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#### ON OUR COVER:

**Dominick Daly O'Meara** (1847) oil on canvas, 75.0 x 61.8 cm.  
Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

#### About the artist:

**Théophile Hamel** was born in Ste. Foy, Lower Canada in 1817. At the age of 17 he entered the studio of Antoine Plamondon, where he served his apprenticeship learning drawing and painting. Hamel later went to London, England and then to Rome, where he studied at the Academy of St. Luke. When he returned to Quebec in 1846 he concentrated mainly on painting portraits. This profession took him to

Hamilton, Kingston, Toronto and New York. Hamel was later commissioned by the Quebec government to paint portraits of members of the Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry and speakers of the Legislative Council and Legislative Assembly in Toronto, which were later lost in a fire that destroyed the two Quebec parliament buildings. Théophile Hamel died in 1870 at the age of 53.

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# Canadian Children in the 1990s:

Selected Findings of the  
National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth



Societies have always valued their children. The way that we raise our kids helps to determine whether they grow into adults who can cope successfully in an increasingly complex world. However, much remains unclear about the effect of children's homes, schools and neighbourhoods on their development.

One of the best ways to assess the impact of a child's environment is through a longitudinal survey that tracks children from infancy to adulthood. The new National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) will follow the same children over many years, collecting data that will help researchers better

understand the factors that influence children's life outcomes.

As the NLSCY is conducted over successive years, the data will provide a "video" that details factors influencing child outcomes over time. In the meantime, however, the first year of data available provides a rich "snapshot" of children's environments in 1994. The brief articles in this series of selected findings from the NLSCY are adapted from the Statistics Canada report **Growing Up in Canada**, and focus on the families in which children live.

— Ed





## OVERVIEW OF CHILDREN AND THEIR FAMILIES

On the whole, the NLSCY data show that Canadian children are physically, emotionally and socially healthy. But averages usually conceal disparities. A number of children are experiencing difficulties that, if neglected, may lead to inferior school performance, unsatisfactory social relationships and, ultimately, hinder their transition to a healthy adulthood.

In 1994, there were almost 4.7 million children under the age of 12 in Canada. They made up 16% of the total population, with the proportion varying slightly from a low of 15% in Quebec to a high of 18% in Alberta. Most of these children (82%) lived in urban centres, almost half of them in large cities of 500,000 or more.

Most children – 79% of those aged 0 to 11 years in 1994 – lived in two-parent families with both their biological parents (this includes children born into stepfamilies). Another 4% of Canadian children lived with one biological parent and a stepparent, and just over 1% lived in other types of families (including adoptive parents and foster parents). Just under 16% of children under 12 lived with a lone parent, the vast majority with their mother.

The average child aged 0 to 11 also had 1.2 siblings under the age of 18. However, about 19% of children had no brothers or sisters, with those in Quebec and Newfoundland most likely to be an only child.

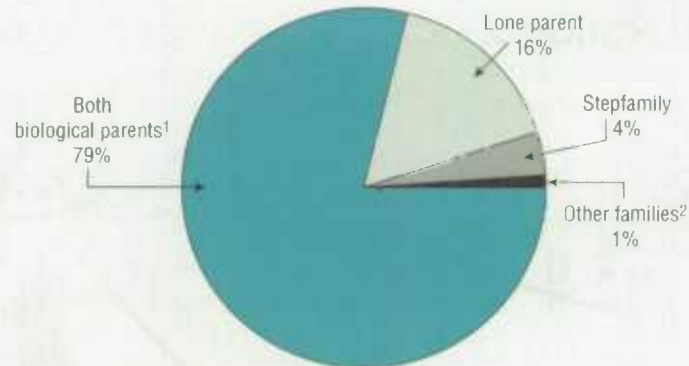
**Family's socio-economic status is an important influence** Many research studies show that children who grow up in low-income families tend to have poorer educational and labour market outcomes than children from more affluent families; therefore, household income is generally considered a basic indicator of child well-being. The average annual income of Canadian households with children under 12 was \$49,900 in 1994, but many children lived in households with incomes well below this. One-quarter of Canadian children aged 0 to 11 lived in households with an income below the Statistics Canada low income cut-off (LICO). Children in Newfoundland, Manitoba and Nova Scotia were most likely to live in low-income families.

Parental labour force status is another factor often identified as a key indicator of child well-being, largely because it is a major determinant of household income. Most two-parent families with children

under 12 had at least one employed member. About 57% of children had two working parents, with both parents employed full-time in the majority of dual-earner families; another 33% of

### In 1994, most children under age 12 lived in two-parent families with both their biological parents

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<sup>1</sup> Includes children born into stepfamilies.

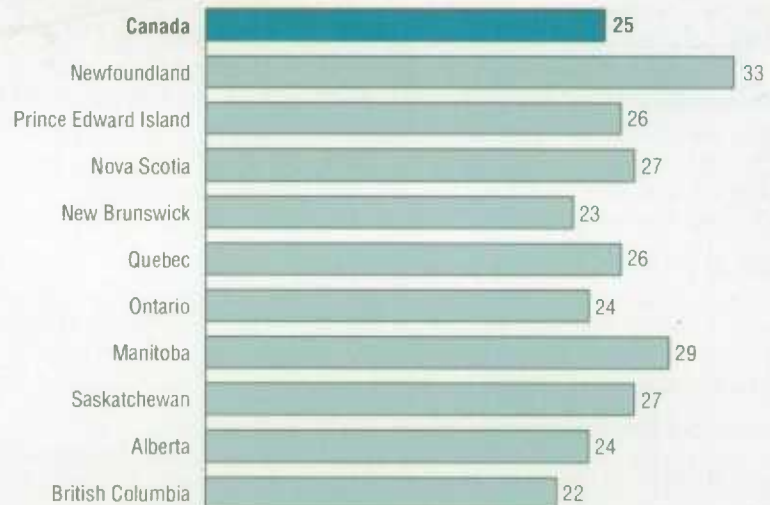
<sup>2</sup> Includes children living with adoptive parents and foster parents.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

### One in four children under age 12 lived in low-income families in 1994<sup>1</sup>

CST

% of children aged 0-11 years



<sup>1</sup> Family income is equal to or less than the Statistics Canada Low Income Cut-offs (LICO).

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

## The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth

Conducted by Statistics Canada on behalf of Human Resources Development Canada, the purpose of the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) is to derive a clearer understanding of the way children grow and develop. Over the years, the survey will help researchers to identify specific factors that contribute to a child's development, how they contribute, and if these factors can be moderated to ensure a more positive outcome for the child.

The NLSCY collected information on over 22,500 children from newborn to 11 years.<sup>1</sup> New infants will be added to the survey sample in the second, third and fourth cycles (1996, 1998 and 2000). The same panel of children will be interviewed every two years until they reach adulthood. Information is gathered about the children and their families in an interview with the "person most knowledgeable" (PMK) about the child: teachers and principals are asked for their evaluation of the child's development, and 10- and 11-year-olds are also asked about their experiences with friends, family and school.

The complete findings of the first cycle of the NLSCY (1994) are being released in two publications. This series of articles is based on the first Statistics Canada report, **Growing Up in Canada**, released in November 1996. The report covers topics such as child temperament, behaviour and school readiness; basic socio-demographic characteristics of children and their families; and data on how well those families are functioning.

The second report will present results of the questionnaire completed by teachers and principals as well as complete findings of the interview with 10- and 11-year-olds. It will also cover such topics as child health, literacy, activities, and the family and custody history of children.

### Definitions used in the NLSCY studies

- ❑ **Child** – a person under the age of 12. Not all data were collected for all children; for example, data about prenatal and newborn health were gathered only for children under 3 years, while data on school experience were collected only for children aged 6 to 11.
- ❑ **Person most knowledgeable (PMK)** – information about the child and the family circumstances was collected in an interview with the person most knowledgeable about the child. In 98% of cases, the PMK was the child's parent, usually the mother.
- ❑ **Lone-mother family** – the child's mother had no spouse or common-law partner living in the household. (Lone-father families were excluded from these studies because they comprised less than 10% of lone-parent families.)

**Development scales for children aged 0 to 11 years** Most studies in this series use a comprehensive scale, based on a specific set of individual questions, to describe a situation or condition; for example, skills that fall within the normal range for a child at a certain age, or tendency to depression.

- ❑ **Motor and social development (MSD)** – for children newborn to 3 years of age. The scale measured different dimensions of motor, social and cognitive development. Questions differed for children at different ages.
- ❑ **Receptive vocabulary** – for 4-year-olds. To estimate a child's verbal ability, the NLSCY interviewer administered the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) in the children's homes.

- ❑ **Overall social relationships** – measures how well the child gets along with parents, teachers, siblings and other children.
- ❑ **Helping behaviour** – measures compassionate behaviour such as comforting a child who is crying or upset, trying to help someone who has been hurt, and offering to help other children do things.
- ❑ **Emotional and behavioural problems** – measures one or more of three types of disorders, based on a scale developed from the PMK's responses to a series of questions about the child's behaviour.

**conduct disorder** – characterized by either physical violence against persons or property, or a severe violation of societal norms.

**hyperactivity** – characterized by inattention, impulsivity and restless motor activity.

**emotional disorder** – characterized primarily by feelings of anxiety and depression.

**one or more behavioural problems** – child has at least one of the hyperactivity, conduct or emotional disorders.

- ❑ **Repeated a grade** – available for 6- to 11-year-olds only.
- ❑ **Impaired social relationships** – child exhibited frequent or constant problems getting along with other children (siblings, friends, classmates), teachers and parents in the six months preceding the survey.
- ❑ **One or more total problems** – child has at least one of the problems described above: that is, one or more emotional or behavioural problems, repeated a grade, or impaired social relationships. Because of the educational component, this variable is available for 6- to 11-year-olds only.

### Scales for selected behaviour variables for parents

- ❑ **Parenting practices** – PMKs of children aged 2 to 11 years were asked numerous questions about their interaction with the child. Responses were then used to develop scales for four different parenting practices.

**Positive interaction** – praising the child, playing together, laughing together.

**Hostility** – PMK often annoyed with child, telling child he/she is bad or not as good as others.

**Consistency** – disciplining the same way for the same behaviours each time.

**Aversive** – PMK raises his/her voice when the child misbehaves, takes away privileges, uses physical punishment.

- ❑ **Social support** – measures level of support available to parents in terms of people the parent can discuss problems with, ask for advice or depend on for help in an emergency.
- ❑ **Depression** – measures the PMK's tendency to exhibit symptoms of depression, such as frequency of feeling "blue" in the preceding week.

<sup>1</sup> The sample excludes children who have been living in institutions for more than 6 months (for example, hospitals, child welfare residential facilities), Aboriginal children living on reserve, and children living in the territories.



children lived in a single-earner family where the working parent had a full-time job. Only 7% of children in two-parent families lived in homes where neither parent was employed. In contrast, 55% of children in lone-parent homes were with a parent who did not have a paid job.

The age of parents is also considered an important influence on child development. This is partly because income and labour force status tend to be quite different for younger and older parents. Among two-parent families in 1994, only 9% of children under 12 had parents under 30 years of age, compared with 35% of children in lone-parent families.

### Most children live in a positive family environment

Most Canadian children have a good relationship with their parents; for example, the majority of children aged 2 to 11 lived with parents who scored quite high for positive interaction and consistent parenting. Most children aged 4 to 11 years also had a good relationship with their siblings, with parents reporting that only 6% of children did not get along with their brothers and sisters. The great majority also had two or more good friends outside the family; in fact, only 10% of children aged 6 to 11 had only one friend or no friends at all.

Living in a family that receives help and encouragement from friends, relatives and neighbours is also important to a child's well-being. The NLSCY shows that the majority of children live in families where their parents have high levels of social support from people they can talk to or count on in an emergency.

The support parents receive from other adults is important since a parent's mental health can have a profound impact on a child. Some children live with a parent who exhibits symptoms of depression, and the lower the family income, the more likely this is the case. The NLSCY indicates that 17% of children in families with incomes under \$30,000 were living with a parent who showed symptoms of depression. In contrast, only 5% of children in families with incomes over \$60,000 had a parent with such tendencies.

