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WINTER 1996

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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YOUTH SMOKING ☐ CHARITY ☐ THE MÉTIS

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FEATURES

ON OUR COVER:
The Habitant Farm (1856) oil on canvas. 61.0 x 91.5 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:
Cornelius David Krieghoff was born in Amsterdam, Holland in 1815. He studied music and painting at university in Ousseldorf and Rotterdam. In 1837, Cornelius Krieghoff arrived in New York. While serving three years in the U.S. Army, he sketched scenes from the Seminole war in Florida. He and his wife, Louise Gauthier, moved to the Longueuil, Que. home of his wife's parents, via Rochester, N.Y. and Toronto. There, he spent his time painting family portraits as well as depictions of the daily life of the Caughnawaga Indians. His Quebec period, 1853 to 1867, was his most prolific and prosperous. With the end of his marriage, Krieghoff went to live with his daughter in Chicago in 1867. He returned to Quebec later in 1871. A few months after his return to Chicago in 1872, he died at the age of 57.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor-in-Chief
CYNTHIA SILVER

Editors
WARREN CLARK
SUSAN CROMPTON

Production Co-ordinator
ANDREA HILTZ

Marketing Co-ordinator
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DISSEMINATION DIVISION,
STATISTICS CANADA

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GRIFFE DESIGN INC.

Illustrations and Photos
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Youth Smoking in Canada

by Warren Clark

The transition to adulthood is a time when young people develop a greater sense of self and independence. During this time, they sometimes experiment with risky health behaviours. They may use these behaviours to bond with peers, improve their social image, or appear more mature and independent.[1]

One of these risky behaviours is smoking. Smoking is a major cause of lung cancer and is a risk factor for numerous other diseases. In fact, health experts estimate that about 20% of Canadian deaths in the early 1990s were attributable to smoking.[2] This makes smoking the most important cause of preventable illness, disability and premature death in Canada.

Most people begin to smoke in their teens. While serious effects upon their health may not appear for decades, young smokers are at immediate risk of a range of health problems. These include nicotine addiction, reduced lung function, worsening of problems from asthma and other respiratory ailments, and increased coughing and wheezing. This article uses data from the 1994 Youth Smoking Survey (YSS) to show the prevalence of smoking among Canadian youth and the social conditions and environments that have influenced their smoking behaviour.

Smoking is an "initiation" Young people may begin to think about smoking as a way to appear more mature, to cope with stress, to bond with a group of peers or to display independence from their families. In the later stages of their "initiation," they experiment with smoking, and then, depending upon social reinforcement, move on to smoking in a variety of increasingly diverse settings. Finally, they may experience nicotine dependence and addiction.[3]

In 1994, about 15% of young people aged 10 to 19 (580,000) were current smokers, while another 7% (256,000) were beginning to smoke. There was no difference in the percentage of boys and girls who smoked; however, boys were somewhat heavier smokers. Boys who smoked every day consumed an average of 13.2 cigarettes per day, compared with an average of 11.5 for girls.

Beginning smokers may start to experiment with cigarettes by smoking irregularly, and if the physiological effects are negative, they may never try again. In 1994, 12% of youths were past experimenters. However, if peers, parents or other acquaintances encourage smoking or make it socially acceptable, they may start to smoke more frequently and more heavily.

Attempts to quit smoking are common among young smokers. Most of these attempts, however, had only short-term effects. About 44% of current smokers quit for less than one month, while another 20% managed for less than twelve months, and only 2% were successful for a year or more. Only 1% of youths were former smokers. This suggests that attempts to quit are more difficult after young people have progressed beyond cigarette experimentation.

Smoking begins early and its prevalence increases with age According to the 1994 Survey on Smoking in Canada, 84% of Canadian adults who had ever smoked began before they reached the age of 20. It appears that if people refrain from using tobacco during their youth, most will never start. The YSS revealed that about 5% of 12-year-olds were current smokers, although few smoked every day. On the other hand, almost one-third of 19-year-olds were current smokers, and over three-quarters of them were daily smokers. Experimentation with cigarettes peaked in the early teens, when 12% of 14-year-olds were beginning smokers; by age 19, only 4% were beginning

[1] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. **Relationship between cigarette smoking and other unhealthy behaviors among our nation's youth: United States, 1992**, Vital and Health Statistics of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & National Center for Health Statistics, Advance Data, No. 263, April 24, 1995.

[2] Eva M. Makomaski Illing, Murray J. Kaiserman, "Mortality Attributable to Tobacco Use in Canada and its Regions, 1991," **Canadian Journal of Public Health**, Vol. 86., No. 4, July-August 1995. (Estimated 41,408 deaths attributable to smoking in 1991.)

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

1994 Youth Smoking Survey

In 1994, Statistics Canada conducted the Youth Smoking Survey (YSS) on behalf of Health Canada. It focussed on young people aged 10 to 19 and was the first national survey since 1978 to ask 10- to 14-year-olds detailed questions about their cigarette smoking attitudes and behaviours. About 14,300 students aged 10 to 14 were selected from a random sample of school classes in the ten provinces; these children completed a written questionnaire under the direction of a Statistics Canada interviewer. Meanwhile, another 9,500 young people aged 15 to 19 were interviewed by telephone.

The YSS definitions of current smokers differ somewhat from those used in earlier surveys of smoking behaviour. While earlier surveys counted all smokers regardless of the extent of their previous smoking experience as current smokers, the YSS differentiated between those who were just starting (beginning smokers) and those who were more established (current smokers). In this article, "current smoker" and "smoker" are used interchangeably.

- **Current smoker:** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey.
  - ***Current daily smoker:*** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked at least 1 cigarette per day for each of the 30 days preceding the survey.
  - ***Current non-daily (occasional) smoker:*** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey, but has not smoked every day.
- **Former smoker:** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, but has not smoked at all in the 30 days preceding the survey.
- **Never smoked:** has smoked fewer than 100 cigarettes in his/her lifetime. This includes the following sub-categories:
  - ***Beginning to smoke:*** has smoked between 1 and 99 cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey
  - ***Past experimenter:*** has smoked between 1 and 99 cigarettes in his/her lifetime, but has not smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey
  - ***Lifetime abstainer:*** has smoked less than 1 whole cigarette in his/her lifetime.

• For additional information, see the **1994 Youth Smoking Survey**, Health Canada, Catalogue H49-98/1994E.

Friends strongly influence young people's smoking behaviour Peers have a strong impact on youth smoking. Almost three-quarters of young people aged 10 to 19 stated that people their age started smoking because their friends smoked. Ten- to 14-year-olds added other reasons as well, with 56% believing young people start smoking because they are curious about it, 46% because "it's cool" and 45% because "popular kids smoke."

The YSS bears out the link between peer example and smoking: the more smoking friends teenagers had, the greater the likelihood that they smoked as well. About 8% of youths aged 10 to 19 with one smoking friend were current smokers, while 42% of those with five or more smoking friends were smokers. In contrast, youths with no close friends who smoked were not likely to smoke either: only 1% were current smokers and 2% were beginning smokers in 1994.

Parents influence their children's smoking habits... Parental disapproval may deter children from starting, or it may make them more secretive: beginning smokers in the YSS said their parents often did not know that they were smoking. It does seem, though, that parents set a positive example to their teenagers by not smoking. According to the YSS, 31% of 10- to 14-year-olds and 10% of 15- to 19-year-olds believed that parental smoking was one reason why people their age started smoking. In two-parent families where neither parent smoked, 10% of youths were current smokers. In contrast, 14% of youths smoked if one parent smoked and 23% acquired the habit if both parents smoked. Teenagers who did

Types of cigarette smokers

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	Age group		
	10-19	10-14	15-19
		%	
Total	100	100	100
Current smoker	15	7	24
Daily	10	2	18
Occasional	5	4	6
Former smoker	1	0	2
Never smoked	83	93	74
Beginning	7	7	6
Past experimenter	12	10	14
Lifetime abstainer	65	76	54

Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 Youth Smoking Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

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Youth smoking trends

After declining during the 1980s, cigarette smoking rates among youth aged 15 to 19 increased to 27% in 1994 from 21% in 1990. In 1995, smoking rates among 15- to 19-year-olds decreased to 25%.

Cigarette smoking among 15- to 19-year-olds was more prevalent in 1994 and 1995 than in 1990

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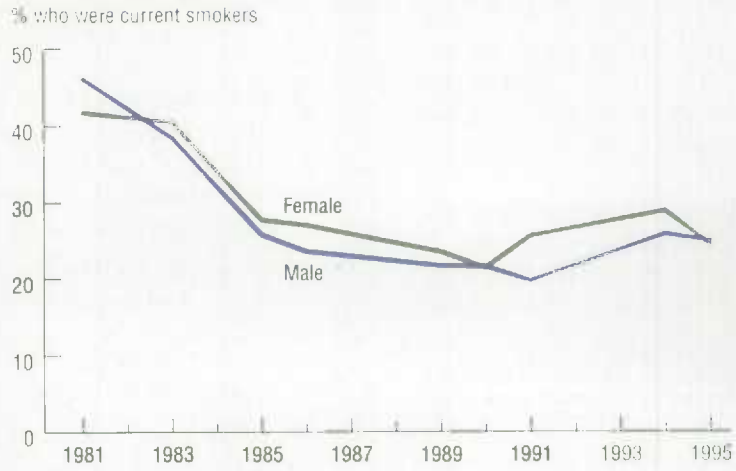


Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981, 1983, 1986 Survey of Smoking Habits; 1985, 1991, 1987 General Social Survey; 1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey; 1990 Canada's Health Promotion Survey; and 1994 Survey on Smoking in Canada, May 1994.

not live with their parents were most likely to smoke, with 42% reporting that they were current smokers.

...but other smokers at home are a bigger influence than parents Every day, or almost every day, about one in five young people were exposed to smokers in their homes, other than their parents. The effect of these smokers – whether relatives, friends, baby-sitters or other frequent visitors – was significant. Only 10% of young people smoked if there were no other smokers in the home (apart from parents), but the percentage climbed to 33% if there was one non-parental smoker at home and to 50% if there was more than one.

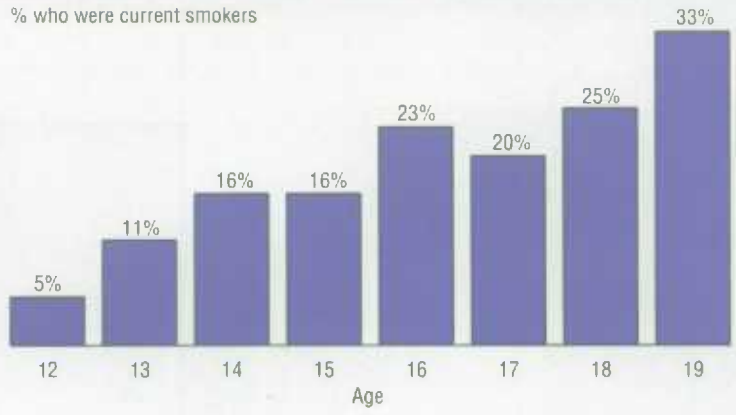
Schools influence smoking behaviour Schools can play a key role in influencing the smoking behaviour of students, mainly because most young people spend a substantial portion of their day there. This influence can extend from teaching the health risks of smoking to enforcing smoking regulations.

About three out of four young people remembered learning, while at school, about the health effects of smoking. These efforts had quite positive results: only 14% of youths who were taught about the health risks of smoking were current smokers, compared with 22% of those who did not remember learning such material. Making it difficult to smoke on school grounds also seems to affect young people's smoking behaviour. About 13% of young people who attended schools that banned student smoking were current smokers, compared with 20% of teenagers at schools that simply restricted smoking to a particular area.

High achievers at school were less likely to smoke Studies have consistently shown that the prevalence of smoking is associated with poor academic performance.[3] According to the YSS, about 8% of young people who rated their academic performance as above average were smokers. In contrast, 15% of average and 25% of below-average students were current smokers. Interestingly, over half (53%) of

[3] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, **Preventing Tobacco Use Among Young People: A Report of the Surgeon General**, Georgia, 1994.

Prevalence of smoking increases with age CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 Youth Smoking Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Access to cigarettes

In February 1994, the federal government dramatically decreased tobacco taxes in an attempt to reduce cigarette smuggling. This action was followed by several provincial governments. However, the tax cut raised concerns that young people would be more likely to start smoking or less likely to quit because cigarettes were much cheaper. Indeed, the Survey on Smoking in Canada[1] found that 5% of young smokers aged 15 to 19 smoked more cigarettes because of the price decreases of early 1994. Furthermore, 19% of new 15- to 19-year-old smokers took up the habit because of the reduced cost of cigarettes.

Although it is illegal to sell cigarettes to anyone under the age of 18 or 19, depending on the province, young people are still able to obtain them. A 1995 Health Canada survey, conducted to assess retailer compliance with legislation prohibiting the sale of tobacco products to people under age 18, showed that 52% of retailers were willing to sell to minors.[2] Small retailers are an important source of supply for young smokers: data from the Youth Smoking Survey showed that over half of young smokers bought their cigarettes from small grocery or corner stores, while about 16% bought them from gas stations. Among beginning smokers, friends, relatives and other individuals were the primary source of cigarettes (68%), further emphasizing the influence of friends upon smoking behaviour.

[1] The Survey on Smoking in Canada, conducted by Statistics Canada on behalf of Health Canada, measured changes in smoking behaviour following the reduction in tobacco taxes during early 1994. The same respondents aged 15 and over in ten provinces were interviewed four times between May 1994 and February 1995.

[2] For additional information, see A.C. Nielsen, **Measurement of retailer compliance, with respect to tobacco sales-to-minors legislation & restrictions on tobacco advertising, Wave 1 Results**, December 1995.

young people who were high school dropouts smoked.

Bans at work cut smoking Peers and the interpersonal environment influence young people's smoking habits. Most young people attend school and about half have jobs such as baby-sitting, cutting lawns, delivering newspapers or working in stores. Employer restrictions on smoking and the smoking habits of other employees may influence young people. Almost one-quarter (23%) of young current or former smokers who were employed in a workplace with a total or partial ban on smoking, indicated that the restrictions caused them to cut back or quit altogether.

Friends have the biggest influence on smoking behaviour There are many influences on youth smoking behaviour, but some appear to be more powerful than others. When other factors – such as age and parental smoking behaviour – are controlled for, results of data analysis show that friends are the most important predictor of a young person's smoking habits. Teenagers whose friends smoked were sixteen times more likely to be smokers than those whose friends did not smoke. Another important influence is smokers in the home (other than parents): all other things being equal, young people who were exposed to non-parental smokers in the home were about four times more likely to be current smokers.

Compared with friends and other smokers, the impact of parental smoking on their children's smoking behaviour was small. After controlling for other factors, having at least one parent who smoked increased the likelihood of a young person smoking by 40%.

