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Cover: The Beach, Le Pouldu (1909-1912) oil on canvas, 60.5 x 81.5 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

James Wilson Morrice (1865-1924) completed his legal studies in Toronto before departing for Europe to pursue his foremost interest in painting. His works were greatly influenced by artists such as Matisse, Monet and Gauguin. Much of his time was spent in Paris and Africa, although during his earlier years in Europe, he returned regularly to Canada for a few months at a time to reunite with family and friends. His works have been acquired by various collectors, including the National Gallery of Canada.

Note:

The Canadian Social Trends Project Team wishes to extend a special thanks to **Cheryl Sarazin** for her exceptional work as Production Coordinator over the past five years. Her dedication to Canadian Social Trends contributed to its professional appearance and timely release.



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No. 25 - SUMMER 1992

CANADA'S COURT SYSTEM

by Roger Roberge, Jr.

Government di Ontario Gouvernement de l'Ontario Ottawa Courthouse and Land Registry Offices Palais de justice et Palais de justice et Palais de justice et Palais de justice et



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The court system in Canada is an integral component of the justice system, being the middle link in the chain between the police and corrections. Generally speaking, the courts can either act in a role to determine the guilt or innocence of a person and hand down appropriate sanctions or punishments if the person is found guilty, or can resolve disputes between private parties.

Canadians' perceptions of the justice system vary considerably. For example, according to a Department of Justice study, conducted in 1986 and 1987, about twothirds of respondents felt that ''everyone is equal before the law" and that "the justice system treats people with respect." In contrast, according to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, many Canadians seem to be dissatisfied with the court system. In 1988, only 25% of respondents thought the criminal courts did a good job in determining guilt and only 14% thought the criminal courts provided justice quickly. (See "Perceptions of the Justice System", Canadian Social Trends, Winter 1990.)

During the 1980s, the Canadian court system had to deal with demographic changes, rising rates of crime, increased

caseloads, and increasingly complex legal issues. Over the same period, the number of judges and crown attorneys continued to rise, as did court expenditures. The court system is also undergoing reforms designed to make elements of the judicial process more efficient and less complicated for the primary user — the general public.

Court system structure

The court system is often perceived by Canadians as being a large, complicated system comprised of different types of courts with differing responsibilities. Courts draw their powers from the **Constitution Act**, the Criminal Code, and other specific provincial and federal legislation. With the exception of the administration of federal courts, administration is the responsibility of the provinces. Each province has exclusive powers over the creation, maintenance and organization of provincial courts. The federal government is responsible for drafting and amending the Criminal Code and other federal acts, as well as for the creation and administration of the Supreme Court of Canada, the Federal Court — Appeal and Trial Divisions, the Tax Court, and the Court Martial Appeal Court.

The Canadian court system is hierarchical in structure. In general, higher courts exercise authority over lower courts with respect to the right to review decisions and decide appeals from decisions. In general, matters of a more serious nature are heard in higher courts. All courts (except the Supreme Court of Canada) are bound by decisions of law made in higher courts.

Supreme Court of Canada: The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest court in Canada and as such, has jurisdiction over all legal matters, with its judgements being final and conclusive. It also has a "reference" jurisdiction, enabling it to hear matters related to the Constitution Act and to federal and provincial powers and legislation. Presently this court is comprised of nine judges, three of whom are required by law to be appointed from Quebec, in order to allow the court to hear appeals of "civil code" decisions made only in Quebec. Of the remaining judges, three are appointed from Ontario, one from the Atlantic provinces, one from the Prairie provinces, and one from British Columbia.

Federally-constituted courts: Before an appeal can reach the Supreme Court level, a case must first pass through either federally- or provincially-constituted courts. Federally-constituted courts are comprised of: the Federal Court - Appeal and Trial Court Divisions, the Tax Court of Canada and the Court Martial Appeal Court of Canada. The Federal Appeal and Trial Court Divisions hear matters concerning patents, copyrights, and federal administrative law cases. The Tax Court hears matters concerning federal taxation laws and the Court Martial Appeal Court deals with matters relating to the National Defence Act. In 1990, there were a total of 27 judges sitting on the Appeals and Trial Courts, and 15 judges on the Tax Court.

Provincially-constituted courts: There are two main types of provinciallyconstituted courts: Provincial/Territorial Courts, and Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts. The Provincial/Territorial Court is generally the lowest level in the court system and is the entry point for most charges to be heard. Many provinces also have created Provincial/Territorial Justice of the Peace Courts, and in Quebee, Municipal Courts. Such courts were created primarily to handle the large volume of minor offences such as traffic violations. They have varying powers and responsibilities, depending on the jurisdiction, and are presided over by a provincially-appointed justice of the peace (who need not be a lawyer) or a municipal court judge.

Provincial/Territorial Court judges process the majority of cases relating to the Criminal Code, the Young Offenders Act, highway traffic violations and other federal and provincial statutes. Most charges heard by these judges are in the form of a guilty plea where no trial is required and sentencing is done immediately after the entering of the plea. Provincial/Territorial judges also hold preliminary inquiries for more serious offences where an accused will be tried in a higher court. These judges may also hear family law and small claims cases. Judges are appointed and paid for hy provincial governments, and in 1990 numbered about 950.

If a charge is serious enough or is appealed, it is processed in a higher court: Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal, the highest of the provincially-constituted courts, or Superior Courts. The Courts of Appeal hear any public (criminal) or private (civil) law matter appeal on a decision of any judge in the province or territory, and are comprised of a panel of at least three judges. Superior Courts generally hear more serious criminal matters, as well as appeals from Provincial/Territorial Courts, and matters involving the administration of estates and civil disputes. Judges in Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts are appointed and paid for by the federal government. In 1990, there were approximately 800 such judges (includes just over 110 supernumerary judges).

Mixed growth in the number of judges

Judges make up about 15% of all people employed in the system. In 1990, there were approximately 1,800 federal and



provincial judges¹ in Canada (excluding Justices of the Peace and Municipal Court judges). This number rose over the last two decades. However, increases were not consistent over the 20 years, being slower between 1981 and 1990 (16%) than during the previous 10 years (38%). Despite slower growth in the 1980s, the number of people per judge gradually decreased over the 1980s for the country as a whole, to 14,700 people per judge in 1990, from 15,600 in 1981. Yet over the same 20-year period, there were considerable differences in provincial offences and population to judge ratios. Criminal Code offences recorded by police more than doubled and all offences (Criminal Code, Federal and Provincial statutes and Municipal By-laws) increased by 93%.

Provincial/Territorial Court judges, numbering approximately 950 in 1990, are estimated to process over 90% of all charges heard within the Canadian court system.² Still, their numbers increased by only 38% between 1971 and 1990, far slower than the growth for judges overall (63%). Growth for Provincial/Territorial Court judges from 1981 to 1990 was particularly low at 8%, compared with a 26% increase from 1971 to 1980.

In contrast to relatively slow growth for provincially-appointed Provincial/Territorial judges, the number of federallyappointed judges (Supreme Court, Federal Courts and Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts) increased sharply. Between 1971 and 1990, this group increased 105%. Still, growth in federally-appointed judges was slower between 1981 and 1990 than during the previous 10 years. The number of judges increased 25% between 1981 and 1990, down from 58% between 1971 and 1980.

Use of supernumerary judges increasing

Recently, the use of supernumerary judges, particularly at the Provincial Superior Court level, has increased. A supernumerary judge is a fully empowered judge appointed for a specific period of time for either full-time or part-time duties. Often the judge is beyond retirement age and is appointed until a replacement judge is named. In other instances, a judge is appointed for a short period of time to provide additional services when there is an unusually large volume of cases.

- ¹ Canadian Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law List*, 1991.
- ² McCormick, Peter and Ian Greene, Judges and Judging, 1990.



Dual nature of the law system

Public and private law: There are two types of law matters in Canada: public and private. "Public law" includes criminal, administrative, constitutional and taxation law. Criminal law, a subcategory of "public law", governs disputes between the state and the individual, such as violations of the Criminal Code. In the case of a Criminal Code violation, the government acts in the capacity of "prosecutor", representing the interests of society.

In Canada, the criminal system is an adversarial one, whereby two opposing parties (prosecution and defence) present their sides of a case to an impartial third party (judge). It is assumed that this combative approach is better at getting to the truth than a cooperative approach. The adversarial process is structured such that the burden of proof rests with the prosecution: innocent until proven guilty. A judge or jury evaluates both sides of the case and makes a decision based on faets presented during the trial.

"Private law" (or "civil law") governs disputes between individuals and other private parties, and involves such matters as contract disputes, property, wills and family law. A divorce hearing is an example of a family law matter. In most private actions, the object is to compensate the party who suffered loss. In criminal matters, there is also a punitive factor as well as possible compensation for the victim.

Common law and civil code law systems: All criminal and private law

matters in Canada are tried under the "common law system", except for private law in Quebec, which falls under the "civil code law system". Common law evolved from the English court system, whereby even the peasants (or "commoners") could obtain justice from the king. Common law is best understood as a system of guidelines based on the concept of precedent. Precedent refers to decisions handed down on similar cases by other courts.

The civil code law system has its roots in the legal codes prepared for the Emperor Napoleon, and was enacted in Quebec in 1866. The civil code law system consists of relatively simple but comprehensive statements of rules which embody general principles of law. In theory, when a court is considering a case, it does not consult prior decisions (precedents), but looks for a specific rule as found in an article of the civil code. In addition, the civil code gives a judge a more active role in court proceedings than under common law. A judge can conduct an independent investigation and ask questions on issues not presented as evidence during the trial.

The civil code system is used only in Quebec, and only in its private law. In practice, the Quebec courts do resort to prior decisions to help them determine the meaning of civil code rules. Thus, the decisions of cases are similar under both common and civil code law, although the method by which the decision is reached is different. Increasing numbers of supernumerary judges are being used as the volume of court cases increases. Between 1981 and 1990, the number of these judges increased 58%, far faster than any other segment of the judiciary. In 1990, there were over 110 supernumerary Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal or Superior Court judges, representing 6.2% of all judges in Canada. It is probable that supernumerary judges do not handle this proportion of the caseload due to their reduced work schedules. Since 1985, the number and share of these judges has increased sharply. Most provinces have recorded a similar upward trend in the number and relative proportion of supernumerary judges. However, there were considerable provincial differences in these increases and in 1990, provincial shares in supernumerary judges ranged from about 1% to 17%.

Number of crown attorneys rising

Crown attorneys are responsible for re-





presenting the government in criminal and other prosecutions. The federal and provincial governments maintain a permanent staff of crown attorneys. In addition, all provinces employ attorneys from private law firms to represent the crown on a per case basis. No national data have been gathered, however, on the degree to which these ad hoc lawyers are used. Also, many provinces employ "paralegals", usually with law enforcement backgrounds, to represent the crown in minor offences, such as traffic violations.

In 1990, there were over 1,000 fulltime, permanent provincial crown attorneys³ in Canada (excluding paralegals, federal crown attorneys and ad hoc lawyers), up 36% from 778 in 1981. There were approximately 25,000 people per crown attorney in 1990, down from 31,100 in 1981. From 1971 to 1980, the number of crown attorneys had increased by over 100%, from 380 to 769.

Cost of justice rising

In 1990-91, Canadians spent an estimated \$7.79 billion on justice services for police, courts and correctional services.⁴ This amounted to just under 2.5% of the combined total of federal, provincial and municipal government expenditures. Total government justice expenditures in 1981 were \$6.55 billion, or 2.7% of total government expenditures. This represented a 19% increase in spending over the 1981-1990 period. By contrast, growth for the previous ten years had been much greater, at 72%.

Of the total justice budget, the court system received a 12.7% share in 1990. This proportion had declined from 13.3% in 1981, and even further from the 1971 level of 15.8%. Court system expenditures amounted to approximately \$986.5 million in 1990 for all levels of government or \$38 for every person in Canada. In 1981, court expenditures had been \$872.5 million and in 1971, \$605.5 million.