**Child care a fact of life for many children** In 1994, 32% of children aged 0 to 11 years were in child care for an average of about 21 hours per week

while their parents were working or studying. The largest number of children (34%) were cared for in the home of a non-relative, usually a sitter; 21% were cared for by a relative, such as a grandmother, and another 16% by a child care centre. Another 14% were looked after in their own home by a non-relative, often a sitter. Just under 3%, usually older children, were left on their own or in the care of an older sibling.<sup>1</sup>



### HEALTHY PREGNANCIES AND HEALTHY BABIES

During the first three years of life, children's brains and nervous systems are growing and developing, and they are acquiring language, motor and social skills. A good foundation for healthy child development thus depends largely upon the mother's health and health habits during her pregnancy, and the baby's health at the time of birth. NLSCY data on children aged 0 to 1 year at the time of the survey (that is, born in 1993 or 1994) show that most Canadian children do get a healthy start in life.

### Most women avoid risk behaviours during pregnancy

The mother's general health during her pregnancy is important to fetal development. Almost all mothers of children aged 0 to 1 year in 1994 received prenatal care, with most under the care of a doctor (93%). During their pregnancies, almost 7% of these mothers

suffered from diabetes, 10% had high blood pressure and 18% reported some other physical health problem.

A baby's health can also be jeopardized by the mother's risk-related behaviours during pregnancy, especially smoking, alcohol and drug use.<sup>2</sup> Although there is overwhelming evidence that smoking in pregnancy leads to higher rates of low birth weight, stillbirth, prematurity and breathing problems at birth, almost one-quarter (24%) of children under age 2 in 1994 had been born to a mother who smoked while she was pregnant. Furthermore, most of these women (84%) had smoked throughout their pregnancy.

Despite many years of research, it is not known how much alcohol a pregnant woman can safely drink. However, it is known that abuse of alcohol during pregnancy, particularly around the time of conception and the first trimester, can lead to birth defects, learning problems and other developmental delays. The great majority of children (83%) had mothers who reported that they did not drink at all, while 7% were born to women who drank throughout their pregnancy.

Using prescription and over-the-counter drugs such as cold remedies can also affect

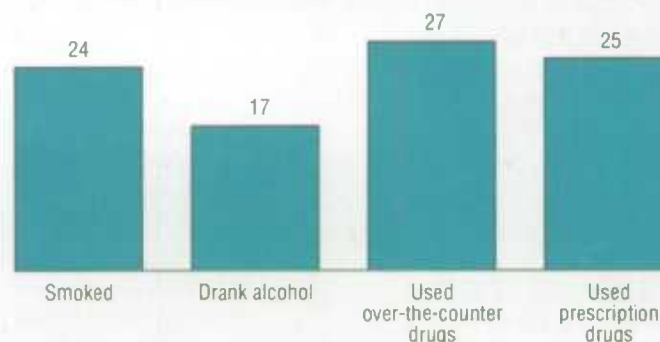
<sup>1</sup> Due to a questionnaire design problem, the proportion of children in their own care is underestimated.

<sup>2</sup> The data may underestimate the actual incidence of risk behaviours because women could be reluctant to report them.

### Many children under the age of 2 in 1994 had mothers who engaged in risk behaviours while pregnant

CST

% children aged 0-23 months



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

fetal development, especially in the first trimester. In 1994, the majority of children had mothers who avoided using either over-the-counter (73%) or prescription (75%) drugs while they were pregnant. The NLSCY did not collect information about the use of illicit drugs such as cocaine or marijuana.

**Almost one in five newborns needed special medical care at birth** Mothers reported that the overwhelming majority of children under age 2 in 1994 (88%) were in very good to excellent health immediately after birth. However, almost 18% had needed special medical care immediately after birth, including intensive care (6%), oxygen support with a ventilator (5%) and transfer to another hospital (1%). For the great majority of those infants requiring medical attention (82%), this special care lasted for no more than a week.

A small percentage of children (6%) were low birth weight babies. Research has shown that babies born weighing less than 2,500 grams risk delays in their development and may face physical limitations and psychosocial problems. Fortunately, several studies have found that when there is no severe disability, the majority of these infants will "catch up" to other children if they are provided with assistance and support.

The majority of mothers are well after delivery. Among women who had given birth in the 12 months preceding the survey, the most common physical complications were bleeding (7%) and infection (5%). Post-partum depression (not including the "blues" of the first week after birth) occurred in 12% of mothers, but lasted more than a month in only 4% of cases.

Most children under age 2 in 1994 (75%) were being or had been breastfed by their mothers. The benefits of breastfeeding are many, and include better development of social behaviours and strong protection against infectious diseases. Mothers usually stopped because of lack of milk or their return to work.



#### PARENTING STYLE MAKES A DIFFERENCE

Parenting practices are critical to children's growth and development. As such, researchers have long recognized that problems with

parenting contribute to the development of childhood disorders, especially conduct disorders. Much research has focused on the discipline style used by parents, but other studies have found that children's development is also affected by such factors as a parent's insensitivity, failure to monitor the child, lack of emotional availability or warmth, and hostility.

Four parenting practices are examined here. The first three – positive interaction, hostile/ineffective parenting and consistent parenting – measure the general interaction between parent and child, such as praising a child and expressing anger when punishing a child. The fourth practice – aversive parenting – describes the parent's reaction when the child breaks the rules, such as raising one's voice, using physical punishment or taking away the child's privileges.

#### Parenting style has greatest effect on children's social development

Previous studies have identified several key components of children's development as being important to their later success in school and work. These factors include motor and social development, language skills, helping behaviour, and relationships with others (parents, teachers, siblings and other children). All these characteristics are believed to be influenced by the nature of parents' interaction with their children.

On the whole, the NLSCY data indicate that most parents practised more positive

than negative parenting techniques. And although parenting practices were significantly related to most of the child outcomes identified here, they were most strongly associated with children's social relationships and their helping behaviour. For example, a correlation analysis shows that a parent's positive interaction is most highly associated with children's overall social relationships.<sup>3</sup> The correlation coefficient is +0.240, where the positive value indicates that the correlation is direct (high scores for positive interaction are related to high scores for social relationships) but the low value indicates that the association is not particularly strong.

In fact, the strongest correlation – a coefficient of -0.487 – is between hostile parenting practices and children's social relationships. The negative value indicates that high scores for hostile parenting are related to low scores for the child's ability to get along with others, and suggests that this type of parenting may be harmful to a child's development.

#### Effect of risk factors on child outcomes

Parenting practices are only one of a number of influences that affect children over

<sup>3</sup> Correlation coefficients range between -1 and +1. Coefficients closer to +1 indicate a strong positive relationship, meaning that parenting practices are closely associated with positive child development. In contrast, coefficients closer to -1 mean that parenting practices have a stronger relationship to negative child development. Values closer to zero indicate a very weak association between parenting practices and child outcomes.

#### Correlation between parenting practices and selected measures of child development

CST

##### Child development factors

	Overall social relationships	Helping behaviour		Motor and social development		Receptive vocabulary
		2-3 years	4-11 years	0-23 months	2-3 years	
Parenting practices						
Positive interaction	.240	.165	.179	.228	.175	.069
Hostility	-.487	-.021	-.235	.072	-.073	-.035
Consistency	.132	.114	.163	n/a <sup>1</sup>	.096	.146
Aversive parenting	-.320	-.167	-.238	n/a <sup>1</sup>	-.176	-.041

<sup>1</sup> Data not collected for children in this age group.  
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.



the long term. Numerous studies have concluded that children's development can be jeopardized by exposure to certain risk factors. The NLSCY data suggest that the risk factors with the greatest impact on children's development are low social support for the family, family dysfunction and parental depression. The effects of other risk factors are generally small, and in some cases, they do not appear to affect outcomes at all. For instance, recent immigrants aged 10 to 11 scored better on many developmental measures than children who have lived in Canada for more than 5 years; meanwhile, children of teenage parents and lone parents had higher scores for helping behaviour than other children.

The impact of individual risk factors may be marginal, but the effect of multiple risks is readily apparent. In 1994, about 4% of children under the age of 12 were exposed to four or more risk factors. Compared with other children, they showed significantly lower development scores for overall social relationships, helping behaviour and receptive vocabulary.

**Positive parenting can overcome harm from risk factors** However, parenting appears to be a much more significant contributor than risk factors to a child's development. The NLSCY findings show that children in at-risk situations generally had lower development scores than children who were not at risk. But at-risk children who had positive parenting scored at least as high as children in more favourable circumstances but who had negative parenting. Clearly, many factors can affect the child's outcome, but good parenting can counterbalance the negative effects of risk factors.



#### PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN IN LONE-MOTHER FAMILIES

Lone-parent families account for a growing proportion of families in Canada, and the overwhelming majority of them are headed by lone mothers. In 1994, one in six children under the age of 12 (15%) lived in lone-mother families. Unfortunately, many of these children are considerably disadvantaged compared with those from two-parent families.



#### Proportion of children aged 0 to 11 exposed to selected risk factors, 1994

CST

Risk factor	Age group		
	0-23 months	2-3 years	4-11 years
	%		
Lone parent family	12.3	16.7	16.3
Teenage parent family <sup>1</sup>	3.3	3.8	4.4
Low-income family	27.3	27.0	23.4
Low social support	3.6	3.4	3.4
Low education of PMK <sup>2</sup>	7.0	6.7	7.8
Depression of PMK	9.2	10.1	9.5
Dysfunctional family	8.3	9.7	8.2
Recent immigrant <sup>3</sup>	5.1	2.7	2.7
Four or more children at home	6.9	8.1	12.8
Difficult temperament	4.4	5.9	n/a <sup>4</sup>
Prenatal problem	29.0	n/a <sup>4</sup>	n/a <sup>4</sup>
Four or more risk factors	5.5	4.4	3.4

<sup>1</sup> Person most knowledgeable about the child (PMK) was less than 20 years old when the child was born.

<sup>2</sup> Person most knowledgeable about the child (PMK) had no more than Grade 8 education.

<sup>3</sup> Child arrived in Canada less than 5 years before the survey was conducted.

<sup>4</sup> Data not collected for children in this age group.

Source: Statistics Canada. Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

## Kids in lone-mother families at greater risk of having problems

Children from lone-mother families are more likely than children from two-parent families to encounter emotional or behavioural problems, academic and social difficulties. In 1994, 15% of 4 to 11-year-olds with lone mothers suffered an emotional disorder, compared with just under 8% of children with two parents.

Similarly, they were twice as likely to have academic difficulties: of those aged 6 to 11, 11% had repeated a grade and 6% had current problems at school, compared with 5% and 3%, respectively, of children from two-parent families.

These higher rates of difficulties are often attributed to the fact that many lone-mother families have low incomes. The large majority (71%) of children from

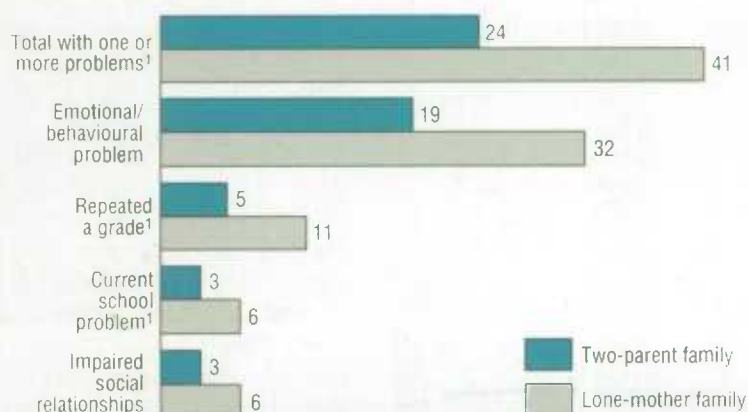
lone-mother families lived at or below the Statistics Canada Low Income Cut-offs (LICO) in 1994; in contrast, only 16% of children with two parents lived in low income families. However, the NLSCY data indicate that having a lone mother places a child at increased risk of emotional and behaviour problems, regardless of the family's income. For example, 17% of children in low-income lone-mother families were hyperactive, compared with 10% of children in low-income two-parent families. And while the rate was somewhat lower for children in lone-mother families above the LICO (14%), it was still higher than that for children in two-parent families above the cut-offs (10%).

Although both lone-mother status and low income are important risk indicators for childhood problems, analysis suggests that lone motherhood has a stronger influence. The likelihood that a child with a lone mother will have one or more behaviour problems was 1.8 times higher than that of a child with two parents, even when controlling for income differences between families. In contrast, the odds of a child from a low-income family having one or more behavioural problems was only 1.2 times that of a child who is not from a low-income family.