Young people still start to smoke Smoking behaviour among young people is volatile as they experiment with smoking and balance the perceived good and bad effects. They start, quit, start again. Some quit smoking, while still others develop a lifetime smoking habit. Friends, siblings, parents, teachers, employers and other acquaintances all exert influences on a youth's decision to smoke. Over 95% of young people believe that smokers can become addicted to tobacco and that tobacco smoke is also harmful to non-smokers. Four in five did not believe that smokers could quit anytime they wanted to. Despite these widely held beliefs, and all the well-documented health risks associated with the habit, many young people still decide to smoke.

Warren Clark is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends.**

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Heavy drinking and soft drug use more prevalent among smokers

In 1994, Statistics Canada conducted Canada's Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey on behalf of Health Canada. It provided support for the argument that smoking, drinking and illicit drug use are interrelated. Over 40% of 15- to 19- year-old smokers engaged in heavy drinking, compared with 13% of non-smoking teenagers. Marijuana and hash use were also much more common among current smokers than among those who had never smoked.

Young smokers aged 15-19 engaged in other unhealthy behaviours

	Current smoker	Never smoked
	%	
Heavy infrequent drinker[1]	19	7
Heavy frequent drinker[2]	23	6
Used marijuana or hash in the last year	49	12
Used marijuana or hash at least once during the last month	28	4

[1] Drinks less often than once a week, usually five or more drinks when alcohol is used.
[2] Drinks once a week or more frequently, usually five or more drinks when alcohol is used
Source: Statistics Canada, Canada's Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey, 1994.

Population Projections for Census Metropolitan Areas, 1995 to 2000

By the year 2000, the population living in Canada's 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs)[1] is projected to be 6.2% larger than in 1995. An additional 1.1 million people will bring the number living in CMAs to 19.3 million by the end of the century.

Expect mix of fast and slow population growth across urban Canada Imagine the entire population of St. Catharines-Niagara moving to Toronto. That is about the size of the population increase projected for the Toronto census metropolitan area between 1995 and the year 2000. The population of Toronto is expected to reach 4,721,000 by 2000, a 9% increase over 1995. Oshawa, bordering Toronto, will grow 11% over the same period.

Although Vancouver will remain the third ranking CMA in size (2,057,000 in 2000), its projected population growth is the fastest: a 13% increase is anticipated by the year 2000. Montreal, Canada's second largest CMA, is expected to grow only 3% over this period (to 3,418,000). Ottawa-Hull, the only other CMA with more than one million people, will grow 7% to 1,103,000 by the turn of the century.

Only five other CMAs – Edmonton, Calgary, Québec, Winnipeg and Hamilton – have populations of more than one-half million people. Growth rates within this group vary considerably: for example, Calgary is expected to grow twice as fast (7%) as Edmonton (3%).

Not all CMAs are expected to grow. The population of St. John's (Nfld.) is expected to decline by almost 4% between 1995 and 2000. This decrease is consistent with the provincial projection, since the population of Newfoundland is also expected to fall by a similar percentage during this period.

The population projections described here were developed using a ratio method. For more information on this technique, as well as information about recent demographic developments in Canada, see **Annual Demographic Statistics, 1995**, (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPB). This publication is available from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.

Early in 1997, CMA population projections by age and sex using a cohort component method will be available from Population Projections Section, Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

[1] A census metropolitan area comprises a very large urban area (urbanized core) of at least 100,000 population, together with adjacent urban and rural areas which have a high degree of economic and social integration with the core.

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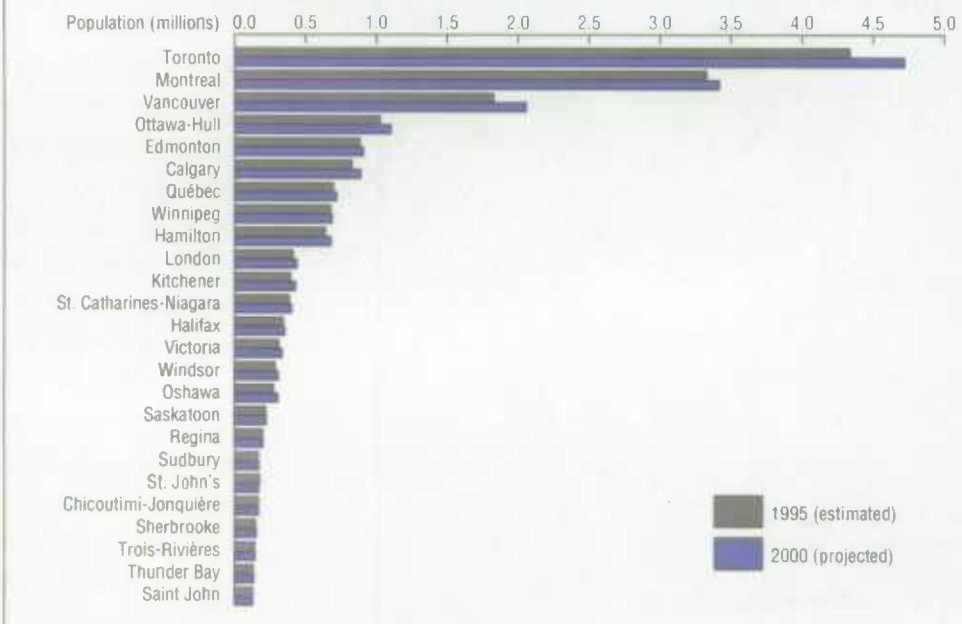
Total population for census metropolitan areas, 1995 and 2000



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPE.

Who Gives to Charity?

by Jeffrey Frank and Stephen Mihorean

Since the early 1990s, demand for social and community services has grown; many factors – such as the aging of the population and changes in the structure of the family – have contributed to increased pressure on the social safety net. At the same time, governments at all levels have cut back spending on many social programs. Charities have traditionally filled the gaps left by government social programs, but many charitable organizations are under financial pressure as well. Government funding has declined while donations by individuals have levelled off. In addition, the number of charities operating in Canada has risen since the 1960s, further increasing competition for donors' generosity. As a result, charities are exploring new ways of soliciting contributions, while lobbying for changes to tax laws that would encourage charitable donations.

Who gives to charity? Previous analyses have illustrated quite clearly that people who contribute to charitable organizations tend to be older and to have higher incomes.[1] After describing general trends, this article demonstrates that there are also some notable regional differences in the amounts given by those who donate to charity, along with a variety of other determining factors, including the presence of children, family type and language. Nevertheless, economic factors, generally thought to drive the amount of charitable giving, explain only a small portion of donors' behaviour. Thus, a variety of "human" factors, not captured in the analysis, are likely the keys to the complex process that results in the different amounts of charitable giving.

Number of registered charities has increased dramatically In less than thirty years, the number of registered charities in Canada has more than tripled. As of December 1995, 74,000 charitable organizations were registered with Revenue Canada, up from about 22,500 in 1967. Religious organizations accounted for the largest proportion of registered charities in 1995 (42%), followed by welfare-related organizations (17%), education-related charities (16%), organizations that provide benefits to the community (15%) and health organizations (6%). The largest proportion of registered charities were located in Ontario (35%), followed by Quebec (19%), British Columbia (13%), Alberta (11%) and Saskatchewan (6%).

Charities rely heavily on governments for funding Of the $86.5 billion in revenue taken in by registered charities in 1993, 57% came from governments, mostly at the provincial level. Receipted donations from individuals accounted for 7.6% of these registered charity revenues, while those from corporations made up only 1%. Other sources of revenue for registered charities include fees, investment income, unreceipted donations, gifts from other charities and other income.

Thus, charities rely heavily on governments for the funding needed to do their work. As governments proceed with their programs of fiscal restraint, contributions made by individuals take on greater importance. In fact, the Canadian Centre for Philanthropy estimates that for every 1% cut in government grants and transfers to charities, a 5.8% increase in individual donations would be needed to keep overall funding constant.[2]

Giving to religious organizations has declined According to Statistics Canada's Survey of Family Expenditures, 71% of households gave an average of $513 to charities in 1992. That year, 61% of households gave an average of $210 to non-religious charities, while 38% gave an average of $628 to religious organizations. A decade earlier the proportion of households giving to religious organizations was

[1] See Daniela Lucaciu, "Charitable Donations," **Canadian Social Trends**, Summer 1992.

[2] David Sharpe, **A Portrait of Canada's Charities**, Canadian Centre for Philanthropy, 1994.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Registered charities defined

For an organization to have charitable status with Revenue Canada, it must be registered. A registered charity must be a nonprofit organization established for the relief of poverty, the advancement of religion, the advancement of education, or other purposes beneficial to the community as a whole in a way which the law regards as charitable. Under federal law, at least 80% of registered charities' expenditures must be devoted to their mandated activities. They may engage in nonpartisan political activities that are consistent with their charitable purpose, provided these activities account for no more than 10% of their overall expenditures.

In 1995, there were 74,000 registered charities in Canada: 91% were charitable organizations, 5% public foundations and 4% private foundations. Charitable organizations generally receive funds for use in their own charitable operations, while public and private foundations generally disburse funds to support the charitable activities of other organizations. Registered charities do not pay taxes and have the right to issue official receipts to individuals and companies that donate money or other gifts. These receipts can then be used by contributors to receive federal charitable donation tax credits.

Federal charitable donation tax credit

The federal charitable donation tax credit is meant to be an incentive for Canadians to give to charity. Up to 20% of a person's net income can be claimed as a deductible donation. Taxpayers receive a tax credit equal to 17% of the first $200[1] donated to charity and 29% on the remaining amount. A charitable donation of $300, for example, would result in a $63 federal tax credit. Charitable contributions can be combined with those of a spouse and accumulated over a maximum period of five years. By combining claims in this way, the amount above $200 earns the higher tax credit.

Furthermore, charitable donations reduce the provincial tax owed. In Quebec, charitable donations can also be claimed on the provincial tax form. Elsewhere, the provincial tax calculation is based on the amount of federal tax payable.

Not everyone, however, takes advantage of these tax breaks. The Canadian Centre for Philanthropy calculates that, in 1993, for every $100 that individuals gave to charities, tax receipts worth $80 were issued and only $43 were claimed by taxpayers. The reasons for this are many: some donors may not understand the purpose of charitable tax receipts, others may lose or overlook their receipts when completing their tax returns, and still others may opt not to claim their donations. As will be shown, economic factors explain only a small part of the size of a donation, suggesting that donors may be driven more by humanitarian concerns than by the promise of a tax break.

[1] This was changed from 17% on the first $250 in 1993.

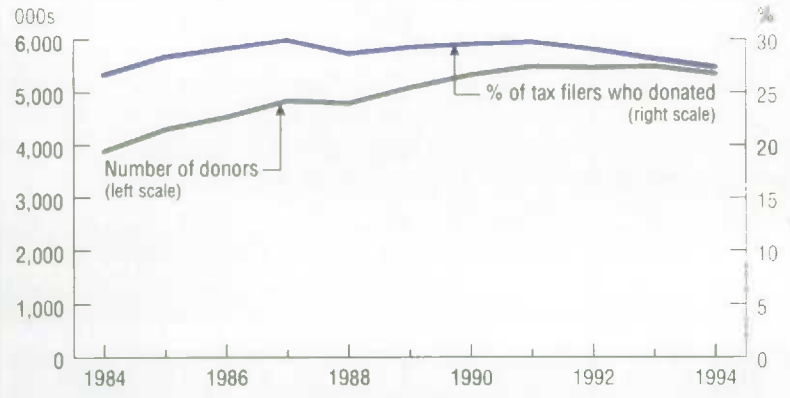
higher (43%), while the proportion giving to other charitable organizations was the same (61%).

The decrease in giving to religious organizations corresponds with a decrease in the proportion of Canadians reporting a religious affiliation on the census. In 1991, 13% of Canadians had no religious affiliation, up from 7% in 1981. It also corresponds to declining attendance at religious services or meetings. According to the General Social Survey, the proportion of people aged 15 and over attending services at least once a month dropped to 33% in 1994 from 43% in 1985.

Number of charitable donors and total amounts donated have levelled off The Small Area and Administrative Data Division of Statistics Canada maintains information provided by Revenue Canada based on personal income tax returns. According to this information, the number of taxfilers who donate to charity has levelled off since 1991. Between 1984 and 1991, the number of donors increased to 5.5 million from 3.9 million. By 1994, the number had dropped to 5.3 million. This drop is more evident when the number of donors is expressed as a percentage of all taxfilers. In 1991, 30% of taxfilers claimed a charitable donation; by 1994 this proportion had declined to 27%.

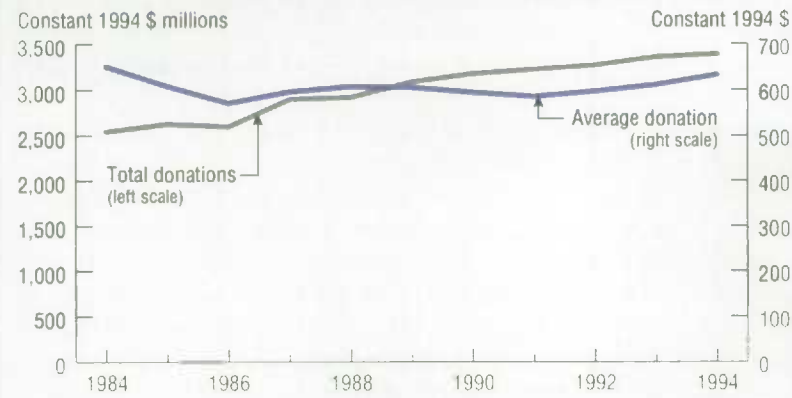
Similarly, the total amount donated by individuals to charitable organizations has also levelled off in recent years. Total donations increased to $3.4 billion in 1994, up 33% from $2.5 billion in 1984 (after taking inflation into account). Over the 1984 to 1994 period, the average charitable donation remained relatively stable, ranging between $573 and $653 (in 1994 dollars); in 1994, the average donation was $634.

Percentage of taxfilers who donate has decreased since 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Little change in average donations by individuals in recent years



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Proportion of donors and amounts donated vary by region The proportion of taxfilers who claimed a charitable donation in 1994 varied by province and territory. This proportion ranged from nearly 32% in Prince Edward Island to less than 16% in the Northwest Territories. The median donation of those who received a charitable tax credit also varied, ranging from $250 in Newfoundland to $100 in Quebec.

Dividing median donation by donors' median income provides a rough indicator of charitable giving. However, this indicator includes only donations claimed on tax forms, and only those people who donated in this way are being considered. Using this measure, donors in Newfoundland were most generous, giving 0.9% of their income to charity. The median donation in Quebec, meanwhile, represented only 0.3% of donors' median income. Charitable donations reported on income tax returns have historically been lower in Quebec than in other parts of Canada. This issue is addressed further in the final part of this article.

