

Social Cohesion in Canada: Possible Indicators

HIGHLIGHTS

By:

Canadian Council on Social Development

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For

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

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

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Table of Contents

Introduction		Page 3
Part 1	Economic Conditions that Impact Socially Cohesive Activity	Page 8
Part 2	Life Chances	Page 25
Part 3 35	Quality of Life	Page
Part 4	Willingness to Co-operate	Page 55
Part 5	Participation	Page 65
Part 6	Literacy	Page 74
Appendix I	Suggested Indicators of Social Cohesion	Page 75
Appendix II	List of Abbreviations	Page 78

INTRODUCTION

Identifying Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

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

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

What is Social Cohesion?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Moving From Concepts to Indicators

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

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

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

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

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

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

The CCSD has access to survey data for the Personal Security Index and we used the World Values Survey as a basis for some key indicators. Survey data from private firms is

not in the public domain. In this report, we have flagged the availability of some relevant EKOS data. We have also, with the permission of EKOS (Patrick Beauchamp, October 17, 2000), reproduced data made available to the public on their web site.

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

In the presentation of individual indicators we have tried to:

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

Conditions Favourable for Inclusive Social Cohesion

5. Economic conditions that impact socially cohesive activity

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

6. Life Chances

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

7. Quality of Life

- a. Population health
- b. Personal and family security
- c. Economic security
- d. State of the Family
- e. Time use
- f. Built environment

- i. Infrastructure (places to engage in social interaction)
- ii. Communication networks
- g. Quality of natural environment

Elements of Socially Cohesive Activity

4. Willingness to Co-operate

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

5. Participation

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

6. Literacy

Highlights of Indicators: Conditions Favourable for Inclusive Social Cohesion

This summary presents a short version of the full documentation for each indicator, highlighting key findings but not providing detailed disaggregation, additional information, and notes on data sources.

Part 1 - Economic Conditions that Impact Socially Cohesive Activity

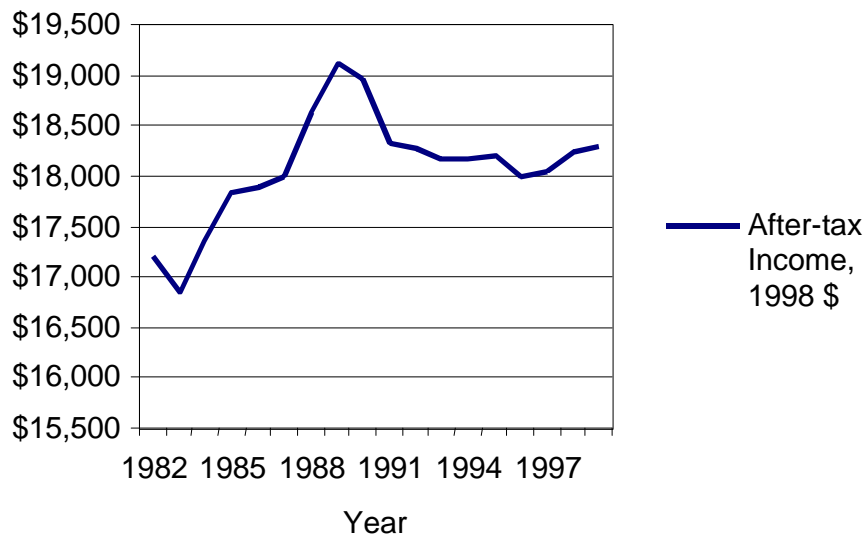
1.a Distribution of Income

I. Average disposable income per capita

Trends in the distribution of income should be set in the context of the changing average level. Disposable income is defined as total household income, minus taxes, and thus is the key measure of income available for personal and household consumption. Note that the measure does not include the benefit to households of public services, though it does include income transfers.

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

Disposable income per capita



Source: Prepared by the Canadian Council on Social Development using Canada's National Income and Expenditure Accounts, 1998.

II. Distribution of disposable income by quintile

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

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

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

The share of both the bottom and top quintiles have modestly expanded over time at the expense of the middle quintiles, but – in after tax terms – there is little sign of a ‘shrinking’ middle-class in Canada.

Disposable Income Share by Households, 1981, 1989,



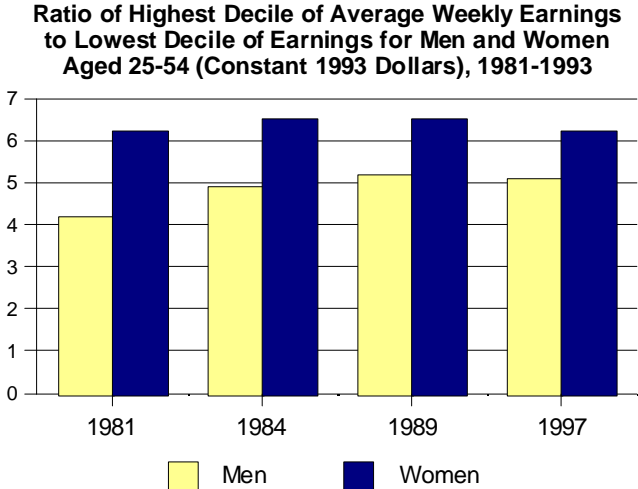
Source: Tabulations by the authors based on Statistics Canada's Survey of Consumer Finances microdata. *The Canadian Fact Book on Poverty*, CCSD (2000), p. 58

III. Distribution of earnings (holding hours of work constant)

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

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

The major conclusion of Canadian research has been that there has been a very limited increase in earnings inequality in Canada, controlling for hours worked. In other words, increased inequality of market income has been driven more by unemployment, short hours employment and working long hours than by changes in the underlying structure of pay. However, the research does show a decline in the relative pay of younger workers over time ie. an increase in inter-generational earnings inequality.



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

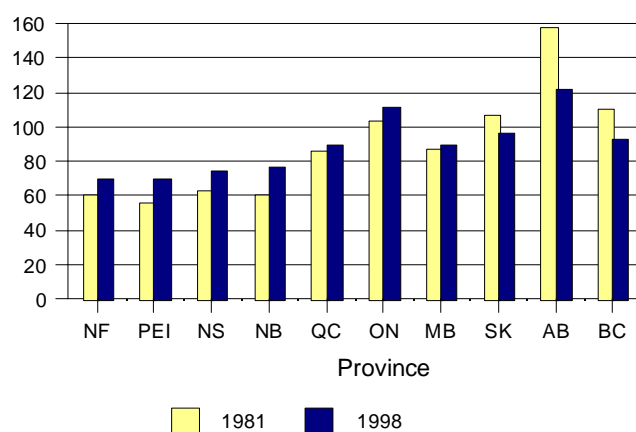
IV. Provincial income as percentage of national average

Provincial income as a percentage of the national average is a good indicator of the extent of regional income differences – the result of differences in market income between provinces (driven mainly by different patterns of employment and earnings) in combination with the effects of equalizing federal transfers.

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

There was a modest closing of the income gap between the have and have-not provinces, 1981-1998.

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



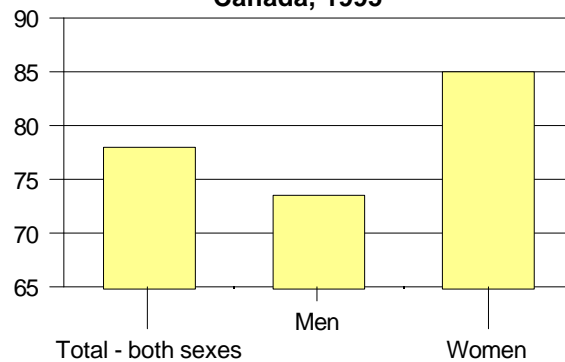
Source: Statistics Canada, *The Daily*, 26/09/00; *Canadian Economic Observer*, at No 11-210XPB; Dept. of Finance, *Economic Reference Tables*, Cat No F1-26/1996E

V. Visible minorities total income as a % of national total income

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

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

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

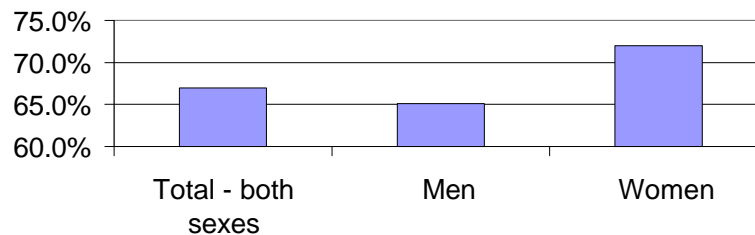


Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom data

VI. Aboriginal total income as a % of national total income

Average total income of persons of aboriginal identity as a % average total income of non-aboriginals in Canada in 1995 is another indicator of income disparity. Large and persistent income gaps exist between aboriginals and the rest of the population.

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

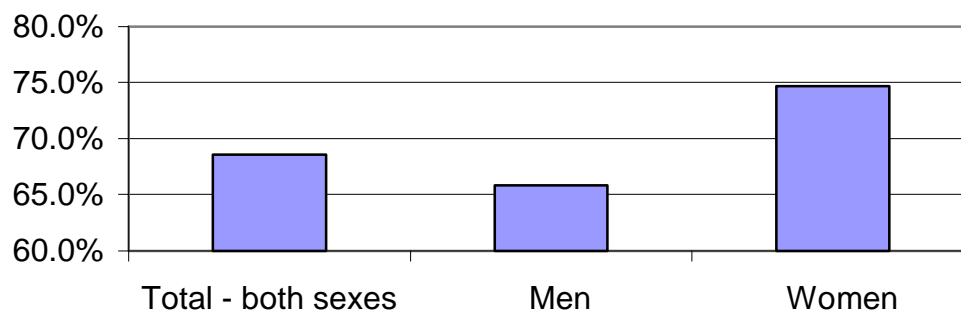


Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996, CCSD's custom data.

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

Average total income of persons with activity limitation as a % of average total income of persons without activity limitation, Canada, 1995 is another indicator of income disparity. Large and persistent income gaps exist between persons with disabilities and the rest of the population.

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



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

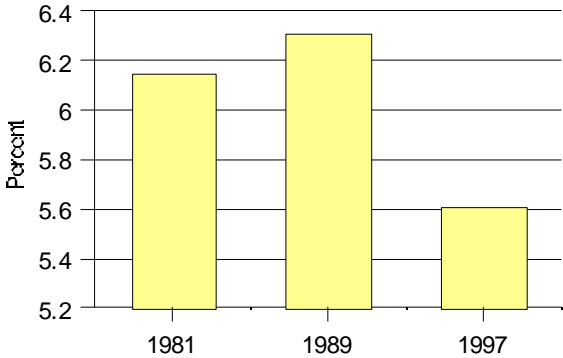
1.b Income Polarization

I. Ratio P10/P90 for families

Ratio P10/P90 for families is the ratio of the sum of total income for all economic families in the bottom decile to that of all economic families in the top decile.

Polarization is a measure of the distance between the extremes of the income distribution. It indicates the size of the relative (and absolute) gap between the least and most affluent members of society. The measure used here is for all economic families. Polarization increased significantly in the 1990s as incomes increased at the top while falling at the bottom.

Ratio of Lowest to Highest Decile for Canada



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

II. Ratio of earnings of men and women

The pay gap between women and men is a key indicator of gender equality, and equality of opportunity as between women and men. The earnings gap between all women and all men is driven by differences in time worked as well as by pay gaps in jobs. (A much higher percentage of women work part-time or for only part of the year.) The earnings gap between full-time, full-year workers is the most widely used indicator of the pay gap. The gap closed between 1980-1997, due to some increase in earnings of women in combination with the stagnant real earnings of men.