### Children from lone-mother families were more likely to have problems than other children

CST

% of children aged 4-11 years



<sup>1</sup> Data available only for children aged 6 to 11.  
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

### Low income and lone-mother status are both important risk indicators for childhood problems

CST

	Low income <sup>1</sup>		Not low income	
	Lone-mother	Two-parent	Lone-mother	Two-parent
	%			
Hyperactivity	16.7	9.6	13.7	9.6
Conduct disorder	19.2	9.2	13.2	7.9
Emotional disorder	16.7	8.6	11.6	7.3
One or more behaviour problems	33.5	21.0	27.9	18.3
Repeated a grade <sup>2</sup>	12.8	7.9	9.1	4.1
Impaired social relationships	7.4	4.6	3.8	2.1
One or more total problems <sup>2</sup>	43.5	28.9	35.8	22.6

<sup>1</sup> Income is equal to or below the Statistics Canada Low Income Cut-offs (LICO).

<sup>2</sup> Data available for children aged 6 to 11 only.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

### Majority of kids in lone-mother families do not have developmental problems

Clearly, children from lone-mother families are at greater risk of having one or more emotional/behavioural, academic or social problems. However, the large majority of children with such problems were from two-parent families simply because most children live with both parents. In 1994, 26% of all children aged 6 to 11 had a problem, and three-quarters of them came from two-parent families.

When considering the findings of this study, it must be remembered that parents' marital and income status may change over the course of their child's development. Some children are only temporarily in a lone-mother or low-income family, and the length of time they remain in these high-risk situations probably plays an important role in the prevalence and severity of childhood problems. Future cycles of the NLSCY will shed more light on this issue.





## CHILDREN IN STEPFAMILIES

Long-term trends in marriage and divorce have played a major role in changing family structures since the 1960s. About one in five people who married in the early 1990s had been married before. Some of these remarriages involved children from a previous relationship.

Most stepfamilies today are the result of divorce followed by remarriage. A stepfamily consists of a married or common-law couple, with at least one child who is the biological or adopted child of one partner but not the other. Stepfamily life is often complicated because the children have different relationships with the adults they live with: a direct relationship (biological or adoptive) with one parent, but an indirect relationship with the other parent (through remarriage or cohabitation). Adding to the complexity is the fact that many stepfamilies are "blended families" – they combine children born to the couple with children from previous marriages.

**Most stepchildren live in blended families** In 1994, almost 9% of Canadian children under the age of 12 were living in a stepfamily. Almost half of them were actual stepchildren, and the others had been born or adopted into stepfamilies. The majority of children in stepfamilies lived in a blended family, which most often included the couple's biological children and the wife's children from a previous relationship (that is, "their children" and "her children").

Most stepchildren lived with their natural mother and a stepfather and very few with their natural father and a stepmother; in fact, stepfathers outnumbered stepmothers five to one. The most common stepparenting relationship was the stepfather-stepdaughter relationship, while the least common was that between a stepmother and a stepdaughter.

**Children in stepfamilies have more trouble with their parents** The NLSCY interview with older children aged 10 and 11 provided valuable insights into

children's perceptions of family life. Many 10 and 11-year-old children in stepfamilies do not have a favourable view of their interactions with their parents. They were more likely than children from intact families to say they lack emotional support from their parents, with 33% compared with 27% reporting that their parents did not often express positive feelings for them, for example by smiling, praising them, and offering other signs of approval. Greater differences emerged with respect to erratic punishment (43% of children in stepfamilies and 33% of children from intact families) and difficulty in getting along with parents and siblings in the previous six months (44% and 28%, respectively).

Given the complicated nature of stepfamilies, it is not surprising that parent-child relationships in stepfamilies often seem more problematic than those in intact families. It is not clear if this is because of the way stepparents behave or the way stepchildren relate to them: if children believe that their parents reject them, it may affect the way the children respond to them, regardless of what the parents themselves believe they do. Yet although children in stepfamilies showed more dissatisfaction with their family relationships, the majority of them did report that they have moderate to good experiences with their parents.

- See this issue's **Educators' Notebook** for a suggested lesson plan based on this article.

- This article was adapted from **Growing Up in Canada**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

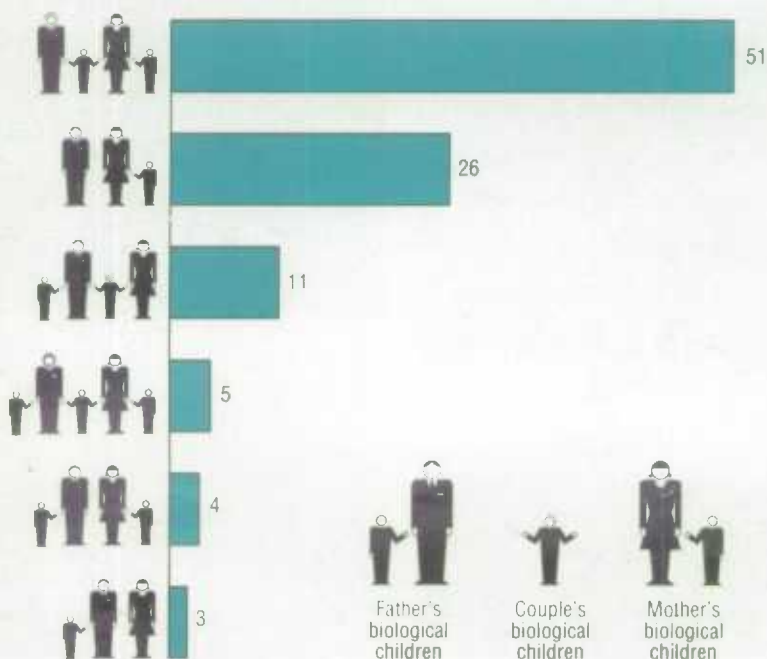
The authors of the studies excerpted here are, **David Cheal, Martin D. Dooley, Mark Kelly, Sarah Landy, Ellen L. Lipman, Lynn McIntyre, David R. Offord, David P. Ross, Katherine Scott,** and **Kwok Kwan Tam.**

**CST**

### The majority of children in stepfamilies lived in blended families in 1994

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% of children aged 0-11 years in stepfamilies



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

# SCHOOL LEAVERS REVISITED

by Warren Clark



Concern over Canada's economic prosperity has led to recognition that education is an important public issue. An economy that emphasizes new knowledge and technology is increasingly driven by skill, creativity and flexibility. This often means postsecondary education. Some young Canadians, however, never graduate from high school.

While most people who leave high school without graduating do find jobs, they are at a disadvantage in the labour market. They are more likely to be unemployed, to have lower earnings, and be less likely to work full-time all year round than those who completed high school or postsecondary education.<sup>1</sup>





According to the 1991 School Leavers Survey, 18% of 20-year-olds were school leavers – they had not graduated from high school and were not attending school. Four years later, the School Leavers Follow-up Survey found that some of these young people had gone back to school and had obtained a high school diploma. This reduced the school-leaver rate to 15% among those aged 24 in 1995. Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland and Quebec had the highest proportion of school leavers in 1995, while Saskatchewan and Alberta had the lowest.

**More graduates and fewer leavers than in 1991** Young people made various transitions over the four years between the two surveys. In 1995, 14% of those aged 22 to 24 were school leavers, compared with 16% when the respondents were aged 18 to 20 in 1991. Many young adults had difficulty completing high school after leaving. By 1995, only one-quarter of 1991 leavers had completed high school although about half were unhappy about their decision to leave. After leaving, many found work or raised a family. These responsibilities may inhibit some leavers from obtaining their high school diploma. Most of those in school in 1991 (88%) went on to graduate while 10% left without getting a diploma. The outcome of these transitions saw high school graduates increase to 85% in 1995 from 63% in 1991.

**High school graduation – the gateway to further education** Most high school graduates (80%) pursued further education or training toward a degree, certificate or diploma beyond high school. University education was the most common form of post-secondary education (42%), followed by college/CEGEP (29%).

In contrast, only one in four high school leavers pursued further studies; about half of them in trade/vocational or registered apprenticeship programs that often do not require high school graduation for admission. The employment outlook for graduates from these programs may be less favourable than that of high school graduates who go on to college or university. Statistics Canada's surveys of postsecondary graduates<sup>2</sup> from the early 1990s show that unemployment rates for trade/vocational graduates were at least double those for college graduates at two and five years after graduation.

**Unemployment rates highest among high school leavers** In 1995, unemployment rates were lowest among high school graduates who pursued further education. Leaving high school before graduation had a negative impact on young people's employment, particularly among women. Female leavers had the highest unemployment rate (30%) and the lowest percentage participating in the labour force among young people. In contrast, women who graduated from high school and pursued further studies had the lowest unemployment rate in 1995 (10%). Furthermore, their labour force participation equalled that of men.

Family responsibilities of female leavers may have affected their availability for paid work, restricted their job search and influenced their initial decision to leave school before graduation. In

1991, 27% of female leavers had dependent children while 4% of female high school graduates had children.

Between 1991 and 1995, unemployment rates for young people dropped for both leavers and high school graduates. Expectedly, over the four years between surveys, many young people developed their labour market skills through work experience and additional education or training. At the same time, unemployment rates for the entire labour force dropped to 9.5% from 10.4%.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUND

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### School Leavers Follow-up Survey

Between September and December 1995, Statistics Canada conducted the School Leavers Follow-up Survey (SLFS). It re-interviewed 6,300 young people aged 22 to 24 who responded to the 1991 School Leavers Survey (SLS) when they were aged 18 to 20. The SLFS asked them about their education, training and labour market experiences during the initial years after leaving or graduating from high school. Statistics Canada conducted both the 1991 SLS and the 1995 SLFS for Human Resources Development Canada.

### Smaller proportion of high school leavers four years later

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	At age 20 in 1991	At age 24 in 1995
	(%)	
Canada	18	15
Newfoundland	24	19
Prince Edward Island	25	21
Nova Scotia	22	17
New Brunswick	20	16
Quebec	22	19
Ontario	17	14
Manitoba	19	14
Saskatchewan	16	11
Alberta	14	11
British Columbia	16	13

Note: The 1991 high school leaver rate was based only on 20-year-olds because substantial proportions of youth aged 18 and 19 were still in high school.

<sup>1</sup> Statistics Canada, **Labour Force Historical Review**, 1995, Catalogue no. 71F0004XCB; **Earnings of Men and Women**, 1994, Catalogue no. 13-217-XPB; and unpublished tables from the Survey of Consumer Finances, 1994.

<sup>2</sup> 1991 Follow-up of 1986 Graduates Survey and 1992 Survey of 1990 Graduates.

**Most young people expect to take further training or education** The young people surveyed were very aware of the importance of education and training in achieving their employment goals. Most planned to take additional training or education in the next five years. This varied from 88% of high school graduates who had already pursued further studies, to 72% of high school leavers. Nonetheless, many high school leavers have paid work and family responsibilities that may

### By age 22 to 24, most school leavers have not received further education or training

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#### Highest level of education or training pursued after high school, 1995

	High school leavers	High school graduates
	%	
None	76	20
Trade/vocational/apprenticeship	12	7
College/CEGEP	8	29
University	--	42
Other	--	2

-- Data not reliable enough to publish.

Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995.

restrict their ability to obtain their high school diploma. The absence of a high school diploma may prevent admission to many postsecondary programs that develop skills for today's knowledge- and technology-based labour market. For leavers, acquisition of the skills needed in today's labour market can be an uphill battle.

### Most expect to work but some may not realize their expectations

Most young people expected paid work to be their primary activity by the year 2000. Work expectations varied from 84% of high school leavers to 92% of high school graduates with further education. If paid-work patterns in 1993 can be used as a guide, some of their plans may not be realized. Statistics Canada's Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics found that about two-thirds of the school leavers in their late twenties or early thirties worked for pay 15 or more weeks during 1993 compared with 94% of those with a university degree. Thus, there may be a gap between leavers' future paid work expectations and the actual work experiences of leavers in 1993.

Although one-quarter of the school leavers from 1991 had graduated by 1995, one in seven young people remained high school leavers at age 24. This places them at a disadvantage in the labour market. Increasingly, high school completion or higher is the minimum level of education needed for entry-level jobs. Furthermore, leavers may lack the basic capabilities needed to retrain and learn new skills. In an economy undergoing technological change and growing international competition, the ability to continue to learn throughout a lifetime is important.

• For more information on 1991 school leavers, see Sid Gilbert and Bruce Orok, "School Leavers," **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1993, **Leaving School**, Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, Catalogue no. LM-294-07-93E.

### Higher unemployment among school leavers

CST

	High school leavers	High school graduates	
		Without further education or training	With further education or training
	%		
<b>Labour force participation rates<sup>1</sup></b>			
Total	81	85	84
Men	91	92	84
Women	63	77	84
<b>Unemployment rates<sup>2</sup></b>			
Total	21	13	11
Men	17	14	11
Women	30	11	10

<sup>1</sup> Percentage of people who were either working or unemployed and actively looking for work and available for work.