Characteristics of donor families help explain how much they give The remainder of this article presents the results of a statistical analysis of several factors affecting the amount that families and non-family persons donate to charity. Only those families and non-family persons that reported making a charitable donation on their income tax returns in 1993 were included. Individual taxfilers

from the same family were grouped together, not only because families function as an economic unit, but because donations can be combined with those of a spouse and claimed on one return.

Previous analyses of individual taxfiler data indicate clearly that it is largely income that makes someone a charitable donor. This finding, however, should be reviewed from two perspectives: how well it explains whether or not someone donates, and how big a factor it is in explaining the amount of the donation. When the entire taxfiling population is examined, income explains most of the difference between donors and non-donors. When one looks at only those who have donated to charity (as this study does), income is still a significant predictor of the amount donated. However, income is not the dominant characteristic explaining the donation amount, as it is with the explanation of who is a donor. Region, the presence of children, family type, age of the oldest taxfiler, and the language used for filing returns also had a statistically significant impact on the amounts given by donating families and non-family persons. Overall, these factors were able to explain 15% of the difference between the donations of particular contributing families and non-family persons and the average amount given by donors.

• ***Age affects charitable donations across the country*** The age of the oldest person in the family was universally related to the amount donated to charity. The age effect was greatest in Ontario where each additional year of age resulted in about $16 in additional donations. For example, a family in Ontario contributed $160 dollars more when the oldest member was aged 60 than when the oldest member was aged 50, all other things being equal. Each additional year of age resulted in an increase in charitable donations of nearly $15 in the Atlantic provinces, $13 in Quebec, $10 in British Columbia and $10 in the Prairie provinces.

• ***Income most important in the Atlantic provinces and in Quebec*** Not surprisingly, income also had a statistically significant impact on the amount donated to charity in each region of the country. In Ontario, the Prairie provinces and British Columbia, every additional $1,000 of income resulted

Proportion of individuals who donate, size of donations and incomes of donors in 1994 vary by area CST

	Donors	Median donation/ median income	Median donation of donors	Median income of donors
Province/territory	%	%	$	$
Newfoundland	22.6	0.9	250	27,100
Prince Edward Island	31.7	0.8	220	26,900
Nova Scotia	27.0	0.6	190	31,400
New Brunswick	25.6	0.7	220	30,200
Quebec	25.1	0.3	100	33,000
Ontario	29.5	0.5	170	36,100
Manitoba	31.0	0.6	170	30,400
Saskatchewan	29.8	0.8	220	29,300
Alberta	27.8	0.5	160	34,700
British Columbia	24.8	0.5	160	35,200
Yukon Territory	19.3	0.3	130	44,100
Northwest Territories	15.7	0.3	170	56,600
Census metropolitan area				
St. John's	22.8	0.6	210	33,200
Halifax	30.9	0.4	150	35,700
Saint John	29.3	0.6	190	34,200
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	24.0	0.3	100	34,800
Montréal	25.3	0.3	100	35,000
Québec	31.5	0.2	70	34,900
Sherbrooke	25.9	0.5	140	31,200
Ottawa-Hull (Que.)	28.2	0.2	60	38,000
Trois-Rivières	21.9	0.4	120	33,800
Hamilton	31.7	0.5	190	37,100
Kitchener	32.3	0.6	190	34,000
London	32.4	0.5	180	35,900
Oshawa	31.6	0.3	140	41,900
Ottawa-Hull (Ont.)	35.1	0.3	140	42,200
St. Catharines-Niagara	31.4	0.6	190	34,100
Sudbury	28.3	0.3	130	39,400
Toronto	27.3	0.4	160	37,400
Thunder Bay	30.1	0.4	140	35,500
Windsor	33.0	0.5	200	39,400
Winnipeg	32.8	0.5	150	32,200
Regina	32.9	0.5	170	34,400
Saskatoon	29.7	0.6	200	33,100
Calgary	29.8	0.4	140	37,900
Edmonton	28.7	0.4	140	35,500
Vancouver	25.7	0.4	160	36,100
Victoria	30.5	0.5	160	35,400

Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

in, on average, between $9 and $14 in additional contributions to charity. The effect of income was even greater in the Atlantic provinces and in Quebec where an increase of $1,000 of income resulted in about a $20 increase in donations.

• ***Presence of children resulted in lower charitable donations*** In Quebec, families without children and non-family persons had charitable donations that were $322 higher, on average, than those of families with children. In Ontario, non-family persons and families without children contributed $158 more than did families with children and in Atlantic Canada the difference was $240 more. In other parts of the country, the impact of the presence of children was less noticeable.

• ***Family composition important in some areas but pattern varies*** The impact of family composition on how much donors gave to charity was found to vary in different regions. For example, in Atlantic Canada, a lone-parent family (when all else was equal) gave $500 more than average, while husband-wife families with two filing spouses gave $218 more than average. The pattern was reversed in the Prairies, where husband-wife families with two filing spouses resulted in $517 in additional contributions, compared with $337 above the average for lone-parent families. There were also regional variations in the amounts associated with the same family type. For example, being a husband-wife family with one filing spouse meant giving $306 more than average in Atlantic Canada and $519 more in the

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CST

A model of charitable donations made by families and non-family persons in Canada

A statistical technique known as multiple linear regression was used to try to explain why some families and non-family persons give more than the average donation and why others give less. Several independent variables were combined to try to account for changes in a dependent variable, in this case, the amount donated to charity. The independent variables are those factors that contribute to variation in the dependent variable. Independent variables included in this study were income, the presence of children, family type, age of the oldest taxfiler and the language used for filing returns.

Only those families and non-family persons that donated money to charity and claimed their donation on their tax return were included in the analysis. Family donation is the sum of all charitable donations made by each family member or the donations of a non-family person. Total family income is the sum of the total incomes of each family member or the individual income of non-family persons.

The following table shows the average effect of particular variables on family donation, when all other variables in the analysis are held constant. Only those results which were statistically significant are presented.

Effect of certain variables on family donations

Characteristics of families and non-family persons	Atlantic	Quebec	Ontario	Prairies	British Columbia
			$		
Increase per thousand dollars of total family income	19.35	21.80	14.26	9.06	10.08
Increase per year of age of oldest family member	14.84	12.81	15.77	9.66	9.83
Increase when no children present compared with families with children	239.74	321.68	157.87	22.38	1.09
Increase (or decrease) compared with average family donations:					
Husband/wife families with two filing spouses	218.45	-112.57	–	517.65	–
Husband/wife families with one filing spouse	306.14	-135.77	–	519.49	–
Common-law family	–	–	–	–	–
Lone-parent family	499.99	–	–	336.51	–
Non-family person	381.71	–	–	426.69	–
English language	209.56	395.50	241.25	–	–

Results presented here are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, 1993 T1 Family File, based on tax returns filed in the spring of 1994.

Influences on donating complex The variables available from tax forms do not capture the full complexity of factors affecting the decision to make a charitable donation or the amount of that donation. For example, varying exposure to requests for donations, family traditions, life experiences, and innumerable social and psychological factors can affect the decision to make a contribution. In this sense, this research is preliminary in that only variables found on the tax form were available for this analysis and there is no accounting of the "human" factors involved.

Even so, further work could be done using taxfiler information from Statistics Canada's Small Area and Administrative Data Division. Differences between families that donate and those that do not could be examined using a similar method to the one used in this study. The effect of the interaction between different variables on donations should also be analyzed. For example, the effect of having children changes from one region to another, indicating an interaction between region and the presence of children. In addition, families' donating behaviour over time could be tracked using taxfiler information from the Small Area and Administrative Data Division's Longitudinal Administrative Database.

Prairies. In Quebec, this type of married-couple family was associated with contributions that were $136 less than average.

• ***Tax returns filed in English tend to report higher charitable donations*** Language appears to be related to the amount donated to charity. Its effect is most noticeable in Quebec, where returns filed in English reported nearly $400 more than average in charitable donations. This language effect was also statistically significant in Ontario ($241) and in the Atlantic provinces ($210).

It is possible that the marketing activities of charitable organizations may not be adequately adapted to the linguistic and cultural characteristics of a Francophone audience. Certainly, the amount given to charity is related to the number of times that one is asked to give, and to the effectiveness of those requests. Quebec has a small share of registered charities relative to its population. Most charities in Canada operate out of predominantly English-speaking parts of the country. In addition, many charities are headquartered outside of Canada and operate mainly, or only, in English. This may explain at least some of the language effect uncovered in this analysis.

The lower amounts donated by Francophones may, paradoxically, be associated with the traditionally strong role of the Catholic Church in charitable activities, particularly in Quebec. Most Francophones identified themselves as Catholics (94% on the 1991 Census). However, church attendance has declined, according to the General Social Survey. By 1994, only one-third of all Catholics in Quebec attended church at least once a month, compared with one-half of Catholics in the rest of Canada. This would, therefore, limit the Church's access to a large proportion of its potential contributors.

Jeffrey Frank was an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends** and is now with Education, Culture and Travel Division, Statistics Canada. **Stephen Mihorean** is a research analyst with the Small Area and Administrative Data Division, Statistics Canada.

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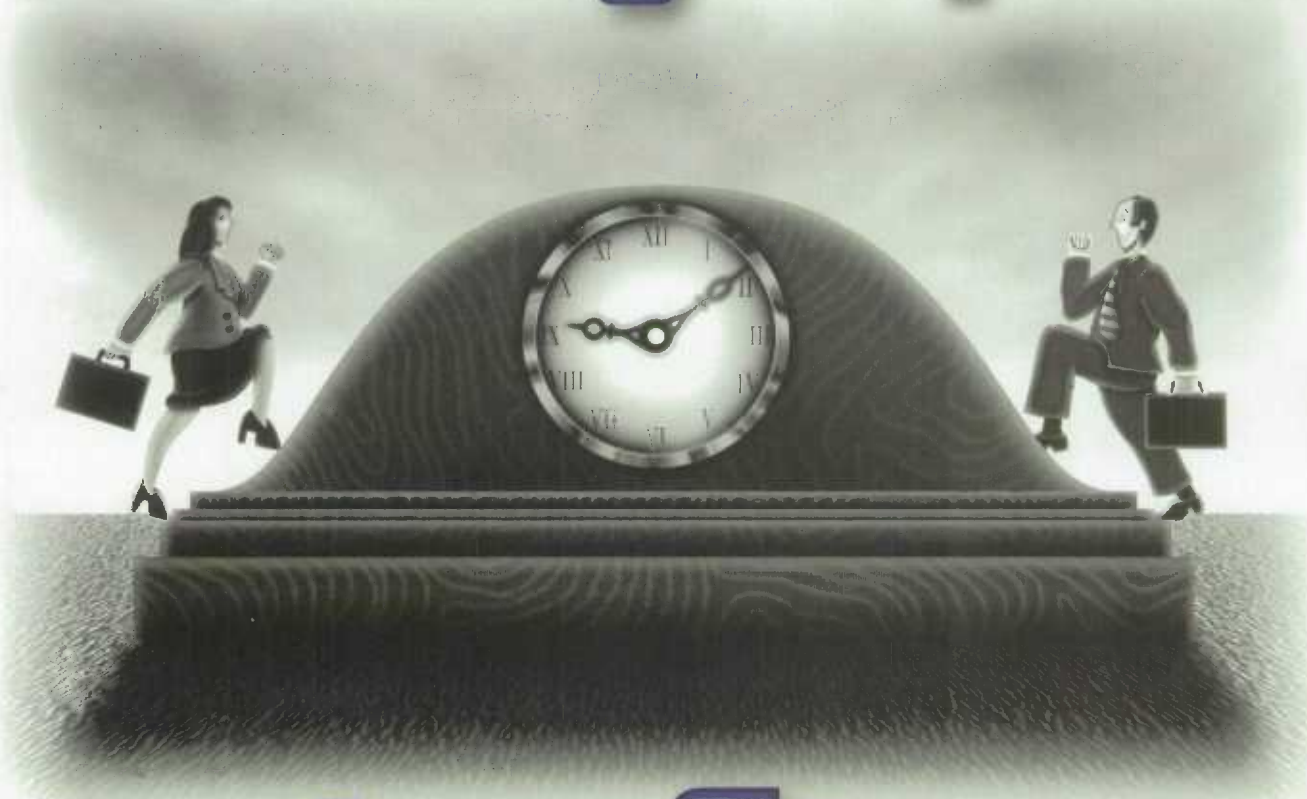
Working Arrangements and Time Stress



by Janet E. Fast and Judith A. Frederick

Meeting the competing demands of paid work and family roles is a challenge for an increasing number of Canadians. In recent decades, women's labour force activity has increased markedly while men have become somewhat more involved in family and domestic roles. As a result, many people experience conflicts between job and family responsibilities, mostly due to lack of time or energy (or both) to successfully meet all demands. Studies have shown that this work-family conflict can lead to increased stress, poorer health, lost income and missed job advancement opportunities for employees; for employers, it can result in greater absenteeism, higher work-force turnover and lower productivity.

When asked how their workplaces could be made more "family friendly," many Canadians have suggested that they would benefit from working arrangements that allow greater flexibility in the scheduling of hours and the location of the workplace.[1] Specific working arrangements that were mentioned include flexible work schedules, compressed work weeks, part-time work, work-at-home arrangements and job sharing. But do employees' "family-friendly" work arrangements actually help them to balance their paid work and family demands? The 1992 General Social Survey (GSS) provides a first glimpse of the way working arrangements might be related to at least one outcome of work-family conflict – perceived time stress.

Prevalence of various working arrangements differs Three characteristics of working arrangements appear to affect workers' ability to balance work and personal demands and so affect their level of perceived time stress. They are the number of hours worked, the time when hours are worked and the place where hours are worked.[2] Respondents were asked if their working arrangements included any flexibility or departure from the norm – 40 hours per week spread over five weekdays at the employer's place of business. Seven alternate work arrangements were identified: self-employment, part-time employment (less than 30 hours per week), shift work (other than a regular daytime shift), flextime (employees choose when they begin and end their work day), flexplace (employees work some of their regular paid work hours at home), compressed work week (employees work extended hours each day in order to work fewer days per week) and on-call work (employees are obliged to work when specifically requested – nurses, teachers, workers in commodity sales).

Some of these work arrangements are more common than others. Only 9% of respondents worked compressed weeks,

[1] J.L. MacBride-King, **Work and family: Employment challenge of the '90s**, Ottawa: The Conference Board of Canada, November 1990; Ontario Women's Directorate & Camco Inc., **Work and family: Flexible working arrangements**, Toronto, October 1991.

[2] Berna J. Skrypnek and Janet E. Fast, "Work and family policy in Canada: Family needs, collective solutions," **Journal of Family Issues**, vol. 17, no. 6, Fall 1996.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

General Social Survey

The General Social Survey (GSS), conducted annually since 1985, gathers data on social trends and policy issues of current or emerging interest.[1] It covers all persons aged 15 and over residing in Canada, excluding residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories and full-time residents of institutions. Each cycle of the GSS covers one of five subject areas – health and social support, time use, personal risk, education and work, and family – each of which is repeated every fifth cycle. This study uses data from the second GSS on time use (Cycle 9). Over 9,800 respondents were interviewed between January and December in 1992. The sample used in this study consists of 5,060 respondents aged 15 and over, whose main activity in the twelve months preceding the survey was working at a job or business.