Ongoing measures being taken in court reform

Rising caseloads and increased demographic pressures in some areas of the country have prompted more fundamental changes in the court system. In addition to increased

- ³ Canadian Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law* List, 1991.
- ⁴ Expenditures are for fiscal years April 1st to March 31st and adjusted to 1990 constant dollars using the CPI index (All Items). Data supplied by Statistics Canada, Public Institutions Division, represent consolidated government expenditures. Figures for 1990-91 have been estimated.



How Canadians interact with the court system

Canadians interact with the court system through both criminal involvement (e.g. paying traffic tickets, being prosecuted as accused persons, testifying as victims or witnesses, reporting for jury duty) and noncriminal involvement (e.g. settling disputes over property or contracts, and divorce and child custody hearings).

The Criminal Code is the most widereaching statute governing criminal offences, generally classified as:

- Crimes of Violence (17% of Criminal Code offences (1990))
 - bomicide, attempted murder, assault, sexual assault, other sexual offences, abduction, robbery
- Property Crimes (36% of Criminal Code offences (1990))
- breaking and entering, motor vebicle theft, theft over and under \$1,000, have stolen goods, fraud
- Other crimes (27% of Criminal Code offences (1990))
 - prostitution, gaming and betting. offensive weapons, arson, counter feiting currency. kidnapping, public morals, and bail violations, disturbingthe peace, escape custody, indecent acts, obstruct peace officer, etc.
- Criminal Code traffic violations (20% of Criminal Code offences (1990))

 impaired driving, dangerous operation of a motor vehicle, failure to stop or remain at the scene of the accident, and driving while disqualified

In addition to Criminal Code offences, the federal government legislates several other federal acts, including:

- Narcotic Control Act/Food and Drugs Act (77.7% of all offenses under other federal acts)
 - drugs (beroin, cocaine, cannabis, other drugs)
 - possession, trafficking, importation, cultivation
 - controlled drugs (trafficking)
 - restricted drugs (possession and trafficking)
- Young Offenders Act
- Bankruptcy Act
- Canada Shipping Act
- Customs Act/Excise Act
- Immigration Act

Violations of provincial statutes may also result in court appearances. These statutes include:

- Liquor and Traffic Acts - Securities Act

The final category is Municipal Bylaws. These vary greatly and can cover anything from leash laws for dogs to smoking in public places. court expenditures and numbers of judges and crown attorneys, major reform initiatives are being considered and implemented by all levels of government to help address increased caseloads.⁵ These initiatives affect all stages of the court process and fall into two broad categories: administrative and structural.

In the area of administrative reforms, many jurisdictions have instituted programs aimed at resolving disputes (mediation, arbitration) before cases reach court, thereby reducing the number of cases in the system. There have also been significant administrative reforms to the management of cases once in the court system, including increased automation and measures designed to use courtroom time more efficiently. Another major administrative reform includes the use of "plain language" in order to simplify legal documents and procedures for the general public.

In the area of structural reform, a number of jurisdictions have made major changes to the organization of their courts over the past few years. Many jurisdictions have merged courts or created "unified" courts to simplify and streamline the delivery of services. Along with court mergers, a process of regionalization is gradually being implemented utilizing regional management committees. These committees would consist of judges, lawyers and members of the public and would assess and determine the priority of case flows within a region, in an attempt to make the system more efficient for all parties.

⁵ Canadian Bar Association, The Report of the Canadian Bar Association Task Force on Court Reform in Canada, 1991.

Roger Roberge, Jr. is an analyst with Canadian Social Trends.



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MEASURING LOW INCOMES IN CANADA

by Aron Spector : Special Contributor

An adaptation of Michael Wolfson's and John Evans', "Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs Methodological Concerns and Possibilities", Analytical Studies Branch Discussion Paper, Statistics Canada.

Commencing in 1989, Statistics Canada reviewed its Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs), a lowincome threshold first developed in the late 1960s. Compared to previous assessments, this review was on a larger scale, was more open to the possibility of fundamental change, and involved formal consultation with the user community. Michael Wolfson and John Evans prepared the above mentioned discussion paper as a background document for this consultation process. The discussion paper demonstrated that no one measure of low income is comprehensively superior to others.

The review, however, concluded that a new Statistics Canada measure, based on relative incomes, offered enough advantages over the existing LICOs to warrant planning its adoption. After additional analysis and evaluation of these new Low Income Measures (LIMs), Statistics Canada may phase in the LIMs as the preferred measurement of low income. More information on the LIMs can be found in Income Distributions by Size in Canada. Statistics Canada Catalogue 13-207. 1991 edition. - Ed.



here are major conceptual and practical difficulties in defining poverty lines and measuring the extent of poverty. One definition of poverty refers to a situation where individuals do not have sufficient resources to cover their economic, social, psychological and spiritual needs. Judging the general level of poverty in society in this way would thus require information on a variety of indicators. including malnutrition, literacy and educational levels, and housing and neighbourhood conditions. However, all statistical measures of low income - often called poverty lines - provide only a rough indication of poverty.

There is no standard method for calculating low-income lines. As a result, a wide variety of such measures are in use by governments, non-government organizations and academics in Canada and abroad. These low-income lines are used to determine a minimum standard of social and economic well-being, to define thresholds for access to subsidies or subsidized services, to measure relative distribution of income, and to assess adequacy of social welfare policy.

Four approaches to low income measurement

There are four broad approaches to the calculation of low-income lines. The first three are based on the income level necessary to meet basic needs. The fourth approach sets the low-income threshold clirectly in relation to the range of incomes within the population as a whole. All methods of measuring low income are associated with arbitrary and subjective judgements.

Budget standard approach: Lowincome lines may be calculated by estimating the minimum income required to purchase a basket of goods and services judged by experts such as academics, social workers, program administrators or politicians as necessary to achieving a basic or minimum standard of living.

In Canada, this definition of low income has been used by municipal social planning councils in their budget guides and by provincial governments (as these judgements are embodied in the basic benefit levels of Social Assistance).

Subjective approach: Another method of estimating the income required to meet basic needs is based on public opinion determined through household surveys. Study respondents are typically asked to identify the minimum income required to meet necessary expenses given their present circumstances. These responses are then used to estimate the income level that equals this perceived minimum. Statistics Canada has published a series of papers outlining experiments in this area.¹

While this approach may appear to be free of expert opinion or arbitrary judgement, results of attitudinal surveys depend on the precise way questions are formulated. Slight variations in survey questions can have large impacts on the results.

Expenditure patterns approach: A third method of estimating the income level



necessary to meet basic needs is to compare the percentage of income spent by people on necessities. With this method, incomes are judged to be low when the proportion of expenditure on necessities is above a predetermined level, leaving a relatively low proportion for spending on other things.

Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs) assume that a family with low income spends an excessive proportion of its income on the basic necessities of food, clothing and shelter. Using family expenditure data, the LICO was first set at the point where families, on average, spend 20% more of their income than did the average family on these necessities. Adjustments were made to account for differences in family size and size of the urban or rural area in which people live. Today, the 20% parameter is still used, although the choice is arbitrary rather than the result of informed judgement.

Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC) uses a similar measure to help determine eligibility for social housing. CMHC's Core Need Income Thresholds define a maximum proportion of income that should be allocated to housing. These measures are set for each housing market in Canada and adjusted for size and composition of the household.

Relative income approach: This approach estimates low incomes in relation to the incomes received by all families. These measures identify people less able than others to access goods or resources within a given society at a particular time. Statistics Canada's new Low Income Measures (LIMs) estimate that a family is living in a low income situation if its income is less than 50% of median family income, adjusted for family size. (Median income is the level where one-half of Canadian families have higher incomes and one-half have lower incomes.) The resulting low-income estimates, however, depend on the choice of parameter, in this case the specific fraction of median income, 50%.

The Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD) and the Special Senate Committee on Poverty also calculate relative measures of low income.

Low income measurement difficulties

Threshold limitations: By their nature, low-income lines are thresholds or

¹ See, for example, Poulin, S. (1988), "An Application of Analytic Techniques to Canadian Income Satisfaction Data," Staff Report, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada. boundaries. They do not capture poverty depth (how far family incomes fall below a threshold) or poverty duration (how long a family remains below a threshold). However, using information collected to estimate low-income thresholds, poverty depth may be measured. Poverty duration estimates, on the other hand, require studies of the same families over time.

The duration of low-income episodes varies among individuals. At one end of the spectrum are those whose incomes fall below low-income lines for a short time. For example, many students aged 15-24 have low incomes, however, by the time they reach their thirties their incomes have improved. On the other hand, there are people whose incomes remain below low-income lines over a long period. Many lone-parent families headed by women are in this category.

Defining basic needs: The determination of what constitutes basic requirements of a society is based on a judgement made at a particular time and place and is defined according to the conventions of that society. Definitions of basic needs are continually evolving as living standards change over time. Statistics Canada, in its LICOs, considers basic needs to be food, clothing and shelter, three broad categories which may be misleading because they include luxury items such as jewellery, furs and hotel accommodations, while excluding personal care items such as toilet paper and toothpaste.

Comparisons over time: One common way to measure changes in the proportion of the population with low incomes hetween any two years, for example 1980 and 1990, is to develop a set of low-income measures in relation to living standards in the earlier year (1980) and then update them to the later year (1990) by adjusting for price changes. This procedure allows changes in the incidence of low income to be assessed over time against a fixed standard.

The drawback to this approach is that low incomes in 1990 would be determined according to 1980 living standards. Therefore, any changes in living standards between 1980 and 1990, brought about by technological or real economic change, would not be taken into account. Relative measures of low income, on the other hand, do not share this difficulty because they are not based on family expenditure data and do not have to be updated for price changes. However, such measures do not capture overall changes in the standard of living of the society over time.

Defining income: Monetary income is an imperfect approximation of family con-

sumption because families may consume goods and services not purchased with money. Monetary income does not always account for the return on assets families may have, such as equity from home ownership, variations in family consumption of goods and services or the value of any in-kind transfers families may receive.

Monetary income statistics do not capture the benefits received from the ownership of assets, such as housing and some consumer durables. Such assets provide long periods of service, and people who own them receive long-term benefits from their investment. Those who are renting such assets must continually compensate for their cost.

Also, the same monetary income may not provide all families with a similar standard of living. Families with a member who has special needs due to illness or disability often have higher expenditures. For others, access to goods and services may be restricted by language or cultural barriers which limit the exchange of information and may expose people to discrimination.

Non-monetary transfers, such as health care, public education and subsidized housing, are also excluded from the definition of income. However, such transfers increase families' consumption possibilities by lowering their expenditure on the subsidized items. In addition, if before-tax income is measured, the value of any taxes the family might pay is excluded. Changes to the tax system, however, affect families' command over resources.

As well, trading services, production by the family for its own use (such as growing vegetables or sewing clothing) and differences in shopping behaviour (such as the capacity to take advantage of bargains) may reduce the reliability of income as a basis of comparison of poverty among families.

Defining the income unit: Commonly, groups of people living in the same household define an "income unit" because it is assumed that expenditures are shared among people living together. Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are applied to "economic families", people living together who are related legally or by kinship. This method, however, does not account for the financial benefits that individuals not related to each other may attain by sharing housing or food expenditures. Also, using the combined income of groups of people living in the same dwelling to determine families with low incomes does not recognize that income may be shared among people not living together. For example, it is common for parents to provide their children with considerable financial support while they are at school or just starting out, and for children to support elderly parents.

Family size: Since greater expenditures are required to meet the basic needs of each additional family member, it is common to raise the low-income threshold as family size increases. Typically, these increases are less than proportionate to the increase in family size. This reflects the belief that family members share commonexpenses, such as rent, and that children consume a smaller amount of certain basic necessities than do adults. However, since empirical data are not available, the estimation of the relative cost of an additional family member requires explicit judgement. As a result, there are large differences in the estimates of these additional costs.

Adjustments made for additional family members can have considerable impact on the types of families identified as living with low incomes. For example, minor adjustments can increase or decrease the proportion of families with children identified as having low incomes.