<sup>2</sup> Percentage of labour force participants who were unemployed and actively looking for work and available for work.

Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995.

• For information on the 1995 follow-up survey, see **After high school - The first years - The first report of the School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995**, Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, Catalogue no. LM-419-09-96. This publication is also available on the Internet at: <http://www.hrde-drhc.gc.ca>.

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

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# NUNAVUT

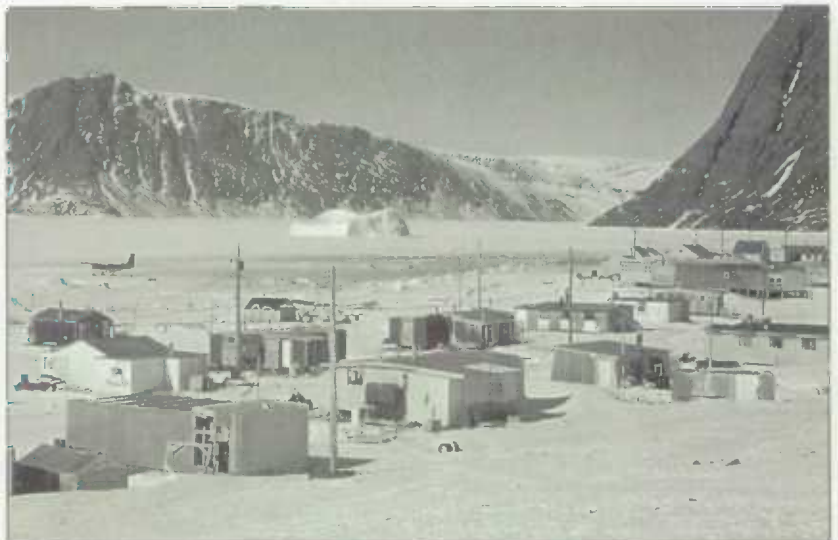
## Canada's Newest Territory in 1999

by Cameron W. Stout



Canada will have a new Northern territory in 1999, when the present Northwest Territories is divided in two. The eastern two-thirds of the existing Northwest Territories will be known as Nunavut, meaning "our land" in the Inuktitut language of the Inuit. The creation of this new territory is the result of an agreement made between the Inuit and the Canadian Government involving land settlement and aboriginal rights.

The Western region has yet to be named. A number of names are being considered. Among these are "Northwest Territories," "Denendeh" meaning "the land of the people" in the Athapaskan language of the Dene people, and "Nunakput" meaning "our land" in the Western arctic Inuktitut dialect.



Canada has a long history of dividing territories. The current Northwest Territories was once part of a much larger area known as "Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territory." The province of Manitoba was separated from this territory in 1870, the Yukon Territory in 1898 and the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905. In 1912, following the northwards extension of Manitoba,

Ontario and Quebec, the current boundaries of the Northwest Territories were established.

**Almost one quarter of Canada's land mass** Covering nearly 2,242,000 square kilometres, the Nunavut Territory will represent approximately 24% of all Canada's land mass and 69% of the existing Northwest Territories. Currently, the

Northwest Territories comprise five census divisions (CDs): Baffin, Keewatin, Kitikmeot, Inuvik and Fort Smith. With only minor boundary adjustments, the regions of Baffin, Keewatin and Kitikmeot (excluding the hamlet of Holman) will be combined to form the territory of Nunavut while the regions of Inuvik (including Holman) and Fort Smith will make up the Western territory.

### Most people in Nunavut have Inuit origins

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	Estimated 1995 population	% in 1991 with some Inuit origins
<b>Northwest Territories</b>	<b>65,800</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>Nunavut</b>	<b>24,900</b>	<b>84</b>
Baffin CD	13,300	80
Keewatin CD	7,000	88
Kitikmeot CD (excl. Holman)	4,600	87
Communities with populations 1,000 and over:		
Iqaluit	4,300	59
Rankin Inlet	2,100	78
Arviat	1,500	93
Baker Lake	1,400	89
Pangnirtung	1,300	93
Cambridge Bay	1,200	72
Coppermine	1,200	89
Pond Inlet	1,200	94
Cape Dorset	1,100	92
Igloolik	1,100	95
<b>Western territory</b>	<b>40,900</b>	<b>10</b>
Inuvik CD (incl. Holman)	9,600	35
Fort Smith CD	31,300	2
Communities with populations 1,000 and over:		
Yellowknife	18,500	3
Hay River	3,400	2
Inuvik	3,300	33
Fort Smith	2,500	4
Rae-Edzo	1,600	1
Fort Simpson	1,300	2

Sources: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, Estimates Section, Subprovincial population estimates, and 1991 Census.

### A small but growing population

Statistics Canada estimates that 24,900 people lived in the proposed Nunavut Territory in 1995. This compares with about 40,900 people living in the Western territory. Most of Nunavut's population is located in small towns and hamlets spread across Nunavut's large land mass. The largest centres are the town of Iqaluit (population 4,300 in 1995) and the hamlet of Rankin Inlet (population 2,100). In December 1995, Nunavut residents chose Iqaluit to be their capital.

### Fertility driving rapid population growth

Recent population growth rates for Nunavut have been among the highest in Canada. Between 1991 and 1995, Nunavut's population grew 10% – nearly double that of the Western territory (6%). This rapid population growth occurred within each of Nunavut's three Census Divisions. Keewatin's population grew 13%, followed by Baffin at 10% and Kitikmeot at 8%. These growth rates were very high compared to most other parts of Canada. Canada's overall population grew 5% over this four year period. However, provincial and territorial population growth varied considerably, ranging from a drop of almost 1% in Newfoundland to an increase of 11% in British Columbia. Nunavut's rate of growth was exceeded only by that of British Columbia.

Nunavut's high rates of population growth are mainly the result of natural increase. High fertility rates among its Aboriginal population and declining mortality rates have had the largest impact on Nunavut's population growth. Conversely, the larger non-Aboriginal population in the Western territory has lower fertility rates and consequently slower population growth. Interprovincial/territorial migration patterns have played only a minor role in determining Nunavut's growth in



## Some milestones in the creation of Nunavut

**1982: Plebiscite on division**

A plebiscite was held in the Northwest Territories to measure public support for dividing the territory into separate entities. A majority (56.5%) of voters answered "Yes" to the question "Do you think the Northwest Territories should be divided?"

**1992: Plebiscite to approve boundary**

In May of 1992, residents of the Northwest Territories voted to accept the proposed territorial boundary between Nunavut and the Western territory (54% of voters were in favour).

**1992: Inuit ratification vote**

In November 1992, the Inuit living within the boundaries of the proposed territory of Nunavut voted to accept a land claims agreement with the Canadian Government. Under the agreement, the Government of Canada would transfer a large land mass and a substantial cash settlement (\$1.14 billion to be paid over 14 years); in exchange, the Inuit would relinquish other lands within the proposed Nunavut Territory and their Aboriginal rights to such lands. Nearly 85% of the voting Inuit accepted the agreement. Inuit representatives and the Government of Canada signed the land claims Agreement on May 25th, 1993. The preamble to the Agreement states:

**"AN AGREEMENT****BETWEEN:**

*The Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area as represented by the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut*

**AND:**

*Her Majesty The Queen in Right of Canada.*

*WHEREAS the Inuit represented by the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut assert an aboriginal title to the Nunavut Settlement Area, more particularly described in Article 3, based on their traditional and current use and occupation of the lands, waters and land-fast ice therein in accordance with their own customs and usages;*

*AND WHEREAS the Constitution Act, 1982 recognizes and affirms the existing aboriginal and treaty rights of the aboriginal peoples of Canada, and treaty rights includes rights that may be acquired by way of land claims agreements;*

*AND WHEREAS the Parties agree on the desirability of negotiating a land claims agreement through which Inuit shall receive defined rights and benefits in exchange for surrender of any claims, rights, title and interests based on their assertion of an aboriginal title;*

*AND WHEREAS the Parties have negotiated this land claims Agreement based on and reflecting the following objectives:*

*to provide for certainty and clarity of rights to ownership and use of lands and resources, and of rights for Inuit to participate in decision-making concerning the use, management and conservation of land, water and resources, including the offshore;*

*to provide Inuit with wildlife harvesting rights and rights to participate in decision-making concerning wildlife harvesting;*

*to provide Inuit with financial compensation and means of participating in economic opportunities;*

*to encourage self-reliance and the cultural and social well-being of Inuit;*

*AND WHEREAS the Inuit, in a vote held on November 3 to 6, 1992, approved the Agreement and authorized it to be signed by the duly appointed officers of the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut;*

*AND WHEREAS following the Inuit ratification vote the Parties completed the text of Article 40 and certain other parts of the Agreement and finalized the text for purposes of clarity, all pursuant to their authority under the Agreement as approved by the Inuit ratification vote;*

*AND WHEREAS Cabinet authorized the Minister to sign the Agreement;*

*AND IN RECOGNITION of the contributions of Inuit to Canada's history, identity and sovereignty in the Arctic".<sup>1</sup>*

<sup>1</sup> Indian and Northern Affairs Canada and Nunavut Tungavik Inc., **Agreement between the Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area and Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada**, Catalogue no. R32-134/1993E. Reproduced with the permission of the Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 1996.

**1993: Parliament – the final step**

The Canadian Parliament passed the *Nunavut Act* on June 10, 1993, to bring the Nunavut Territory into legal and political existence by April 1, 1999.

• For more information on the creation of Nunavut, see Information Sheet No. 55, "Creating the New Territory of Nunavut", March 1996, available from the Public Enquiries Kiosk, Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0H4, telephone (819) 997-0380. This information is also available on the Internet at <http://www.inac.gc.ca>.

population. More people left both Nunavut and the Western territory between 1993 and 1994 than moved in.

**Most people in Nunavut Inuit** Perhaps the strongest argument for redefining the

boundaries of Canada's Northwest Territories is the cultural difference between the residents in the East and the residents in the West. According to the 1991 Census, 63% of all persons living in the original Northwest Territories were of

non-Inuit ethnicity, down from 65% in 1986. However, most of the Inuit population is concentrated within the boundaries of the new Nunavut Territory, while most of the non-Inuit population live in the Western territory. In 1991, 84% of the Nunavut population described themselves as either partially or entirely of Inuit descent. Inuit were the majority in all three census divisions that comprise Nunavut. In contrast, they made up only 10% of the population in the Western territory, nearly all on the northern coast of Inuvik region.

Although there is a large concentration in Nunavut, a substantial proportion of Canada's Inuit live in adjacent regions. While over one-third (36%) of Canadians reporting some Inuit ancestry lived in the Nunavut Territory, another 17% lived in Quebec, 7% in the Western territory and 10% in Labrador. The remaining 30% were widely distributed across other parts of Canada. Nunavut residents accounted for over half (53%) of Canadians who reported only Inuit as their ancestry in 1991.

### **Inuktitut the mother tongue of three-quarters of the people of Nunavut**

Language is another factor that differentiates the people of Nunavut from residents in the Western territory. In 1991, 74% of people in Nunavut reported Inuktitut as their mother tongue, compared with only 2% in the Western territory.

Among Nunavut residents who could speak a language other than English or French, nearly all spoke Inuktitut. In contrast, many people in the Western territory spoke Athapaskan languages. More people in Inuvik region could speak South Slave (11%) than could speak Inuktitut (9%). While fewer than 1% of people in the Fort Smith region could speak Inuktitut, 9% spoke Dogrib, 6% spoke South Slave and 3% spoke Chipewyan in 1991.

A strikingly large proportion (20%) of people in Nunavut spoke neither English nor French. Almost eight in ten residents could speak English and fewer than 5% of people in Nunavut reported that they could speak French. In comparison, 98% of people in the Western territory could speak English and almost 8% could speak French. Only 2% spoke neither official language.