Measuring perceived time stress Respondents to the 1992 GSS were asked a set of ten questions intended to measure their perceptions of time stress. The number of positive responses to these questions represents an overall measure of time stress, with scores ranging from zero (no positive responses) to ten (positive responses to all of the questions). Scores of seven or higher are considered to indicate "high" perceived time stress.

- ❑ **1.** Do you plan to slow down in the coming year?
- ❑ **2.** Do you consider yourself a workaholic?
- ❑ **3.** When you need more time, do you tend to cut back on your sleep?
- ❑ **4.** At the end of the day, do you often feel that you have not accomplished what you had set out to do?
- ❑ **5.** Do you worry that you don't spend enough time with your family or friends?
- ❑ **6.** Do you feel that you're constantly under stress to accomplish more than you can handle?
- ❑ **7.** Do you feel trapped in a daily routine?
- ❑ **8.** Do you feel that you just don't have time for fun any more?
- ❑ **9.** Do you often feel under stress when you don't have enough time?
- ❑ **10.** Would you like to spend more time alone?

[1] Starting in 1998, with the third survey on time use, the GSS will be conducted every two years rather than every year.

while 36% had a flextime arrangement. Also, many respondents had multiple alternate work arrangements. For example, among part-time workers, 25% were self-employed, 46% had flextime arrangements and 33% did on-call work. Similarly, of those who were self-employed, 76% also worked flextime and 60% had flexplace arrangements. In addition, 41% of those with flextime also worked some regular hours at home and 42% of on-call employees worked flextime.

The prevalence of alternate working arrangements differs for men and women. Men were more likely than women to be self-employed (21% versus 14%, respectively), to have flextime (40% and 30%) and to work on call (25% and 19%). There were also some variations in the prevalence of work arrangements depending on the presence of children, especially for women. Women with children were more likely than women without children to work part time (32% versus 23%, respectively), to be self-employed (17% versus 12%), to have flextime (26% versus 18%) and to have flexplace working arrangements (27% versus 16%). Parents were somewhat less likely to work shifts than other men and women.

Parents more time stressed than workers without children Family responsibilities appear to be closely related to time stress. Parents with children under age 19 living at home were more likely to report high levels of time stress than those without dependent children, though the difference was much greater for women than for men. In 1992, 27% of mothers and 18% of fathers reported high time stress, compared with only 17% of childless women and 13% of childless men. The higher rate for women may reflect the fact that although the labour force activity of men and women is increasingly similar, women still retain primary responsibility for family care and domestic work.[3] Interestingly, the age of the youngest child had no significant effect on the level of perceived time stress reported by employed parents.

Some common working arrangements did not affect perceived time stress If some workers are adopting alternate work arrangements in an attempt to find more time for themselves or their families, then some work schemes are not meeting their expectations. Three of the seven alternate work arrangements identified – self-employment, flexplace and shift work – were not related to workers' time stress. In fact, similar proportions of men and women reported high levels of time stress, whether or not they had one of those arrangements. This was true even when the effect of other factors (such as occupation and children) were taken into account. Some working arrangements, however, did seem to be related to levels of perceived time stress.

For many, part-time work reduces time stress About 19% of full-time workers were highly time stressed, compared with just 11% of part-time workers. This held true for both men and women; in fact, women working full time were twice as likely as those working part time (24% versus 12%) to report high levels of perceived time stress. Meanwhile, high time stress was almost three times more common among men working full time (16%) as among those working part time (6%).

For many women, working part time presents a strategy for balancing employment and family demands. According to the Labour Force Survey, many women who choose to work shorter hours do so for family-related reasons.[4] General Social Survey data suggest that working part time is a fairly successful strategy for alleviating time stress. However, part-time workers have made some economic concessions that their counterparts in full-time jobs have not. Part-time work is often marginalized, low-wage work lacking benefits such as extended medical, dental and pension plans; for example, only 27% of part-time workers have employer-sponsored pension plans, compared with 54% of full-time workers. Since the personal incomes of part-time workers are lower than those of full-time workers, families with at least

Percentage of employees with alternate working arrangements

		Men			Women		
	All employees	All men	With children	Without children	All women	With children	Without children
Working arrangement				%			
Part-time	12	5	2	7	22	26	18
Self-employed	18	21	20	22	14	17	12
Flextime	36	40	40	40	30	32	29
Flexplace	22	23	24	21	21	27	16
Compressed work week	9	9	9	9	9	8	10
On-call work	22	25	26	23	19	20	19
Shift work	23	25	22	26	21	19	23

Percentages do not total to 100 as some respondents' work arrangements included more than one category.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

one part-time earner tend to have lower household incomes than those in which both partners work full time. Furthermore, personal self-esteem, independence and decision-making power within the family are often related to the individual's ability to contribute to the family's income.

It is widely believed that it is more acceptable for women to cut back on their paid work hours to meet family obligations and that it is more acceptable for men to accommodate their family life to the demands of their jobs. The reason for this "division of responsibilities" is partly financial: men's contribution to the family income is greater, on average, than women's (56% versus 31% in 1994). Men and women need equal freedom to choose the combination of work and family involvement that best suits them. The evidence presented here suggests that part-time work may help both men and women deal effectively with time stress. However, men are much less likely than women to adopt this strategy.

Women with flextime less time stressed... In 1992, almost one-third (30%) of employed women had a flexible work schedule, and they were less likely to be highly time stressed than women without flextime (18% versus 23%, respectively). Although an even larger proportion of men (40%) had flexible work schedules, flextime did not reduce their perceived time stress (15%).

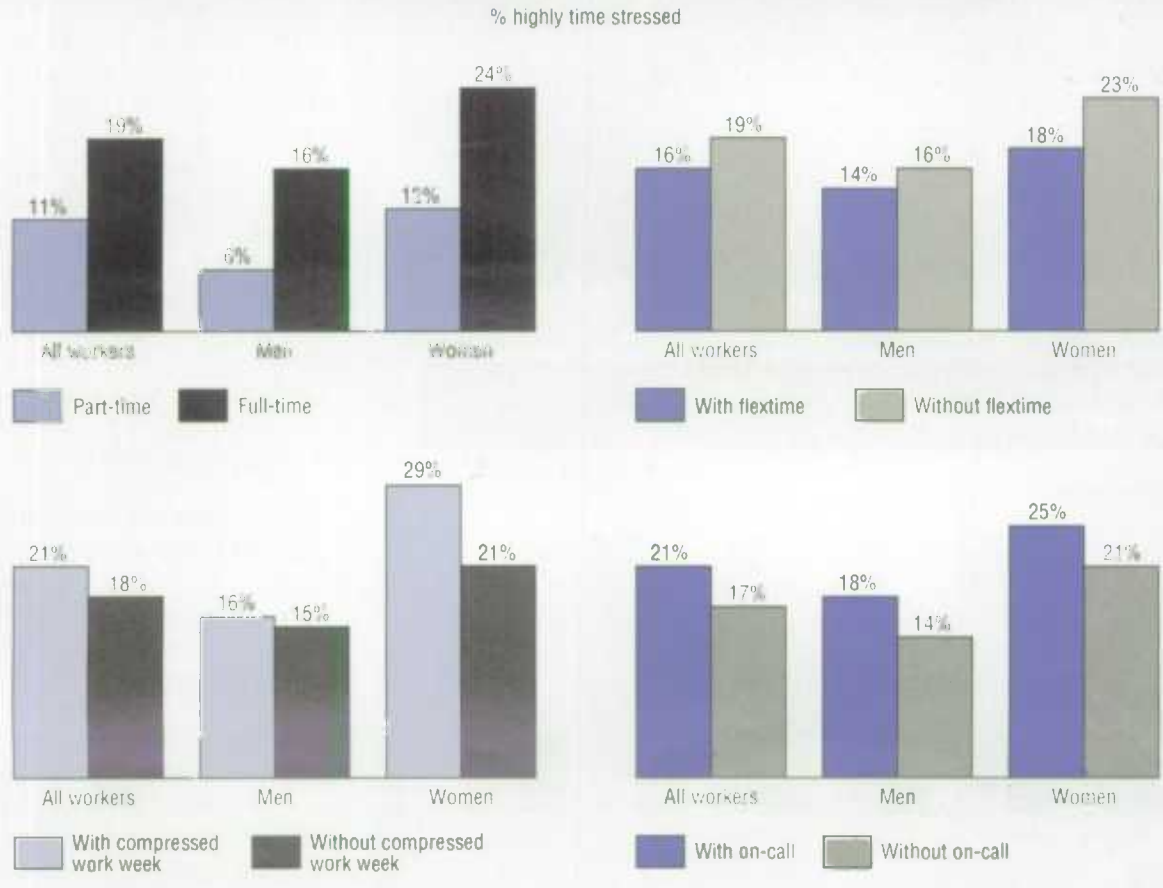
Flexibility in the workplace, especially flexibility with respect to starting and finishing times, is believed to be important for workers trying to manage work and family responsibilities.[5] Indeed, a somewhat larger proportion of women with children than those without were working flextime (32% versus 29%, respectively). Such an arrangement may provide an opportunity for parents to share the twice daily peak demand periods of getting children off to school in the morning, and picking them up and preparing supper in the evening. And, in fact, flextime does appear to be an effective stress reliever, at least for women.

[3] For more information, see J.A. Frederick, **As time goes by...Time use of Canadians**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-544-XPE.

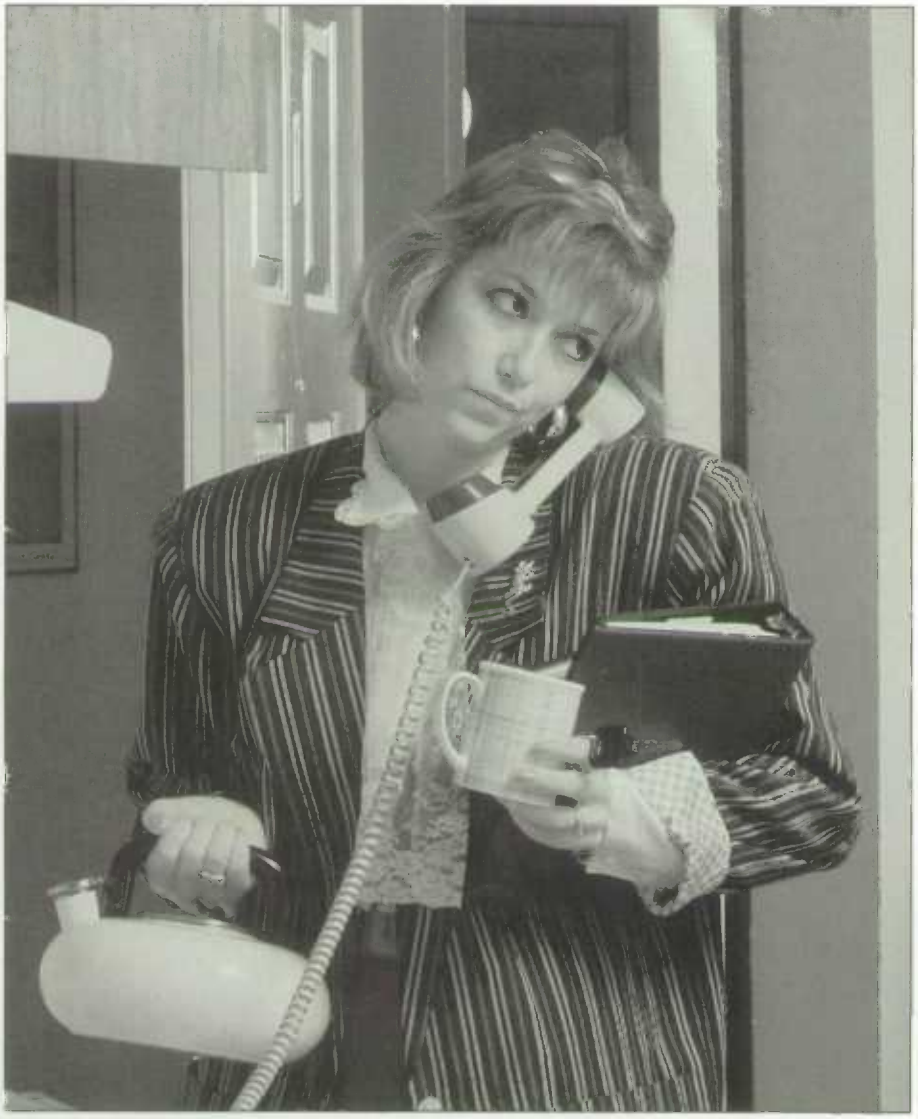
[4] See Ron Logan, "Voluntary part-time workers," **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Autumn 1994, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

[5] Women's Policy Office, "Women and men in the workplace: A discussion of workplace supports for workers with family responsibilities," 1993 Paper presented at the 12th Annual Conference of Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women.

Workers with compressed work week and with on-call work are most likely to be time stressed CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.



Yet proportionally fewer women than men have this arrangement. This raises the question of whether access to flextime and other "family-friendly" work arrangements is related to more specific characteristics of employment, such as occupation and full- or part-time work status.

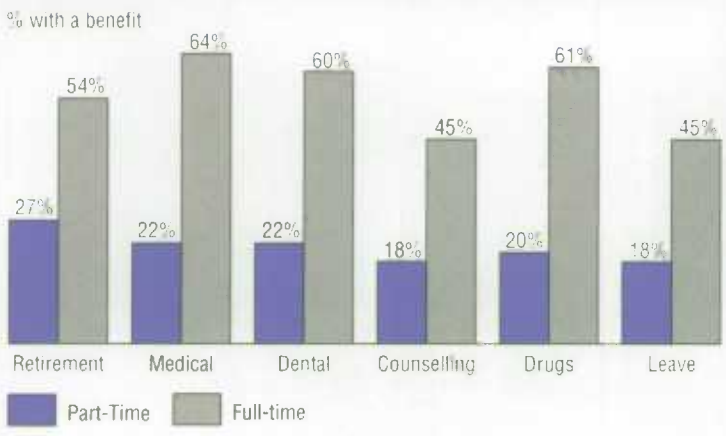
...while those with compressed work weeks more time stressed Even though compressed work weeks have been promoted as a "family-friendly" working arrangement, women using this arrangement are more likely to experience a high level of time stress than women without this work arrangement. Women working extended daily hours in exchange for fewer work days (29%) were more likely to be highly time stressed than women who did not work extended hours (21%). In contrast, compressed work weeks did not influence the proportion of men who reported being highly time stressed; in fact, the stress levels were consistent with most of the other alternate work arrangements.