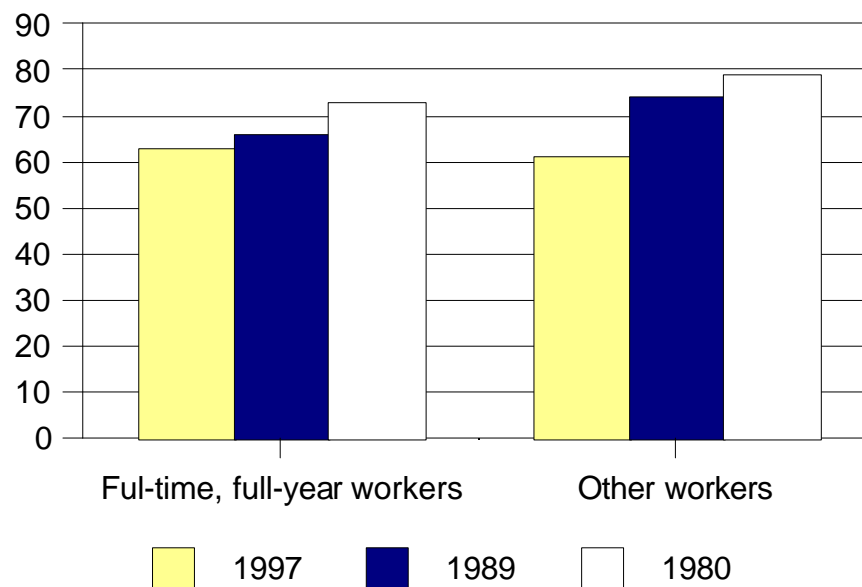
Average annual earnings, 1980, 1989, 1997									
	Full-time, full-year workers			Other workers			All earners		
	Earnings			Earnings			Earnings		
	Women	Men	ratio	Women	Men	ratio	Women	Men	ratio
	\$		%	\$		%	\$		%
1980	27,405	42,586	64.4	9,358	15,240	61.4	17,485	33,837	51.7
1989	27,928	42,328	66.0	10,643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

Note: Expressed in constant 1997 dollars

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

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

Earnings ratio, 1980, 1989, 1997



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

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

III. Intergenerational economic mobility

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

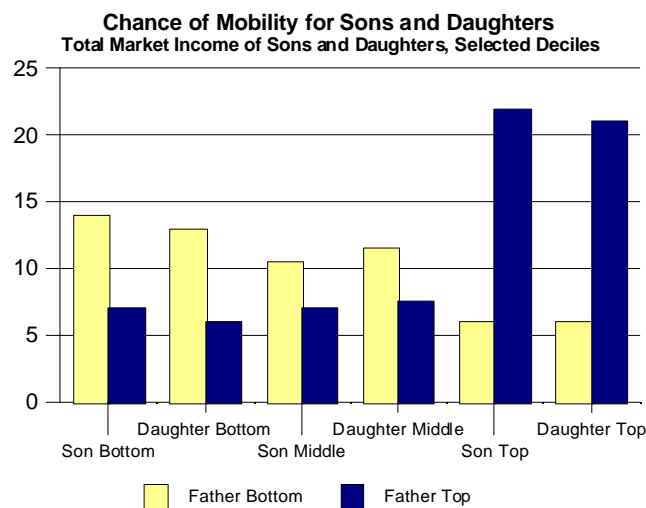
In fact, boys born to fathers in the bottom decile of earnings are, as adults, much more likely to end up in the bottom decile than the top decile (14.5% vs. 6%). A similar relationship is observed for girls (13.6% vs. 6.4%). Twenty two per cent of boys with a father in the top earnings decile ended up in the top decile, compared to just 6.9% in the bottom decile. Again, girls are seen to follow a similar pattern (21.1% vs. 6.2%).

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

Note: Incomes have been age adjusted.

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

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



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

1.c Poverty

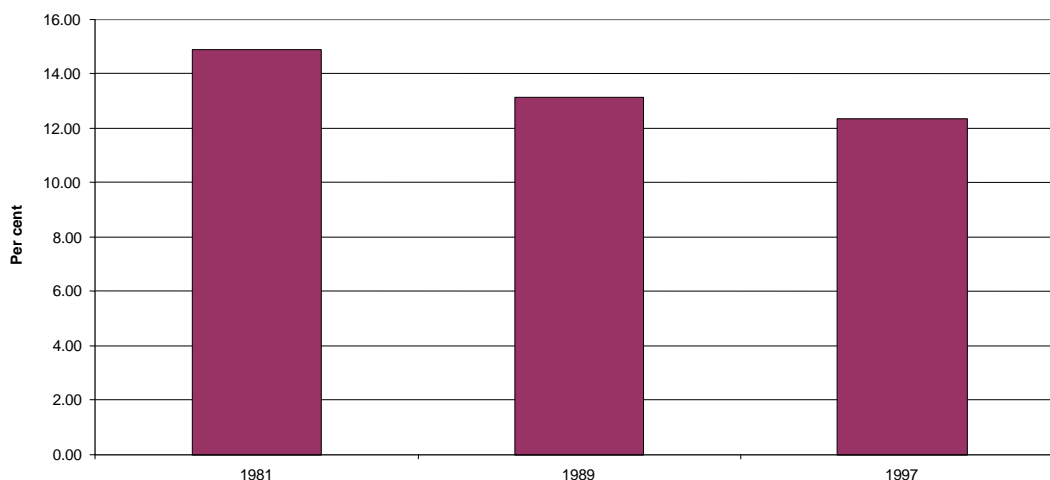
I. Poverty rate

Poverty rates are the head count ratios calculated on the base of a poverty line set at one half of median equivalent income.

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

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

Poverty Rate



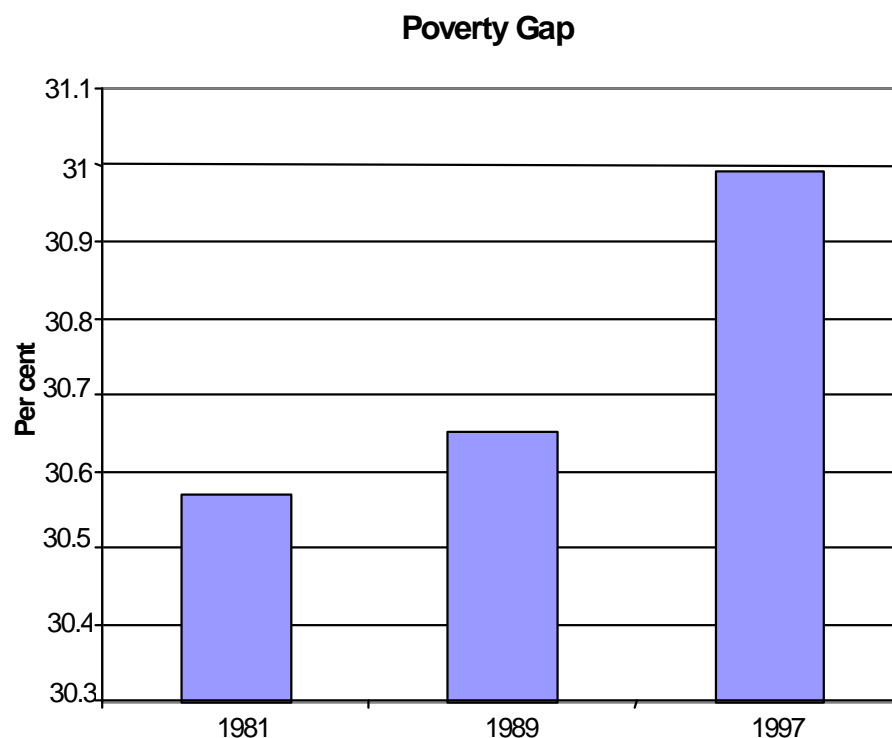
Source: Osberg, L. and Sharpe A., "International Comparisons of Trends in Economic Well-being," Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Ontario, Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, January 7-9, 2000, Boston, Mass

II. Depth of poverty – total, average

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

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

The poverty gap has increased, particularly in the 1990s.



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

III. Duration of poverty – total, average

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

About 1 in 4 adult Canadians were poor at least once, from 1992-96, of whom about half were in continuing poverty (3-5 of the 5 years.)

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

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

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

Source: Finnie, Ross (2000) “The Dynamics of Poverty in Canada – What we know, What we can do”, C.D. Howe Institute Commentary, No. 145, September 2000 – Table 5B.

1.d Employment

I. Employment rate

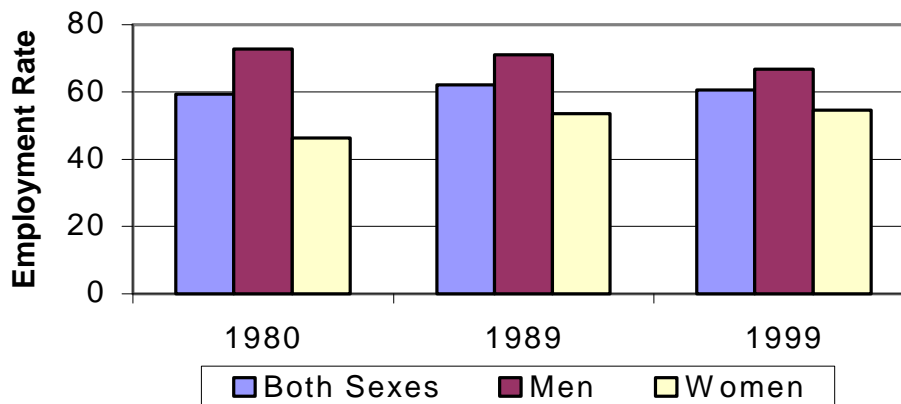
The employment rate – number of persons in employment as a proportion of total population 15 years of age and older – is a key indicator of social participation and involvement. Most working age adults want paid work not just to earn an income, but also to develop their talents and capacities and to make a productive contribution to society. Of course, the employment rate measures social change over time as well. Entry into the work force has been delayed as more young adults remain in school, and the average age of retirement has fallen. The downward impact on the employment rate has been offset as the proportion of women seeking paid work has increased, though the employment rate for women remains lower largely because of time spent outside the work force raising children. The gradual convergence of the employment rates of men and women can be seen as a key indicator of the level of inclusion and participation of women in paid work.