## **CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER**

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### **1996 Census**



The 1996 Census population information was not yet available when this article went to press. Results will begin to be released in the Spring of 1997. Although the 1996 Census boundaries for statistical areas do not conform to

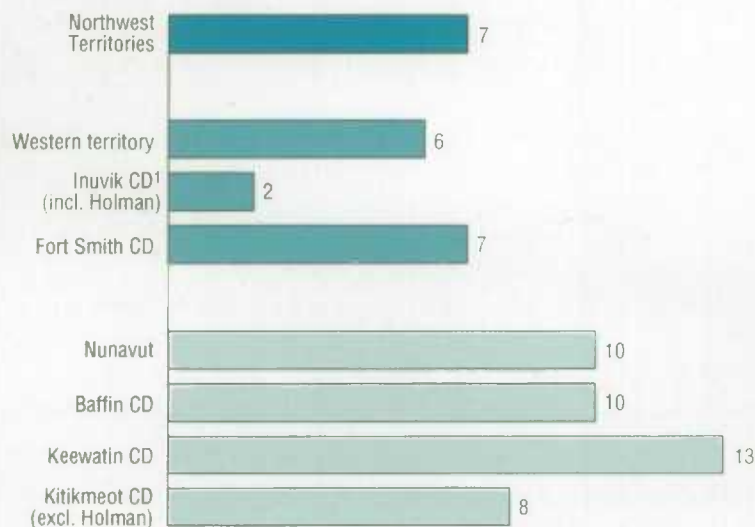
those of the proposed Nunavut Territory, census division and subdivision information can be used to derive information on Nunavut's population. In this article, values for Nunavut were derived by summing the values for Baffin, Keewatin and Kitikmeot census divisions, less the census subdivision of Holman.

- For information on 1996 Census releases, check Statistics Canada's World Wide Web site on the Internet at <http://www.statcan.ca>, or call one of the Regional Reference Centres listed in this publication.

## **Population has grown rapidly in the Nunavut Territory**

**CST**

% population growth 1991-1995



<sup>1</sup> Census division.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, Estimates Section, Subprovincial population estimates.



New territory of Nunavut covers nearly one-quarter of Canada's land mass

CST

## NUNAVUT TERRITORY



 Nunavut Territory

 Western territory (name to be determined by 1999)

- Census Subdivision with population greater than 1,000 based on the 1995 population estimates

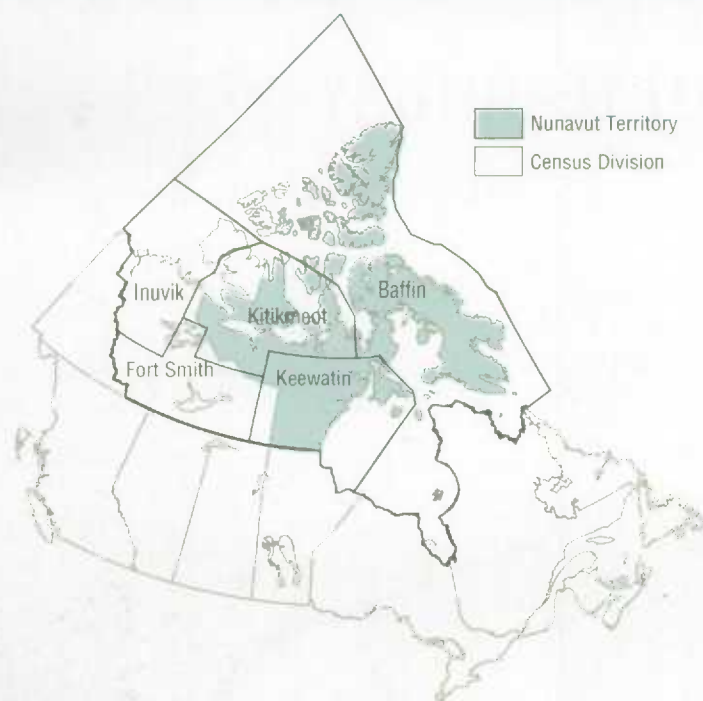
Source: Geography Division, Statistics Canada, 1996.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CST

## Northwest Territories and census divisions

CST



Source: Geography Division, Statistics Canada, 1996.

Among the 26,800 Canadians who were able to speak Inuktitut in 1991, 63% lived within the boundaries of the proposed Nunavut Territory. The Western territory accounted for only 4% of Inuktitut speakers in Canada, while Quebec accounted for 27%, Labrador 3% and other parts of Canada 3%. In Nunavut, the Inuktitut language is compulsory in elementary schools – evidence of concern that Inuktitut is being spoken less with each passing year. The widespread knowledge and use of Inuktitut, however, underscores the existence within Nunavut of a society sustaining a common Inuit culture.

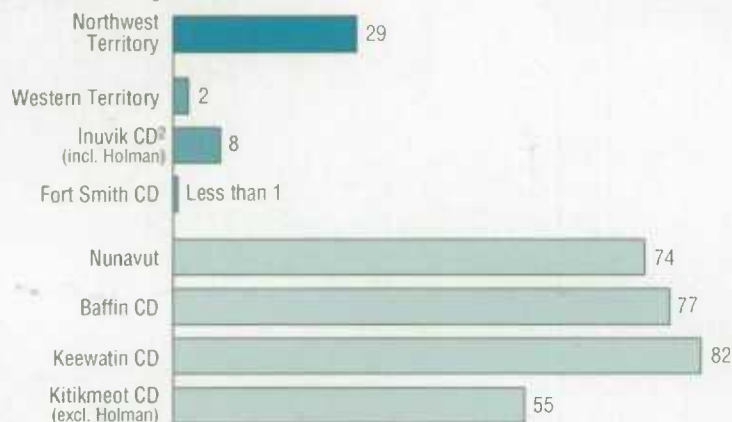
• For information on the northern economy, see "Employment and industrial development in the North" and "Northern earnings and income" in the Spring 1997 issue of **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no.75-001-XPE.

**Cameron W. Stout** is an analyst with the Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

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## Inuktitut the mother tongue of over 7 in 10 people in Nunavut

CST

% with mother tongue<sup>1</sup> Inuktitut in 1991

<sup>1</sup> Excludes people reporting more than one mother tongue. Mother tongue is the first language learned by a person and still understood.

<sup>2</sup> Census division.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census.



# Canadian Television

## in Transition



by Tom Gorman and Susan Crompton

**I**n the early days of television, the power of the image was immense and its novelty quickly displaced traditional leisure activities. Soon, families started to congregate around the set, much to the delight of couch manufacturers. Other businesses were delighted, too, as television offered a powerful advertising medium coupled with a rapidly growing base of potential customers. However, times have changed: the number of stations has proliferated, the humble television set has been elevated to a multi-purpose entertainment unit, and other activities make substantial claims on viewers' time. These forces are splitting apart the mass audience on which conventional broadcast television depends. The fragmentation has prompted advertisers to re-direct some of their business elsewhere, thus jeopardizing broadcasters' ability to pay for programming that will lure viewers – and advertising dollars – back to television.

### The economics of private broadcasting

Conventional television broadcasting is fairly simple: the television station transmits a radio signal, a TV antenna receives the "off-air" signal and viewers watch the program being "broadcast." The basic economics of private television broadcasting are fairly simple as well.<sup>1</sup> Broadcasters cannot charge for the service they provide the viewer (entertainment), so they charge for the service they provide businesses (advertising to potential customers). In 1995, advertisers bought over \$1.4 billion worth of air-time, accounting for 94% of total revenues reported by private television stations. But in recent years, advertising income has not been growing. Air-time sales for broadcast television were almost stagnant between 1989 and 1995, increasing only 5% after inflation is taken into account. Over the same period, employment declined by 3% and net profits before taxes plunged 167% in two years (to -\$75 million in 1991) before recovering to \$92 million in 1995.<sup>2</sup>

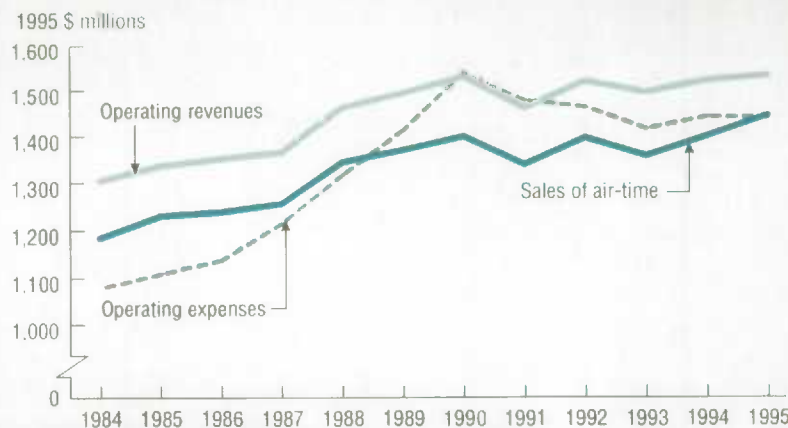
Broadcasters have often attributed much of their trouble to the introduction of pay-TV and specialty television services

such as MuchMusic, The Sports Network, CBC Newsworld, YTV and the Arts & Entertainment network. But the decline of conventional broadcasting was

underway before pay-TV and the specialty channels were launched. To all intents and purposes, it had begun twenty years before.

### Air-time sales in 1995 met operating costs of private television for the first time since the late 1980s

CST



Source: Statistics Canada, **Radio and Television Broadcasting**, Catalogue no. 56-204-XPB; and **Service Bulletin: Communications**, Catalogue no. 56-001-XPB.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CST

### A brief history of broadcasting in Canada

The first daily television broadcast in North America was made in 1939, from the site of the World's Fair in New York. The popularity of the new medium was such that, by 1951, there were 12 million television sets in the United States and 90,000 in Canada, all receiving American programming.

Canadian television history began in September 1952, when the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) first broadcast from Montreal and Toronto. At that time, there were 146,000 television sets in Canada; three months later, there were 224,000. By 1956, 27 private and CBC-owned stations had sprung up, serving three-quarters of the population of 15 million. All the stations carried more than 50 hours of CBC-affiliated programming a week, almost half of which were Canadian.

Over time, some stations abandoned their CBC affiliation to become independent. Although they became responsible for their own programming and had no share in the CBC network revenues, they were now free to purchase

American programming, the supply of which was cheaper and more varied than the homegrown product. In 1961, almost a decade after television had come to Canada, the CTV Television Network was created. CTV was a "cooperative" of newly licensed stations and older stations that had dropped their CBC affiliation. It did not – and still does not – actually own any stations; rather, it operates through a system of affiliates that carry a certain amount of common programming and share the network's profits.

In the late 1960s, the TVA Television Network was created, a French language network operating in the same manner as CTV. In the mid-1980s, Télévision Quatre Saisons (TQS) network was inaugurated, also operating along similar lines. Smaller networks such as CanWest/Global were also created.

By 1994, there were 101 private television stations in Canada: 33 were affiliated with CTV (18 full and 15 supplementary affiliates), 31 with the CBC (26 English and 5 French), 10 with TVA and 8 with TQS. The remaining 19 private stations were independent.



**Broadcast television's reign is challenged** In the 1960s, cablevision came to Canada. With better reception and more channels than could be plucked out of the air with an antenna, people were willing to pay for cable service. By 1995, 7.8 million households subscribed to cablevision.

Cable's real challenge to conventional "off-air" broadcasting was not simply that it offered more channels, but that it offered channels that were not "broadcast" over the airwaves at all. Cable made possible the development of pay-TV and specialty services, channels that were distributed directly by cable operators to paying subscribers. Compared to the conventional broadcasting networks, pay-TV and the specialty services are "boutiques" catering to audiences with particular tastes and interests. This feature was attractive to viewers, who could see more of their preferred type of programming; it was also attractive to advertisers, who could target the most desirable audience for their products.

Pay-TV and two specialty services (MuchMusic and The Sports Network) were introduced in 1983. Pay-TV could not carry commercials, but the specialty channels could, and as more specialty services were licensed in 1989 and again in 1995, the Canadian television viewing audience was fragmented still further. As of 1995, there were almost five times more subscribers than in 1989 (5.5 million) to pay-TV and the specialty services. All were competing with conventional broadcasting for much the same audience.