Many household tasks, such as meal preparation and child care, cannot easily be delayed or re-scheduled. Considering the greater responsibility women have assumed for meeting family demands, a longer day on the job probably makes dealing with peak stress times – morning and after work – even more stressful. There may also be pressure on women to accomplish more at home on their "day off," since many household tasks are continuous and repetitive, making it difficult to say that the work is finished. Perhaps that is why so few women (9%) use this working arrangement.

On-call work associated with higher perceived time stress for men On-call work is not a work arrangement that has been touted as "family friendly," but it appears to be a common experience among Canadian workers. In 1992, 25% of men and 19% of women respondents did some on-call work. Men with on-call jobs were more highly time stressed than those without (18% versus 14%), while differences for women were not statistically significant.

It should not be surprising to find that on-call workers report such high levels of time stress. Not only is on-call work especially incompatible with caring for

Part-time workers are less likely to receive employment benefits



Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

children (whose needs may be difficult to cover at short notice), but it probably interferes with personal time and family plans more often than other work arrangements.

Not an issue for workers alone This study has focused on the relationship between people's working arrangements and their levels of perceived time stress. For ease of discussion, this article has reported only the results of direct comparisons between workers who did, and those who did not, use alternative work arrangements. However, these findings are supported even when the effects of other factors are controlled for. For example, employees with flextime arrangements reported considerably less time stress than people who did not work flextime, even if they were very similar in terms of other characteristics. The analysis controlled for factors such as presence of children, occupation, industry of employment, and additional alternate work arrangements they might have had (for example, working part time as well as flextime).

Working arrangements have implications for employers as well as employees. Employers may face higher recruitment and training costs and increased payroll taxes if more employees opt for part-time work. Similarly, they may have to spend more on computer and communications equipment for employees who adopt a flexplace working arrangement. On the other hand, part-time workers may receive fewer benefits, thus lowering employers' costs, while more telecommuting may also reduce the need for costly office space. Similarly, enabling employees to better balance their paid work and family demands may reduce employer costs by reducing absenteeism and workforce turnover. Clearly, costs and benefits for both employers and employees must be considered when making any decisions about workplace policies that relate to working arrangements.

Dr. Janet E. Fast is an associate professor with the Department of Human Ecology, University of Alberta. **Judith A. Frederick** is a senior analyst with the General Social Survey, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

National Child Care Survey

The National Child Care Survey (NCCS) was conducted by Statistics Canada in partnership with the National Daycare Research Network in September and October 1988. A supplement to the monthly Labour Force Survey, it covered households with a child or children under the age of 13. The information gathered addressed most aspects of child care arrangements made by the parent with primary responsibility for arranging child care, 94% of whom were women.

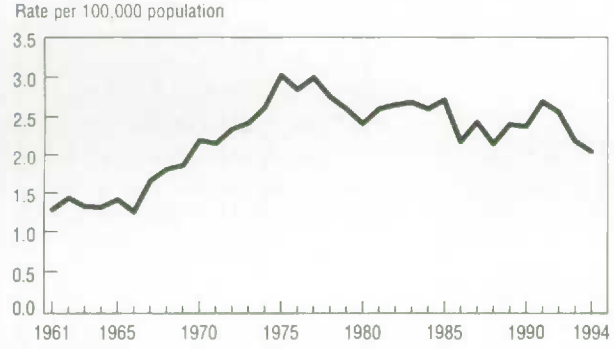
The NCCS offers a valuable insight into the working arrangements that employed parents would *prefer* to have, as opposed to the ones they *actually* have. As such, these findings complement the issues raised in this article. Only one-third (34%) of employed parents with primary responsibility for child care wanted to work full time; the majority (53%) would have preferred to work part time, while 13% wished they did not have to work at all. Perhaps because neither of these options was feasible (73% of parents worked full time), a large minority of parents (39%) wanted to change their work schedules. When asked to select only one child-related benefit their employers could provide that would best support them as parents, nearly one-quarter of working parents (23%) identified child care facilities in the workplace and another one-fifth (19%) cited flexible work hours.

The NCCS also found that parents' employment characteristics were related to their access to family-supportive workplace benefits and arrangements. Parents in skilled occupations (professionals, semi-professionals and technicians) had greatest access to part-time work and job-sharing, while flexible work schedules and paid family responsibility leave were most often available to senior and middle managers. Part-time workers had more access to flexible hours but less to paid leave, suggesting that these parents may be trading paid benefits (such as family leave, or employer-sponsored "top-up" of Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits) for the opportunity to work fewer or more flexible hours.

A series of analytical reports based on the NCCS data is available from Statistics Canada. Data in this Backgrounder were drawn from **Workplace Benefits and Flexibility: A Perspective on Parents' Experiences**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-530-XPE. This report focuses on parents' knowledge and opinions of workplace arrangements that would help them harmonize work and family life.

EXCERPTS FROM A HANDBOOK O

Homicide rate, Canada, 1961-1994

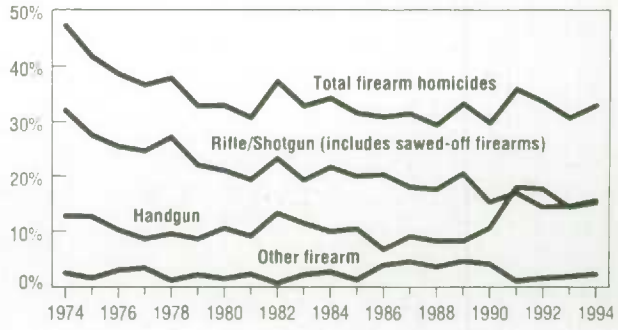


Source: Homicide Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Homicide in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 11.

- In 1976, capital punishment was abolished and replaced with a mandatory life sentence for all those offences for which death sentences existed. The amendment also reclassified murder, from capital and non-capital murder to first and second degree murder.
- Since 1961 there have been two distinct trends. Between 1961 and 1975, the homicide rate increased steadily from 1.3 per 100,000 population to a peak of 3.0, an increase of 131%. From 1975 to 1994, despite yearly fluctuations, the homicide rate has gradually declined from 3.0 per 100,000 to 2.0, a decrease of 33%.

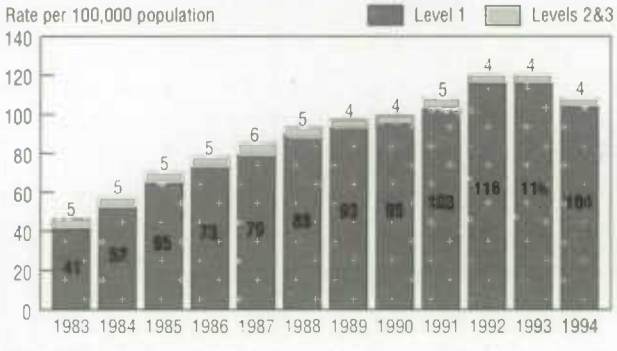
- In 1978, gun control legislation came into effect in Canada. The legislation included the imposition of stricter controls on the issuance of registration certificates which are necessary to acquire restricted weapons such as handguns, the creation of new types of firearm prohibition orders, the creation of new criminal offences in relation to firearm use, and the provision for more severe penalties for the criminal use of firearms.
- While the use of rifles/shotguns in homicides has steadily declined since 1974, they have historically accounted for the majority of firearm homicides. However, in 1991 and 1992, the number of handgun homicides exceeded the number of rifle/shotgun homicides.

Firearm homicides as a proportion of all homicides by type of firearm, Canada, 1974-1994



Source: Homicide Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Homicide in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 11.

Sexual assault incidents, Canada, 1983[1]-1994

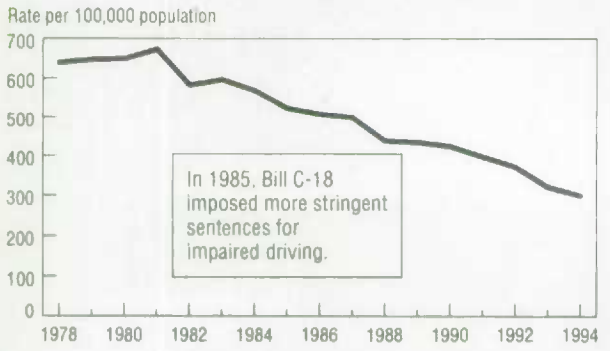


[1] In 1983, Bill C-127 redefined the sexual assault sections of the criminal code and created three levels of sexual assault.
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Canadian Crime Statistics, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 12.

- In 1983, Bill C-127 redefined the sexual assault sections of the Criminal Code, establishing three levels of sexual assault: level 1 (minor sexual assault); level 2 (incidents involving a weapon or resulting in bodily harm); and level 3 (aggravated sexual assault).
- In 1994, police recorded 31,690 incidents of sexual assault which accounted for 10% of all violent incidents that year. There were 108 incidents of sexual assault reported per 100,000 population in 1994. While the average annual increase in the rate between 1983 and 1994 was 10%, the rate between 1993 and 1994 decreased by 10%.

CRIME AND JUSTICE IN CANADA

Rate of persons charged with impaired driving, Canada, 1978-1994



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Impaired Driving in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 14.

- In 1985, Bill C-18 imposed more stringent sentences for drinking and driving. Despite the severity of penalties, impaired driving offences are highly sensitive to changes in police enforcement practices.
- 1994 marked the eleventh consecutive annual decrease in the rate of persons charged with impaired driving. Between 1978 and 1993, the average annual decrease in the rate of persons charged with impaired driving was 4%.

- The *Young Offenders Act* (YOA) came into effect in 1984, replacing the *Juvenile Delinquents Act*. At this time, 12 became the minimum age requirement for criminal responsibility under the YOA. However, it was not until 1985 that the maximum age of 17 (up to the 18th birthday) was established in all provinces and territories.
- The rate of youths charged with violent crimes in 1994 decreased by less than 1% below the previous year, marking the first year since 1986 where the rate showed no increase. Between 1986 and 1994, there has been an average annual increase of 11% in the rate of youth charged in violent incidents.
- The rate of youths charged in property crimes in 1994 decreased 9% below the previous year, marking the third consecutive annual decline. Between 1986 and 1994, there has been an average annual decrease of 2% in the rate of youth charged in property crimes.

Rate of youths charged[1] by type of crime, Canada, 1986-1994

[1] Rates based on youth population 12 to 17 years of age.
[2] Violent crime includes homicide, attempted murder, physical and sexual assaults, other assaults, robberies and abduction.
[3] Property crime includes breaking and entering, theft of motor vehicles, theft over $1,000, theft $1,000 and under, possession of stolen goods, and fraud.
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Canadian Crime Statistics, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 12.

These charts and highlights were selected from **A Graphical Overview of Crime and the Administration of Justice in Canada**, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85F0018XPE. It is also available in electronic format (Statistics Canada Product no. 85F0018XDE). To order, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.*

This 215-page reference tool contains more than 80 graphs and charts illustrating current and historical data from a number of Statistics Canada surveys. They include: crime, police administration, adult and youth court activity, the correctional population, costs of the criminal justice system, international victimization, violence against women, as well as Canadians' experiences with crime and their perceptions and fears of crime. Each graphic is accompanied by a short explanatory text.

This report is ideal for lectures and overheads, and as a teaching aid for secondary and post-secondary social studies, law, criminology and sociology classes.

Language & Culture of the Métis People

by Josée Normand

The 1982 Constitution recognizes three Aboriginal peoples in Canada – the Indian, the Inuit and the Métis. While general knowledge of North American Indians and Inuit has grown in recent years, the non-Aboriginal public knows comparatively little about the Métis. Perhaps this is because defining the Métis people can be difficult. In previous centuries, the term "Métis" was commonly used to describe people of mixed Indian and French or Indian and British ancestry; for some Métis people, however, it has a more specific historical and geographical meaning. Considering themselves neither Indian nor White, the Métis' dual heritage is evident in their present-day lifestyle, including language, dress, music, dance and spirituality. This article draws on Statistics Canada's 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey to provide a brief linguistic portrait of the Métis and outline their participation in traditional Aboriginal activities.

Métis presence strongest in the Prairies In 1991, over 135,000 Canadians – more than one in five Aboriginal people – identified themselves as Métis, as measured by the Aboriginal Peoples Survey. In common with the other Aboriginal peoples, they are a very young population: well over one-third (38%) of the Métis people were under the age of 15 in 1991, compared with only 21% of the general Canadian population.

Many historians consider the Métis to be linked to the Red River Métis of Manitoba. Indeed, most Métis consider the Prairies their historic homeland and their ties to the West are very strong. In 1991, almost three-quarters of self-identified Métis lived in the Prairie provinces – 29% in Alberta, 25% in Manitoba and 20% in Saskatchewan. Outside the Prairies, the Métis people were most numerous in Ontario (9%).

The Métis are the most heavily urbanized of the Aboriginal peoples. In 1991, about 65% of the self-identified Métis population lived in urban areas, compared with 48% of North American Indians.[1] Many lived in large urban centres; in fact, more than one in five Métis lived in either the Winnipeg (15,000) or Edmonton (13,500) census metropolitan areas (CMAs). Many Métis were also residents of Saskatoon (5,500), Calgary (4,300) and Regina (3,700).

In 1991, only 1% of self-identified Métis lived on lands designated for Aboriginal peoples, compared with 36% of North American Indians. The Métis people tend to live in urban areas more so than other Aboriginal peoples mainly because they have no legally recognized land base. Land is being allocated in some provinces, however, and land claims negotiations are underway in the Northwest Territories. For example, eight Métis settlements in Alberta and several parcels of land in Saskatchewan have been designated as Métis land, while Ontario has allocated reserve land and recognized, as Registered Indians, some members of the Métis population of Rainy River.[2]

English and French the mother tongue of many Métis For many Métis, the language of their community is English or French, an inheritance from their European ancestors. Not only did all Métis aged 15 and over speak at least one official language in 1991, both English and French were spoken by 14%, a rate much higher than that reported by North American Indians (6%). The ability to speak both official languages was much more common among older Métis: those aged 65 and over were almost three times more likely to speak both official languages than those aged 15 to 24.

Given their European heritage, perhaps it is not surprising that only 18% of Métis aged 15 and over, compared with 39% of North American Indians, could converse in an Aboriginal language. Most spoke either Cree (70%) or

Métis and North American Indian populations, by size of area of residence, 1991 CST

	Métis		North American Indian	
	000s	%	000s	%
Canada	135	100	461	100
On-reserve	2	1	166	36
Urban	88	65	219	48
Rural	45	34	76	16

Source: Statistics Canada. **A Profile of the Métis**, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

The Aboriginal Peoples Survey

The 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) was developed in consultation with Aboriginal organizations and federal, provincial, territorial and municipal government departments. It collected detailed information about people who identified themselves as North American Indian, Métis or Inuit, and/or were Registered Indians according to the *Indian Act of Canada*. The sample for the APS was chosen using the 1991 Census of Population question on ethnic origin. Individuals who reported on the census questionnaire that they had Aboriginal ancestry, and/or were registered according to the *Indian Act*, were contacted; however, only those individuals who *self-identified* with an Aboriginal group were interviewed for the survey. In other words, while the census measured everyone's ethnic background, the APS measured only those individuals who explicitly described themselves as belonging to an Aboriginal group. Although there is much debate about the definition of the Métis people, and the APS was criticized in some quarters, it still offers a valuable source of information, illuminating the distinct character of the Métis people.

