence-free life expectancy to ask whether the additional years of life gained over the last decade are being lived in good health. It identifies four basic states of health — dependence-free, moderate dependence, severe and institutionalized — and estimates the number of years in which Canadian seniors can expect to live in each health state.

Living longer may not necessarily mean living in good health

Although there was a steady increase in life expectancy throughout the 20th century, it might not necessarily have been accompanied by a similar increase in healthy life expectancy. Because it is an indicator of mortality, it has become common to link improvements in life expectancy with a healthier population. However, this implicit positive association between mortality and morbidity — that is, that people live longer because they are healthier — is by no means certain. According to the theory of "the

1. Estimates for 1996. *Health Reports,* Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB; 11, 3, Winter 1999.

2. Replacement level fertility (the number of children needed to sustain current population levels) is 2.1 children per woman. The Canadian fertility rate in 1998 was less than 1.6 children per woman.

CST What you should know about this study

Data in this article come from the 1986 and 1991 Health and Activity Limitations Surveys (HALS) and the 1996-97 National Population Health Survey (NPHS). HALS was designed to contribute to a national database on disability and collected data on the nature and severity of disabilities, barriers faced in everyday life, use of and need for assistive devices, and out-of-pocket expenses related to disability. The 1996-97 NPHS was designed to collect information about the health of Canadians and asked in-depth questions covering topics such as health status, activity limitations, presence of chronic health conditions, contact with health professionals, use of medication, and mental and psychological well-being.

Life expectancy: remaining number of years of life that can be expected based on current mortality conditions.

Dependence-free life expectancy: number of years of dependence-free life that can be expected based on current mortality and morbidity conditions. Obtained by multiplying the prevalence of each health state in the population with the number of person years derived from life tables.[1]

Health status: an individual's level of health in relation to their level of dependence on others for assistance. On this basis four health states were defined:

Dependence-free/good health: includes those individuals who stated that they do not need assistance, with the possible exception of heavy housework.

Moderate dependence: includes those individuals who need assistance with meal preparation, shopping or everyday housework.

Severe dependence: includes those persons who need a high level of assistance, including needing assistance to move about or for their personal care.

Institutionalized dependence: due to the very high level of assistance required by these individuals, they reside in an institution where they can receive specialized care. (The number of individuals living in these health establishments was estimated from the censuses for the corresponding years.)

Mortality: the effect of death on the population.

Morbidity: the effect of illness, sickness or disease on the population.

1. Using the method described by D.F. Sullivan. 1971. "A Single Index of Mortality and Morbidity", *HSMHA, Health Reports,* 86: 347-354.

expansion of morbidity,"[3] the degenerative or chronic diseases of old age will remain common while medical and technological advancements will make it possible for older individuals to survive longer in a state of incapacity or dependence. As a result, this hypothesis suggests that greater longevity may become increasingly synonymous with a longer period of declining physical or mental health.

An opposing view is presented by the "limited life span" theory, which argues that there is a finite limit to life expectancy and it will never be possible to extend it much beyond an average of 85 years. If further improvement in life expectancy is indeed limited, then future progress would come mainly through reductions in illness or disease. Supporters of this theory believe that the quality of life during the "third age" can be achieved by adopting a healthy lifestyle — for example, not smoking and participating in regular physical activity — that could delay or even prevent the onset of chronic diseases. In other words, although people will not live much longer in the future than they do now, gains may still be possible in the area of morbidity.[4]

Dependence-free life expectancy is improving

Mortality rates for infants, youths and active adults in Canada today are reaching levels that cannot easily be compressed further. Thus, it is most likely that future improvements in life expectancy will come from progress made in old age. In fact, considerable gains have been made in just one decade.

3. Verbrugge, L.M. 1984. "Longer Life but Worsening Health? Trends in Health and Mortality of Middle-Aged and Older Persons," *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly / Health and Society,* 62, 3: 475-519; Crimmins, E. M. 1990. "Are Americans Healthier as Well as Longer-Lived? " *Journal of Insurance Medicine,* 22, 2: 89-92; Olshansky, S.J., M.A. Rudberg, B.A. Carnes, C.K. Cassel and J.A. Brody. 1991. "Trading Off Longer Life for Worsening Health," *Journal of Aging and Health,* 3, 2: 194-216.