**Fighting for the mass audience is costly** Holding a television audience depends on programs. And programming, whether produced or purchased, constitutes the largest single operating expense for private broadcasters. It has consumed an ever increasing share of operating revenues over the past decade, rising from an average 49% of revenues between 1984 and 1988 to 54% between 1989 and 1995.<sup>3</sup>

In 1995, private broadcasters spent \$825 million on programming – about \$469 million directly on Canadian programs, \$281 million on non-Canadian programs, and another \$75 million on production and miscellaneous program costs. The largest share of the money devoted to

### Program expenses of privately owned television broadcasters in Canada, 1995

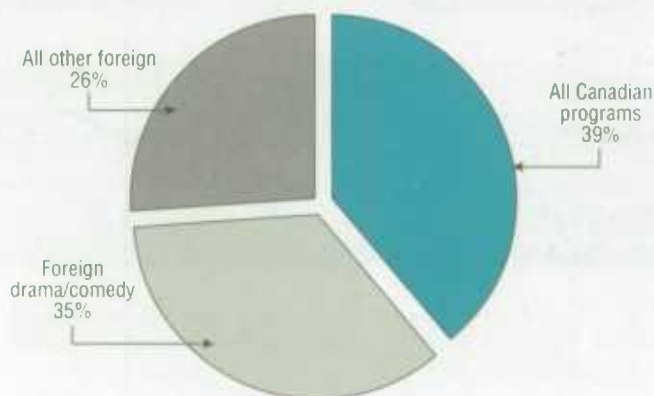
CST

	News/ information	Sports	Comedy/ Drama	Variety/ Games/ Music	Human interest	TOTAL
	\$ 000s					
Program cost	301,617	46,503	281,044	56,764	63,768	749,695
Canadian	286,318	41,793	56,671	40,689	43,277	468,748
Non-Canadian	15,299	4,710	224,373	16,375	20,491	280,948
Other program expenses						13,312
Production expenses						62,199
<b>TOTAL</b>						<b>825,206</b>

Source: Statistics Canada, **Service Bulletin: Communications**, Catalogue no. 56-001-XPB

### Over one-third of Canadians' viewing time was spent watching foreign dramas and comedies

CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Television Viewing Data Bank, 1995.

Canadian programs was dedicated to news and information (61%), with drama and comedy (12%) and human interest (9%) accounting for the next largest shares of expenditures. Of the money spent on non-Canadian programming, most (80%) was used to buy dramas and comedies from American networks or independent producers.

The decision to purchase dramas is understandable, since news and public affairs programs do not generate enough revenue to cover production costs, while

<sup>1</sup> This article does not discuss the CBC because most of the financial and employment data that the corporation provides cannot be compared to data reported by private broadcasters.

<sup>2</sup> All dollar values in this article have been converted to constant 1995 dollars using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) to adjust for inflation.

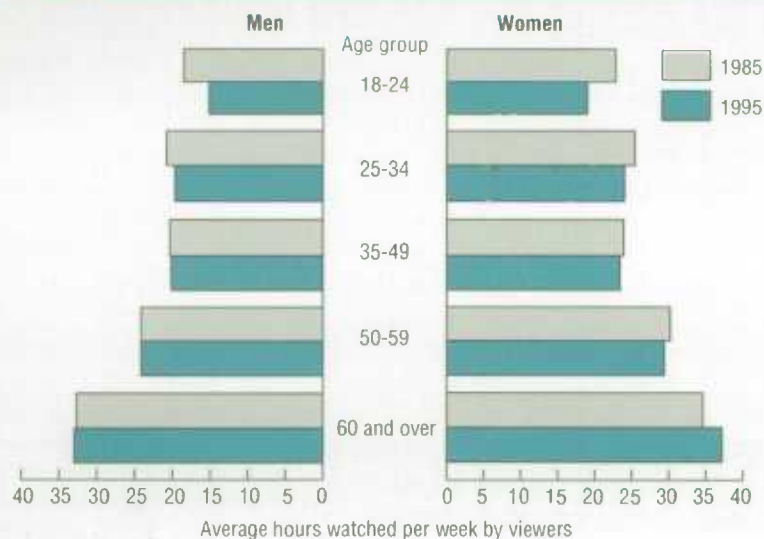
<sup>3</sup> Although the period of increased programming costs coincides with the first wave of specialty television expansion, other factors also affected costs. For example, during this period the Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC) was pressing private broadcasters to spend more on Canadian programming; meanwhile, the small CanWest/Global Network was aggressively pursuing U.S. programs, thus driving up prices for foreign dramas and comedies.

dramas are money-makers. Buying foreign dramas is doubly tempting because they attract the biggest audiences: in 1995, Canadians spent almost as much

time watching foreign comedy and drama (35% of viewing time) as they did watching *all* Canadian-produced programming combined (39%).

### Viewing hours have declined most sharply among young men and women

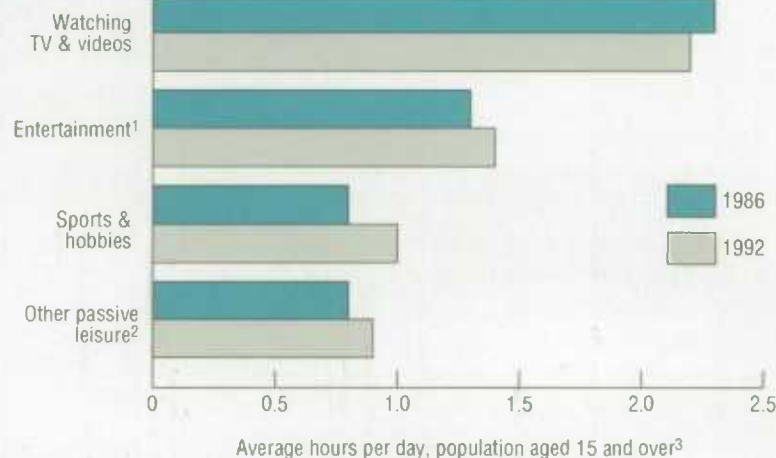
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Source: Statistics Canada, **Television Viewing, 1985**, Catalogue no. 87-208-XPB; and Television Viewing Data Bank, 1995.

### Canadians now spend less time watching television and more on other leisure activities

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<sup>1</sup> Includes attending cultural/sports events, socializing.

<sup>2</sup> Includes reading, writing letters.

<sup>3</sup> Average includes non-participants.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986 and 1992.

### People spend more time doing other things

Although the new specialty services became direct competitors to broadcasting in the 1980s, not all the decline can be blamed on more specialized channels. VCRs, camcorders and computer games have transformed millions of television sets into multi-purpose home-entertainment centres. These leisure activities have eroded broadcasters' power to attract audiences for their shows. The number of hours Canadians of all ages watch television has declined quite steadily in the last decade; in 1995, they spent 23.2 hours per week in front of the tube, down almost one hour from 1985. The decline was most prominent among young Canadian adults: men and women aged 18 to 24 watched much less television – down 3.4 and 3.8 hours per week, respectively – than they had a decade earlier. Young adult viewers are a highly desirable market and if they are not watching television, then advertising budgets will probably be spent elsewhere.<sup>4</sup>

Data from the 1986 and 1992 General Social Surveys (GSS) on time use suggest that television is becoming less important as a leisure activity. In 1992, it was still the principal daily leisure activity for Canadians aged 15 and over – accounting for about 2.2 hours each day (including watching videos) – but people spent more time doing other things than they did in 1986.<sup>5</sup> On any given day of the week in 1992, 37% of Canadians over age 14 were engaged in sports and hobbies (up from 29% in 1986), and 42% in "active leisure" such as attending entertainment events and socializing with friends and family (up from 37%). This increasing participation in other activities is part of a long-term trend. The proportion of Canadians devoting their free time to such pursuits as attending live stage performances and going to movies and

<sup>4</sup> The greatest number of viewing hours are recorded by Canadians aged 60 and over – 33 hours per week for men and 37 hours for women in 1995 – but this age group is not a prime target for advertisers. This may change as the baby boom ages and demand rises for goods and services designed for older consumers.

<sup>5</sup> The GSS estimate of average viewing time per day is calculated for all survey respondents, whether or not they actually watched TV. Therefore, the GSS daily estimate will not match the weekly viewing times published by the Television Viewing Data Bank, which are calculated for viewers only.





museums has grown significantly since 1969.

### Broadcast television faces continuing challenge

Canadian pay-TV and specialty services received \$352 million in fee payments from cable companies in 1994, but attracted only about 10% of the potential viewing audience (CRTC, 1994). By contrast, 78% of the potential audience watched conventional stations, yet most broadcasters received little if anything from the cable industry. Several years ago, the Canadian Association of Broadcasters proposed that cable operators pay broadcasters for the right to carry their signals. This idea may appeal to broadcasters but cable subscribers, who would have to pay higher fees each month, might not be so enthusiastic. In the meantime, broadcasters are now allowed to air "infomercials" during the regular broadcast day, but this concession is unlikely to provide the infusion of

funds needed to combat advertising revenues lost to competitors and dwindling audiences.

As the next century approaches, a new competitor is emerging: direct-to-home satellite broadcasting. This new technology will inevitably fragment the viewing audience still further and divert more advertising dollars away from broadcast television. Broadcasters wondering about the industry's future are responding to the challenge in different ways. Some are selling up and leaving broadcasting. Some have decided that if they cannot beat the competition, they will join it; in fact, broadcasters have an interest in 16 of the 23 new channel licenses granted by the CRTC in late 1996. Still other broadcasters are buying stations and consolidating operations to cut costs. The future impact of these changes is unclear, but they will be substantial.

**Tom Gorman** is an analyst with the Science and Technology Redesign Project at Statistics Canada, and **Susan Crompton** is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CST

### The rise of the VCR

Since the early 1980s, VCRs have flooded into Canadian homes. In 1984, only 13% of households had a VCR, but a decade later, 79% owned one. That VCRs are particularly popular among young people is shown in data about usage rates. According to the 1992 General Social Survey, over 90% of Canadians aged 15 to 24 had watched at least one movie on a VCR in the past year, while a much smaller proportion of older Canadians had done so – 63% of adults aged 45 to 59 and only 33% of those aged 60 and over.

On a typical day in 1992, 5% of Canadians over age 14 spent 2.5 hours watching movies on their VCRs. In contrast, 72% of Canadians spent 2.8 hours a day watching television. These statistics suggest that the time devoted to VCR movies would scarcely seem a threat to television. But the most avid consumers of video movies are among the most important markets for television advertisers: younger people and higher-income households.

Households maintained by someone under age 25 were keen renters of video movies (73% of young households), and they also spent the most money on videos, an average of about \$220 in 1992. Slightly older households (maintained by someone aged 25 to 34) were marginally more likely to be video-renters (77%), but they allocated considerably less money, only about \$150.

Video rentals are in greatest demand in high income households. About 81% of households in the top 20% income bracket (highest quintile) spent almost \$165 on video rentals. In contrast, only 25% of households in the lowest income quintile were video-renters, paying about \$100 in 1992.

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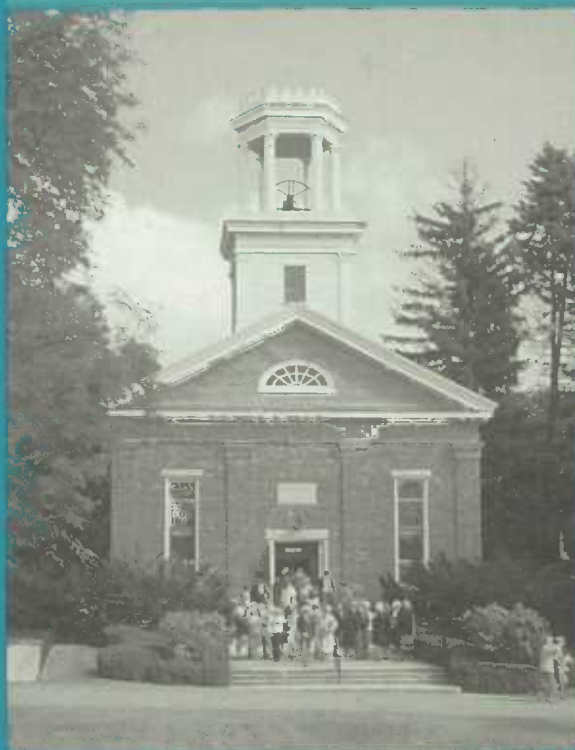
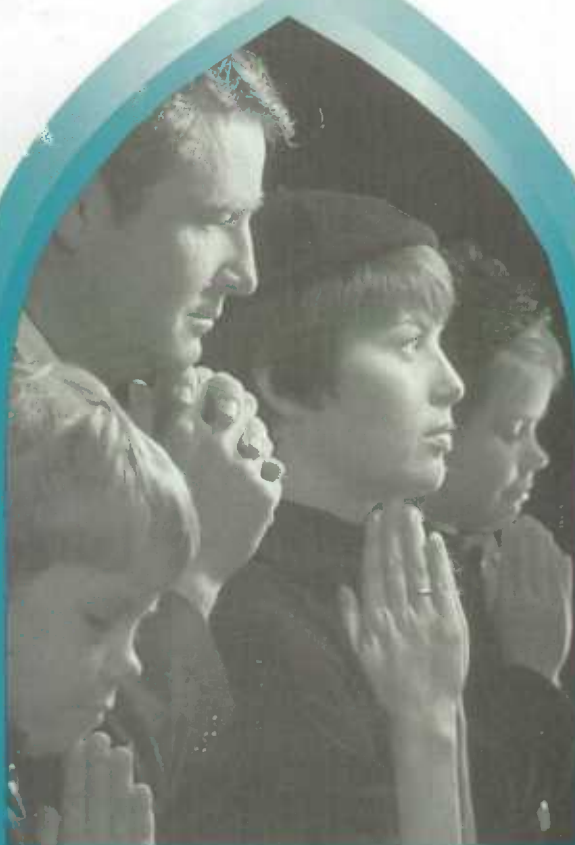
# The Persistence of Christian Religious Identification in Canada

by Reginald W. Bibby

Organized religion in Canada is approaching the next millennium with fewer participants and considerably less influence than it had fifty years ago. About forty years ago, more than half of Canadians attended church services every week; today, that proportion has dropped to less than one-quarter.<sup>1</sup> But despite their declining participation in religious life, most Canadians (87% in 1991) still think of themselves as Catholic, Protestant, or members of other faiths.