• For more information, see the "User's Guide to 1991 Aboriginal Data," or contact the Aboriginal Data Unit of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 7th Floor Jean Talon Building, Ottawa K1A 0T6.

[1] For the sake of brevity, this article does not compare the Métis with the Inuit, who account for only 6% of the total Aboriginal population.

[2] Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, **Sharing the Harvest: The Road to Self-Reliance**. Ottawa, 1993.

Ojibwa (16%). However, about 6% spoke Michif, an exclusively oral *lingua franca* developed by the Métis from many languages – among them Chippewa, English, Gaelic and Assiniboine – but dominated by French and Cree.[3]

The fact that young Métis adults were least likely to speak an Aboriginal language in 1991 – 8% of 15- to 24-year-olds, compared with 54% of seniors – suggests that these languages are being passed to fewer Métis with each successive generation. In fact, 6% of Métis aged 15 and over could no longer converse in an Aboriginal language they had once spoken. The most common reasons reported for this loss were lack of contact with others who spoke the same language (46% of former speakers) and simply forgetting it (31%). However, about 9% of former speakers cited the fact that they had been forbidden to use their language.[4]

The urban Métis population, particularly in CMAs, was somewhat less likely to speak an Aboriginal language – 12% of those aged 15 and over, compared with 29% of Métis living in rural areas in 1991. It seems probable that a rural area better preserves the close community contact necessary to maintain verbal fluency in an endangered language. This suggestion is supported by data showing that 20% of urban and 17% of rural Métis understood an Aboriginal language, even though they did not speak it.

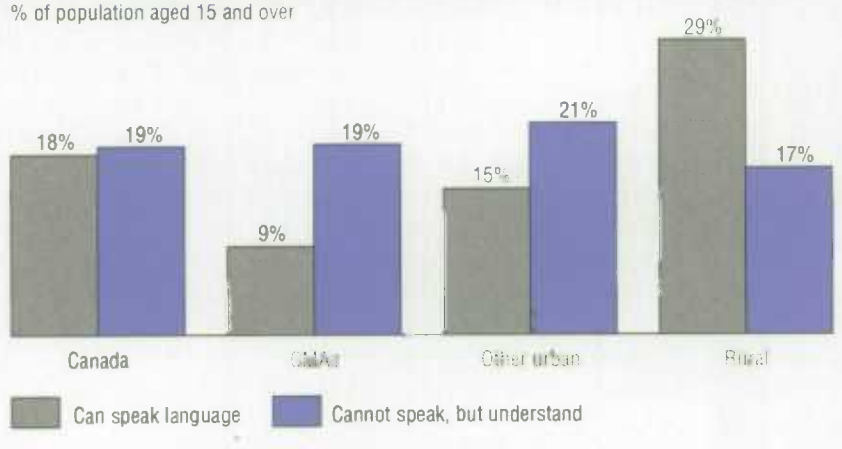
Many Métis tune in to Aboriginal-language media The fact that more people understand than speak an Aboriginal language may help to explain the use of Aboriginal-language media in the Métis community. In 1991, over 80% of Métis aged 15 and over reported that some type of Aboriginal-language media – television, radio, recordings or videos – was available where they lived. Métis with access to native media were less likely to use it than North American Indians; for instance, 36% of Métis watched Aboriginal-language television programs, compared with 41% of Indians, and 20% versus 31% respectively, listened to radio. Interestingly, native broadcast media are less readily available in areas where Aboriginal languages are more commonly spoken in the community. For example, 83% of Métis living in urban centres had access to Aboriginal-language television, compared with 70% in rural areas. To a smaller extent, the same was true of Aboriginal-language radio,

Official languages spoken by Métis and North American Indian populations aged 15 and over, 1991

Age group	Métis			North American Indian		
	English only	French only	Both English and French	English only	French only	Both English and French
	%			%		
15 and over	82	4	14	86	4	6
15 – 24	88	3	9	90	4	5
25 – 44	82	3	14	88	4	7
45 – 64	77	5	17	82	5	7
65 and over	64	3	26	70	5	6

Figures may not add due to rounding.
Source: Statistics Canada, **A Profile of the Métis**, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

Métis in rural areas were most likely to speak an Aboriginal language



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

[3] Michif possesses "a pattern of combination which is most unusual, and in its way, very rigorous." John C. Crawford (ed.). **Michif Dictionary: Turtle Mountain Chippewa Cree**, Pemmican Publications, Winnipeg, 1983.

[4] Missionaries, teachers and the non-native community actively discouraged the Métis, especially children, from using the Michif language. The Métis National Council, **The Métis Nation**, Vol. 2, no. 2, November 1993.

which was received by 85% of Métis in towns and cities and 82% of those living in rural areas.

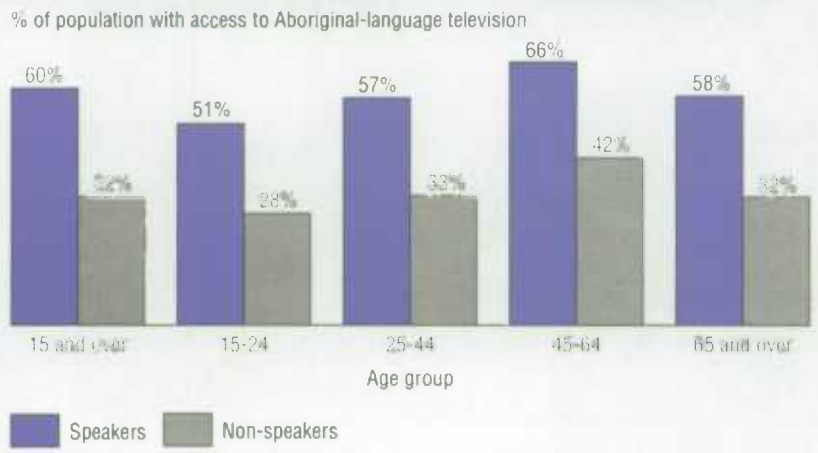
A considerable proportion of Métis who did not actually speak an Aboriginal language were among those using native media. For example, 60% of Métis who could speak an Aboriginal language watched native TV, but so did 32% of those who could not. The figures are even more startling in terms of the actual television audience: 72% of the 26,000 Métis tuning in to native TV could not converse in the language of the programs they were watching. As one would expect, the older the viewing audience, the more likely that they could speak an Aboriginal language – 48% of those aged 45 and over compared with only 19% of those aged 15 to 44.

Aboriginal languages used more often in the classroom Education is an important medium by which a community's language and traditions are passed from one generation to another. Much of this teaching may be done informally within the family, but formal education can also play a role. However, in 1991, only 10% of Métis children aged 5 to 14 had been taught in an Aboriginal language in elementary school, compared with 26% of North American Indian children. Métis children were also considerably less likely to have had Aboriginal teachers, at only 22% compared with 41% of North American Indian children. These differences most probably reflect the more urban character of the Métis population – Métis children are simply less likely to attend native schools than other Aboriginal children.

At the same time, the APS data suggest that efforts are being made to introduce a stronger Aboriginal presence in the schools. Though only a small minority of Métis children under age 15 had encountered an Aboriginal language or teacher in the classroom, an even smaller percentage of older Métis aged 15 to 49 had done so when they had attended elementary school. A total of only 4% had been taught in an Aboriginal language and only 16% had had an Aboriginal teacher.

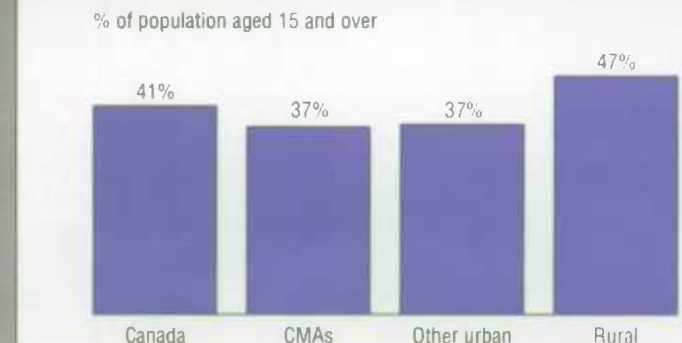
Participation in traditional activities Traditional activities are another expression of the Métis culture. In 1991, many self-identified Métis aged 15 and over – almost 41% – participated in activities traditional to the Aboriginal community. These included economic activities – hunting, fishing and trapping – and cultural ones – storytelling, traditional dancing, fiddle playing, jigging and doing arts and crafts. Interestingly, younger people were more involved than older Métis: 42% of Métis aged 15 to 44 took an active part in traditional activities, while only 37% of those aged 45 and over did so. In contrast, over half of North American Indians in the two age groups (54% in each) participated in traditional activities. In this case, the differences do not appear to stem from the urban concentration of the Métis, since even Métis in rural areas were much less likely to take part in traditional Aboriginal activities, at 47% compared with 62% of North American Indians.

Many Métis who could not speak an Aboriginal language watched native television

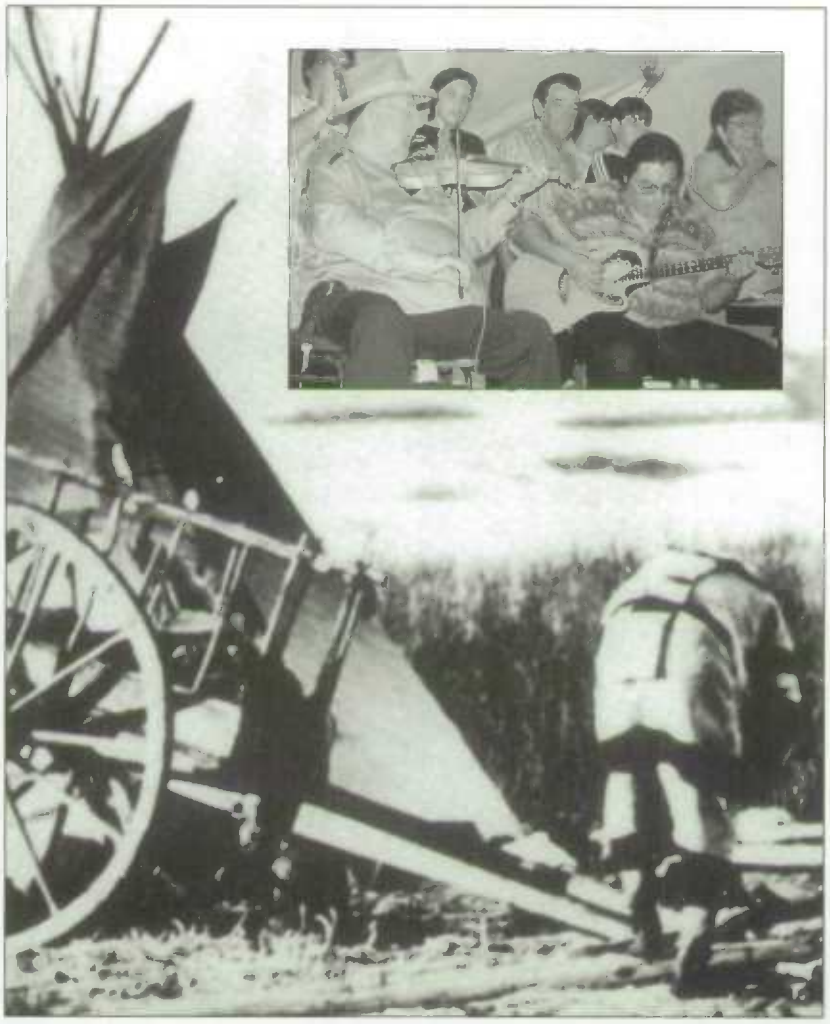


Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

Métis in rural areas were most likely to participate in traditional activities[1]



[1] Hunting, trapping, fishing, storytelling, dancing, arts and crafts, and so on.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.



Hunting, trapping and fishing are important traditional Aboriginal activities, and with no legally recognized land base, the Métis people are currently subject to the same restrictions on these activities as non-Aboriginal people. Nevertheless, in 1991, about 13% of the Métis population (17% rural and 9% urban) lived away from home for at least a week to hunt, trap, fish or otherwise participate in traditional activities. Most were away for a relatively short time, but one-third (34%) were absent for more than four weeks. Hunting and fishing, even if only for a few weeks, are notable because fish and game supplement the diet of more than half of the Métis community. For 13% of Métis aged 15 and over, hunting and fishing supplied over half of their meat and fish, and for an additional 40% of the community, at least some of their meat and fish.

Out of their dual ancestry, the Métis people have created a distinct cultural life. English or French is the mother tongue of many Métis, and only about one in five can speak an Aboriginal language, but another one in five can understand a native language. Thus, outsiders observe apparent contradictions, such as a large Métis audience for Aboriginal-language television, even though only one-quarter of the viewers can conduct a conversation in the language of the broadcast. Two-thirds of Métis live in urban areas – many in cities of 100,000 or more – yet over half eat fish and game obtained through hunting and fishing. The most active participants in traditional Aboriginal activities are not the older members of the community, but those under the age of 45. The Métis people's ties to Aboriginal culture may not be as strong as those of North American Indians, but there is no doubt that they are a unique community with a clear desire to sustain and strengthen their culture and traditions.

• For more information, see **A Profile of the Métis**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

Josée Normand is an analyst with the Target Groups Project, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

CST

Adult Literacy in Canada, the United States and Germany

by Warren Clark

Modern society is increasingly dependent on information processing and communication technologies. The emerging information economy places greater demands on individuals to locate, read, understand and process complex information in various forms both on the job and in everyday life. Literacy skills are an important component of learning and keeping pace with change. Without them, skills in other areas are difficult to acquire because so much of modern communication depends on printed and written documents. Thus, literacy skills often define an individual's social and economic opportunities.

The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) is the first survey to measure literacy skills of adults across diverse sub-groups in several industrialized countries. Unlike past measures of literacy, which used highest level of schooling to separate the literate from the illiterate, the IALS measured literacy as a continuum of successive skills categorized into five levels. The lowest skill level was called "Level 1" and the highest, "Level 5."

The IALS defined literacy as the ability to understand and use printed and written documents in daily activities to achieve goals, and to develop knowledge and potential. The survey assessed adult literacy in three separate areas: prose, document and quantitative skills. All three measure the information-processing skills of respondents – the ability to locate, integrate, construct and generate information – but the emphasis is somewhat different for each type.