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

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

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

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

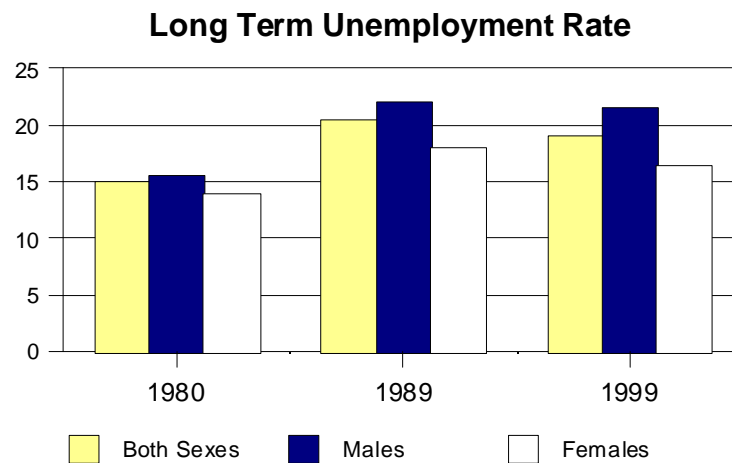


Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

II. Involuntary part-time employment rate

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

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



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

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

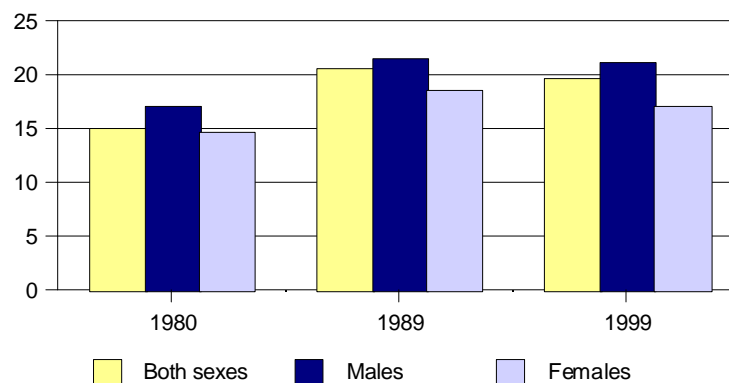
III. Long-term unemployment (6 months or more) as % unemployed

The long-term unemployment rate – number of persons on temporary layoff or without work for 27 weeks or more and looking for work as a proportion of total number of persons unemployed – is a key indicator of exclusion from the job market and non participation in paid work. In Europe, long-term unemployment, particularly of young people and older male workers, has been seen as a key force undermining social cohesion. In Canada, as in the US, the duration of unemployment is typically much shorter than in most continental European countries, which can be seen as conducive to social cohesion. However, unemployment benefits are typically less ‘generous’ in Canada (which tightens the link between unemployment and low income) and jobs taken by the unemployed are typically more ‘precarious.’

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

Long-term unemployed workers are disproportionately older workers.

Long Term Unemployment Rate



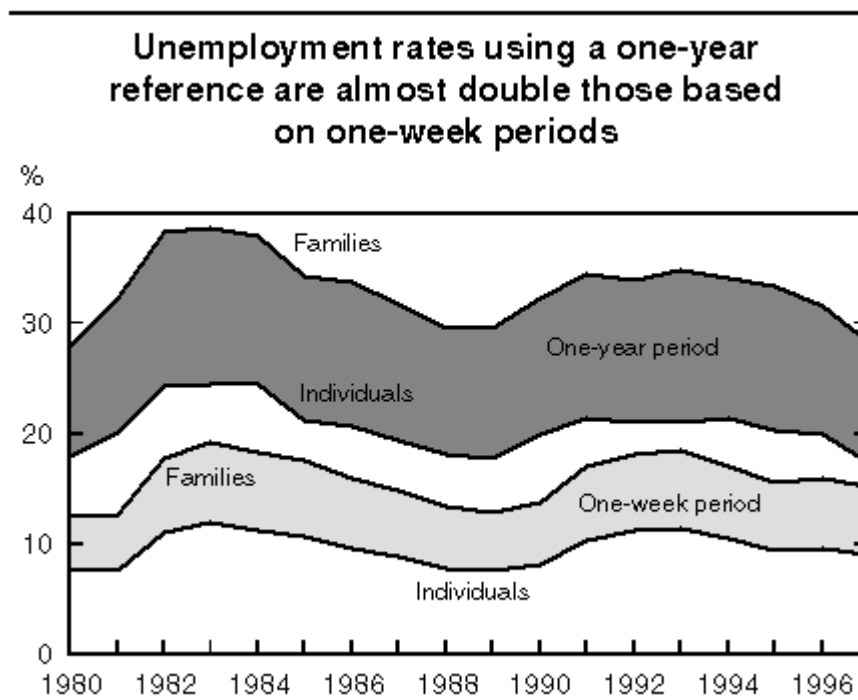
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Historical Review

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

Unemployment impacts a few people for a long-time, and many others for a short-time. On average, the percentage of the work force directly affected by unemployment in a given year in Canada is about double the 'headline' monthly reported unemployment rate (ie. if the average monthly unemployment rate in a year is 10%, about 1 in 5 workers will be impacted over the course of a year). If persons in families with an unemployed member are taken into account, the numbers affected are even higher. About 1 in 3 families have been affected by unemployment each year since 1980.

The annual incidence of unemployment for individuals and families is a maximum measure of vulnerability to low employment and total income and a measure of employment and income instability. In some cases, unemployed workers will return to the same job after a temporary layoff, but in most cases unemployment is ended by finding a new job.

From a social cohesion perspective, employment instability is a threat since it may undermine social relationships at the workplace and community level. There are also well-established linkages from unemployment to ill health in both physical and mental terms.



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

1.e Mobility

I. Interprovincial and Intraprovincial mobility

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

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

More than half (53% and 57%) of the population were non-movers in 1990 and 1995.

Out of the movers, about half were non-migrants (ie. they moved residence within a census district or city) and about half were migrants (moving residence within a city).

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

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

Interprovincial and Intraprovincial mobility in 1990 and 1995

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

Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census

Part 2 - Life chances

2.a Health Care

I. Private health care spending as % of household budget

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

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

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

In 1997, households spent an average of \$1,153 on health care, up an estimated 15% from 1996. In 1998, they spent an average of \$1191 (representing a 3% increase over 1997).

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

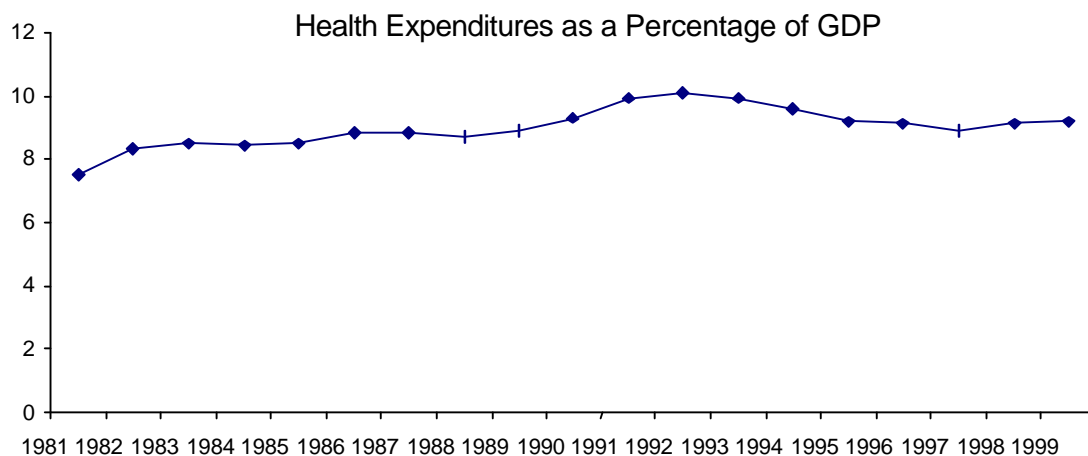
II. Health spending as % of GDP

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

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

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

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



Source: Canadian Institute for Health Information.

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

III. Health care system usage – waiting times

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

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

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

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

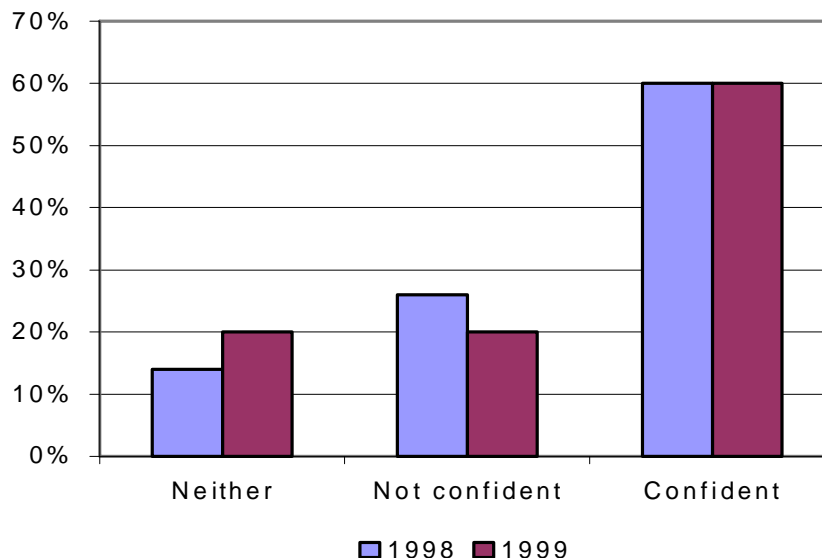
IV. If you or a family member were hospitalized, would you be worried about how to pay for it?

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

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

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

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



Source: CCSD Personal Security Index Survey

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

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

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

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

2.b Education

I. Private education spending as % household budget

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

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

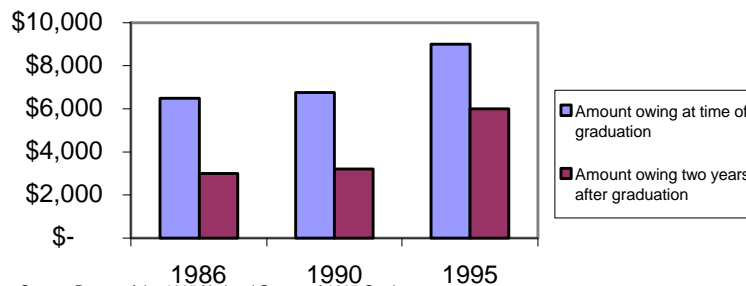
Spending on education in 1997 increased by 19% from 1996 to an average of \$659, due largely to a sharp rise in spending on Post Secondary Education (PSE) tuition fees.

II. Average student debt

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

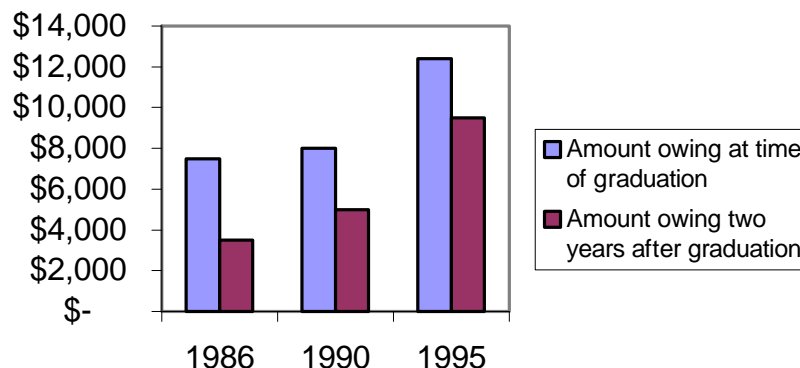
The student debt level for the class of 1995 was higher than for the graduating classes from 1990 and 1986 (in 1995 constant dollars). The average 1995 graduate who borrowed from a government program owed 38% more in student loans than the average 1990 graduate and 61% more than the average 1986 graduate.

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



Source: Report of the 1997 National Survey of 1995 Graduates

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



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

III. High school dropout rates

The proportion of high school dropouts expressed as a percentage of the age cohort is a key indicator of vulnerability to economic exclusion and marginalisation in a 'knowledge based economy' and of potential social and civic exclusion because of low literacy and numeracy levels. The 'dropout rate' has often been overstated by failure to take into account the fact that many young adults who apparently 'dropout' in fact return to complete high school after a period of absence. In light of traditionally high estimates of non-completion (in the range of 30%), Employment and Immigration Canada commissioned Statistics Canada to conduct a School Leavers Survey (SLS) to estimate the magnitude of the problem and to identify the circumstances associated with dropping out. The 'true' dropout rate is, in fact, under 20%. By age 24, only 15% of youth had left high school without graduating.

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

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

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

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

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

Four in ten high school graduates attend university. Twelve per cent of high school leavers receive trade, vocational or apprenticeship training.