Geographical variations: The relationship between income and access to basic amenities tends to change with the size of urban or rural area in which a family lives. For example, housing costs often rise as urban size increases, although variations occur among cities in different regions. Household production of goods and services (food, clothing, etc.) and nonmonetary transfers of goods and services among families may decrease with urban size. On the other hand, it is possible that transportation costs are higher in rural areas.

No one measure superior

Defining the low-income population is a challenging task and no one measure or approach is suitable for all purposes. Despite their short-comings, however, low income measures and poverty lines enhance the understanding of the socioeconomic make-up of the country and have played important roles in the development of policy decisions.

Aron Spector is an independent social housing consultant with ARK Research Associates.

 More information on low-income measurements can be found in *Drawing the Line* by Patricia Ruggles.

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CHILDREN AND ELDERLY PEOPLE: SHARING PUBLIC INCOME RESOURCES

by Edward Ng

Recent changes in the incidence of low income among elderly people and children in Canada highlight the changes which can occur over time in the division of public resources. While the incidence of low income among those aged 65 and over has been steadily declining since the 1970s, it has not for children.

In general, income improvements among elderly people were related to the introduction of government income support programs,¹ whereas no similar programs were put in place for families with children.

Family incomes have fluctuated with the economy, income growth has been sluggish, and the value of income from existing programs, such as Family Allowance Benefits and Child Tax Credits, has dropped.

In Canada and other developed countries, demographic changes associated with an aging population may increase the demands on health care and other programs to support the elderly and require shifts in the allocation of societal resources. At the same time, the decline in the number of children may release resources, for instance, from education budgets to programs which address the needs of the elderly. Achieving an equitable division of resources for both young and old, in the face of demographic changes, will pose a significant challenge to both governments and the private sector.



Incidence of low income

The economic situation of elderly people in Canada in general has improved during the past decade. The proportion of seniors living with low incomes in 1990 was onehalf of what it had been a decade earlier. In 1990, 15% of people aged 65 and over had low incomes, down from 28% in 1980. As a result, the incidence of low income among elderly people is approaching the overall national incidence. A slight upward shift of Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, however, would result in considerably more seniors classified as having low incomes.

Among those aged 65 and over, unattached individuals are the most likely to have low incomes. In 1990, 35% of unattached seniors had low incomes, down from 62% in 1980, but still very high compared to senior couples. In 1990, the incidence of low income among senior couples was just 4%, down from 13% in 1980.

Unattached women aged 65 and over were more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes. In 1990, 38% of unattached senior women, compared with 26% of comparable men, had low incomes.

Among children, there was no corresponding improvement in the incidence of low income between 1980 and 1990. More children lived in low income

families in 1990 than had been the case a decade earlier. By 1990, 17% of children under age 16 were living in low-income situations, up from 15% in 1980. During the decade, however, the incidence of low income among children fluctuated, rising to a peak of 20% in 1984, and then declining to 15% in 1989. Any slight increase in the Low Income Cut-offs would have a negligible impact on the estimates since the incomes of most of these children's families are considerably below the Cut-offs.

Overall, children had a slightly higher incidence of low income in 1990 than did clderly people. In fact, children in some sub-groups are more likely than all other Canadians to be living in low-income situations. Rising divorce rates, in particular, have increased the risk of children living in families with low incomes. Children in lone-parent families were the most likely members of the population to be living in a low-income situation.² In 1990, 52% of lone-parent families and 9% of two-parent families with children had low incomes, compared with 51% and 9%, respectively, in 1980.

The incidence of low income was most pronounced for children living in loneparent families headed by women. In 1990, 57% of female-headed lone-parent families had low incomes, up from 55% in 1980. Still, more than half of children in low-income situations were in two-parent families, 54% in 1990.

Two-parent families with one income earner were more likely than those with two earners to have low incomes. In 1990, 22% of two-parent families with one earner had low incomes, compared with 6% of those with two. The proportion with one earner, however, has been declining. In 1990, 19% of two-parent



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207 and unpublished data.



families had one earner and 58% had two. This was down from 30% and 47%, respectively, in 1980.

Public funds for elderly people and children

Government programs are the main and increasingly important source of income for elderly people. In 1986, government transfer payments accounted for 52% of the incomes of seniors, up from 44% in 1971. Over the same period, income from private pensions plans rose to 16% from 13% and income from investments increased slightly to 21% from 20%. On the other hand, income from employment fell to 10% of seniors' incomes in 1986, from 22% in 1971.

Elderly women, in particular, rely on government transfer payment programs such as Old Age Security (OAS), introduced in 1952; the Guaranteed Income Supplement (GIS), introduced in 1966-67; Spouse's Allowance, introduced in 1975; and benefits from the employment-related income insurance programs, such as the

An aging population

The aging of the Canadian population is not a recent phenomenon, although during the past 15 years the pace has increased. From 1976 to 1986, the percentage of people aged 65 and older increased two percentage points to 10.6% from 8.7%. In contrast, during the previous thirty years, this proportion had increased just 1.5 percentage points, from 7.2% in 1946.

One crude indicator of the impact of population aging is the dependency ratio: the number of children and elderly people as a proportion of the working-age population. As a result of declining fertility, the population under age 18 is decreasing both in number and as a proportion of the working-age population. The reverse is occurring among those aged 65 and over. As a result, there are more seniors potentially drawing on the resources of the working-age population, while the reverse may be true for children.

- ¹ The discussion is limited to government income support and income insurance programs directed to elderly people and families with children. Education and health care programs are not considered.
- ² Children in families are defined as single children under age 18.

Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (CPP/QPP).³ In 1986, these sources accounted for 60% of the income of senior women and 45% of the income of senior men. This is because senior men tend to receive a greater proportion of their incomes from employment, private pensions and investments, and as a result, tend to have higher average incomes than senior women.

While the average incomes of elderly people are still considerably below those of most other groups, since 1980 most people aged 65 and over have experienced rising incomes. Elderly couples had an average income of \$34,800⁴ in 1990, compared with \$50,500 for all non-elderly couples. As well, there are still subgroups within the elderly population, such as unattached women, who have a relatively high incidence of low income.

The growth in real income of people aged 65 and over has happened largely because of income support received from public funds. As well, many elderly people have benefited from the expansion of taxsheltered RRSPs and increased investment returns due to high interest rates. One indicator of the increased adequacy of elderly people's incomes is the drop over the last decade in the percentage of seniors who receive GIS, a supplement to OAS based on income level. About 43% of elderly people received some GIS and 7% received full GIS benefits in 1990, compared with 53% receiving some and 15% getting full GIS benefits in 1981.

In particular, incomes from the government-operated contributory retirement plans (Canada and Quebec Pension Plans), which provide all former members of the paid work force with a monthly retirement benefit, have improved. Government old age income transfers have also grown in real terms. The average real payment per senior reached \$5,698 in 1989, up from \$4,843 in 1971. Including CPP and QPP, the corresponding figure was \$9,358 in 1989. up from \$5,164 in 1971.⁵ Thus, the maturation of the public pensions, in particular, boosted seniors' incomes.

In contrast to the situation among the elderly population, during the past decade, less than 2% of the average income of families with children came from government transfers. Government transfers for children were designed to supplement the regular earned income of families. Regular federal government transfers to families with children include Family Allowance (started in 1945), the Child Tax Credit (1978) and the Youth Allowance (phased out in 1972). Real income from government programs for children has been declining in recent years. Average real income support per child reached \$751 in 1989, down from \$913 in 1978, but up from \$317 in 1971.

Given the predominant role that employment income plays in overall family incomes, the economic situation of children continues to fluctuate with the overall economy. During the past decade, many families with children have been struggling with sluggish income growth. Also, Social Assistance benefits received by families are insufficient to raise them above the Low Income Cut-offs.

Whereas both one-carner and dual-carner families experienced a substantial rise in average real family income during the 1960s, by the 1970s, real family incomes grew only for dual-carner families, primarily because of the increasing participation of married women in the paid labour force. By 1990, the average income of two-carner families with children was \$57,187, compared with \$41,129 for oneearner families with children.

Income redistribution

Recent income security programs alter the distribution of income for seniors and families with children (a process referred to as intragenerational sharing). Old Age Security payments, for example, were taxed back from seniors with net incomes above \$50,000⁶ starting from 1989. Likewise, only low- and middle-income families with children qualify for the Refundable Child Tax Credit. Also, Family Allowance was taxed back from parents

with net incomes above \$50,000.6 As a result, these programs address the issue of income distribution within age groups (intragenerational equity), but not across all age groups (intergenerational equity).

However, as demographic shifts occur, and the elderly make up an increasing component of the population, shifts in resource allocation may well be required. As well, in the absence of an expanding economy, declines in the proportion of the working age population may result in a shrinking of available per capita resources. Alternately, the presence of a strong informal support network of family, friends and neighbours may reduce the degree to which elderly people utilize public resources.

Costs and contributions of seniors

Public programs are increasingly supporting seniors. This, in part, may have

- ³ Plan's value based on worker's contributions.
- ⁴ All dollar figures are expressed in 1990 constant dollars unless noted otherwise.
- ⁵ The estimates may have a slight upward bias. For instance, some people claiming retirement benefits from the CPP/QPP are aged 60–64 (7% for CPP and 17% for QPP in 1987). This percentage has been increasing slightly since legislation was changed to allow for people aged 60-64 to claim benefits. However, most recipients of the Survivor's Benefits are aged 65 and over (61% and 54% of CPP and QPP Survior's beneficiaries, respectively, in 1987), and the amount of benefits increases with age.

⁶ Expressed in 1989 dollars.





occurred because, with shifts in family roles over the past few decades and increasing independence of aged parents, family support for seniors has declined. Per capita government expenditure on elderly people in 1980 was estimated to be approximately 2.7 times greater than that allocated to the young.

However, these estimates do not include private costs incurred by families with children. As well, many elderly people continue to contribute directly to the economy past their retirement. Seniors make contributions to society in ways that children may not, as participants involuntary work, as tax payers, as charitable donors and, because of their vast experience, as resource persons.

Conclusion

Changes to government income transfer programs have been made and have successfully reduced the incidence of low income among elderly people in Canada since the early 1970s. While elderly people still have relatively low incomes, children in low-income families are now one of the most economically disadvantaged groups in Canadian society.

Intergenerational equity debate in the United States

The issue of intergenerational equity, or justice between generations, stimulated debate in the United States in the mid-1980s. While some controversy arose over the meaning of the term, most of the debate centred around the criteria used to guide difficult resource allocation choices in an aging society.

Essentially, the debate focused on how to distribute social benefits and burdens. While some emphasized the distribution of resources across age groups primarily according to individual merits and social contributions, others highlighted the importance of meeting individual needs or equal shares for all.

The issue of income equity, in particular, is a growing concern in the United States. According to statistics based on the Official U.S. Poverty Lines, the incidence of poverty among American children under age 14 in 1982 was 52% greater than among elderly people, whereas in 1970, it was 37% less. The expansion of Social Security benefits is identified as the main reason behind the reduction of "poverty" among the elderly.

Many researchers in the United States have concluded that the elderly have fared better than children since the 1960s, with respect to income and other indicators. However, it is not clear whether the introduction of government programs to improve the financial situation of elderly people reduced public resources available to meet the needs of other age groups, such as children. Many people have argued that wealth is often shared among the generations, such as when parents provide grown children with financial assistance. Also, during their retirement years, elderly people contribute to all members of society through volunteer work and paying taxes. Nonetheless, the financial needs of seniors have become a public concern, whereas the needs of children remain largely a family responsibility.

The Canadian situation is, however, very different from that in the United States. The United States does not have income support and medicare programs for all children the way family allowance and health care in Canada have been traditionally available for all children. The success of government policy in improving the lot of elderly people demonstrates that effective change can be made. As we enter a period of rapid growth in the elderly population, the challenge of ensuring an adequate allocation of resources for both children and seniors will likely increase.