- *Prose literacy tasks* assessed the ability to understand and use information from texts that included product labels, owner's manuals, pamphlets, newspaper articles and written announcements. These tasks may ask the reader to find information, match it, make an inference, integrate two or more pieces of information or generate a written response after processing information in the text.

- *Document literacy tasks* assessed the ability to locate and use information in a variety of displays including tables, graphs, maps, order forms, application forms and transportation schedules. Sometimes, familiarity with applications or forms was required for success at document literacy tasks.

- *Quantitative literacy tasks* assessed the ability to locate and extract numbers from different types of printed documents and perform arithmetic operations that are inferred from printed directions. For example, quantitative tasks required respondents to adjust quantities in a recipe, figure out how much to tip for a restaurant meal, balance a chequebook or calculate interest on a loan based on a compound interest table.

This article compares some of the first findings of the IALS for Canada, the United States, our largest trading partner, and Germany, the principal economic power of Europe. Overall, Canada and the United States had similar distributions of literacy skill levels, with the United States having a slightly larger proportion at the lowest literacy level. In all three literacy areas, prose, document and quantitative, Germany had a higher percentage of respondents with mid-level literacy scores and smaller proportions at the extremes than North Americans.

The literacy skills of Canadian and American adults differed little between prose, document and quantitative scales. Germans, however, scored higher in quantitative literacy than they did in prose or document literacy.

The majority of Canadians have adequate literacy skills Almost three out of five Canadians aged 16 to 65 had sufficient prose, document and quantitative literacy skills to meet most everyday requirements in dealing with printed documents (Level 3 or higher). One in four Canadians had Level 2 skills. While these people generally believed they had good or excellent reading, writing and numeracy skills, their test scores were weak. About one in six Canadians had Level 1 prose, document and quantitative literacy skills, which meant they had serious difficulty in dealing with printed materials.

American adults had slightly lower literacy skills than Canadians In the United States, about half of the adult population had prose, document and quantitative skills at the top three literacy levels, meaning that they met a wide range of reading demands. About one in four Americans had Level 2 literacy skills. One in five had prose and quantitative literacy skills at Level 1, while one in four had document literacy skills at that level.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

International Adult Literacy Survey

Seven countries – Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland (French and German speaking areas only) and the United States – participated in the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) assisted in the development of the survey. In addition to Statistics Canada, Canadian collaborators were the National Literacy Secretariat and the Applied Research Branch of Human Resources Development Canada.

The civilian, non-institutional population aged 16 to 65 was surveyed in the autumn of 1994. Some countries, including Canada, added older adults to their samples. For international comparisons, only the 16- to 65-year-old population is reported in this article. In Canada, about 4,000 people responded in English and 1,700 in French. In other countries, the number of respondents varied from 2,100 (Germany) to 3,100 (United States).

Testing of literacy tasks ensured no bias favoured one particular country or language group, thereby allowing comparisons among the seven participating countries. However, each country differs in many ways including: demographics, formal education system, geographic distribution, industrial composition, immigration patterns and cultural traditions. It is difficult, therefore, to rank countries on the basis of literacy scores without understanding this context.

Literacy levels

The survey measured prose, document and quantitative literacy skills on scales from 0 to 500. These scales were categorized into five broad literacy levels, with Level 1 being the lowest and Level 5 being the highest. Levels 4 and 5 are combined in many places throughout this article to ensure data reliability.

The population assessed at Level 1 literacy possessed very limited literacy skills. Some at this level showed the ability to find a single piece of information from a written text or graphic form, or perform simple arithmetic operations using numbers that were presented simply. Others at this level demonstrated such limited skills that they could perform only some Level 1 literacy tasks, while others were unsuccessful at all tasks.

Level 2 of prose literacy required respondents to locate information in a text which may contain several distracters, make low level inferences, integrate two or more pieces of information, or compare and contrast information. Respondents assessed at this level could deal with simple printed material which was clearly laid out, but had difficulty with more complex documents such as reading a bicycle owner's manual to check if the seat was in the proper position. People in this category may have adapted their lower literacy skills to their everyday life, but might have difficulty learning new job skills involving more complex literacy skills.

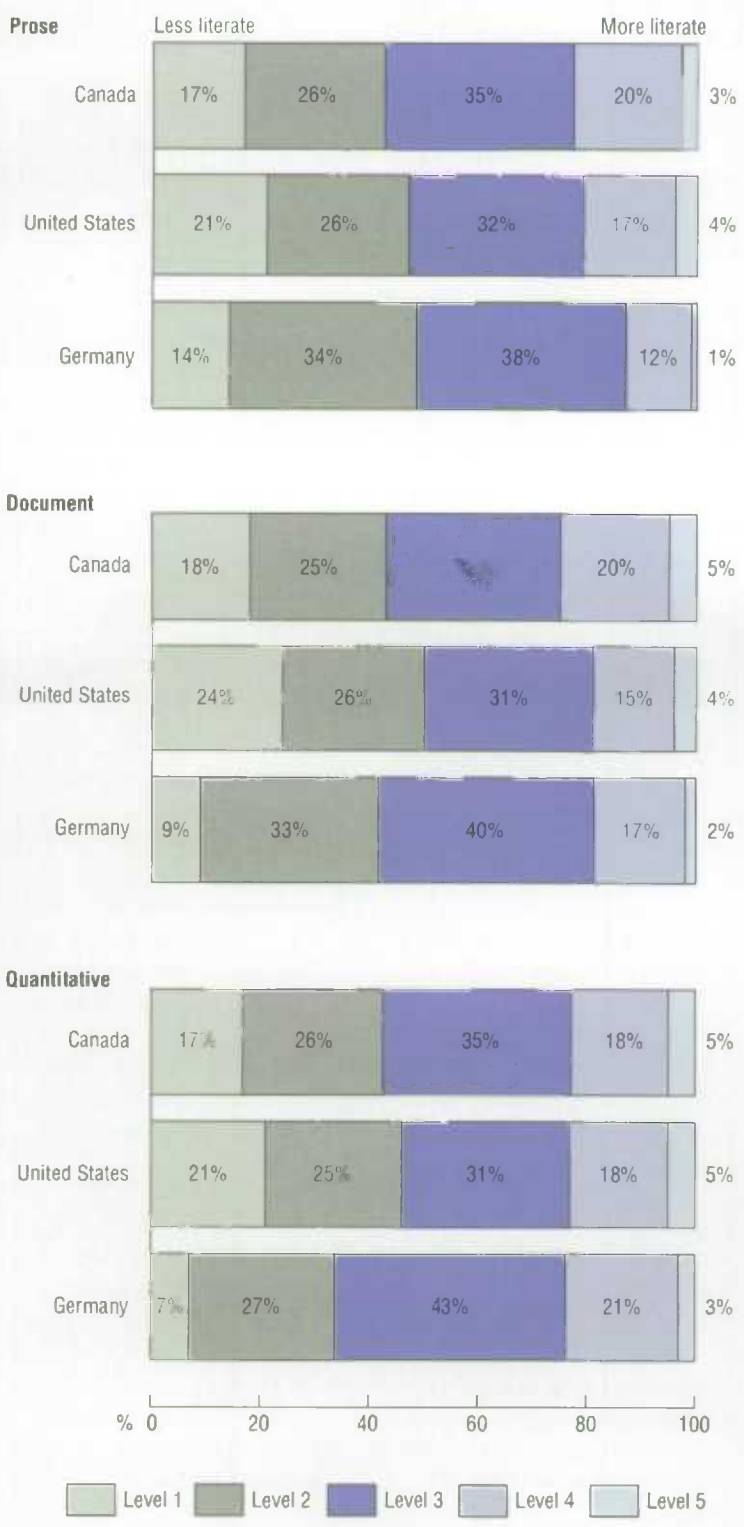
Levels 3, 4 and 5 required increasingly higher literacy skills. Literacy tasks at these levels required the ability to integrate several sources of information, solve more complex problems and extract information from more complex texts. Text often contained more distracting information and was in a more abstract form.

Sample literacy tasks

Level	Prose	Document	Quantitative
1	Use the instructions on a medicine bottle to identify the maximum duration recommended for taking aspirin.	Identify the percentage of Greek teachers who are women by looking at a simple pictorial graph.	Fill in the figure on the last line of an order form, 'Total with Handling,' by adding the ticket price of $50 to a handling charge of $2.
2	Identify a short piece of information about the characteristics of a garden plant, from a written article.	Identify the year in which fireworks injured the fewest Dutch people, when presented with two simple graphs.	Work out the temperature difference in today's forecast high temperature in Bangkok and Seoul, using a table accompanying a weather chart.
3	State which of a set of four movie reviews was the least favourable.	Identify the arrival time of the last bus on a Saturday night, using a bus schedule.	Work out how much more energy Canada produces than it consumes, by comparing figures on two bar charts.
4	Answer a brief question on how to conduct a job interview, requiring the reader to read a pamphlet on recruitment interviews and integrate two pieces of information into a single statement.	Summarize how the percentages of oil used for different purposes changed over a specified period, by comparing two pie charts.	Calculate how much money you will have if you invest $100 at a rate of 6 percent for 10 years, using a compound interest table.
5	Use an announcement from a personnel department to answer a question that uses different phrasing from that used in the text.	Identify the average advertised price for the best-rated basic clock radio in a consumer survey, requiring the assimilation of several pieces of information.	Use information from a table of nutritional analysis to calculate the percentage of calories in a Big Mac® that comes from total fat.

Source: Statistics Canada, International Adult Literacy Survey, 1994.

North Americans aged 16 to 65 were more likely to have Level 1 or 5 literacy skills than Germans in 1994



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Germans excelled in quantitative skills On average, Germans had higher quantitative literacy skills than North Americans. Two-thirds scored in the top three levels on the quantitative scale. Half of Germans had prose literacy skills in the top three levels and 58% scored high in document literacy. About a third of Germans were at Level 2 on the prose and document scale, and one-quarter scored at this level on the quantitative scale. About one in fifteen had Level 1 quantitative literacy skills compared with one in six Canadians and one in five Americans. One in eleven Germans had Level 1 document skills, while one in seven had Level 1 prose literacy.

Literacy differences between genders varied Gender differences were small in some countries, large in others and varied from one literacy scale to another. In North America, women outscored men in prose literacy. Sixty-one percent of Canadian women scored at Level 3 or higher in prose literacy, compared with 54% of men. In the United States, 57% of women and 50% of men had prose literacy at the top three levels. Document literacy scores for men and women were nearly equal in Canada and the United States.

In every country, men outscored women in quantitative literacy. In Canada, the gender difference was very small where 58% of men and 56% of women had Level 3 or higher quantitative skills. The difference in quantitative skills was greater in the United States and Germany where 57% of American men and 72% of German men had level 3 or higher quantitative skills, compared with 51% of American women and 62% of German women.

In Germany, men outscored women on all three literacy scales. In prose literacy, the difference was small with 53% of men and 50% of women having skills at the top three levels. The literacy advantage of German men over women increased to six percentage points for document literacy and to ten percentage points for quantitative literacy. The lower literacy scores among German women may be because German women have historically been less likely than men to pursue post-secondary education.

Older adults have lower literacy skills than younger adults In the three countries, people aged 56 to 65 were the most

likely to have Level 1 skills on all three literacy scales. Thirty-eight percent of Canadians, 22% of Germans and 24% of Americans in this age group had Level 1 prose literacy skills. In contrast, 12% of Canadians and Germans, and 20% of Americans aged 26 to 35 had Level 1 prose literacy skills.

On average, older Canadians, Americans and Germans had less formal education than younger adults. This, in part, explains why older adults have lower literacy levels than younger adults. Literacy skills are first developed in primary and secondary school. For many older adults, formal education ended a long time ago. The literacy skills of older adults also may have declined if their job and daily activities made infrequent use of them. In contrast, younger adults' formal schooling is a more recent experience and they would have had less time to lose unused skills.

Literacy contributes to economic success Literacy skills influence the types of jobs people hold, their earnings and their likelihood of unemployment. Workers with poor literacy skills are vulnerable to lay-off and displacement, and once unemployed may have difficulty finding new jobs. In all countries, and across the three types of literacy skills, the employed had higher literacy skill levels than those who were unemployed or outside the labour force. In Canada, 11% of the employed had Level 1 prose literacy skills, compared with 33% of the unemployed.

Jobs differ in the level of literacy skills required. Canadians, Germans and Americans in managerial or professional jobs were more likely than other workers to have literacy skills at Level 4/5. In Canada, 43% of managerial or professional workers had Level 4/5 prose skills, compared with 11% of machine operators and assemblers. Still, 3% of managers or professionals in Canada, and 4% in Germany and the United States had Level 1 prose literacy. The reason for some managers or professionals having low literacy levels may lie in the heterogeneity of the management and professional occupation group. This group includes supervisors, foremen, store managers, administrative assistants, doctors, engineers and high-level managers.

High levels of literacy also offered monetary rewards. Those with higher

Older adults had lower literacy skills than younger adults in 1994

CST

-- Data not reliable enough to publish.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

literacy skills worked in higher paying jobs and their literacy skills may have allowed them greater ability to understand and take advantage of other income-producing opportunities. In Canada, 39% of those who had Level 4/5 prose skills were in the top personal income quintile.[1] In contrast, 46% of those with Level 1 prose literacy and 30% of those with Level 2 had no personal income from wages or salaries.

Growth industries employed workers with higher literacy skills In Canada, the United States and Germany, workers in industries where employment has grown over the last twenty years, such as finance and personal services, had higher literacy scores. Those in declining industries, such as agriculture and manufacturing, had lower prose literacy scores.

Literacy skills – use them or lose them Schooling nurtures the initial development of literacy skills. It is not surprising that those who had low levels of education exhibited low literacy skills and those with more education had higher literacy skills. Literacy skills, however, can decline if left unused and can improve through extensive use in everyday life.

The IALS found that about one in ten Canadians and Americans, and about one in six Germans, who had no more than primary schooling, had Level 3 or higher prose literacy skills. In contrast, 0.2% of Canadian, 5% of American and 4% of German university degree-holders had Level 1 prose literacy skills. Why such large proportions of university graduates had relatively low prose literacy skills may partly be explained by the nature of the IALS. The IALS assessed the skills of respondents in the national language of the country in which they resided. Some university graduates were immigrants who still may have been unfamiliar with the nuances of the language of their new home country. Others may have lost some literacy skills through lack of use.

Many of those with low levels of education may have improved and maintained their literacy skills through regular use. Book reading, letter writing, library use and participation in adult education and community organizations increased with higher literacy levels. Those with literacy difficulties read less, watched television more and engaged less frequently in activities requiring the use of literacy skills. Without daily use, literacy skills are at risk of deterioration.