2.c Adequate and Affordable Housing

I. Housing cost as % of household income

Measures of disposable income are misleading if they do not take into account the fact that housing costs swallow up a very large share of income for many lower income households. About 36% of Canadian households are renters, 43% of which pay more than 30% of their income on rent.

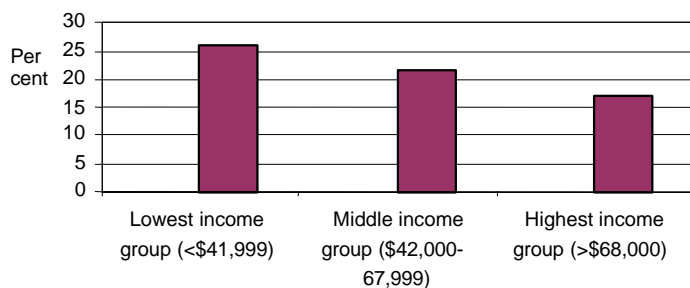
	Private households with income	Average shelter costs (\$)	Average household income (\$)
Total - Tenure and housing affordability	10,534,760	696	48,766
Total - Owned	6,666,880	754	59,285
With mortgage	3,544,185	1,128	63,686
<30% of household income spent on shelter costs	2,612,080	1,056	74,526
>30% of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

Note: non-farm, non-reserve dwellings

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

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

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



Total expenditure includes expenditure on personal income tax
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Household Spending, 1998

II. Renter/owner ratio

Homeownership is generally considered to be most desirable for at least working-age households with children, and is a sign of 'rootedness' in communities. In 1995 there were 1.74 owners for every renter in Canada.

Owners and Renters in Canada and in the Provinces, 1995			
	% Owners	% Renters	Owners/renters ratio
Canada	63.6%	36.4%	1.74
Newfoundland	77.1%	22.9%	3.37
Prince Edward Island	72.1%	27.9%	2.58
Nova Scotia	70.4%	29.6%	2.38
New Brunswick	73.8%	26.2%	2.81
Quebec	56.5%	43.5%	1.30
Ontario	64.3%	35.7%	1.80
Manitoba	66.4%	33.6%	1.97
Saskatchewan	68.8%	31.2%	2.20
Alberta	67.8%	32.2%	2.11
British Columbia	65.2%	34.8%	1.87
Yukon Territory	58.6%	41.5%	1.41
Northwest Territories	38.6%	61.4%	0.63

Source: Statistics Canada, Census 1996 Nation series

III. Homelessness

Homelessness is one of the most extreme forms of exclusion from the social mainstream. No reliable national data are available. Some information can be gathered from social service agencies in large metropolitan centres.

Part 3 - Quality of Life

3.a Population Health

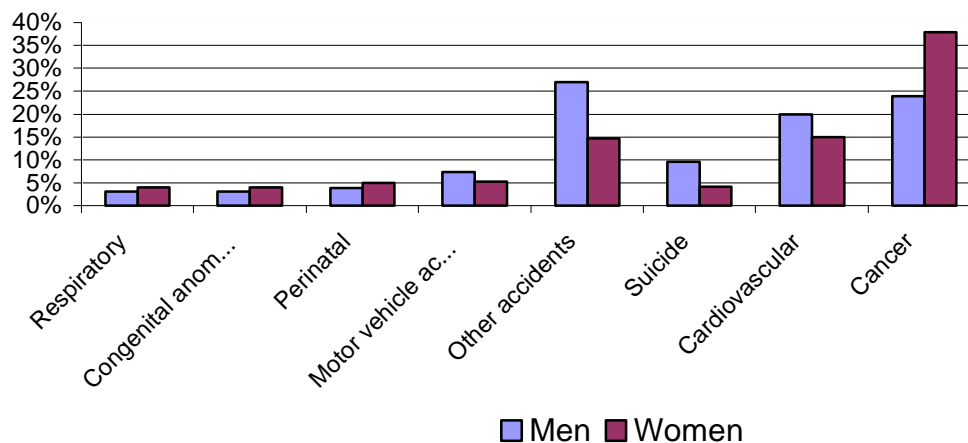
I. Potential years of life lost (before age 75)

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

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

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

Reasons For Potential Years of Life Lost, Canada 1997



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using data supplied by the Laboratory Centre for Disease Control

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

II. Major reasons for death (leading causes of death)

The average life expectancy of Canadians born in 1997 is 78.6 years – 75.8 years for men and 81.4 years for women. Provincially, life expectancy varies among women from a low of 79.8 years in Newfoundland, to 82.7 years in Prince Edward Island, while for men it varies from 74.3 years in Newfoundland, to 76.6 years in B.C. Since 1987, men have gained 2.5 years in life expectancy and women have gained 1.4 years.

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

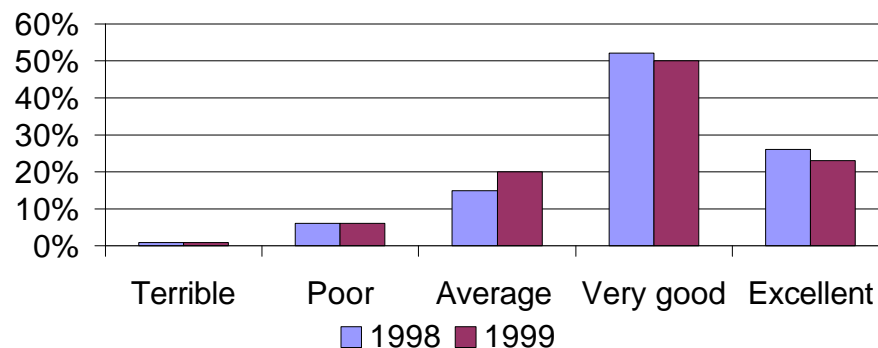
In addition to gender, geography and population group, income also plays a role in determining life expectancy. According to a 1991 study, Canadian men in the top quarter of the income distribution can expect to live 6.3 years longer and 14.3 more years free of disability than men in the bottom quarter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

III. How would you rate your own health?

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

In 1999, 73 % of respondents reported being in good or excellent health, representing a decline from 78 % in 1998. Twenty per cent considered themselves to be in average health, up from 15 % in 1998, and 7 % considered themselves to be in poor or terrible health, the same proportion as in 1998.

"How would you rate your health?"

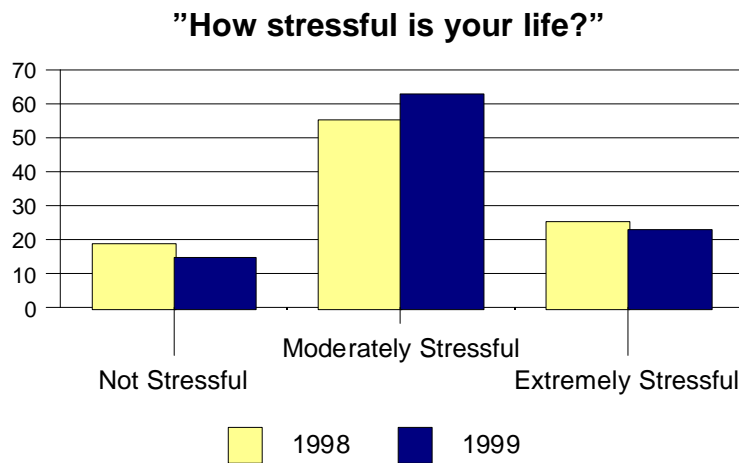


Source: CCSD PSI Survey.

IV. How stressful is your life?

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

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



Source: CCSD PSI Survey.

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

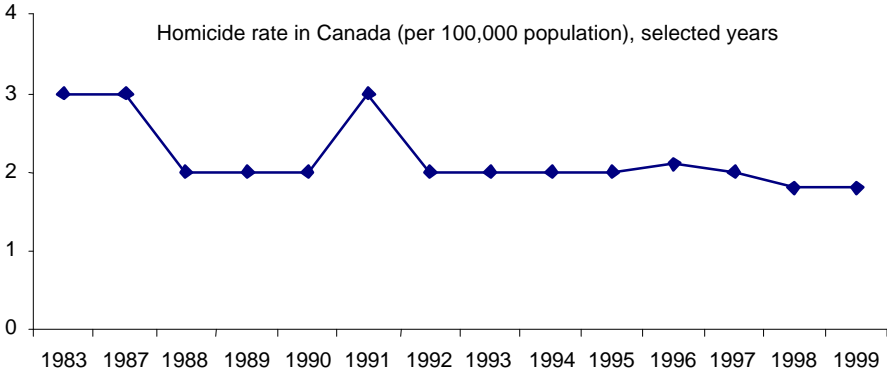
3.b Personal and Family Security

I. Homicide rate (per 100,000)

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

The homicide rate has generally been falling since the mid-1970s. In 1999 a rate of 1.8 homicides per 100,000 population was the lowest since 1967. There were 536 homicides in 1999, 22 fewer than in the previous year (down 2%).

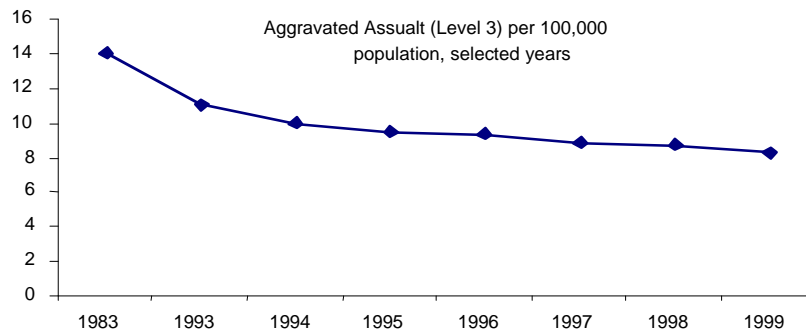
The rate of attempted murders also fell in 1999 (-9%), the lowest since 1973.



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

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

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



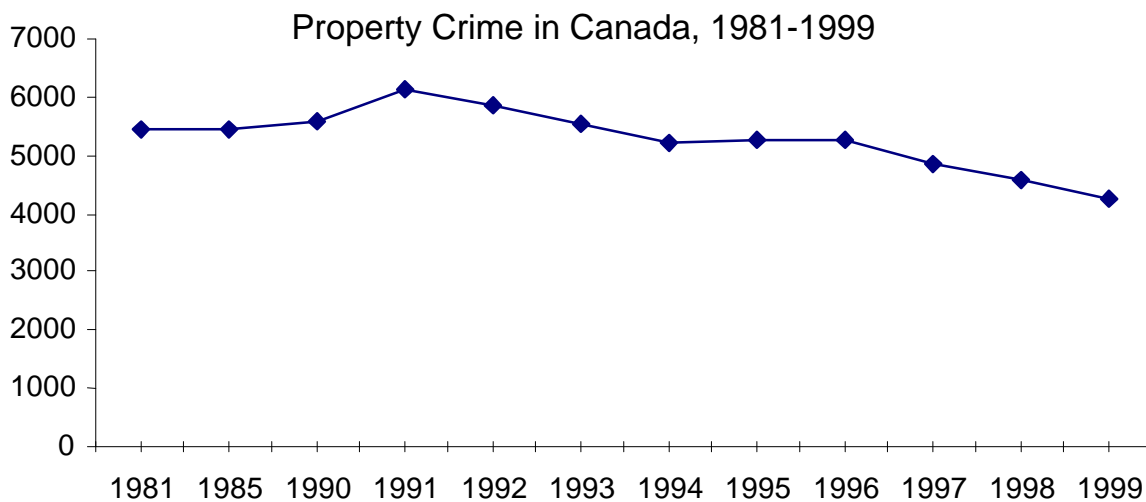
Source: Statistics Canada. Canadian Crime Statistics, selected years.