In a recent report, the National Advisory Council on Aging recognized the importance of an equitable allocation of society's resources. While acknowledging that seniors are not the poorest segment of society, the Council cautioned that the younger generation should recognize the debt they owe seniors. They also warned of the long-term societal problems that may result from children being raised in economic deprivation. These children, they reported, are not likely to accomplish as much or be as healthy or highlyeducated as other children, and thus may not be able to use their full potential for the benefit of society.7

Dividing an expanding economic pie poses relatively few problems to a society. Without sustained economic growth, however, finding an equitable balance in the distribution of resources can prove far more difficult. This will require continued sharing and cooperation among generations.

Edward Ng is an analyst with Canadian Social Trends.

 For further information on this topic, see "An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint", Canadian Social Trends, Spring 1991.

² See National Advisory Council on Aging, 1989, 1989 and Beyond: Challenges of an Aging Canadian Society.

Vell-being of Older Canadians

by Julie Keith and Laura Landry

Well-being in the retirement years bas been the subject of much recent comment, particularly in light of the rapid aging of the Canadian population. In the next three decades, the effects of declining death rates, increased life expectancy, low birth rates, and past and projected immigration trends, will result in great changes in the structure of the Canadian population. By the time the "baby boomers" reach retirement age, they will form the basis of a very large and important component of the population.

Statistics Canada, in 1989, projected that the proportion of Canadians under age 18 would drop from 25% to 20% by 2011 and further to 18% by 2036. Over the same period, the share of those aged 65 and over was projected to grow from 11% to 16% and finally to 25%. The well-being of seniors will be a central issue in years to come because, it is forecast, those age 65 and over will be supported by a shrinking labour force (if the labour force is still comprised mainly of individuals aged 15-64). Thus, bealth, pensions, bousing and other services for seniors will certainly continue to be topics of concern. — Ed.

Ganadian men and women aged 55 and over generally report high levels of well-being as measured by their health, happiness and satisfaction with most aspects of life in the 1990s. Health and activity limitation in particular appear to be good indicators of a general sense of well-being. Other influencing factors include income level, marital status, job or main activity and friendships.

Health and happiness

Older Canadians generally report being healthy and happy. In the 1985 and 1990 General Social Surveys (GSS), two-thirds to three-quarters of respondents aged 55 and over reported being in good or excellent health. Also, in both years, just over 90% of Canadians aged 55 and over reported being happy or very happy.

Satisfaction - family, friends, housing and main activity

Canadians aged 55 and over generally reported that they were satisfied with their relationships with family and friends, current accommodations and jobs or main activities. This was the case for more than 90% of respondents in 1990, with women generally reporting higher levels of satisfaction than men. However, a slightly lower proportion of women than men reported satisfaction with their main activity.

In general, as the level of happiness decreased, the proportion reporting dissatisfaction with family relations increased. Among the very happy, only 2% of men and 1% of women reported any level of dissatisfaction with family relations in 1990. In contrast, among the very unhappy, 23% of men and 27% of women reported dissatisfied with family relations.

Few men and women reported dissatisfaction with their job or main activity. In 1990, for example, 7% of men and 4% of women reported being somewhat or very dissatisfied with their jobs or main activity. Among the very happy, only 4% of men and 2% of women reported being dissatisfied with their job or main activity. Among the very unhappy, 18% of men and 41% of women reported that they were very dissatisfied in this area.

In 1990, 34% of men and 17% of women aged 55 and over reported that they were employed; while 59% of men and 44% of women were retired; 36% of women reported that they were keeping house.

Among very happy men, only 1% reported being dissatisfied with friends,

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while among the very unhappy, 12% reported that they were somewhat dissatisfied with this area of their lives.

With regard to friends, a greater percentage of unhappy women reported that the issue of relationships with friends was not applicable — raising questions

Methodological considerations

Both the 1985 and 1990 General Social Surveys (GSS) asked Canadians a series of questions relating to life satisfaction. Four questions were repeated for the two surveys. Canadians were asked to report their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their relationship with family, relationships with friends, current accommodation or housing and job or main activity. Although caution must be exercised due to slightly different wording of the questions each year. examination of general trends is possible. Differences in the findings of the two surveys might partially be attributed to the different timing of the two surveys - the 1985 GSS was conducted in September and October of that year and the 1990 survey in the period January through March. What is clear, however, is that the generally positive disposition of the population registered in 1985 was still there in 1990.

regarding diminished contact with friends or fewer friends.

Of the very happy, only 2% reported any level of dissatisfaction with housing. This proportion jumped to 20% for the somewhat unhappy, and to 27% for the very unhappy.

Activity limitation

Health status is directly related to overall happiness. In both 1985 and 1990, a greater proportion of the very unhappy than of the very happy reported fair or poor health; whereas more of the very happy reported good or excellent health.

Also, those with physical activity limitations were more likely than others to report being unhappy. In 1990, respondents were asked whether (if the activity limitation referred to a long term physical condition, mental condition or health problem) they were limited in the kind or amount of activity that they could do at home, at work, at school or in other activities such as transportation or leisure. As the proportion reporting activity limitation increased, so too did the level of unhappiness. For the very happy, 21% reported activity limitation. This figure more than tripled to 70% for the very unhappy. Overall, 28% of Canadians aged 55 and over report activity limitation. For men, the proportion was 25% and for women, it was 30%.

Self-reported health and happiness status of Canadians aged 55 and over, 1985 and 1990

	Men		Women	
	1985	1990	1985	1990
		0/	0	
Health status				
Excellent	25	32	23	27
Good	42	46	44	48
Fair	23	17	26	19
Poor	9	4	7	6
Not stated	1	1	1	1
Happiness status				
Very happy	46	56	45	49
Somewhat happy	48	39	49	43
Somewhat unhappy	4	2	5	5
Very unhappy	1	1	1	1
No opinion, not stated	1	3	-1	2

Income and level of happiness

Happiness level did not depend directly upon income. Overall, 56% of men and 49% of woman aged 55 and over reported being very happy.

Nevertheless, very few very happy men (4%) and women (9%) had incomes of less than \$10,000. About 23% of the very happy men had incomes between \$10,000 and \$19,999 and between \$20,000 and \$39,999. Fewer very happy women (15%) had very high incomes (\$40,000 or more), whereas the greatest proportion of very happy men (29%) fell into this highest income category

Well-being of Canadians aged 55 and over

Health and activity limitation appear to be very good predictors of a general sense of well-being. Happiness decreases as the proportion of those reporting good or excellent health decreases and as the proportion reporting activity limitation increases.

Happiness and specific satisfactions also appear to be very closely linked. The proportion reporting dissatisfaction with each of five specific areas studied rises as the level of unhappiness rises. Behind the issue of happiness (an individual's perception of their state at one point in time) is a more complex picture of satisfactions and dissatisfactions suggesting that specific aspects of life are more problematic at different age levels.

For instance, the fact that very unhappy men in three age groups (65-69, 70-74, 80 and over) nevertheless reported high satisfaction on all five specific dimensions suggests that general happiness and specific satisfaction on a variety of issues do no necessarily coincide. Other aspects of life need to be explored to explain the variation in well-being. Variables such as activity limitation, a high proportion being reported for the three age groups in question, may prove important. The interaction of dimensions such as health, activity limitation, marital status and income level with the five areas studied, for each sex and across different age groups suggests a high degree of unexplored complexity.

Julie Keith and Laura Landry are research assistants with Canadian Social Trends.

STATISTICS CANADA



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Ithough Canadians were much more physically active in 1988 than in 1981, only a small percentage regularly participated in activities intense enough to produce cardiovascular benefits. In 1988, the most popular activities were walking, gardening, swimming and bicycling. Young people under age 20 were more likely than older people to participate in scheduled, directed or coached and competitive physical activities, whereas casually organized activities were more common among older people.

etting Bigger Faster

CANADA'S POPULATION was enumerated at 27,296,859 on June 4, 1991, an increase of 7.9%, or nearly 2 million persons, since the 1986 Census.

The 1991 Census recorded the first increase in the intercensal population growth rate since the 1951 Census. Although Canada's population has continued to increase, five-year growth rates declined steadily until 1986. The recent increase is mainly due to increased immigration.

HOW WE'VE GROWN

British Columbia, Ontario, Yukon Territory and the Northwest Territories all had population growth rates exceeding the national rate of 7.9% British Columbia, the only province which has had a growth rate above the national average since it joined Confederation, was the fastest growing province. British Columbia's population increased by 13.8%. Ontario was close behind with an increase of 10.8%.

The Yukon Territory, which has the country's smallest total population (27,797), had a growth rate for the 1986-1991 period of 18.3%. This is a significant increase over the 1.5% growth rate during the previous five-year period. The population of the Northwest Territories increased by 10.4% to 57,649. While not as high as the 14.2% population increase recorded by the 1986 Census, the growth rate of the Northwest Territories continued to be higher than the national five-year growth rate.



POPULATION, CANADA, SHOWING TOTAL POPULATION AND GROWTH RATE, 1956-1991



Statistique Canada

Canada

FIRST CENSUS DATA PRODUCTS

On June 4, 1991, Statistics Canada conducted the 17th Census of Population and Housing since Confederation. With the information reported by more than 27 million people in over 10 million households, Statistics Canada is developing a new statistical portrait of our country. On April 28, 1992, in the first of ten data announcements, the agency released two publications containing information on population and dwelling counts:

A National Overview (93-301) contains 11 tables with 1991 population and dwelling counts for Canada, the provinces and territories, federal electoral districts, census divisions, census metropolitan areas, census agglomerations as well as counts of the urban and rural population. Census subdivisions appear in three tables, rankordered in size, greatest percentage population growth and greatest percentage population decline.

Census Divisions and Census

Subdivisions (93-304) presents 1991 and 1986 population and 1991 dwelling counts, land area and population density for these two types of geographic areas. Census divisions include counties and regional districts; census subdivisions include cities, municipalities, towns, townships, and villages. A geographic index is included and census divisions and subdivisions are grouped by province and territory.

 Census Divisions and Census
 Subdivisions is also available on diskette (93-304D). The diskette is accompanied by software documentation and all documentation in the publication relating to the data. Quebec's population growth rate was 5.6%, up from 1.5% between 1981 and 1986. This is the first time since the 1956 Census that Quebec's growth rate increased from one census period to the next.

Alberta's population increased by 7.6% between 1986 and 1991, up from the 5.7% increase for the previous five-year period, but slightly lower than the national rate of 7.9%. This is the

POPULATION, CANADA, PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES, 1986 AND 1991

Province/Territory	1986 Population	1991 Population
Canada	25,309,331	27,296,859
Newfoundland	568,349	568,474
Prince Edward Island	126,646	129,765
Nova Scotia	873,176	899,942
New Brunswick	709,442	723,900
Quebec	6,532,461	6,895,963
Ontario	9,101,694	10,084,885
Manitoba	1,063,016	1,091,942
Saskatchewan	1,009,613	988,928
Alberta	2,365,825	2,545,553
British Columbia	2,883,367	3,282,061
Yukon Territory	23,504	27,797
Northwest Territories	52,238	57,649

POPULATION GROWTH RATES BY PROVINCE AND TERRITORY, 1981-1991



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first time since the 1951 Census that Alberta's five-year growth rate did not exceed the national average.

Newfoundland's total population in 1991 differed little from what it was in both 1981 and 1986. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick experienced slight increases in their population growth rates between the 1981-1986 and 1986-1991 periods. Two provinces, Prince Edward Island and

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION, CANADA, PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES, 1951, 1971 AND 1991

	Percentage Distribution				
Province/Territory	1951	1971	1991		
Canada	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Newfoundland	2.6	2.4	2.1		
Prince Edward Island	0.7	0.5	0.5		
Nova Scotia	4.6	3.7	3.3		
New Brunswick	3.7	2.9	2.7		
Quebec	28.9	27.9	25.3		
Ontario	32.8	35.7	36.9		
Manitoba	5.5	4.6	4.0		
Saskatchewan	5.9	4.3	3.6		
Alberta	6.7	7.5	9.3		
British Columbia	8.3	10.1	12.0		
Yukon Territory	0.1	0.1	0.1		
Northwest Territories	0.1	0.2	0.2		

Manitoba, experienced slower growth for the 1986-1991 period than during the previous period 1981-1986.