Many with low level literacy skills were satisfied with their skill levels Those assessed at Level 1 in prose literacy had very limited reading abilities, yet 46% of Canadians, 78% of Germans and 60% of Americans at this level believed their reading skills on the job were "good" or "excellent." They also gave high ratings to their writing abilities on the job. Those with Level 1 quantitative skills may have had difficulty adding two numbers on an order form, yet over 60% of them believed their numeracy skills were "good" or "excellent" on the job. Despite very limited literacy skills, most Canadians and Americans, and over 40% of Germans with Level 1 literacy skills, regardless of the measure of literacy, felt their reading, writing and numeracy skills were not limiting their job opportunities at all.

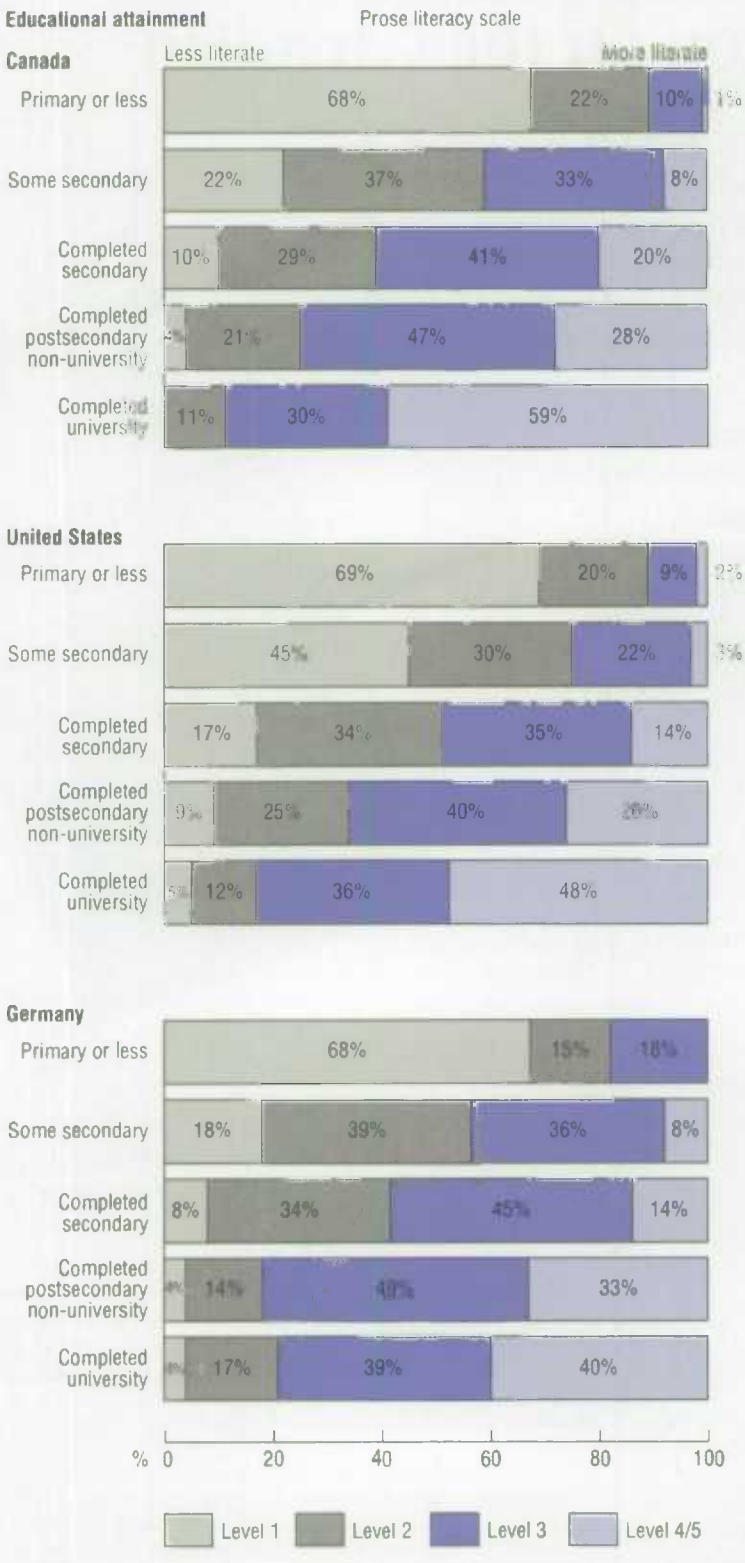
Unemployed adults had low literacy skills CST

Country	Employment status	Prose	Document	Quantitative
		% with Level 1 literacy skills		
Canada	Employed	11	12	11
	Unemployed	33	30	33
	Student	11	8	8
	Other out of labour force	29	38	33
United States	Employed	15	18	16
	Unemployed	32	36	37
	Student	--	--	--
	Other out of labour force	32	37	31
Germany	Employed	11	5	4
	Unemployed	26	18	10
	Student	5	5	4
	Other out of labour force	20	15	11

-- Data not reliable enough to publish.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

[1] The top personal income quintile refers to the 20% of income earners with the highest personal income.

Literacy was strongly related to formal education in 1994 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Implications of low literacy skills Low literacy skills exact a toll not only on an individual's economic and social opportunities, but also on economic productivity and national competitiveness in a global economy. Changes in the workplace and in society will require higher levels of literacy as low-skilled jobs disappear. The volume, variety and complexity of written information has grown as society becomes increasingly information-oriented. More and more adults are now expected to read, understand and use printed materials in a variety of formats.

A large percentage of adults have Level 1 literacy skills, yet many do not perceive that they have a literacy problem, perhaps because they sought situations which did not tax their literacy skills. This may present a barrier for them to seek skill-improvement programs. Those who need to upgrade their basic skills may be reluctant to disclose their needs. Doing so may be an admission of failure in a society that expects people to read and use printed documents effectively.

Many with low literacy skills will be in the labour market for a long time to come. If high-skilled jobs are the wave of the future, many people with low literacy skills may have difficulty pursuing their employment goals. Individuals, communities, employers and governments all have a role to play in improving literacy skills to meet the demands of a modern society.

• For more information, see **Literacy, Economy and Society: Results of the first International Adult Literacy Survey**, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and Statistics Canada, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE; **Reading the Future: A Portrait of Literacy in Canada**, Statistics Canada, Human Resources Development Canada and National Literacy Secretariat, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE; and "International survey on adult literacy," and "The marginally literate workforce," **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Summer 1996, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE, Vol. 8, No. 2.

Warren Clark is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

CST

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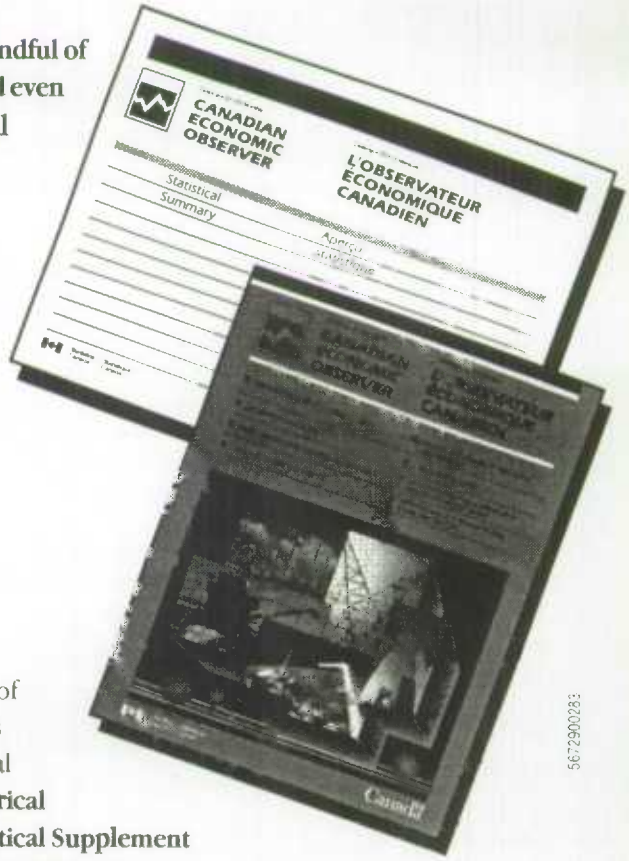

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EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for "**Youth Smoking in Canada**"

Objectives

- ❑ To appreciate some of the health risks associated with smoking.
- ❑ To generate discussion on why young people start to smoke.
- ❑ To work independently and co-operatively in small groups.

Method

1. Provide each student with a copy of the article "Youth Smoking in Canada."
2. Have the students read the article independently, selecting and recording key facts or ideas in point form.
3. Divide the class into groups to discuss why young people start to smoke and what social factors contribute to smoking.
4. Have the groups present their reasons to the class, while the teacher summarizes.
5. As a class, discuss what can be done to prevent young people from starting to smoke. Ask any smokers who have tried to quit smoking to describe their success or failure.
6. Follow-up activities could include asking the school nurse to talk to the students about the health risks of smoking.

Using other resources

- ❑ Read "Trends in Mortality from Smoking-Related Cancers, 1950 to 1991" in the Winter 1995 edition of **Canadian Social Trends** to see how smoking-related cancer death rates have changed.
- ❑ Read "Fifteen Years of AIDS in Canada" in the Summer 1996 edition of **Canadian Social Trends** to compare deaths from HIV/AIDS with those from smoking.
- ❑ Use the **E-STAT** CD-ROM from Statistics Canada to find data on smoking rates for 11-, 13- and 15-year-olds in other countries. Search in the **CANSIM** time series under the Topic "Health and Lifestyle" to find this information.

Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share with other teachers? Send your ideas or comments to Harris Popplewell, Social Science Teacher at J.S. Woodsworth Secondary School, c/o Joel Yan, University Liaison Program, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513. Internet: yanjoel@statcan.ca.

EDUCATORS – You may photocopy *Educators' Notebook* for use in your classroom.

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES: SPRING 1992 – WINTER 1996

POPULATION

FAMILY

HOUSING

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES: SPRING 1992 – WINTER 1996

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES: SPRING 1992 – WINTER 1996

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	26,894.8	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0 PR	29,255.6 PR	29,615.3 PR
Annual growth (%)	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4 PR	1.1 PR	1.2 PR
Immigration[1]	152,413	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R
Emigration[1]	40,978	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807 PP	45,949 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	•
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	•
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	•
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	N/A	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	12,819	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506
– goods sector (000s)	3,873	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653
– service sector (000s)	8,946	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852
Total unemployment (000s)	1,082	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5
Part-time employment (%)	15.2	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6
Women's participation rate (%)	57.7	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	33.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	•	•
INCOME								
Median family income	40,904	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	•
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	12.2	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	•
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.4	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	•
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.1	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,505.9 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	817.1	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	•
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,418	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,647 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	•	•
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	•
– women	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 R	•
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.4 R	27.9	28.3	•
– women	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	•
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	•	•
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	865	908	970	1,056	1,081 R	1,072	1,038 R	995
– property	5,419	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,890 R	5,525	5,212 R	5,237
– homicide	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1995 $000,000)	172,648.3 R	175,372.4 R	183,505.7 R	190,745.5 R	207,245.8 R	214,317.3 R	215,567.4	208,494.6
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1	56.1 R	56.0 R	56.8 R	58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	58.3
– as a % of GDP	23.2 R	23.0 R	24.5 R	26.7 R	28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+5.0	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1
Urban housing starts	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526

– Not available • Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March IR Revised intercensal estimates
PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postcensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data

[1]For year ending June 30.

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

PING TRACK

Step families growing

In 1995, there were about 430,000 stepfamilies in Canada, accounting for 10% of couples with children. Slightly more than one-half of these couples were married, while the remainder were living common-law. One-half (50%) of stepfamilies only included children living with their biological mother and a stepfather, while one-sixth (13%) were made up of children living with their biological father and a stepmother. The remaining one-third (37%) of stepfamilies were "blended": with children both parents brought from any previous unions or a combination of children from a previous union and the current union.

Canadian Families: Diversity and Change,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 12F0061XPE.

Student loans harder to repay

For the class of 1990, the ratio of student loan debt at graduation to earnings after graduation were higher than for earlier graduates. Between 1982 and 1990, this debt-to-earnings ratio doubled for graduates with bachelor's degrees. It moved from 0.14 to 0.28 for men and from 0.17 to 0.32 for women. Although 1990 graduates with college/CEGEP diplomas, master's degrees and doctorates also experienced higher debt loads, the increases were not as dramatic. Furthermore, the ratios were lower among these graduates than among graduates with bachelor's degrees.

Education Quarterly Review, Summer 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-003-XPB.

Fewer work-related deaths

Job-related fatalities have dropped from an annual rate of 11 per 100,000 paid workers during the 1976 to 1981 period, to 7 per 100,000 between 1988 and 1993. Two occupations had strikingly high fatality rates during the 1988 to 1993 period: mining and quarrying (specifically cutting, handling and loading) with a rate of 281 deaths per 100,000 workers, and construction (insulating), with 246 per 100,000.

Perspectives on Labour and Income, Summer 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

Over half of legal aid for family and civil matters

Spending on legal aid amounted to $22.10 per Canadian in 1994/95. More than half (58%) of subsidies for legal services were for family, civil and other non-criminal matters, while the rest were for criminal matters.

Legal aid in Canada: resource and caseload statistics, 1994/95,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 85F0015XPB.

Low income picture much improved for unattached seniors

The incidence of low income among unattached individuals (using Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs) dropped very little between 1980 and 1994, to 40.6% from 43.5%. Among those aged 65 and over, however, the incidence dropped considerably. In 1980, 61% of senior men who did not live with family had low incomes; by 1994, the proportion had been cut in half, to 32%. Unattached senior women did not fare as well as their male counterparts, but their risk of having low income fell to 53% in 1994 from 72% in 1980.

Over the same period, unattached individuals under age 65 experienced a slight rise in their risk of having a low income. The rate for men rose to 33% in 1994 from 29% in 1980, while that for women rose to 45% from 41%.

Low Income Persons, 1980 to 1993,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-569-XPB.

2% of couples separated in 1993

In 1993, 253,000 people separated from a common-law or marriage partner. Seven out of ten were in their 20s or 30s. Almost two-thirds of the people who separated had children in the home, and women were more likely to keep the children after separation. By the end of the year, 88% of the mothers had some or all of the children with them, compared with only 27% of the fathers.

Separation also means that one or both partners leave the family home. The higher proportion of men who moved at least once during the year (73% compared with 65% of women) indicates that it is more often the man who moves out following a separation.

Life Events: How Families Change, **Dynamics**, vol. 5 no. 1,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 75-002-XPB.

One-fifth of Canada's labour force experienced unemployment in 1993

According to the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, about 22% of the labour force, or 3.5 million people, was unemployed at least once in 1993. Most of these people cycled in and out of unemployment, and for many (20%) the unemployment experience was short-lived, at four weeks or less. However, 13% of unemployed Canadians were without a job all year.

Transition in the Labour Force, **Dynamics**, vol. 5 no. 2,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 75-002-XPB.

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