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

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

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

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



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

IV. Victimization rates

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

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

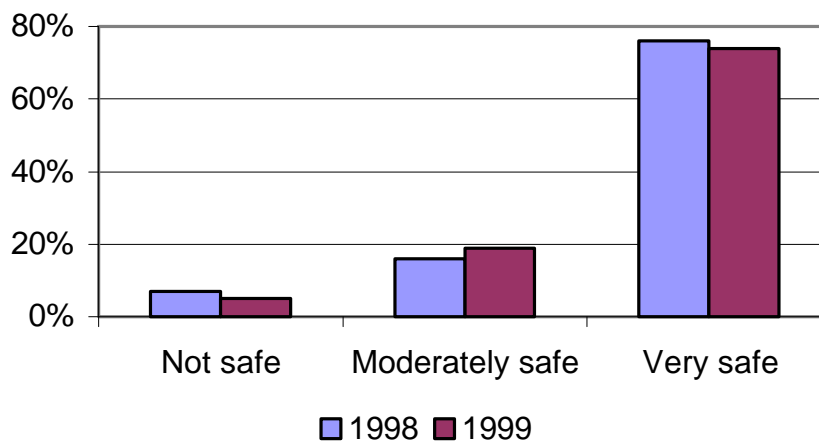
An estimated 8% of women and 7% of men who were married or living common-law during the previous 5 year period experienced some type of violence by their partner on at least one occasion. This amounts to about 690,000 women and 549,000 men.

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

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

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

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



Source: CCSD PSI Survey.

VI. How safe do you feel walking along in your area after dark?

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

However, a slightly higher percentage report that they avoid places and people.

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

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

Possession of firearms – an objective indicator of risk – has been falling.

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

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

3.c Economic Security

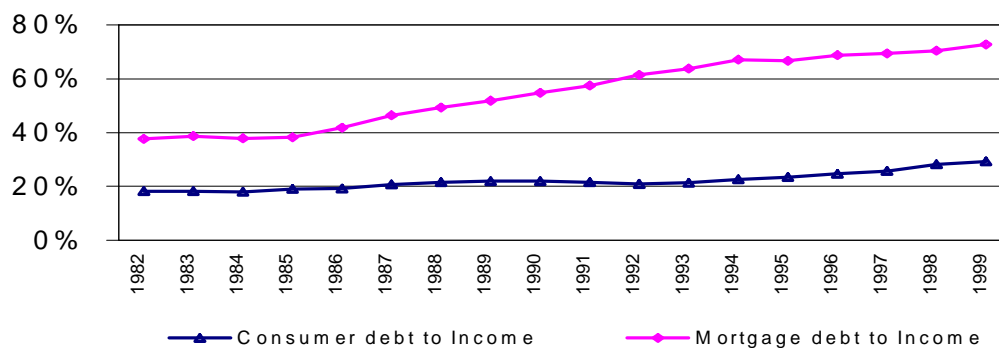
I. Ratio of total mortgage and consumer debt to disposable income

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

This is a direct indicator of financial vulnerability.

In order to better gauge how financially vulnerable Canadians were feeling, respondents to the CCSD PSI Survey were asked how long they would be able to sustain themselves and their families if they had to rely only on their savings. Savings were defined as liquid assets such as bank accounts and RRSPs.

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

could sustain themselves for more than six months, almost identical to the results in 1998.

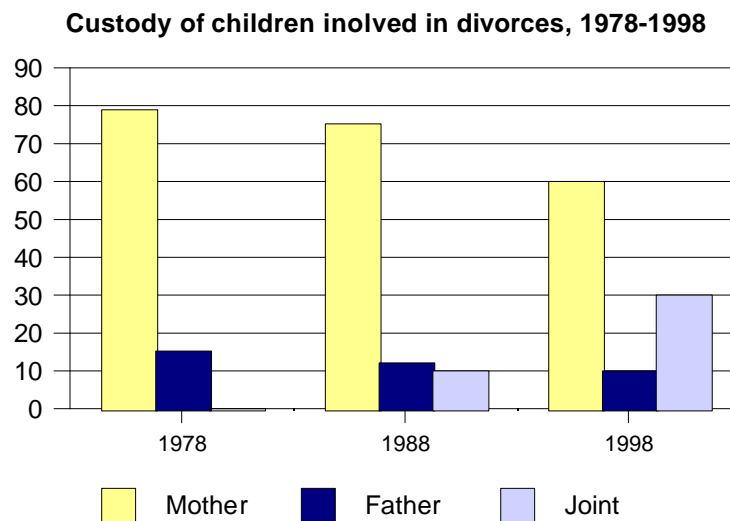
3.d State of the Family

I. Custodial arrangements

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

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

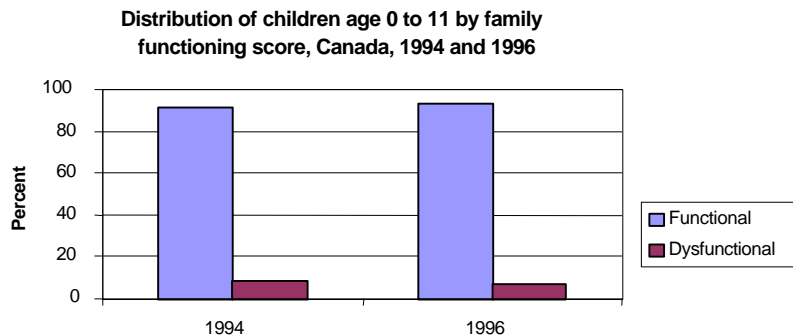
Custody of children involved in divorces is primarily awarded to mothers. In 1998, mothers were awarded sole custody in 60% of divorces involving children, compared to 10% of cases in which custody was given solely to fathers. In 30% of divorces involving children, custody was awarded jointly to both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



Source: Statistics Canada, Cat. No. 82-003s 16, 82-003s 17, 84-205, 84-213, The Daily 28/09/00

II. Family functioning scale

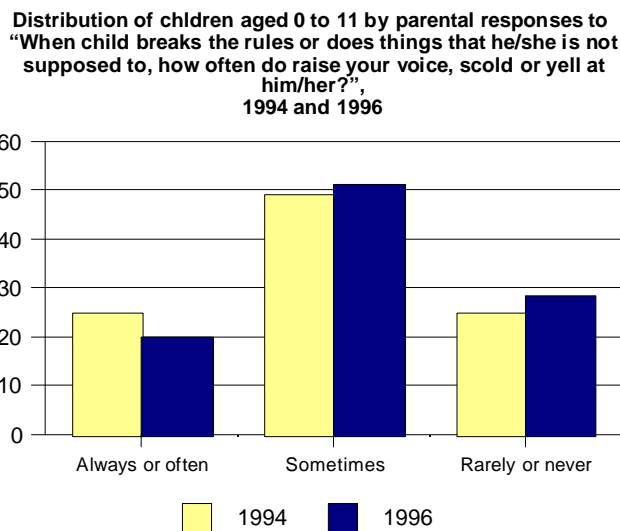
The family functioning scale looks at the health of relationships among all family members, an important indicator of healthy child development. Scores on the family functioning scale are based on a number of questions, and the total score varies between 0 and 36, with a high score indicating family dysfunction. The vast majority of families (92.7% in 1996) function effectively.



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

III. Quantity / quality of interaction between parents and children

Analysis could be conducted using any parenting scales (positive interaction, ineffective, consistency, rational), or any of the many individual parenting items which comprise these scales.



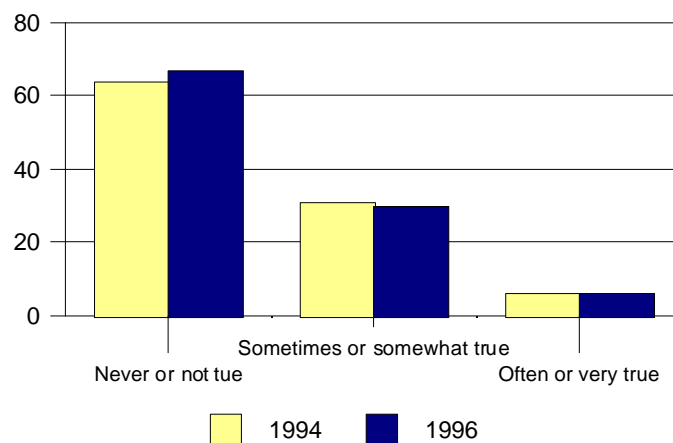
Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

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

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

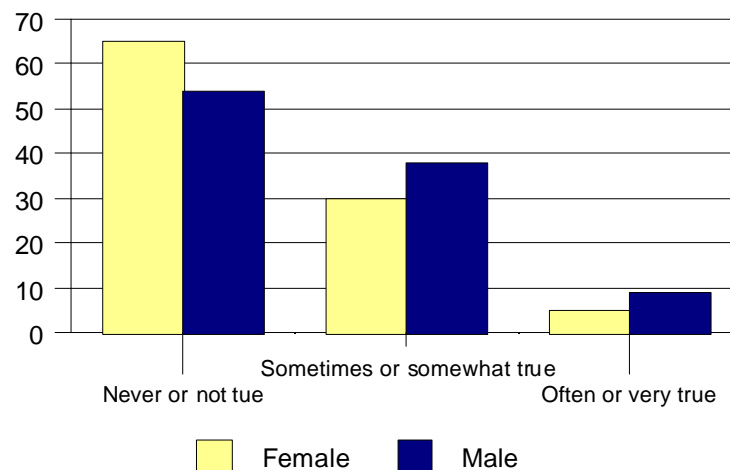
Analysis could be conducted using any of the child behaviour scales in the NLSCY (e.g., hyperactivity-inattention, prosocial behaviour, emotional disorder-anxiety, conduct disorder-physical aggression, indirect aggression, property offences), or on any of the many individual items which comprise these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

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



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

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



Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1996

V. Families with adult children at home

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

From 1981 to 1996, the percentage of young adults (aged 20 to 34) living with their parents was – as one would expect – far higher for those who were unmarried than for those who were married.

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

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

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

3.e Time Use

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

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

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

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

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

Source: 1998 General Social Survey; Statistics Canada Cat. No. 12F008XIE
Hours per day, averaged over a 7-day week

II. Time stress among 25-54 year-olds

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

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

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

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

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

--- Estimate too small to be released.

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

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

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

Activity	Men		Women	
	Low time-stress	Time-stressed	Low time-stress	Time-stressed
Paid work and related activities	5.6	7.0	3.4	4.2
Unpaid Work	2.8	3.0	5.0	5.4
Personal care	9.8	9.6	10.4	9.9
Leisure	5.6	4.2	5.1	4.1

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

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

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

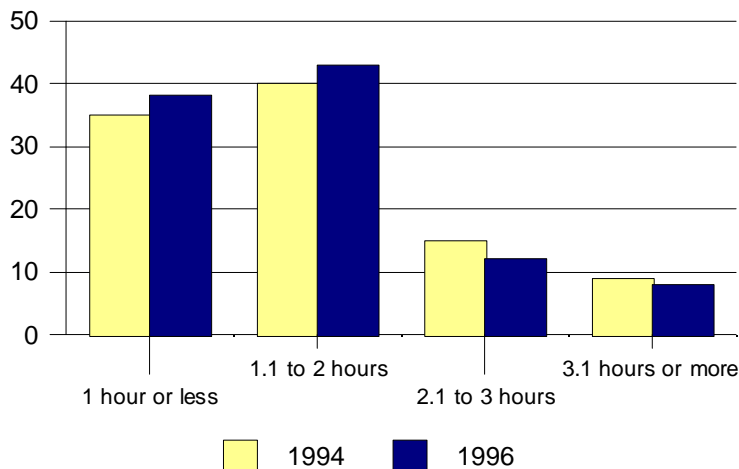
Based on the 1998 General Social Survey, males watched more television, on average, per day than do females at each age group. For example, at age 25-34, males watched 2.0 hours of television per day in 1998 while their female counterparts watched 1.6 hours.