Saskatchewan was the only province with a population drop – declining by approximately 21,000 from an all time high of slightly over 1 million in 1986 to below 1 million in 1991.

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION 40 YEAR TREND CONTINUES

Decennial censuses taken since Newfoundland joined Confederation in 1949 show that the distribution of Canada's population among the provinces and territories has shifted in favour of British Columbia, Alberta and Ontario.

Of all the provinces, only Alberta and British Columbia have experienced continuous increases in their percentage share of Canada's population over the last forty years. In 1951, 15.0% of Canada's population lived in Alberta and British Columbia. By 1991, this proportion had increased to 21.3% Despite a slight decrease in its share of the population in the 1970s, Ontario's share of the population has increased from 32.8% in 1951 to 36.9% in 1991.

GROWTH RATES OF CANADA'S 25 CENSUS METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1986-1991



1991 CENSUS OF CANADA

After two decades of slight change, the shares of Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories have remained stable since 1971. Yukon's share of the population has not changed since 1951.

New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Manitoba and Saskatchewan have all experienced small but continuous declines in their shares of the population between 1951 and 1991. Over the same period, Quebec's proportion has declined from 28.9% to 25.3%.

THE BIGGEST GET BIGGER

The 1991 Census revealed that 61.1% of Canada's population live in census metropolitan areas – more than ever before. Between 1986 and 1991, every one of Canada's 25 metropolitan areas grew, with the result that there were 1.5 million more people living in these areas in 1991 than in 1986.

Ten census metropolitan areas – Toronto, Vancouver, Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, London, Kitchener, Halifax, Victoria and Oshawa – had higher rates of growth than Canada as a whole. The country's fastest growing metropolitan area was Oshawa, with a growth rate of 18.0%. Vancouver was next, with 16.1%, followed by Kitchener with 14.5%.

DWELLING GROWTH, 1961 – 1991



Over the five-year census period, the population of metropolitan Montreal increased by 7 0%, bringing it above 3 million for the first time. During the same period, Halifax was the fastest growing census metropolitan area in the Atlantic provinces and its population climbed by 8.3% to pass the 300,000 mark. Saint John, with a growth rate of 3.1%, became the 24th largest metropolitan area in 1991, up from 25th place in 1986.

CENSUS METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1986 AND 1991

Census	Ra	ink	Popula	ation	
Metropolitan Area	1986	1991	<mark>198</mark> 6	1991	
Toronto	1	1	3,431,981A	3,893,046	
Montréal	2	2	2,921,357	3,127,242	
Vancouver	3	3	1,380,729	1,602,502	
Ottawa-Hull	4	4	819,263	920,857	
Edmonton	5	5	774,026A	839,924	
Calgary	6	6	671,453A	754,033	
Winnipeg	7	7	625,304	652,354	
Québec	8	8	603,267	645,550	
Hamilton	9	9	557,029	599,760	
London	11	10	342,302	381,522	
St. Catharines-Niagara	10	11	343,258	364,552	
Kitchener	12	12	311,195	356,421	
Halifax	13	13	295,922A	320,501	
Victoria	14	14	255,225A	287,897	
Windsor	15	15	253,988	262,075	
Oshawa	16	16	203,543	240,104	
Saskatoon	17	17	200,665	210,023	
Regina	18	18	186,521	191,692	
St. John's	19	19	161,901	171,859	
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	20	20	158,468	160,928	
Sudbury	21	21	148,877	157,613	
Sherbrooke	22	22	129,960	139,194	
Trois-Rivières	23	23	128,888	136,303	
Saint John	25	24	121,265	124,981	
Thunder Bay	24	25	122,217	124,427	

A - Adjusted figure due to boundary change

DWELLING GROWTH

Growth in occupied private dwellings between 1986 and 1991 was 11.4%. While this was faster than the 8.6% increase recorded between 1981 and 1986, it fell short of increases during the previous four census periods.

Canadians more physically active

During the 1980s, Canadians adopted a more active lifestyle, spending more of their leisure time participating in physical activities. By 1988, 79% of Canadians aged 15 and over were spending at least three hours each week engaged in some form of physical activity,¹ up substantially from 57% in 1981. Participation in all types of physical activity increased between 1981 and 1988, with one exception. During that period, the number of joggers and runners declined by one-third.

In 1988, men (92%) and women (85%) aged 15-19 were the most physically active Canadians, whereas senior men (75%) and women (69%) were the least active.



¹ Participated in physical activity for three or more hours of leisure time per week during at least nine months of the year. Source: Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, *Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada, 1988.*

Recreational activities of Canadians aged 10 and over,¹ 1981 and 1988



Walking most popular activity

In 1988, the most popular physical recreation activities among Canadians aged 10 and over were walking² (63%), gardening (50%), swimming (42%), bicycling (41%), social dancing (33%) and home exercise (31%). Such activities gave most Canadians easy access to an active lifestyle with their relatively low cost, casual scheduling, proximity to home and little need for supervision or training. In addition, about 20% of Canadians participated in each of skating, downhill skiing, jogging or running and golf.

A greater percentage of males than females participated in gardening, bicycling, skating, downhill skiing and jogging or running, whereas more women than men took part in walking, swimming, social dancing and home exercise.

Low intensity activities dominate

Most Canadians were active in 1988, although few participated in exercises considered physically intensive. Only 11% of Canadians regularly participated in an aerobic activity³ every other day for at least 30 minutes. Although almost 40% of Canadians were active as frequently, the

Sport facilities

The change in the number and type of sport facilities during the 1980s may reflect shifting public interest in various sports. From 1982 to 1988, the number of golf courses increased 50% to 938, and the number of curling clubs and skiing facilities each increased about 40% to 111 and 226, respectively. In contrast, the number of bowling and billiard facilities declined 11% to 1,111 and roller skating facilities declined 48% to 45.

Among spectator sports, the number of commercial facilities increased 25% between 1982 and 1988 to 1,344. Also on the increase were the number of professional sport clubs (103 in 1988) and horserace tracks (792 in 1988).

- ¹ Three hours of leisure time each week for at least nine months of the year.
- ² Percentage of the population that participated at least once in the year.
- ³ Assumes that cardiovascular health benefits from a pattern of physical activity lasting 30 minutes or more, every other day, at 50% or more of individual capacity.

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intensity of their activity did not result in similar aerobic benefits, whereas 14% regularly participated in aerobic activity but for less than 30 minutes at a time. A full



38% of the population exercised irregularly and for less than 30 minutes at a time.

Males (14%) were more likely than females (8%) to participate in aerobic

Promoting physical fitness

The federal government promotes physical fitness through Fitness Canada, whose objective is to raise the fitness level of Canadians by increasing participation in physical activity. In 1989-90, Fitness Canada provided almost \$8 million in funding to 39 organizations and special projects. These included major national associations and special targetgroup organizations involved in fitness, universities conducting fitness-related research, and arm's-length corporations providing services related to fitness.

Participaction, in particular, is an arm's-length, non-profit corporation launched by the Department of Fitness and Amateur Sport in 1971 with a mandate to use mass media to change Canadians' attitudes and values about fitness. Through time and space donated by the media, *Participaction* has become one of the largest and most influential communications companies in Canada.



¹ Includes activities making the greatest contribution to fitness of people aged 10 and over, active at least once a week in the three months prior to the survey. Multiple answers were possible so totals do not add to 100. Source: Canadian Fitness and Litestyle Research Institute, *Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada*, 1988. activities for 30 minutes every other day in 1988. However, for both males and females, the aerobic benefits derived from the more common activities, such as walking, increased with age. As a result, 50% of men and 30% of women aged 65 and over regularly participated in aerobic exercise.

Exercising outside the home common

Canadians usually exercised out-of-doors (32%), at home (28%), at a club or community centre (26%) or at school or work (10%) in 1988. Many (37%) usually exercised with friends, although nearly as many (35%) exercised alone, while others exercised with family members (18%), classmates or co-workers (5%). In 1988, older Canadians were less likely than younger people to frequent commercial clubs or recreational facilities.

Most participate in scheduled activities

Among physically active people, 45% were weekly participants in a scheduled physical activity in 1988, whereas 41% participated in casually organized activities. A smaller proportion (22%) took part in directed or coached physical activities, while 17% participated in competitive physical activity.

Competitive physical activities

Competitive sports are more common among Canadians aged 19 and under, many of whom compete on school-related teams. In 1988, 42% of boys and 37% of girls aged 10-14 were involved in competitive physical activity. The gender gap widened in the 15-19 age group, with 44% of men and 28% of women participating in competitive activities. Within older age groups, participation dropped to 10% to 24% for men and 10% to 15% for women, depending on their age.

Directed or coached activities

Directed or coached activities range from gymnastics' instruction to aerobics classes and from little league baseball to Olympic competition, encompassing a wide variety of activities and involving varying degrees of skill among both instructors and participants. Of all young Canadians aged 10-14, 52% of boys and 70% of girls participated in directed or coached activities. Among those aged 15-19, the gap between the genders was much narrower, with 46% of men and 49% of women participating. In comparison, only 11% of men and 20% of women aged 20 and over participated in directed or coached activities.

AMATEUR SPORT IN CANADA

illions of amateur athletes in Canada compete in various team and individual sports with different levels of difficulty. For many of these athletes, not only talent and dedication determine the success they can expect to achieve — the quality of coaching and training and the availability of financial assistance are also important influences.

In Canada, the vast majority of coaches and trainers are volunteers, with fewer than 1% indicating coaching as their primary occupation. To enhance the skills of amateur sport coaches, the Canadian Coaching Association has established a training program. In addition, Sport Canada, a federal government agency, is assisting the Canadian Coaching Association to improve the quality of coaching in Canada through legislation requiring funded coaches to meet certain training requirements.

Sport Canada also funds amateur sport competitions and Canada's best amateur athletes. In 1991, over 850 amateur athletes, many of whom would compete in the 1992 Winter and Summer Olympic Games, received financial assistance from Sport Canada.

Amateur athletes

Estimating the number of amateur sport athletes in Canada is difficult because many athletes compete in more than one sport, some at more than one level, and numerous leagues do not maintain records on the number of competitors. However, the results of the Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada provide an estimate of amateur sport participation. According to that survey, 2.4 million Canadians participated in physical activity at the competitive level in 1988, and over 3 million people participated in physical activities that were directed or coached.

Coaching

For many young Canadians, achieving world-class ability in amateur sport depends on direction from coaches and trainers. Compared to other countries, however, the number of full-time paid professional coaches in Canada is low. For example, in the United States, universities employ thousands of full-time professional coaches, and at the high school level, coaching is often part of a teacher's job description. In Canada, the coaching network is largely volunteer-based, with teachers or community coaches offering their time after school or on weekends.

The Coaching Association of Canada estimated that there were 400,000 coaches in Canada in 1989, fewer than 1% of whom were full-time paid professionals. By 1991, the Association had trained 335,000 in the theory, technical and practical aspects of over 70 different sports through the National Coaching Certification

The 1988 Campbell's Survey on the Well-Being of Canadians was conducted by the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute through the support of the Campbell Company, Fitness Canada, and Health and Welfare Canada. It updated the information collected by the 1981 Canada Fitness Survey, with results based on responses from 4,000 Canadians aged 10 and over, the majority of whom participated in the 1981 survey. Data from both surveys were used to compare changes in the physical recreation habits and physical fitness of Canadians between 1981 and 1988.

Program. Among trained coaches, 19% have certification at level one, 4% have certification at the next level (level two) and fewer than 1% have certification at level three or above. To improve coaching standards in Canada, Sport Canada legislation requires all funded national level coaches

World class athletes

With one exception, Canada has sent an Olympic team to every Summer-Olympic Games since 1908 and to every Winter Olympic Games since 1924. The exception was the boycott of the 1980 Summer Games in Moscow to protest the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. By 1988, Canada had won 40 gold medals at Summer Olympic Games and 13 gold medals at Winter Olympic Games. Canada also sends athletes to other major international sporting competitions such as the Pan American, Commonwealth and World University Games.