This article addresses the paradox of religious affiliation in the absence of religious involvement. Using the 1991 Census (the most recent census to collect data on religion), the analysis focuses on the role that the family and assimilation play in the perpetuation of religious identification.

<sup>1</sup> For a summary of some of the findings on religion's impact socially and individually, see Reginald W. Bibby, **Fragmented Gods**, Toronto: Stoddart, 1987; and **Unknown Gods**, Toronto: Stoddart, 1993.





### Parents the key source of religious identification

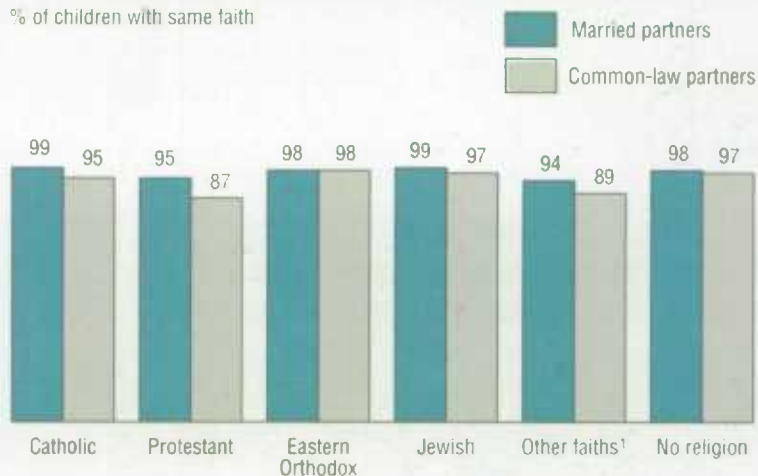
In 1991, 85% of married couples (including common-law) belonged to the same religious group. This tendency is important to religious identification because people who marry partners of the same faith are inclined to pass that faith on to their children. Between 94% and 99% of couples, depending on the faith, reported that their children had the same religious identification. Similarly, parents who do not identify with any religion generally reported that their children had no religion. Thus, when both parents belong to the same faith, religious identification (and non-identification) tends to pass from one generation to the next. In the few exceptions to the rule, parents usually indicated that their children described themselves as having no religion.

**Children in interfaith marriages often have their mother's religion** Interfaith marriage, including common-law unions, is the principal contributor to differences

### Children usually share their parents' religion when partners have the same faith

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% of children with same faith



<sup>1</sup> Eastern non-Christian religions and para-religious groups.  
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 1991.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

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### Untangling religious identification and religiosity

In the 1960s, social scientists turned away from the simple, nominal-level measure of religious group identification such as the census question on religion. Instead, they began to focus on more sophisticated objective and subjective measures of "religiosity" – such as beliefs, experiences, and knowledge.<sup>1</sup> Today, however, it is clear that identification with a religious group has importance apart from beliefs, attendance and perceived personal commitment. The sheer tendency to identify with a religious tradition – to remain what might be called an "affiliate" – appears to have some important cultural, psychological, and emotional meanings that need to be understood more clearly.<sup>2</sup>

Research on the meaning of "identification" in Canada is still in its early stages. One recent attempt to broach this subject, the *Project Canada* survey of 1995, found that "affiliates" of religious groups are not inclined to adopt other religions. Most attach importance to their identification. The survey also found that affiliates would consider being more involved in the activities of their religious groups if they found it worthwhile for themselves or their families.<sup>3</sup>

Despite their limitations, census data on affiliation are potentially valuable because they help to shed light on the

nature, sources, and consequences of religious identification. Census data on religion were first captured in 1871 and have been collected in every decennial census since then. The most recent information available is from the 1991 Census. Respondents were asked to specify "the religion" of each person in the household, even if they were not a practising member of that faith. If they wished, respondents could answer "no religion." Information about children refers to never-married sons and daughters living at home with their parents at the time of the census, and therefore covers primarily younger children rather than adult children. (In 1991, 83% of children living with their parents were under the age of 20.)

<sup>1</sup> See Charles Y. Glock and Rodney Stark, *Religion and Society in Tension*. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1965; Will Herberg, *Protestant, Catholic, Jew*. New York: Doubleday, 1960; and Gerhard Lenski, *The Religious Factor*. New York: Doubleday, 1961.

<sup>2</sup> For a discussion of the possible significance of identification, see Bibby, *Unknown Gods*, 1993.

<sup>3</sup> Reginald W. Bibby, *The Bibby Report: Social Trends Canadian Style*. Toronto: Stoddart, 1995.

in religious identification between parent and child. In these marriages, which accounted for 15% of unions in 1991, the key issue is not whether one partner converts to the other's faith, but how the children are raised. And here the pattern is clear: when couples of different religions marry or cohabit, the women tend to raise their children in their own tradition, including not having religion.

Catholics and Protestants tend to gain affiliates when marital relationships cross religious lines, while other religious groups and those professing "no religion" usually lose adherents. The reason for this is fairly straightforward: since there are relatively large numbers of Catholic and Protestant women, they bring

large numbers of offspring to their religions when they marry men from different faiths or with no religion. The only exception to this "mirroring of mothers" pattern occurs when women of other faiths marry outside their religious groups. In these inter-faith marriages, the women are more inclined to raise their children in their husband's tradition rather than their own.

The same basic pattern is found when one marriage partner reports that he or she has no religion. But since it is usually the men who report having "no religion" (74% in 1991), and since it is most often mothers who pass on their religion, the majority of children (56%) of these inter-faith marriages had a religious affiliation (almost all Catholic or Protestant). Here again, mothers' propensity

### Children of interfaith marriages are most likely to have the same faith as their mothers

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Religion of				Religion of Children					
Mother	Father	No. of Couples <sup>1</sup>	No. of Children	Catholic	Protestant	Eastern Orthodox	Jewish	Eastern non- Christian	No religion
%									
Catholic	Protestant	259,130	324,590	70	11	--	--	--	9
	Eastern Orthodox	12,735	14,920	54	1	39	--	--	6
	Jewish	3,070	3,480	38	2	--	25	--	35
	Eastern non-Christian	7,600	10,370	57	1	--	--	21	20
	No religion	82,745	106,525	67	3	--	--	--	30
Protestant	Catholic	254,105	320,940	42	44	--	--	--	14
	Eastern Orthodox	10,300	11,540	2	55	29	--	--	14
	Jewish	3,555	3,720	2	38	--	26	--	34
	Eastern non-Christian	5,735	7,520	1	45	--	--	26	28
	No religion	126,935	145,900	1	58	--	--	--	41
Eastern Orthodox	Catholic	8,625	9,380	62	4	28	--	--	7
	Protestant	6,595	6,560	4	47	36	--	--	13
Jewish	Catholic	2,055	2,310	28	1	1	45	--	25
	Protestant	2,520	2,740	1	23	--	52	--	24
Eastern non- Christian	Catholic	3,195	3,865	58	4	--	--	12	26
	Protestant	3,220	3,500	2	42	--	--	26	29
	No religion	4,415	6,035	3	5	--	--	22	70
No religion	Catholic	35,050	44,630	40	3	--	--	--	57
	Protestant	35,115	38,630	2	27	--	--	--	71
	Jewish	1,225	1,365	2	6	--	29	--	62
	Eastern non-Christian	2,365	3,165	5	4	--	--	22	70

<sup>1</sup> Includes husband-wife couples with and without children living at home.

-- Estimate not reliable enough to publish.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 1991.



to raise their children in their own faith appears to ensure the continued flow of adherents to the Catholic and Protestant religions.

Generally speaking, most smaller religious groups are losing some of their children to the mainstream Christian traditions, or to no tradition at all. For example, the 1991 General Social Survey shows that although one-third (32%) of Canadians of non-European ancestry born outside Canada identified with non-Christian faiths, only one-tenth (10%) of those born in Canada did so. The only notable exception to the general rule of assimilation is Judaism, which appears to hold its own in interfaith marriages.

**Only one in thirty-three identify with major non-Christian religions** Despite the stimulus of immigration from countries where other major world religions are predominant, faiths other than Christianity are not making significant inroads in Canada. Overall, the proportion of people claiming affiliation with Eastern non-Christian religions – such as Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, and

Sikhism – comprised less than 3% of the population in 1991. Generally speaking, members of faiths that comprise less than 1% of the population often find that their children befriend, date, and marry people from other cultural and religious groups.

Most adherents of the Eastern non-Christian religions (67% in 1991) are immigrants, mainly from the Middle East and Asia. In contrast, a relatively small proportion of Catholics and Protestants (both 13% in 1991) are immigrants.

**“New religions” have few affiliates** Contrary to media reports and popular anecdotes, very few Canadians describe themselves as adherents of “new religions.” In 1991, less than 30,000 Canadians (about one in 1,000) identified as members of para-religious groups like Scientology, New Age, Pagan, Theosophical, Metaphysical and other faiths. The persistence of identification with traditional religions suggests that Canada has an extremely tight religion “industry” dominated by Catholic and Protestant organizations. New “entries” find the going extremely tough.

## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

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### No religion? A call for caution

In the 1991 Census, 12% of Canadians reported that they had no religious affiliation, a three-fold increase from 4% in 1971. The Yukon and British Columbia had the highest proportion of people with no religious affiliation (more than 30%) and Quebec, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland the lowest (less than 5%).

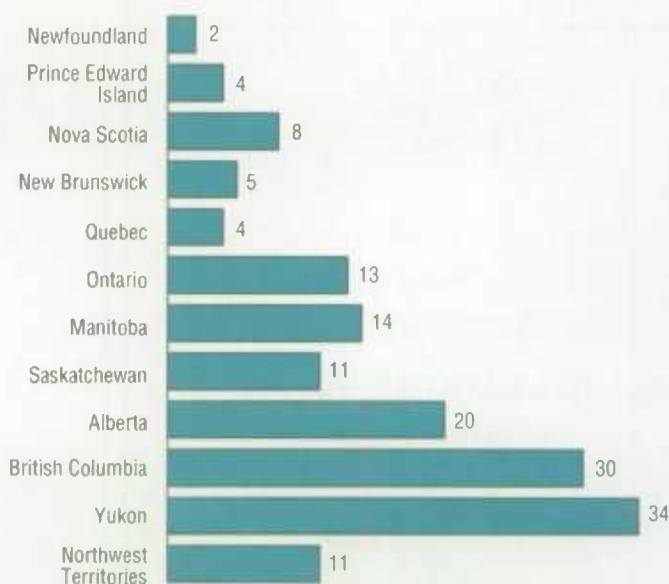
The growing percentage of Canadians claiming to have “no religion” should be interpreted with caution for two reasons. The first is that the 1971 Census was the first in which respondents were able to answer “no religion” to the religious identification question; the second reason is demographic, since 81% of people with “no religion” in 1991 were under the age of 45. However, having no religious affiliation may be a temporary situation: about one-third of Canadians with “no religion” were not married, and almost half did not have children. Research suggests that many will turn to religious traditions when they want to secure “rites of passage” such as marriage and the baptism of children.<sup>1</sup> When they do, many will adopt the religious identities of their parents, which for most people means remaining Catholic or Protestant.

<sup>1</sup> See Bibby, *Unknown Gods*, 1993.

### People in the Western provinces were most likely to have no religious affiliation

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% of population with no religious affiliation



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 1991.