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

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

Source: General Social Survey, 1998; Statistics Canada Cat. No. 12F008XIE
Hours per day, averaged over a 7-day week

Distribution of hours per day of tv watching for children aged 4 to 9, 1994 and 1996

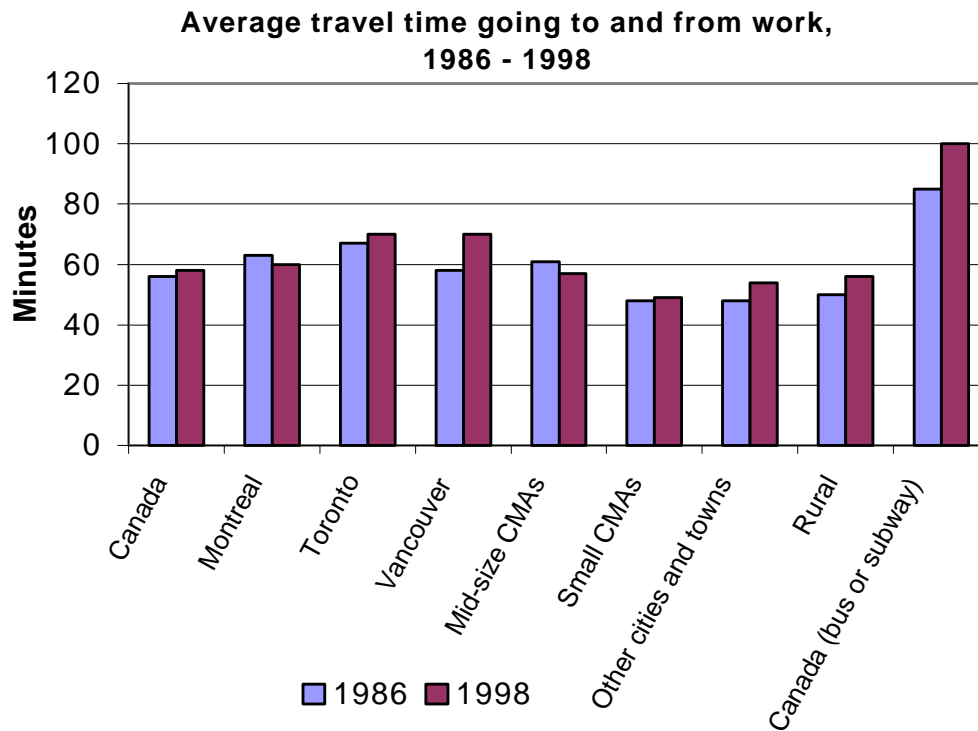


Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994 and 1996

IV. Commuting times (and distance commuted)

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

The trend from 1986-98 varies, but is towards increased commuting time.



Source: Source: Statistics Canada, GSS 1998

Mid-size Cmas include: Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, Quebec city, Winnipeg, Hamilton, London and Kitchener

Small CMAs include: St-Catherines-Niagara, Halifax, Victoria, Windsor, Oshawa, Saskatoon, Regina,

St-John's, Chicoutimi, Sudbury, Sherbrooke, Trois-Rivières, Thunder Bay and Saint John

3.f Built Environment

I. Infrastructure (places to engage in social interaction)

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

We were unable to locate good data for these indicators. A recreation survey (facilities for children) is currently being undertaken by CCSD .

II. Communication Networks Canadian/local newspaper readership Computer/ internet ownership internet use

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

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

Other factors that influence ownership are gender and family type. Families with children are more likely to own a computer as are men, compared to women.

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

Newspaper readership varies widely by major urban centre.

3.g Quality of Natural Environment

I. Air quality data

Greenhouse gas emissions grew by 9.5 per cent from 1990 to 1995 following a slight dampening of this growth in the recent economic recession. The trend in emissions is still steadily upward.

II. Water quality data

Water quality data is not regularly measured. There are no national standards for measurement and standards will vary from province to province.

III. Food and waterborne diseases

The number of cases of enteric infections is reported in a given year, expressed as a rate per 100,000 population.

Part 4 - Willingness to Cooperate

4.a Trust in People

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

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

Just over half of the people surveyed in 1990 (53.1%) reported that most people can be trusted.

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

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

Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

4.b Confidence in Institutions

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

These indicators speak to trust and the existence of a community of shared values.

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

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

Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

II. Political efficacy

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

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

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

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

Source: Institute for Research on Public Policy, Policy Matters, July 2000, Vo. 1, No. 5 (pg.65).

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

Distribution of how much the government in Ottawa is trusted to do what is right, 2000	
	%
Almost always	5
Most of the time	24
Only some of the time	53
Almost never	17
Don't know	1
Total	100
(N)	(2165)

Source: www.ekos.com , 2000

4.c Respect for Diversity

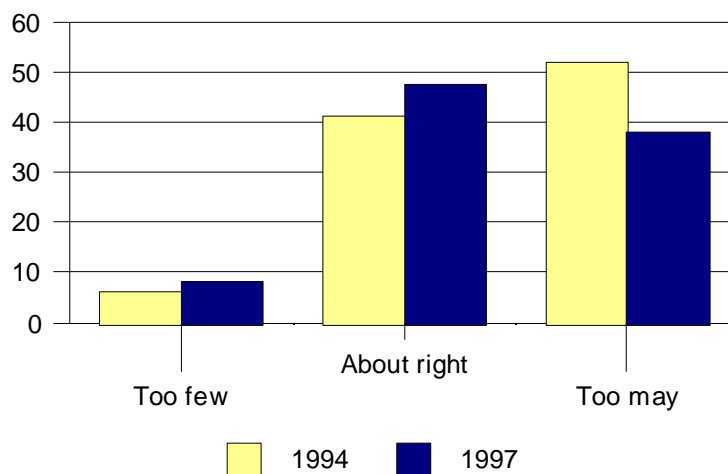
I. In your opinion, do you feel there are too many, too few, or about the right number of immigrants coming to Canada?

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

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

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

Distribution of preception of amount of immigrants coming to Canada, 1994 and 1997



Source: www.ekos.com, 2000
Excludes “Don’t know” 1% in 1994 and 6% in 1997

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

Another indicator of acceptance of cultural diversity.

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

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

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

Source: www.ekos.com, 2000

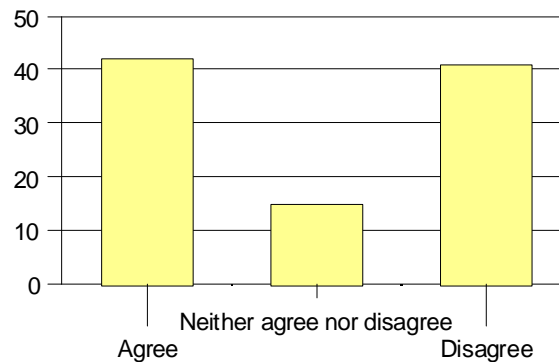
4.d Understanding of Reciprocity

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

This is a direct indicator of barriers to reciprocity.

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

Distribution of worry less about others needs, 1997



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

II. Support/"buy in" into public system

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

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

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

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

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

III. Responsibilities of citizenship

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

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

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

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

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

4.e Belonging

I. Attachment to Community, Canada

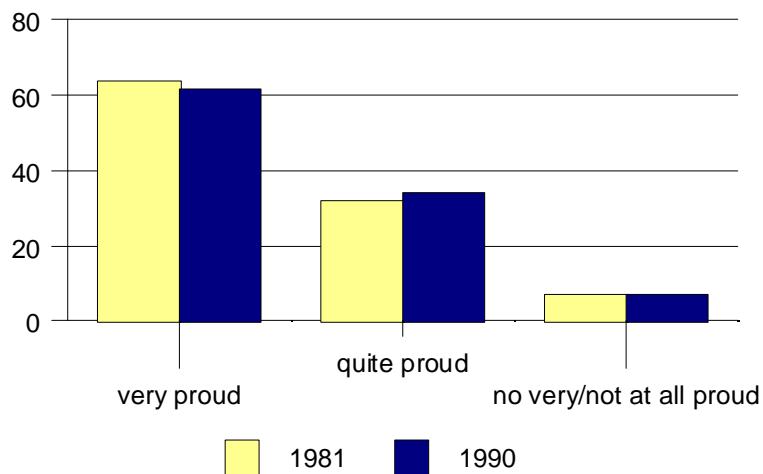
How proud respondent is to be Canadian. This indicator can be taken as important in terms of understanding whether Canada is a community of shared values.

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

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

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

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



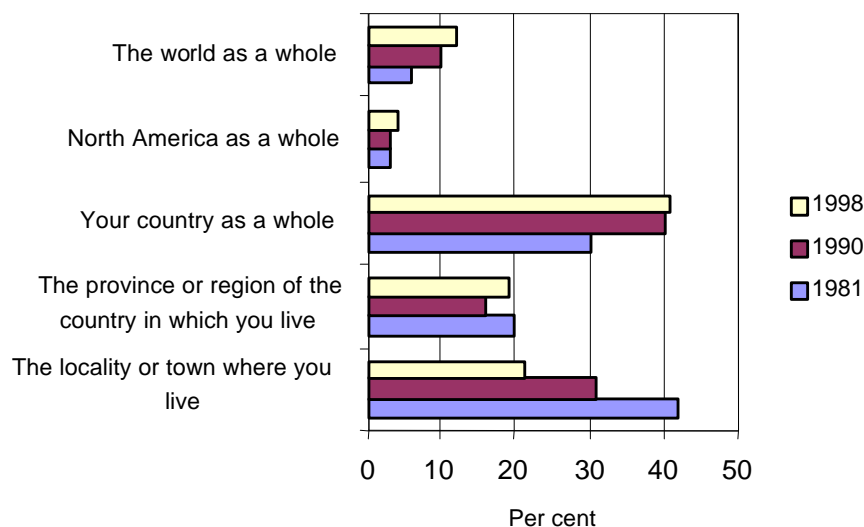
Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

II. Sense of belonging to community, Canada

The question “to which group you belong first of all” establishes primary source of identification in terms of community. Contrary to the view that national identity is receding in favour of global/local connections, the national community represents a strong and continuing source of belonging in Canada. This suggests that, for Canadians, the community of shared values exists at the national and then regional/local level.

According to an EKOS survey, in 1998, 95% of respondents felt a strong sense of belonging to their family. In terms of geographic area, 81% indicated a strong sense of belonging to Canada. However, there was significant regional variation, for example, only 55% of respondents in Quebec felt this way about Canada.

“To which of these groups would you say you belong, first of all?”



Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990
Rethinking Government, March 1998, www.ekos.com

A sense of belonging to Canada increased between 1981 and 1998 (from 30% to 41%). In contrast, sense of belonging to community decreased during this same time period (from 42% to 21%).