During the 1980s, Canadians have been world champions or world recordholders in alpine skiing, speed skating, figure skating, yachting, traek and field, equestrian events, swimming, trap shooting, boxing and wrestling.

Occupations in sport and recreation

In 1986, 46,240 people had occupations in sport and recreation in Canada. From 1971 to 1986, the number of men in such occupations more than doubled and the number of women quadrupled. The fastest-growing oecupations were referees and related officials, whose numbers increased to 1,105 in 1986 from 225 in 1971.

Overall, 1.5 times as many men as women held occupations in sport and recreation, although the proportion varied among different activities. Most sport and recreation supervisors, for example, were men (71%), while most coaches and trainers were women (57%). However, the majority of full-time coaches and trainers were men (66%).

Like participants in directed or coached activities, Canadians employed in sport and recreation tended to be young. In 1986, 45% of males and 52% of females employed in sport and recreation were under age 25. to have completed the highest certification, level four, by 1992.

Women are under-represented among trained coaches in Canada. By July 1991, 34% of the coaches who had received training from the National Coaching Certification Program were women. Among coaches who received training in 1991, women accounted for 34% of those certified as level one, 30% of those certified as level two and 18% of those certified as level three.

Swimming, figure skating and alpine skiing have a high representation of paid professional coaches, and many young Canadians succeed at world competitions in these fields. Other sports with many trained coaches include soccer, hockey, gymnastics, softball, basketball, baseball, football, bowling, curling, ringette, tennis, volleyball, track and field and those related to the Special Olympics.

Funding amateur sport

The Canadian government provides policy direction and financial support to Canadian amateur sport at the national and international level through Sport Canada. During the 1980s, the annual federal budget for amateur athletics exceeded \$50 million.

Sport Canada funds and co-ordinates the activities of about 85 national and other sport organizations. It helps pay for professional, technical and coaching staff, and defrays the costs of meetings, coaching elinies and seminars, and national and international competitions. Sport Canada also funds Canada's top amateur athletes, those ranked either 1 to 16 in the world, or whom they have identified as having the potential to advance to the top 16.

Funded athletes

Sport Canada's Athlete Assistance Program financially assists about 850 top amateur athletes with day-to-day living and training expenses. During the 1980s, payments to Canada's top amateur athletes through the program averaged \$5 million per year.

Of the amateur athletes sponsored by Sport Canada through the program in August 1991, 61% were men and 39% were women. The greatest number of funded athletes were aged 20-24 (48%), followed by those aged 25-29 (28%). Young people aged 15-19 accounted for 15% of funded athletes, while 7% were aged 30-34, and only 3% were aged 35 and over.

Olympic athletes

Of the almost 2.5 million Canadians who participate competitively in physical acti-

vitics, only a very small number have the opportunity to represent Canada at the Olympic games. In 1988, Canada's combined Summer and Winter Olympic teams had 471 competitors: 87 men and 30 women on the Winter Olympic team and 241 men and 113 women on the Summer Olympic team. The majority of these athletes (55%) were aged 15-24, 42% were aged 25-34, and just 3% were aged 35 and over. Almost 90% of the members of both the 1988 Summer and Winter Olympic teams were residents of Ontario, Quebec, Alberta and British Columbia.

The size of the Olympic team varies from one competition to another and reflects the cost of sending a team to the host city. In 1988, the Winter Olympic team that competed at Calgary was 70% larger than the winter team that had been sent to Sarajevo, Yugoslavia in 1984. Conversely, the 1988 Summer Olympic team that competed in Scoul, Korea was 24% smaller than the 1984 summer team that had represented Canada in Los Angeles, California.

Sport Canada's "Best Ever" winter program supported about 100 athletes who competed in 12 sports in the 1992 Winter Olympics in Albertville, France. Similarly, the "Best Ever" summer program supports about 500 athletes who will represent Canada at the 1992 Summer Olympics in Barcelona, Spain.

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 More information on amateur sport can be obtained from the Coachittg Association of Canada, the Canadian Olympic Association and the Canadian Sports Information Resource Centre.

CHARITABLE DONATIONS

by Daniela Lucaciu



continue to contribute an increasing amount of money to charity each year. However. the rate of increase in donations bas been smaller since 1988. This, in part, is due to the effects of sluggish economic growth. Older people and those with high incomes tend to be the most likely to donate to charity and to make the highest contributions. Also, while the vast majority of tax-filers contribute less that 1% of their total income to charity, the proportion donating more than 1% again tends to increase with age and income.

Canadian tax-filers



Contributors and donations

Between 1984 and 1990, the number of tax-filers reporting charitable donations, as well as the total amount donated, increased. By 1990, about 5.3 million taxfilers reported contributions totalling almost \$3 billion. In comparison, about 4 million people reported donations of \$1.8 billion in 1984.

Annual percentage increases in both the number of contributors and amount donated were much larger during the mid-1980s than between 1988 and 1990, when economic growth was slower. Also, 1988 was the first year affected by tax system reforms. These reforms changed the way charitable donations could be used as a tax shelter.

Age and provincial differences

Fewer than one-third (29%) of all Canadian tax-filers reported charitable donations in 1990, with these donations averaging \$544. While this average may appear relatively high, some tax-filers make very large donations which raise the average considerably. The median donation - the amount where one-half of taxfilers claim more and the other half claim less - was \$120 in 1990.

The percentage of people making donations increases with age. Also, the average

Tax exemptions

Charitable donations made to registcred Canadian charities (including religious organizations), athletic associations, universities and municipalities, as well as to the United Nations may be used as a personal exemption to reduce a tax-filer's income for income tax purposes.

To use charitable donations as a personal tax exemption, a receipt must be provided by the tax-filer. Many tax-filers, however, do not get receipts or do not provide them to Revenue Canada. Some people contribute to charity but do not claim their donation for tax purposes. Also, in the case of husband-wife families, the spouse with the highest income may claim all donations, even though both spouses may have contributed. Therefore, the 29% of taxfilers who claimed charitable donations in 1990 clearly underestimates the proportion of people who contributed that year. Similarly, charitable donations recorded by Revenue Canada represent less than the total amount contributed by Canadians.

age of donors increased to 47 years in 1990 from 42 the previous year. While 9% of tax-filers under age 25 made donations, the proportion rose to 24% for those aged 25-34 and to 33% for people aged 35-44. Increases were smaller among older people, reaching 39% for seniors. Similarly, average

Tax treatment of charitable donations

Throughout the 1980s, tax-filers were not required to pay full federal income taxes on charitable contributions valued up to 20% of their net income. Although official receipts are now required to be able to claim donations for tax purposes, between 1980 and 1983, a tax-filer could claim up to \$100 in charitable contributions without receipts. Changes to the income tax system introduced in 1988 affected the percentage of federal income tax levied on charitable donations.

From 1980 to 1987, charitable donations had been deducted directly from the taxable income on which the tax-filer's federal income tax was calculated. As a person's tax bracket increased, the tax relief from charitable donations increased to a corresponding percentage. For example, federal income taxes owed by people in the 17% income tax bracket (the lowest bracket) were reduced by 17% of the value of their charitable donations. Similarly, federal income taxes owed by those in the 34% income tax

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contributions tend to increase with age, a pattern related to generally higher incomes among older people. Claimed donations ranged from an average of \$166 for tax-filers aged 15-24 to \$614 for those aged 45-54. Tax-filers aged 55 and over made average contributions of around \$800.

bracket (the highest) were reduced by 34% of the value of their contributions. Therefore, no federal income taxes were levied on charitable donations (valued up to 20% of net income), regardless of the person's tax bracket.

Since 1988, however, there has been a non-refundable tax credit for charitable donations subtracted directly from the calculated amount of federal income tax owed by the taxfiler. Seventeen percent of the first \$250 of charitable contributions, plus 29% of any additional contributions, may be subtracted from federal income taxes payable. In other words, these percentages are fixed and no longer are dependent on the tax-filer's income-tax bracket.

As a result of changes to the federal income tax system in 1988, people in high income tax brackets now receive less tax relief than in previous years from the same amount of charitable donations and may pay federal income tax on a portion of income donated to charity.

ANADIAN Percentage of tax-filers claiming charitable donations and average donation, by province, 1990



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Provincial differences exist in the percentage of tax-filers making charitable donations and the average amount given. Whereas one-third of tax-filers in Prince Edward Island, Manitoba and Ontario contributed to charity in 1990, this was the case for fewer than one-quarter in Newfoundland. Average donations ranged from highs of \$678 in Alberta and about \$650 in both British Columbia and Saskatchewan, to \$310 in Quebec. Although average donations tended to be below the national average in the Atlantic provinces, this is likely a reflection of lower average incomes in this region.

More income, more likely to donate

The likelihood of contributing to a charity generally increases with income level. Tax-filers with high incomes have more discretionary income, and also, because of higher marginal tax rates, can be sheltered to a greater extent by the charitable donation tax credit.

Only 2% of tax-filers with an income less than \$5,000 made a charitable donation in 1990, whereas 35% of those in the \$20,000-\$29,999 range did so. In contrast, proportions of donors ranged from just over one-half in the \$40,000-\$49,999 income group to just under





three-quarters of those with incomes of \$70,000 or more.

Given that those with higher incomes tend to be more likely than others to donate to charity, it is not surprising that tax-filers with professional or dividend income are most likely to make charitable donations. Well over one-half (59%) of tax-filers with such income contributed to charity in 1990. The proportion was also relatively high (45%) for those with rental income. In contrast, only 19% of tax-filers receiving unemployment insurance made charitable donations.

Proportion of income given

By far, most tax-filers making charitable donations contribute less than 1% of their total income, regardless of age or income. However, the proportion contributing more than this generally increases with age and income level.

While only 1% of tax-filers under age 25 donated between 1% and 4.9% of their income in 1990, 7% of those aged 45-54 and 15% of seniors contributed that amount. Similarly, less than 1% of taxfilers under age 25 contributed at least 5% of their income to charity, compared with 3% of those aged 45-54 and 5% of seniors.

The proportion of tax-filers donating at least 1% of their income to charity increased through all income levels up to those with incomes of \$70,000 or more. Less than 1% of tax-filers with incomes less than \$5,000 claimed a charitable donation of more than 1% of their income in 1990. Among tax-filers in the \$60,000-\$69,999 income range, 11% gave between 1% and 4.9% of their income to charity, while 3% gave at least 5%. These proportions dropped considerably to 5% and 1%, respectively, for tax-filers with at least \$70,000 income.

Conclusion

It is not known how much trends and patterns of making charitable donations are influenced by people's desire to contribute, their financial ability to do so, or the desire or need to take advantage of tax benefits derived from the deductions allowed. However, annual increases in total contributions have been decreasing and were only about 2% between 1989 and 1990. Continued economic uncertainty may further decrease the amount of charitable donation of Canada's tax-filers.

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ABSENTEEISM AT WORK

by Ernest B. Akyeampong

ince 1977, the percentage of Canadian workers missing scheduled work time for personal reasons, excluding vacations, has increased as has the length of such absences. From 1977 to 1990, absences for personal reasons grew among men and women in almost all industries. occupations and provinces. However, most of the increase resulted from family-related leave taken by female workers. Growth in family-related absences is linked to both improvements in employment contract entitlement for personal leave, including maternity leave, and to the increasing number of mothers participating in the paid labour force.

Several factors contribute to workplace absences: the physical work environment; the degree of job stress; employeremployee relations; collective agreement provisions; maternity leave; work schedules; the adequacy and/or affordability of community facilities, such as child-care centres and public transportation; family circumstances, especially the presence of preschool children and other dependent family members; and the physical health of the worker, a factor closely related to age.