4. Fries, J. F. 1983. "Aging, Natural Death, and the Compression of Morbidity," *New England Journal of Medicine,* 303, 3: 130-135; 1983. "The Compression of Morbidity," *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly / Health and Society,* 61, 3: 397-419; 1989. "The Compression of Morbidity: Near or Far?" *Milbank Quarterly,* 67, 2: 208-232.

In 1986, a 65-year-old man could expect to live, on average, for an additional 15 years; for 80% of this time (12 years), he could expect to enjoy dependence-free health. A 65-year-old woman was likely to live another 19.4 years, and 66% (12.7 years) of her remaining life would be in good health.

By 1996, life expectancy for a man at 65 had improved by 1.1 years, most of which (0.7 years) was dependence-free. Overall life expectancy for a 65-year-old woman did not improve much (0.6 years), presumably because her life expectancy was already high, but she had gained an additional 0.8 years of good health during the decade.

The changes in dependence-free life expectancy observed between 1986 and 1996 suggest that, in the future, it will be increasingly difficult to push back women's mortality, but that gains may still be possible in the area of better health. Lower life expectancy for men indicates that further improvement in both mortality and morbidity has yet to be seen. Moreover, these results also suggest that "old age" is a quite different experience for men than for women.

Women are less healthy in old age

It is possible to calculate, for each age group, the proportion of remaining years of life that will be lived in a state of dependence-free good health and moderate, severe or institutionalized dependence.[5] For example, men aged 65 to 69 in 1996 could expect to live an additional 16 years. The majority of these years (12.7) would be dependence-free; but men would also spend 1.5 years in moderate dependence needing help with tasks like meal preparation and shopping; 1.1 years in severe dependence relying on assistance with tasks like moving about the house or personal care; and 0.8 years in an institution. Women in the same age group have another 20 years' life expectancy; many of their remaining years will be dependence-free (13.5),

Dependence-free life expectancy at age 65 has improved for women and men

	Men			Women		
	Life expectancy	Dependence-free life expectancy	Expected years of dependence	Life expectancy	Dependence-free life expectancy	Expected years of dependence
	Years remaining					
Age 65						
1986	15.0	12.0	3.0	19.4	12.7	6.7
1991	15.8	12.2	3.6	20.0	12.8	7.2
1996	16.1	12.7	3.4	20.0	13.5	6.5
	Percent of years remaining					
Age 65						
1986	100.0	80.0	20.0	100.0	65.8	34.2
1991	100.0	77.3	22.7	100.0	64.3	35.7
1996	100.0	78.8	21.2	100.0	67.6	32.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, Research and Analysis Section.

Maintaining autonomy in an aging society

Helping people to maintain their autonomy into old age is probably the most effective strategy to adopt when faced with the dual challenges of an aging population and funding constraints on health services. However, health policies centred on this principle must be based on a clear understanding of the determinants of dependence. Statistics Canada's longitudinal National Population Health Survey, which allows researchers to establish causal links between people's health status and the extent of their dependence, is contributing to the improvement of knowledge in this area. New studies indicate, for example, that some chronic illnesses (like diabetes), low income, lower educational attainment, and being overweight or obese increases the likelihood of becoming dependent in later life.[1] Other factors, like smoking or having a stroke, present a double jeopardy: they can increase a person's risk of losing autonomy and then reduce the chance that he or she will recover independence later.

It seems almost certain that healthy habits nurtured over a lifetime — not only in the retirement years but also throughout the life cycle — contribute to the maintenance of autonomy as a person ages. In this sense, seniors in the future will most probably remain independent longer than seniors do today, having benefited earlier from an understanding of how to safeguard their health.

1. Martel, L., A. Bélanger and J.-M. Berthelot. 2000. "Risk factors associated with transitions between functional states: Some results from the NPHS longitudinal panel." Paper presented at the 12th REVES Conference, Healthy Life Expectancy — Linking Policy and Science. Los Angeles, March 20-22, 2000.