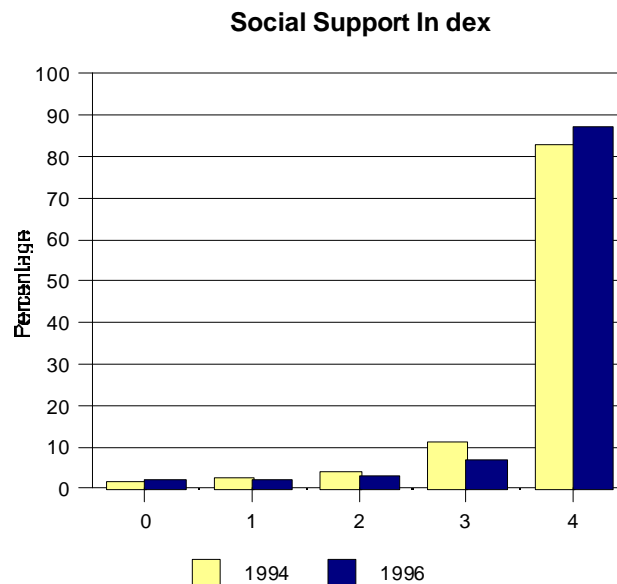
Part 5 - Participation

5.a Social Consumption/Social Support Networks

I. Social support index

Social support is measured using a composite index of questions regarding whether the respondent has someone they can confide in, count on in a crisis situation, obtain advice from when making important decisions, and someone who makes them feel loved and cared for. A higher score indicates greater social support.

This is a direct indicator of social participation and participation in intimate social networks. Canadians have high and rising levels of social support.

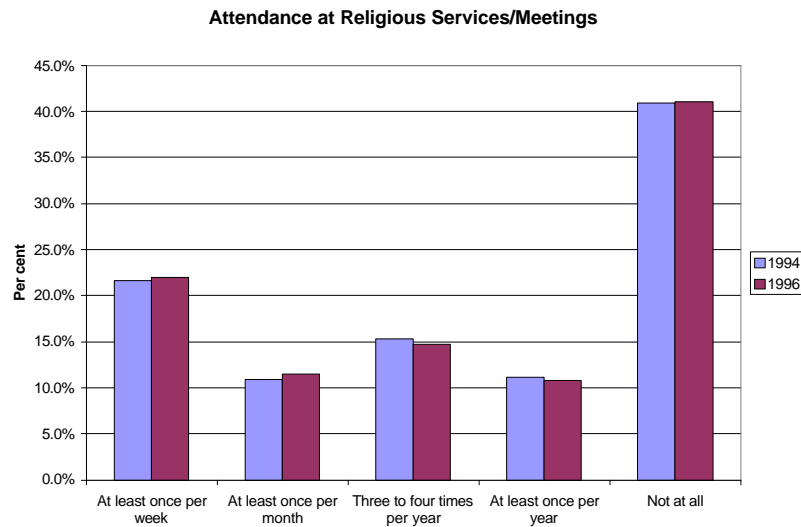


Source: Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996

II. Attendance at Religious Services/Meetings

Respondents to the NPHS were asked to determine the frequency of their attendance at religious services or meetings on an annual basis.

This is a direct indicator of social participation and activities for those who attend religious services or meetings as well as an indicator of potential communal support and participation in social networks.

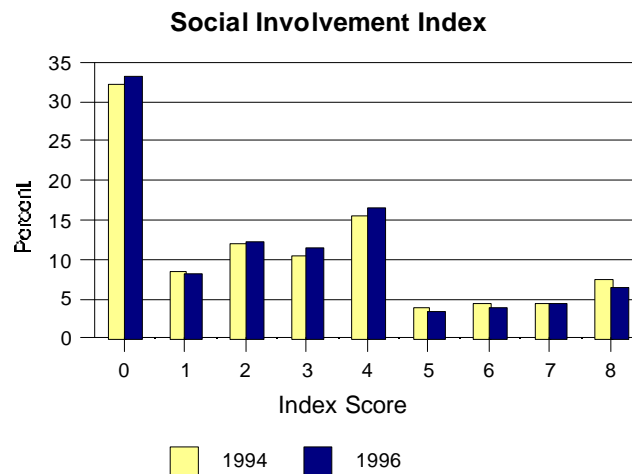


Source: Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996

III. Social involvement index

Social involvement is measured using a composite index that includes questions on a respondent's frequency of participation in associations or voluntary organizations and frequency of attendance at religious services in the last year. A higher score indicates greater social involvement.

This indicator is a composite index that directly measures the social participation of Canadians in particular organizations and associations. Canadians have a low level of social involvement.



Source: Statistics Canada's National Population Health Survey (NPHS), 1994 and 1996

IV. Frequency of contact with family, friends

This is a direct indicator of social participation and participation in intimate social networks.

Most people aged 15 and over had weekly contact with family and friends. Weekly contact was most likely to occur with close friends (81%), followed by daughters/daughters-in-law (78%) and sons/son-in-law (74%).

Less than one in four Canadians had weekly contact with either their grandparents (23%) or other relatives (24%).

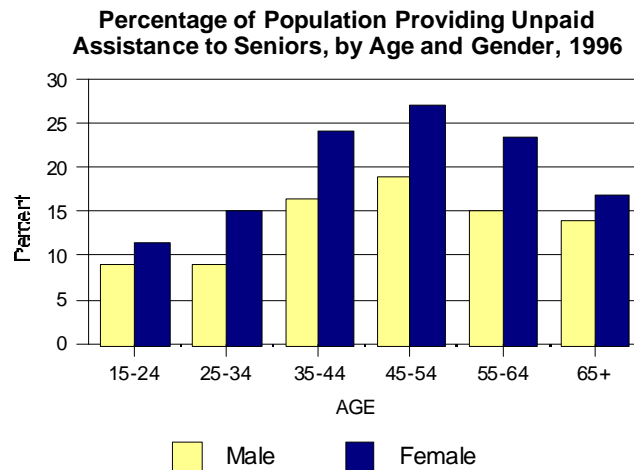
Percentage of Population Age 15 and Over Having Weekly Contact with Selected Family and Friends, (1996/97)	
Contact with:	%
grandparents	23
other relatives	24
siblings	46
neighbours	55
parental in-laws	67
sons/ sons-in-law	74
daughters/ daughters-in-law	78
close friends	81

Note: Percentages based on applicable population. For example, the population aged 15 and over with at least one living grandparent.

Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey microdata, 1996/97; The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

V. Direct acts of support for family, friends

Unpaid Assistance refers to the hours spent providing unpaid assistance to seniors for the week prior to Census day in 1996. Unpaid assistance includes such things as providing personal care, visiting, helping with shopping, baking or taking medicine. This is an indicator of reciprocity, of participation, and of the existence of close social networks.



Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census, The Nation Series CD-Rom, 93F0020XCB96004, The Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000

According to the 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, 16.7 million Canadians provided assistance to individuals outside of their household. This figure represents 71% of the population aged 15 and over, and is an increase of four percentage points compared to the 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey. Without going through an organization, these individuals provided a total of 62.5 million acts of support such as taking care of a child, visiting the elderly or shovelling a walkway.

5.b Participation in Networks and Groups

I. Voluntarism: average annual hours, participation in civic and voluntary activity

The extent of voluntary activity is a key indicator of social participation and involvement.

According to Statistics Canada, 26.8% of Canadians volunteered their time for at least one organization or group in 1987, rising to 31.4% in 1997. Although a higher percentage of Canadians volunteered in the most recent survey, the average number of hours volunteered per year has declined from 191 in 1987 to 149 in 1997.

Rate of volunteering and number of hours volunteered in the reference year, Canadian population aged 15 and over, 1987 and 1997		
	1987	1997
Rate of volunteering		
Total population (thousands)	19,902	23,808
Total volunteers	5,337	7,472
Volunteer participation rate	26.8%	31.4%
Hours volunteered		
Total hours volunteered (thousands)	1,017,548	1,108,924
Full-time year-round job equivalence	530,000	578,000
Average hours volunteered per year	191	149

Note: 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; 1987 Volunteer Activity Survey, Statistics Canada

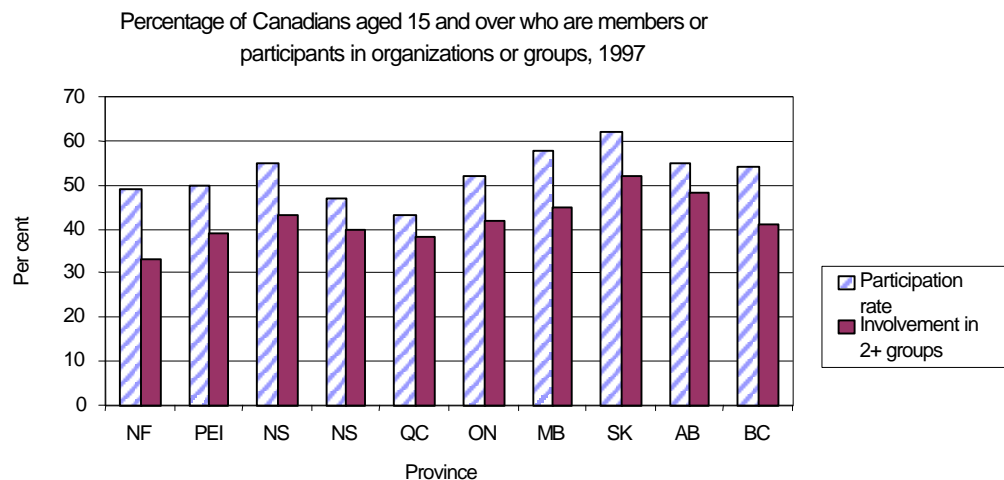
Assuming 40 hours per week for 48 weeks.

Source: Table 2.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

II. Group activities: membership in voluntary organizations, frequency of participation in organizations, membership in political organizations

Civic participation can be measured as a broad set of activities that entail involvement in civic or community life.

Between November 1, 1996 and October 31, 1997, more than 12 million Canadians aged 15 and over were members of, or participated in, at least one community organization. Most commonly, respondents were involved with work-related groups or organizations, such as unions or professional associations (19% of respondents), sports and recreation organizations (18%), and groups affiliated with religious organizations (13%). Approximately 3% of respondents were involved with political organizations.



Source: 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating; Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 71-542-XPE

The results from the 1981 and 1990 World Values Survey show that the percentages of respondents who belonged to political parties or groups at the time of the surveys was higher than those belonging to local community action groups. However, from 1981 to 1990 the likelihood of participation increased for both types of groups.

Do you belong to:	1981		1990	
	%	(N)	%	(N)
Political parties or groups	5.3	(66)	7.3	(127)
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	1.3	(16)	5.1	(89)

Source: World Values Survey, 1981 and 1990

III. Levels of philanthropic activity: number of charitable donors (\$)

Donors are persons who made donations of money to a charitable/non-profit organization during the period from November 1, 1996 to October 31, 1997. This definition excludes those who made donations of loose change to coin collection boxes (located beside cash registers at store check-outs).

According to the 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, 78% of Canadians aged 15 and over (or 18.6 million) made donations of money to a charitable/non-profit organization during the 12- month period prior to the survey.

The average financial donation in the 12- month period prior to the survey was \$239 (excluding deposits of spare change). A small percentage of donors accounted for most of the donations. One-third of donors, gave \$150 or more during the year, and accounted for 86% of all donations.

Donating Rate, average and median of donations made by donors, population aged 15 and over	
Donating rate	78
Average donation	239
Median	76

Note: Statistics Canada, 1997 National Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Source. Table 1.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. Participating 71-542-XPE

In 1998, 5.4 million Canadians reported charitable donations on their income tax return, an increase of 2.1% from 1997. Charitable donations increased from \$4.3 billion in 1997 to \$4.6 billion in 1998. Since 1991, the total amount of donations has increased continuously every year.