**The Religious Paradox** The net result of these patterns of socialization and assimilation is that the vast majority of Canadians (82% in 1991) identify with the numerically-dominant Catholic and Protestant traditions. Secularization may have drastically reduced personal participation and the influence of the Christian churches in Canada. But socialization and assimilation appear to perpetuate the ties with those two dominant traditions. The vast majority of Canadians in the 1990s "think" they are Catholic or Protestant, and "think" they are raising Catholic or Protestant children. An increasing number of people are arriving from countries where other world faiths predominate. But other world religions are having difficulty growing in Canada, both because they are unable to attract converts and because their children tend to join Christian groups.

Ironically, many Canadians seem to want little to do with organized religion, precisely at a time when research (and popular culture) suggests they have unmet spiritual needs and are fascinated by supernatural phenomena. Such conditions would seem to be ideal for religions that have traditionally had something to say about spiritual and supernatural matters.

**Reginald W. Bibby, PhD**, is a professor of sociology at the University of Lethbridge.

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1. List the four parenting styles traced in this study.
2. List the possible risk factors influencing children. Which seems the most crucial?
3. Why do the children in lone-mother families seem to have more problems than children from two-parent families (emotional, behavioural, academic, social)?
4. With this article in mind, and illustrating with statistics, create guidelines to help parents raise their children.

### Using E-STAT to get to know your students

Professor John E. Lundy of the Education Faculty at Nipissing University reports that his student teachers have used E-STAT to look at the demographic, cultural and economic backgrounds of students and their families. Novice teachers often have set ideas about schools, students and families that are based on their own backgrounds. Using E-STAT, student teachers questioned these preconceived notions while learning to use an electronic data source designed for classroom use. To explore the social context of practicum settings, they generated tables, charts and thematic maps.

One student teacher from the Ottawa Valley investigated teaching in both the city of Pembroke (population about 14,000 in 1991) and the town of Deep River (population about 4,600 in 1991). The teacher started the study by comparing income and education levels and found some real differences in both. According to the 1991 Census, 19% of the population aged 15 and over in Pembroke had less than grade nine schooling compared to Deep River's 6%. Adults in Pembroke (48%) were twice as likely as those in Deep River (24%) not to have finished high school. Deep River also had almost four times (29%) the proportion of university degree holders than Pembroke (8%). In fact, Deep River's population was much better educated than Ontario adults overall: 13% of Ontario adults had a degree in 1991, while 12% had less than grade 9.

The differences in family income levels were also large. While 31% of families in Pembroke had an income above \$50,000 in 1990, the percentage in Deep River (59%) was almost double. Four in ten (39%) families in Pembroke had incomes under \$30,000, while Deep River had a relatively small proportion of families (15%) at this end of the income scale. In comparison, 50% of Ontario families made over \$50,000 and 24% made under \$30,000 in 1990.

As teachers started to plan their curriculum, an awareness of the particular economic needs of their students grew. While some families could easily afford computer equipment, others had to rely on the school and local library for these resources. Similarly, differences in parents' education levels may mean some students could expect more help with their school work than others. Because of the local information and ease of using E-STAT, these new teachers were able to study their communities more deeply, obtaining a "reality check" that could benefit their students.

Teachers in large cities need to look at smaller geographic areas to research their students' environment. As of 1996, E-STAT offers an optional module containing 1991 Census information for neighbourhood-size geographic areas (Census Tracts) within each of Canada's 39 largest urban areas.

For information on ordering a copy of E-STAT, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre at 1-800-263-1136.

### Demo E-STAT on the Internet!

Visit our web site (<http://www.statcan.ca>) for more information about E-STAT, including a demo, a teacher's handbook, lesson plans and more. You can find it under "electronic marketplace" and "products and services."



### Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using CST that you would like to share? Send your ideas or comments to Joel Yan, Dissemination Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513 or Internet e-mail: [yanjoel@statcan.ca](mailto:yanjoel@statcan.ca).



**EDUCATORS** – You may photocopy *Educators' Notebook* and the article "Canadian Children in the 1990s" for use in your classroom.

## ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1966-1996

	Population 15+	Labour force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1966	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976 <sup>1</sup>	17,124	10,530	9,776	754	61.5	7.2	57.1
1977	17,493	10,860	9,978	882	62.1	8.1	57.0
1978	17,839	11,265	10,320	945	63.1	8.4	57.9
1979	18,183	11,630	10,761	870	64.0	7.5	59.2
1980	18,550	11,983	11,082	900	64.6	7.5	59.7
1981	18,883	12,332	11,398	934	65.3	7.6	60.4
1982	19,177	12,398	11,035	1,363	64.7	11.0	57.5
1983	19,433	12,610	11,106	1,504	64.9	11.9	57.1
1984	19,681	12,853	11,402	1,450	65.3	11.3	57.9
1985	19,929	13,123	11,742	1,381	65.8	10.5	58.9
1986	20,182	13,378	12,095	1,283	66.3	9.6	59.9
1987	20,432	13,631	12,422	1,208	66.7	8.9	60.8
1988	20,690	13,900	12,819	1,082	67.2	7.8	62.0
1989	20,968	14,151	13,086	1,065	67.5	7.5	62.4
1990	21,277	14,329	13,165	1,164	67.3	8.1	61.9
1991	21,613	14,408	12,916	1,492	66.7	10.4	59.8
1992	21,986	14,482	12,842	1,640	65.9	11.3	58.4
1993	22,371	14,663	13,015	1,649	65.5	11.2	58.2
1994	22,171	14,832	13,292	1,541	65.3	10.4	58.5
1995	23,027	14,928	13,506	1,422	64.8	9.5	58.6
1996	23,352	15,145	13,676	1,469	64.9	9.7	58.6

<sup>1</sup> Estimates for 1976 to 1994 were revised to reflect results of the 1991 Census of Population, including historical adjustments for census undercoverage and inclusion of non-permanent residents. Estimates prior to 1976 are not strictly comparable to the revised series.

#### Labour Force Survey redesign

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) has been redesigned to provide more extensive coverage of labour market issues. Monthly data from the new questionnaire were available beginning January 1997. New content includes information about topics such as wages, union status, job turnover, and temporary and seasonal jobs. For information, refer to **The Labour Force**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-001-XPB, or visit our web site at <http://www.statcan.ca>.

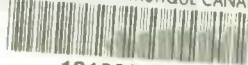




# SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
<b>POPULATION</b>								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0	29,255.6 <sup>R</sup>	29,615.3 <sup>R</sup>	29,963.6 <sup>PP</sup>
Annual growth (%)	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1 <sup>R</sup>	1.2	1.2
Immigration <sup>1</sup>	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 <sup>F</sup>	215,470 <sup>R</sup>	208,791 <sup>PP</sup>
Emigration <sup>1</sup>	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807	45,949	47,230 <sup>PP</sup>
<b>FAMILY</b>								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	•	•
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	•	•
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	•	•
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044	•
<b>LABOUR FORCE</b>								
Total employment (000s)	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506	13,676
– goods sector (000s)	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653	3,681
– service sector (000s)	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852	9,995
Total unemployment (000s)	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422	1,469
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5	9.7
Part-time employment (%)	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6	18.9
Women's participation rate (%)	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	•	•	•
<b>INCOME</b>								
Median family income	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	48,079	•
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	14.2	•
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	73.1	•
<b>EDUCATION</b>								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 <sup>P</sup>	5,402.4 <sup>P</sup>	5,465.5 <sup>E</sup>	5,511.0 <sup>E</sup>
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 <sup>P</sup>	964.7 <sup>E</sup>	961.2 <sup>E</sup>	961.2 <sup>E</sup>
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,621 <sup>E</sup>	3,532 <sup>E</sup>
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	•	•	•
<b>HEALTH</b>								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	•	•
– women	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 <sup>R</sup>	•	•
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.4 <sup>R</sup>	27.9	28.3	•	•
– women	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	•	•
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	•	•	•
<b>JUSTICE</b>								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	908	970	1,056	1,077 <sup>R</sup>	1,072	1,038 <sup>R</sup>	995	•
– property	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,868 <sup>R</sup>	5,524 <sup>R</sup>	5,212 <sup>R</sup>	5,237	•
– homicide	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0	•
<b>GOVERNMENT</b>								
Expenditures on social programmes <sup>2</sup> (1995 \$000,000)	175,372.4 <sup>R</sup>	183,505.7 <sup>R</sup>	190,745.5 <sup>R</sup>	207,245.8 <sup>R</sup>	214,317.3 <sup>R</sup>	215,567.4	208,494.6	•
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1 <sup>R</sup>	56.0 <sup>R</sup>	56.8 <sup>R</sup>	58.5 <sup>R</sup>	60.0 <sup>R</sup>	60.1	58.3	•
– as a % of GDP	23.0 <sup>R</sup>	24.5 <sup>R</sup>	26.7 <sup>R</sup>	28.8 <sup>R</sup>	29.4 <sup>R</sup>	28.2	26.9	•
UI beneficiaries (000s)	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 <sup>m</sup> (000s)	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0	3,500.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries <sup>m</sup> (000s)	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9	•
<b>ECONOMIC INDICATORS</b>								
GDP (1986 \$) – annual % change	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3	•
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1	1.6
Urban housing starts	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526	101,804
– Not available   • Not yet available <sup>P</sup> Preliminary data <sup>E</sup> Estimate <sup>m</sup> Figures as of March <sup>PD</sup> Final postcensal estimates <sup>PP</sup> Preliminary postcensal estimates <sup>PR</sup> Updated postcensal estimates <sup>R</sup> Revised data <sup>F</sup> Final data <sup>1</sup> For year ending June 30. <sup>2</sup> Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.								

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## KEEPING TRACK

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## Property crime virtually unchanged



Canadians reported 1.6 million incidents of property crime in 1995, almost unchanged from the previous year. On a per capita basis, there were 5,237 occurrences of property crime for every 100,000 people. One-quarter of all property crimes reported were incidents of breaking and entering, with audio-visual equipment such as TVs, VCRs and stereos the most common targets. Approximately ten percent of property crimes were motor vehicle thefts, while other theft (such as personal property theft and shoplifting) accounted for over half of property crimes.

**Juristat**, Vol. 16, No. 10,  
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPE.

## Investment income bouncing back



In 1995, investment income of individuals increased 18% from the previous year – the first increase in five years. Canadians reported \$28.3 billion in interest and dividend income on their 1995 personal income tax returns. One-half of those with investment income reported an amount over \$600. This was unchanged from the previous year. While taxfilers aged 55 and over accounted for 42% of savers and investors, they earned 66% of investment income.

**1995 Savers and Investors Databank**,  
Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

## Many Atlantic students pursue university studies outside their home province



In 1993/94, Prince Edward Island (35%), Newfoundland (26%), and New Brunswick (20%) had the highest percentages of bachelor's students studying in another province. The likelihood of attending an out-of-province university increased with degree level. Nearly all graduate students from Prince Edward Island studied elsewhere. At the master's level, 45% of Newfoundland students and 44% of New Brunswick students studied in another province. At the doctoral level, the proportions were 70% for Newfoundland and 60% for New Brunswick.

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

## One in five senior families has two pensions



Families with two paycheques are becoming two-pensioner families. In 1994, couples where both partners received private pensions made up 20% of senior families, up from only 6% in 1981. These families reported an average 1994 total income of \$56,200, compared with \$39,700 for single-pensioner families.

**Perspectives on labour and income**, Autumn 1996,  
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

## Pregnancy outcomes different from two decades ago



In 1993, there were 75.4 pregnancies for every 1,000 women aged 15 to 44, considerably fewer than the rate of 84.9 per 1,000 in 1974. A growing proportion of pregnancies ended in abortions, 20% in 1993, compared with 12% in 1974. Live births fell to 75% from 79% of pregnancies, while miscarriages/stillbirths dropped to 4% from 9%.

**Reproductive Health: Pregnancies and Rates**, Canada, 1974-1993,  
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-568-XPB.

## One in three households own computers



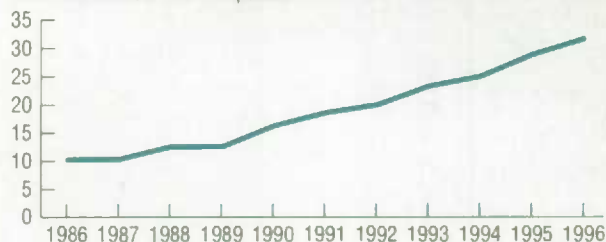
Almost 32% of Canadian households (3.6 million), had a home computer in 1996, triple the proportion of a decade ago. Households in Alberta and British Columbia were most likely to own a computer (38%), while those in Newfoundland and New Brunswick were least likely (22%).

**Household Facilities and Equipment**, 1996,  
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 64-202-XPB.

## Number of home computers rising

CST

% of households with computers



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 64-202-XPB.





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