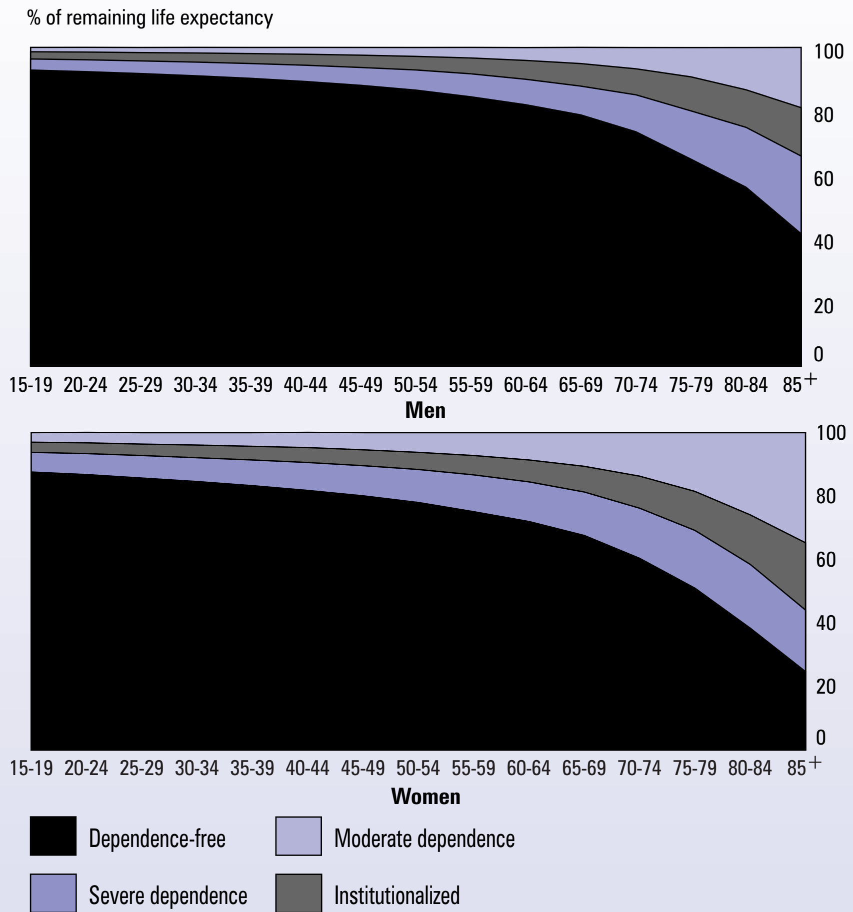
5. Although people with moderate and severe dependence are still living in private households, they rely on others to perform or assist in performing tasks that must be done each day. This reliance can generate significant costs — whether in time or money — for the individual's informal support networks (family, friends and neighbours) and/or for the health care system (for example, home care, volunteer organizations and so on).

but they will spend 2.7, 1.6 and 2.1 years, respectively, in states of increasing dependence.

Of most immediate concern for policy-makers and the health care system, however, is the estimated dependence-free life expectancy of seniors aged 85 and over. This age group is the fastest-growing component of the senior population (their numbers have almost tripled since 1971, to 380,000 in 1998)[6] and the most likely to suffer from ill health. The estimates of life expectancy by health status show that men over 84 will spend just over 40% of their remaining 3.7 years dependence-free. This is far from being the case for women the same age, who can expect to spend only a quarter (1.1 out of 4.3 years) of their remaining years dependence-free, while the greatest part of the remaining years (1.5) will be spent in a health care institution.

This paradox is explained by the nature of the diseases that afflict men; generally they are more likely to be victims of acute illnesses that kill fairly quickly, such as heart disease. Women are more likely to suffer chronic diseases like arthritis, rheumatism and hypertension, which are debilitating but not fatal, thus prolonging the period of their life passed in ill health.[7]

CST **Men spend a greater proportion of their lives dependence-free than women at all ages**



Sources: Calculations by authors from: Statistics Canada, 1996-97 National Population Health Survey and Demography Division life tables.

Towards a compression of morbidity in Canada?

The trend toward increases in life expectancy has slowed in recent years, since 1981 for women and 1991 for men. Does this phenomenon mean, as some researchers think, that we are approaching the limit of human life expectancy? Although there is some evidence to support such an assumption, research currently underway on the human genome and the mechanisms of cellular aging appear to hold the greatest promise for increasing life expectancy. But living longer is not necessarily desirable if it is not accompanied by an equivalent increase in years lived in good health.