Workplace absences increasing

The frequency and duration of workplace absences have been increasing. During an average week in 1990, about 6.4% of all full-time paid workers were absent for personal reasons for all or part of the week, up from 5.8% in 1987 and 5.5% in 1977. The amount of time missed also increased, rising to 3.7% of all scheduled weekly work time in 1990, from 3.4% in 1987 and 3.0% in 1977. Estimated over the whole year, full-time workers were absent, on average, 9.4 days for personal reasons in 1990, up from 8.6 days in 1987 and 7.4 in 1977.

Family-related absences increased most

From 1977 to 1990, absences resulting from personal and family obligations more than doubled, while absences due to illness or disability increased slightly. Absences due to personal and family responsibilities reached 2.7 days in 1990, up from 2.2 days in 1987 and 1.1 in 1977. In 1990, 6.7 workdays were missed due to illness or disability, up from 6.4 days in 1987 and 6.3 in 1977.

Women's absences increase due to family obligations

Women have more absences than men for family-related reasons. This results, at least in part, from the traditional role women continue to hold within the home and family, despite advances into the paid labour force. Among full-time paid female workers, absences due to personal or family-related responsibilities almost tripled to 5.2 days in 1990 from 1.9 in 1977. In contrast, the number of days men have missed for similar reasons increased marginally to 0.9 days in 1990 from 0.7 in 1977. In contrast, the annual number of days men and women have been absent from work because of illness or disability has remained fairly constant since 1977, at about 6.5 and 7.0 days, respectively.

Family-related leave may enhance productivity by providing workers with the opportunity to achieve a better balance between paid work and family life,

Absence defined

An absence occurs when a full-time paid worker misses scheduled work time because of illness or disability or family or personal responsibilities including maternity leave. Absenteeism data from the Labour Force Survey include only full-time paid workers holding one job, about 8.7 million people in 1990. Excluded are part-time paid workers, self-employed workers, multiple-job holders and unpaid workers. Vacation time is also excluded from the statistics.



particularly for female employees shouldering child-rearing responsibilities. Some arrangements being adopted in the workplace, such as flex-time and work-athome programs, may reduce the need for family-related absences during scheduled hours.¹

Presence of children creates greater family obligations

The presence of children appears to exert a strong and rising upward pressure on

absence levels among full-time paid female workers, but very little influence on their male counterparts. In 1990, women with children missed an average of 7.9 days of work due to family obligations. Among women with at least one preschool child, workdays missed for personal- or family-related reasons, including maternity leave, were much higher, averaging 25.1 days. In contrast, women without children were absent due to personal or family responsibilities an average of only 2.3 days in 1990.



¹ Includes maternity leave.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

Average number of days absent for personal and family SOCIAL reasons, by presence of children, 1990 TRENDS Women in families with .4.1 preschool children! Women in families with children Women in families without children. Men in families with children Men in families 0.8 without children ¹ Includes maternity leave Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

In contrast, absences for family-related reasons were not common among men, even those with children. In 1990, men with children missed an average of 1.0 day of work to meet personal and family obligations, while men without children lost 0.8 days.

Women's absences from work resulting from family-related responsibilities, especially the care of other family members, may be higher than men's because of the so called "second shift". Due to cultural traditions, many women carry a dual role as both a member of the paid labour force and the adult with primary responsibility for the care and maintenance of the home and family. Also, among husband-wife families, the paid worker with the lower wage, usually the wife, may assume more family obligations during working hours, especially if meeting such responsibilities results in a loss of wages

Absences due to illness or disability increase with age

Illnesses or disabilities are responsible for higher levels of workplace absenteeism among older workers. In all age groups, however, the proportion of workers absent for these reasons during an average week in 1990 was higher than in 1987, as were the number of days lost.

In 1990, about 6% of workers aged 55 and over reported an absence each week due to illness or disability, compared with only 3.4% of workers aged 15-19. Also, workers aged 55 and over missed more work time due to illness or disability than did young workers. In 1990, those aged 55 and over were absent due to illness or disability an average of 12.0 days per year, while workers aged 15-19 lost only 4.2 days.

Absenteeism in most industries up

Between 1987 and 1990, the frequency and duration of workplace absences increased among full-time paid workers in every major industry, except those in transportation, communication and other utilities where the levels remained unchanged. Differences by industry in absences and the reasons for those absences are related to both the nature of the jobs and the gender composition of the labour force within these industries

Illness or disability higher in goodsproducing sector

While overall absenteeism in 1990 was

¹ Data on various work arrangements are available from the Statistics Canada Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991.









similar in the goods-producing and service industrics, absences due to illness or disability were much higher among workers in the more hazardous and physically demanding goods-producing industries. Absences due to illness or disability accounted for 82% (8.0 days per worker) of the total time missed by workers in the goods-producing sector in 1990, compared with about 67% (6.1 days per worker) of absences in the service sector. In contrast, service-sector workers were absent an average of 3.1 days for family-related reasons in 1990, compared with an average of 1.9 days in the goodsproducing sector.

Absenteeism high in public administration and manufacturing

Among broad industry groups, workplace absences were highest in public administration followed closely by manufacturing. During an average week in 1990, 8% of public servants and 7% of manufacturing employees were absent from work for all or part of the week. As a result, these workers missed an average of almost 11.0 days in 1990. In contrast, the lowest incidence of worker absenteeism occurred in agriculture. Only 4.2% of agricultural workers were absent during an average week in 1990 and missed an average of 5.8 days that year. The seasonal nature of agricultural work and the limited periods in the year during which paid workers are employed full-time in agriculture contributed to these low results.

Highest rates in health and social services At a more detailed industry level, the highest average number of days absent in 1990 occurred in health and social services (14.3), and in banks and other financial institutions (11.7). In 1990, average days absent due to family obligations in these industries, which have a high representation of women, were double the overall average. Absences for this reason averaged 5.3 days per worker in the health and social services field and 5.9 days per worker in banks and other financial institutions. Also, in health and social services industries, stresses associated with the jobs, extended hours, shift work and high vulnerability to infectious illnesses, such as colds may also contribute to high absenteeism rates.

Variations by occupation

Absence levels were lower among workers with "white-collar" occupations than among those with "blue-collar" occupations. In 1990, about 6.3% of white-collar workers were absent for all or part of a typical week, 8.8 days per year, compared with 6.7% of blue-collar workers who were absent 10.6 days per year. Days lost as a result of illness or disability were more common among blue-collar workers (85% of all absences) than among white-collar workers (63% of all absences).

Among white-collar workers, those in sales (6.9 days) and managers and professionals (7.9 days) missed the fewest number of days in 1990, whereas clerical workers missed the most (10.4 days). Among blue-collar workers, those in primary occupations missed the fewest days (7.7 days), whereas workers in processing, machining and fabricating missed the most (11.6 days).

While workers in both groups were absent more often in 1990 than in 1987, the gap between the two groups narrowed. This occurred because during this period, family related absences increased among white-collar workers.

Provincial variations

Absence levels vary by province. In part, this is due to differences in industrial and occupational mix. However, between 1987 and 1990, the tendency to miss work, as well as the amount of time missed, increased in all provinces except British Columbia.

Full-time workers in Manitoba exhibited the highest incidence of absenteeism in 1990, with 7.6% missing some time each week. In contrast, workers in the predominantly agricultural province of Saskatchewan had the lowest rate, with 5.8% absent. Quebec workers missed the most work days, 10.5 days in 1990, while workers in Alberta and Saskatchewan missed the fewest, 7.3 days and 8.0 days, respectively.

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Ganada's periodical industry has experienced a substantial growth in circulation and increased revenues during the last few years. However, expenses increased at about the same rate and profits margins have fallen. Yet, until recently, more publishers entered the industry each year, and, in spite of sometimes discouraging prospects, published an increasing number of periodicals.

More publishers

The Canadian periodical publishing industry attracted new enterprises during the last half of the 1980s, and only in 1989-90 did the growth in new entrants level off. By 1989-90, reporting publishers numbered 1,091, compared with 1,109 the previous year and 810 in 1984-85. Most publishers are responsible for only one periodical, with only 13% publishing more than one in 1989-90.

In 1989-90, three-quarters of publishers were located in Ontario (46%) and



Quebec (28%), while the remainder were in the Prairie provinces (12%), British Columbia and the Northwest Territories (9%) and the Atlantic provinces (5%). The location of Canadian periodical publishers has changed little in recent years, except for an increase in Ontario and a decline in Quebec. In 1984-85, 41% of Canada's periodical publishers were in Ontario and 34% in Quebec.

Periodicals more numerous

Recent changes in the number of publishers were accompanied by a similar shift in the number of periodicals being published. In 1989-90, 1,494 periodicals were published, down from 1,534 in 1988-89, but up from 1,167 in 1984-85. Of the total number of individual periodicals in 1989-90, 30% were classified as special interest, 24% as business or trade, 16% as general interest and 15% as scholarly. Religious and farm periodicals accounted for the remainder.

Periodicals are also classified by the amount of revenues. Most periodicals are small, with revenues of less than \$100,000. However, their proportion declined to 45% in 1989-90 from 52% in 1984-85. In contrast, an increasing proportion of periodicals were classified as large (revenues of over \$500,000) in 1989-90 (24%) than in 1984-85 (16%). The proportion of medium-size periodicals (revenues between \$100,000 and \$499,999) has remained about the same since 1984-85.

English or French

English was the principal language of 60% of Canadian periodicals in 1989-90, while 22% were written in French. Bilingual periodicals (English and French) comprised 16% and those in languages other than English and French accounted for the remaining 3%. This distribution by language changed only slightly from that in earlier years, with the largest change being a three percentage point increase in bilingual periodicals.

What's inside?

Most editorial content in Canadian periodicals relates to human sciences (communication, law, education, history, philosophy, health, sociology or economics), news and leisure, and science and technology, with the remainder split between business and arts and culture.

Canadian periodicals continue to promote the country's writers and artists. However, a definite shift away from inhouse services took place during the last

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS - SUMMER 1992

half of the 1980s. In 1989-90, 51% of articles in a typical issue were produced inhouse, while 42% were purchased from Canadian authors and 7% from foreign authors. In contrast, 74% of articles had been produced in-house in 1984-85. In 1989-90, 44% of illustrations and photographs were done in-house. The majority (50%) were purchased from Canadian freelancers outside the organization, and 6% from foreign artists. In 1984-85, 67% of illustration and photography had been done in-house.

Circulation

Circulation levels per issue also increased, amounting to 39.5 million in 1989-90, up from 33.5 million in 1984-85. Just over one-half (56%) of these copies were single copy sales or subscriptions (classified as paid circulation) in 1989-90, and the remaining 44% were distributed free of charge (non-paid circulation). This is a slight shift from 1985-86, when paid (51%) and free (49%) circulation figures were almost equal.

General interest periodicals — written to inform and entertain the reader and aimed at a global market or one large portion of it — had the largest eirculation per issue between 1984-85 and 1989-90. However over the period, a shift from general interest to more specialized periodicals occurred. In 1989-90, general interest periodicals made up almost onehalf (49%) of per issue circulation, while those classified as special interest accounted for another 25%. The remainder were periodicals classified as business or trade (13%), religious (8%), farm (3%) and scholarly (2%). Scholarly periodicals are restricted to academic subjects and mainly published by universities, research institutes and learned societies to disseminate research results or knowledge in a specific field.

Revenue

With the increase in periodicals and per issue circulation, total revenue of Canadian periodicals rose during the last half of the 1980s. In 1989-90, total revenue was estimated at \$903 million, a 43% increase from the 1984-85 figure of \$607 million.

The sources of revenue varied little during the last half of the 1980s, with advertising typically accounting for almost two-thirds of reported revenue. In 1989-90, sales of advertisements accounted for 64% of estimated total revenue. Subscriptions added another 22% and single-copy sales 7%. Other sources, including sales of back issues, grants, donations, and membership dues, accounted for the remaining 7% of total revenue.