Indicators of healthy life expectancies, such as the measure of dependence-free life expectancy used in this study, make it possible to evaluate the quality of life of a population in terms of health. They are an essential complement to the discussion of life expectancies and should prove to be extremely useful tools for decision-makers who seek to establish effective health policies. All indications are that not only have Canadians added several years to their lives, but also life to their years.

CST

Laurent Martel is an analyst and **Alain Bélanger** is Research Coordinator with Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

6. Statistics Canada projections estimate that Canadians aged 85 and over will number 1.6 million by 2041, or 4% of the total population. Lindsay, C. 1999. "Seniors: A diverse group aging well," *Canadian Social Trends*, Spring 1999.
7. Verbugge, L. 1989. "Gender, aging and health," In *Aging and health: Perspectives on gender, race, ethnicity, and class* (K.S. Mackides. ed.). Newbury Park: Sage. 23-78.

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S O C I A L I N D I C A T O R S

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
ECONOMY								
Annual % change								
Gross Domestic Product	2.2	3.8	5.9	5.2	3.3	4.8	2.5	6.0
Wages, salaries	2.3	1.8	2.6	3.4	2.4	5.8	4.0	4.5
Expenditures on goods and services[1]	1.8	1.8	3.1	2.1	2.5	4.2	2.8	3.2
Consumer Price Index	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.2	1.6	1.6	0.9	1.7
Saving rate (%)	10.7	8.0	7.0	7.1	4.5	2.0	2.2	1.1
Prime lending rate	7.48	5.94	6.88	8.65	6.06	4.96	6.60	6.44
5-year mortgage rate	9.51	8.78	9.53	9.16	7.93	7.07	6.93	7.56
Exchange rate (with U.S. dollar)	1.209	1.290	1.366	1.372	1.364	1.385	1.483	1.486
ENVIRONMENT								
Number of days with airborne particles exceeding objectives (Canada average)	6.6	6.1	--	--	--	--	--	--
Number of hours ground-level ozone exceeded objectives (Canada average)	4.9	3.1	6.5	--	--	--	--	--
Number of days per year air quality rated as poor								--
CMA of Toronto	9	12	14	14	--	--	--	--
CMA of Montréal	6	3	3	5	--	--	--	--
CMA of Vancouver	--	--	1	--	--	--	--	--
Billions of public transit passengers	1.41	1.38	1.35	1.39	1.37	1.4	1.43	--
% of class 1 farmland used by urban areas	--	--	--	--	11.2	--	--	--
JUSTICE								
Rate per 100,000 population[2]								
Total Criminal Code offences	10,036	9,531	9,114	8,993	8,914	8,448	8,102	--
Property offences	5,902	5,571	5,250	5,283	5,264	4,864	4,541	--
Violent offences	1,084	1,081	1,046	1,007	1,000	990	975	--
Other Criminal Code offences	3,051	2,879	2,817	2,702	2,650	2,594	2,586	--
Average days to process case through courts								
Adults	--	--	135	141	148	157	150	--
Youths[3]	101	112	111	118	117	105	--	--
Average length of sentence per case								
Adults (days in prison)	--	--	125	132	137	142	137	--
Youths (days of open and secure custody)	92	92	88	82	79	74	--	--
CIVIC SOCIETY								
Voter turnout in federal elections	--	69.6	--	--	--	67.0	--	--
% of eligible foreign-born holding citizenship	--	--	--	--	83	--	--	--
Attendance at heritage institutions ('000)[4]	108,836	108,174	111,221	--	112,965	--	114,064	--
Government expenditures on culture and heritage (millions $)[5]	4,759	--	4,608	--	4,378	4,253	--	--
% attending religious services at least several times a year	56	52	54	--	50	--	54	--
% of taxfilers making charitable donations	29	28	27	51	27	26	26	--
Average amount of charitable donations (current dollars)	586	610	634	647	728	808	860	--

-- Data not available.

1. Data in 1992 dollars.
2. Revised rates based on updated population estimates.
3. Excludes Alberta.
4. Includes only not-for-profit institutions that have an educational and/or interpretive components: nature parks, historic sites, museums, archives and other institutions.
5. Excludes intergovernmental transfers. Data in 1987 dollars.

EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for **"A family affair: Children's participation in sports"**

Objectives

- To determine the importance that participating in organized sport has for students.
- To examine the influence of family and community environment on athletic activities.

Method

1. Read the article "A family affair: Children's participation in sports" and briefly summarize the findings. Ask how many students in the class had parents who were involved in sports when the students were younger. Was the parent involved as an athlete or as a volunteer? In what "direction" did this involvement flow; that is, did the student start to take part in sports because one of their parents was an active athlete, or did their parents become involved because the student had already joined a team?
2. Many factors other than parents and household income can influence the sports children play. A suburb with lots of land presents much different sports options than a downtown neighbourhood. List other factors that may affect sports participation.
3. Although children aged 9 to 12 are quite active in organized sport, participation rates drop markedly for people in their teens. Discuss some of the reasons for this.
4. Ask the class to research several different types of tests for physical fitness. Ask them to develop a test of their own, preferably using simple methods.
5. Find out which students play sports and list the most popular ones. Estimate the time commitment for participating (include practices, travelling, the length of the season and so on). What other activities are sacrificed (e.g. part-time job, involvement in school clubs) to play sports?
6. High school sport seems to be much more competitive in the United States than in Canada. Discuss why you think the situation is different in each country.

Using other resources

- For more information on physical activity and healthy lifestyles, visit the Health Canada website at www.hc-sc.gc.ca.
- For lesson plans for Health and Physical Education courses, check out the Statistics Canada web-site, http://www.statcan.ca under Education Resources. Select Lesson plans.

Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using *CST* that you would like to share with other educators? Send us your ideas and we will ship you lessons using *CST* received from other educators. For further information, contact Joel Yan, Education Resources Team, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6, 1 800 465-1222; fax: (613) 951-4513 or Internet e-mail: yanjoel@statcan.ca.

Educators

You may photocopy "Educators' Notebook" and any item or article in *Canadian Social Trends* for use in your classroom.

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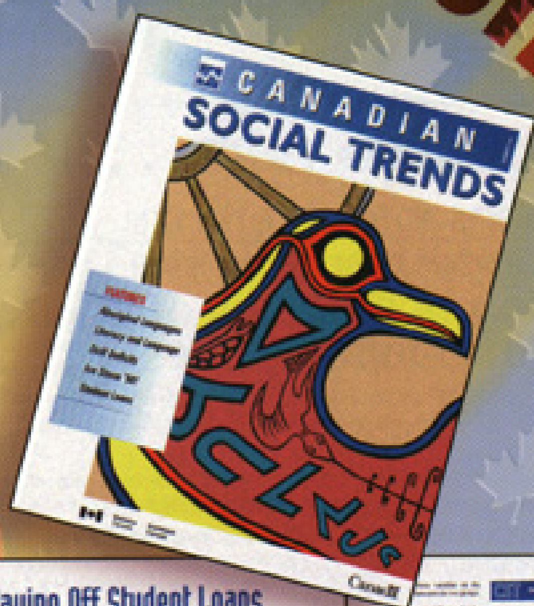
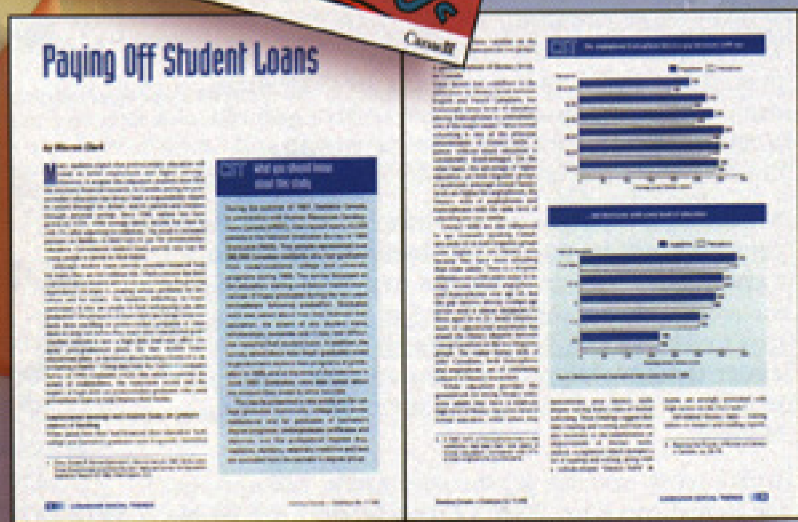
Canadians in the spotlight





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