Expenses

Although the industry enjoyed an increase in revenue, it was matched by a 44% increase in expenses between 1984-85 and 1989-90. Production and printing costs were highest, accounting for 37% of the total in 1989-90. These were followed by salaries, wages and fees (20%), administration and general costs (12%),





promotion and marketing (10%), advertising sales' costs (6%), and editorial and design, and distribution postage (5% each). The remaining costs were for processing and invoicing, other distribution expenses and other non-specified items.

Profits

Overall profit margins — profit before taxes as a percentage of total revenue in the Canadian periodical industry have dropped during the last half of the 1980s, a period of economic turbulence.

The overall profit margin (profit before taxes as a percentage of total revenue) had dropped to 4% by 1989-90, from 6% in 1984-85. While the profit margin of English periodicals equalled the industry average in 1989-90, French periodicals had a profit margin of 7%. For those written in both official languages, the

profit margin was 1%, whereas those written in another language suffered a loss of 1%.

Profit margins also vary depending on the editorial content of the periodical. For example, the highest profit margin was for business or trade, and religious periodicals, at 6% each. General interest (which had the highest circulation) and farm periodicals followed, at 5% and 4%, respectively. The profit margin for special interest consumer periodicals was negligible and was -2% for scholarly periodicals.

Differences in profit margins vary to an even larger extent by size of the periodical. In 1989-90, small periodicals had a negative profit margin of 23%. The loss for medium periodicals was much smaller, at 1%, while large periodicals realized a profit margin of 6%.

Periodicals defined

A periodical is a printed communications medium issued regularly more than once a year, but not more than once a week. To be classified as a periodical, it must have a name and some form of chronology on the cover, have no more than 70% advertising content, be available to the public and be formed in a distinct package. Catalogues, directories, newsletters, daily and weekly newspapers and government publications are excluded from this definition, as are publications printed in Canada but published outside the country.

Andrea Haman is a research assistant with Canadian Social Trends

CANADIANS ON THE MOVE

by Janet Che-Alford

Canadians are very mobile, with most Canadians baving changed residence at least once in the last 10 years. According to the General Social Survey (GSS), one-balf of Canadian adults moved during the last 5 years and two-thirds in the last 10 years. In 1989, 3.6 million people aged 15 and over (18% of adults) moved. In fact, just 5% of adults have always lived at the same address.



International comparison

By international standards, the annual proportion of movers in Canada matches that in the United States (18%). Canadians are much more likely to move than are people from Great Britain (10%) or Ireland (6%), but somewhat less likely to move than New Zealanders (19%).¹

Regional differences

Residential moves are not uniform across the country. Residents of Alberta and British Columbia are the most mobile, whereas those in Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland are the least likely to move. In 1989, one-fifth of adults in Alberta and British Columbia changed residences, compared with 9% of people in Prince Edward Island and 13% in Newfoundland. The proportions of movers in the remaining provinces were slightly below the national average of 18%. Although some of these movers may have been residents of another province or country before their move in 1989, the majority of moves were within the province, judging from the distance moved.



Reasons for moving²

Most Canadians change residences for housing-or work-related reasons. In 1989, Canadians' number one motivation for moving was to have to a larger home (17% of all moves). Other housing-related reasons for moving included purchasing a home (13%), moving to a better neighbourhood (13%), moving to a less expensive home (5%), moving to a smaller home (2%) and better accommodations (1%). The second main reason for residential mobility was related to employment (16% of all movers in 1989). Such moves could be attributable to one's own employment (12%) or to the employment of a family member (4%). Other reasons given for moving included changes in marital status (10%), desire for independence, i.e. to establish one's own household (7%), need to be closer to family (5%) and involuntary moves because previous accommodations were no longer available (3%).

Mobility status of population aged 15 and over, 1990

	000s	°/a
Total population aged 15 and over	20,526	100
Always lived in same residence	1,050	5
Total movers	19,103	93
Moved in 1989	3,624	18
Moved since January 1985	10.253	50
Moved since January 1980	13,121	64
Not stated	373	2

Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation

Age and gender of movers

Overall, men and women are equally likely to move. In 1989, 18% of both men and women changed their address. Nonetheless, reasons for moving differed by gender. For instance, 16% of men and 9% of women who moved did so because of their job. On the other hand, 7% of women and 1% of men who moved did so because of a family member's employment.

A slightly higher proportion of men (6%) than women (4%) who moved did so because they wanted to be closer to their family. Also, men tended to be more likely than women to move because of the purchase of a home: 14% of men, compared with 11% of women in 1989. On the other hand, about 7% of women who moved did so because of marriage, while the proportion for men was 5%.

Mobility rates and the reasons for moving tend to be associated with different stages in the life cycle. The most mobile Canadians are those aged 15-34, 28% of whom moved in 1989. The percentage of movers declined at successively older ages to about 16% of those aged 35-44, 8% of those aged 45-54 and 6% of those aged 55 and over. In 1989, the mobility rate of young adults aged 15-24, at 29%, was considerably above that of all Canadians.

Reasons for moving varied by age. For instance, among those aged 15-24, the primary reasons for moving cited in 1989 were to attend school (14%) and to change to a larger home (14%). People aged 25-34 were buying homes (19%) and seeking larger homes (18%). As well, they



were the most likely to move for a job (38%), compared with 30% of people aged 15-24 and 18% of those aged 35-44. Among those aged 65 and over, homebuying and job concerns had receded. These people moved to a better neighbourhood (22%), to be close to family (17%), for health reasons (16%) and to obtain smaller homes (13%).

Tenure status

In 1990, slightly more than 14 million Canadians aged 15 and over lived in owneroccupied dwellings and almost 6 million lived in rental units, according to GSS estimates. The propensity to move was considerably higher among renters than owners.



with three times as many renters (33%) as owners (12%) having moved in 1989.

Reasons for this are varied. Since homeowners have placed a greater financial investment in their dwelling, they cannot move as readily as renters. While renters can move at the end of their lease or by giving due notice, most homeowners must wait for their house to be sold to recapture the equity they have invested in their dwelling. On the other hand, renters lack the security of tenure enjoyed by homeowners. Rent increases, or other landlord imposed changes, may result in more moves for tenants than homeowners.

Education

Among those who moved in 1989, the likelihood of moving increased with educational attainment. Universityeducated people were almost three times more likely than those with less than a Grade 9 education to move (23% versus 8%). The probability of moving increased from 15% for those with some high school to 18% for those with a secondary school certificate and to 19% for those with postsecondary non-university education.

The upward effect of educational attainment on residential moves occurs regardless of tenure status, although the trend is more accentuated among renters than owners. While 15% of university-educated homeowners moved in 1989, only 4% of those with less than a Grade 9 education did so. Similarly, 41% of universityeducated renters moved in 1989, compared with 17% of those with less than a Grade 9 education.

¹ American Demographics, June 1991, p.4.

² A small proportion of respondents gave more than one reason for moving.

Moving time

Not surprisingly, moving is most likely to occur when weather is most favourable. In 1989, more than one-half of all moves took place during the months of June (11%), July (14%), August (9%), September (13%) and October (10%). Moving dropped off in November (8%) and December (9%) reaching the lowest point from January to April (4% to 5%). Moving

Education Income	of secondents of	and dE and aver door
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Education level and tenure	Total population	Moved in 1989		
	000s	000s	%	
Owners	14,232	1,642	12	
Less than Grade 91	1,213	44	4	
Grades 9-13	3 <mark>,60</mark> 5	320	9	
Secondary certificate	2,043	256	13	
Post-secondary non-university	4,370	558	13	
Some university and university degree	2,920	449	15	
Renters	5,965	1,959	33	
Less than Grade 91	485	84	17	
Grades 9-13	1,517	442	29	
Secondary Certificate	809	249	31	
Post-secondary non-university	1,853	650	35	
Some university and university degree	1,267	524	41	

¹Includes no schooling.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

Reasons for move (Top five)	Movers of all distant	f ce	Movers of or less	1 50 km	Movers of 1,000 km or more	
	% of total	Rank order	% of total	Rank order	% of total	Rank
To move to a						
larger home	17	1	22	1	-	-
To move to a better						
neighbourhood	13	2	14	3	12	4
To purchase a home	13	3	16	2	1	-
One's work	12	4	-	-	30	1
To establish one's own						
household	7	5	9	4	1	
Marriage	6		7	5	4	-
Other family						
member's work	1.43	-	-		14	2
To be closer						
to family	-	-	-		14	3
To attend school		-	_	_	11	5

- Not one of the top five reasons

Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

increased again in May (7%), leading into the peak moving cycle of summer.

Moving distance

Canadians may be a very mobile people, but most do not move far. In 1989, 54% of moves were within 10 km (a 10-minute drive from the starting point) and another 20% were between 10 km and 50 km (30 minutes or less). Just 12% of movers went 1,000 km or more.

The top reasons for moving varied by distance moved. For example, fully 30% of moves at a distance of 1,000 km or more were made because of the respondent's own employment and 14% because of the job of a family member or the need to be closer to family. In contrast, short distance moves were more housing-related: 22% of these people moved to a larger home and 16% bought a home.

Short occupancy lengths

The high annual mobility rate of Canadians translates into relatively short lengths of occupancy. In 1990, more than one-third of adults (38%) had lived in their current residence for three years or less. In fact, 19% had lived in their home for one year or less. People with long-term residency are a minority, with just 35% of adults living in the same home for 10 or more years and another 5% who had never moved



	SOCIAL INDICATORS						
	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	199
POPULATION					24		
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25.617.3	25.909.2	26.240.3	26.610
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.
Immigration ¹	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,52
Emigration ¹	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,64
FAMILY							
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.5
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	84
LABOUR FORCE							
Total employment (000s)	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	t2,57
- goods sector (000s)	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,62
- services sector (000s)	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,94
Total unemployment (000s)	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,10
Unemployment rate (%)	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.
Part time employment (%)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.
Women's participation rate (%)	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.
ilmonation rate = % of paid workers	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	
INCOME							
Mediac family income	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,06
% of tablies with low income (1986 Base)	15.6	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.
Women's full-time earnings as a $\overset{\alpha_{0}}{\rightarrow}$ of men's	65.6	63.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.
EDUCATION							
Hementary and secondary enrolment (0.00%)	4.946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,083.9	5,149.
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,67
Government expenditures on education -							
as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.
HEALTH							
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease							
- men	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	
- women	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	
- women	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.
JUSTICE							1-21-1-

JUSTICE Crime rates (per 100,000) . 714 749 808 856 898 948 1,013 - violent 4 - property 5,607 5,560 5,714 5,731 5,630 5,503 5,844 2.7 2.8 2.2 2.5 2.2 2.5 2.5 2.8^p - homicide GOVERNMENT

Expenditures on social programmes² ÷ (1990 \$000,000) 151,003.3 155,990.6 157,737.2 160,670.7 164,293.2 170,125.0 175,640.0 ÷. - as a % of total expenditures 55.6 55.8 56.7 56.4 56.1 56.2 56.2 as a % of GDP 26.2 26.2 26.1 25.5 24.7 25.0 26.2 3,221.9 3,181.5 3,079.9 3,025.2 3,261.0 3,136.7 3,016.4 3 663 0 UI beneficiaries (000s) 2,490.9 2,919.4 OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries^m (000s) 2,569.5 2,652.2 2,748.5 2,835.1 3,005.8 3,098.5 Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries^m 1,894.9 1,930.1 (000s) 1,923.3 1,892.9 1,904.9 1,853.0 1,856.1 2.282.2 ECONOMIC INDICATORS GDP (1986 \$) - annual % change +3.3+2.5 +0.5+6.3+4.8+4.2+4.7 -1.54.4 3.9 4.4 4.8 Annual inflation rate (%) 4.2 4.0 5.0 5.6 110,874 139,408 170,863 215,340 189,635 183,323 150,620 130,094 Urban housing starts

Not available * Not yet available ^p Preliminary estimates ^m Figures as of March. ^{pr} Updated postcensal estimates ^{pp} Preliminary postcensal estimates.

¹ For year ending May 31st.

² Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

STATISTICS CANADA

1991

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