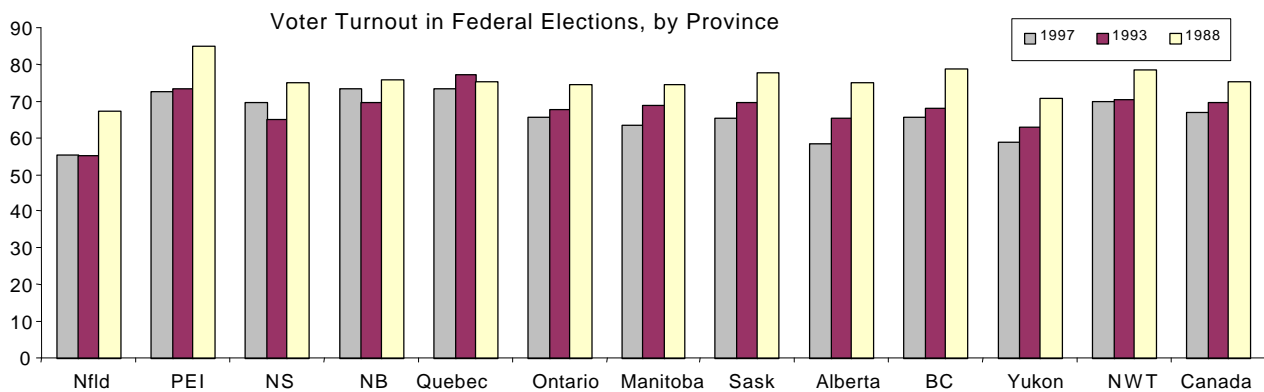
5.c Political Participation

I. Voter turnout by level of government

Voter turnout is a key possible indicator of the level of civic engagement.

In federal elections, voter turnout has been decreasing since 1988 and is now about 70%. In provincial elections, only Saskatchewan and Yukon have shown increases in voter turnout over the past decade. Turnout in local elections varies greatly between major urban centres and is generally lower than in federal and provincial elections.

Canadian voter turnout still remains quite high relative to other countries, particularly the US.



Source: Prepared by the CCSD using information provided by Elections Canada.

Part 6 - Literacy

I. Functional literacy levels

Literacy can be seen as a key indirect and direct indicator of social cohesion. Lack of literacy skills is associated with potential exclusion from labour market opportunities, and with at least partial exclusion from cultural and community processes to the extent that these require literacy skills.

The 1994 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) identified three types of literacy - prose literacy, document literacy and quantitative literacy - and measured proficiency at five different levels within each literacy type.

Twenty two per cent of Canadians are at level 1. These people have difficulty reading and have few basic skills or strategies for decoding and working with text. Generally, they are aware that they have a literacy problem.

Twenty six per cent of Canadians are at level 2. These are people with limited skills who read but do not read well. Canadians at this level can deal only with material that is simple and clearly laid out. People at this level often do not recognize their limitations.

Thirty three per cent of Canadians are at level 3, which means that they can read well but may have problems with more complex tasks. This level is considered by many countries to be the minimum skill level for successful participation in society.

Only 20% of Canadians are at levels 4 or 5. These people have strong literacy skills, including a wide range of reading skills and many strategies for dealing with complex materials. These Canadians can meet most reading demands and can handle new reading challenges.

Distribution of Literacy on three IALS scales, Canadian adults aged 16 and over				
	Level			
	1	2	3	4/5
	Per cent			
Prose Scale	22	26	33	20
Document Scale	23	24	30	22
Quantitative Scale	22	26	32	20

Source: Prepared by the CCSD using Statistics Canada's and OECD IALS data.

Appendix I : Suggested Indicators of Social Cohesion:

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Conditions Favorable for Inclusive Social Cohesion				
Main Indicator	Suggested Measure	Years	Disaggregation	Source
1. Economic conditions that impact socially cohesive activity				
1.a Distribution of Income	* distribution of disposable income by pre-tax quintile	IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)	IDS or SCF - (A, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab, PWD)	IDS or SCF or SLID
	* distribution of earnings (hourly/weekly) holding hours of work constant	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)	IDS or SCF - (A, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab, PWD)	SCF / SLID
	* average disposable provincial income as % national average	IDS (80, 89, 97) / SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 to present)		IDS or SCF or SLID
	* visible minority total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (born in CA, outside CA, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
	* Aboriginal total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (A, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
	* PWD total income as % national average	Census (90, 95) / SLID (96 onward)	Census (A, G) / SLID	Census A or SLID
1.b Income Polarization	* gini or ratio of P10/P90	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	SCF (A, G, R/P) / SLID	SCF / SLID
	* ratio of total income	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	SCF (A - youth/prime age, G, R/P) / SLID (all of SCF and VM, Ab, PWD)	SCF / SLID, Earnings of Men and Women
	* intergenerational economic mobility			Corak re: inter-generational income mobility (decile shift matrix) in new StatsCan book
1.c Poverty	* poverty rate (after tax LIM)	81, 89, 98	A, G, R/P	SCF/SLID
	* depth of poverty - total, average	81, 89, 98	A, G, R/P	SCF/SLID
	* duration of poverty	93-98	A, G, R/P	SLID
1.d Employment	* employment rate	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* IPT employment	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* % long-term unemployed (> 6 months)	80, 89, 99	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	LFS
	* % affected by unemployment over the year	SCF (81, 89, 97) / SLID (96 onward)	all, G, 25-54, 15-24, R/P	SCF / SLID
1.e Mobility	* people in different residence 5 years earlier - within same municipality, within province, different province, different country	90, 95	A, G, R/P	Census A, Annual Demographics
2. Life Chances				
2.a Health Care	* private health care spending as % household budget	92,96, 97	A, R/P, SES	FAMEX, Survey of Household Spending
	* health spending as % GDP	80,89,97	R/P/int'l	CIHI (also found in OECD at a Glance)
	* waiting times / health care system usage	yrs vary depending on province and study	R/P	CIHI / Maclean's
	* CCSD survey: if you or a family member were hospitalized, would you be worried about how to pay for it?	98, 99	R/P, G, A, SES	
	* CCSD survey: if you were ill at home, is there a friend, family member who would look after you?	98, 99	R/P, G, A, SES	
2.b Education	* private education spending as % household budget	92,97	R/P, G, F, SES	FAMEX, HHLD Spending Survey
	* average student debt by amount of debt categories if available	86, 95	A, G, R/P	National Graduate Survey
	* high school and pse dropout rates		A, G, R/P	SCF, SLID, NGS
	* rate of high school graduates who do not go on to pse / training		A, G, R/P	NGS
2.c Adequate and Affordable Housing	* housing costs as % of hhld income	Famex (90, 92, 96) or Hife (81, 89, 96 - renters only)	owners/ renters, A, G, R/P	FAMEX, HFE
	* renter / owner ratio	Famex (90, 92, 96) / Hife (81, 89, 96) / SCF (80, 89, 97)	(Depends on Dataset used - A, G, R/P)	FAMEX, SCF, HFE
	* homelessness			

Conditions Favorable for Inclusive Social Cohesion				
Main Indicator	Suggested Measure	Years	Disaggregation	Source
3. Quality of Life				
3.a Population Health				
Real	* potential years of life lost (before age 75)	81, 89, 97	G, R/P, SES	LCDC
	* major reasons for hospitalization and death		A, G, R/P, SES	CIHI
Perceived	* CCSD survey: how would you rate your own health?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	CCSD
	* CCSD survey: how stressful is your life?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	CCSD
3.b Personal and Family Security				
Real	* homicide rate (per 100,000)	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	Juristat. Crime Statistics in Canada 1999
	* rate of aggravated assault (per 100,000)	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	
	* property crime rate (per 100,000) - break and enter, MV theft	80,89,99	A, G, R/P	Juristat
Perceived	* victimization rates	87, 93, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
	* CCSD survey: how would you rate your families safety?	98, 99	A, G, R/P	
	* how safe do you feel walking along in your area after dark?	87, 93, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
3.c Economic Security				
Real	* see section 1			
	* ratio of total mortgage and consumer debt to disposable income	80, 89, 99		National Accounts
Perceived	* CCSD survey: if you were in financial distress, is there a friend, neighbour or family member you could count on to help?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	
	* CCSD survey: how long could you sustain your family if you had to rely on savings?	98, 99	A, G, R/P, SES	
3.d State of the Family				
	* custodial arrangements	94, 96, 98	A	NLSCY
	* family functioning scale	94, 96, 98	A, G, R/P, SES	NLSCY
	* quantity / quality of interaction between parents and children	94, 96, 98		NLSCY
	* child outcomes, i.e., behavioural, learning, etc.	94, 96, 98	A, G, R/P, SES	NLSCY
	* families with adult children at home	98	R/P, SES	
3.e Time Use				
	* average time spent in paid work, unpaid work, personal care, leisure	86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	GSS
	* time stress among 25-54 year-olds	96	A, G, R/P	NPHS
	* hours spent watching TV / playing on computer / playing video games	NLSCY - 94, 96, 98 // GSS - 86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	NLSCY, GSS
	* commuting times (and distance commuted)	86, 92, 98	A, G, R/P	Transport Canada / GSS / Census
3.f Built Environment:				
i. Infrastructure (places to engage in social interaction)				
	* Attendance at nature parks	84/85,91/92,97/99	uncertain	Heritage Institutions
	* data on community recreation centres, public parks, etc.			
ii. Communication Networks				
	* Canadian/local newspaper readership			GSS
	* computer/internet ownership	94, 96, 97,98	R/P, SES,F	HFE, GSS (1994) Household Internet Survey and Survey of Household Spending
	* internet use	97,98	R/P, SES,F	Internet Household Use Survey
3.g Quality of Natural Environment				
	* air quality data	91, 95	selected cities	Air Quality Index, selected cities by EnvCan. Air Quality Indicators Database
	* water quality data			
	* food and waterborne diseases		R/P	National Notifiable Disease Registry, LCDC, H.C.

Elements of Socially Cohesive Activity				
Main Indicator	Suggested Measure	Years	Disaggregation	Source
4. Willingness to Cooperate				
4.a Trust in People	* would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can never be too careful in your dealings with people?		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.b Confidence in Institutions	* confidence in health care system, public education, justice, parliament (shared sense of ownership over governing process)		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* political efficacy		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.c Respect for Diversity	* In your opinion, do you feel there are too many, too few, ...immigrants coming to Canada?	94, 95, 96, 97, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* Does the fact that we accept immigrants from many different cultures make our culture stronger or weaker?	96, 97, 98, 99	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.d Understanding of Reciprocity	* These days I'm so hard pressed to take care of my own needs that I worry less about the needs of others. (principles of reciprocity)	94, 97, 99	A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* support for "buy in" into public system		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* responsibilities of citizenship		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
4.e Belonging	* attachment to community, Canada		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
	* sense of belonging to community, Canada		A,G, R/P, SES	EKOS / WVS
5. Participation				
5.a Social Consumption / Social Support Networks	* social support index - community involvement, church attendance, parental involvement with school	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS
	* frequency of contact with family, friends	94, 96, 98 (GSS 5, 10)	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS 5, 10)
	* direct acts of support for family, friends	87, 97	A,G, R/P, SES	Volunteering survey
5.b Participation in Networks and Groups				
i. Voluntarism	* average annual hours	87, 97	A,G, R/P, SES	Volunteering survey
	* participation in civic and voluntary activity	86, 92, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	GSS
ii. Group Activities	* participation in sport activities	86, 92, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	GSS
	* membership in voluntary organizations	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS, volunteering survey)
	* frequency of participation in organization	94, 96, 98	A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS (GSS, volunteering survey)
	* membership in political organizations		A,G, R/P, SES	NPHS
iii. Levels of Philanthropic Activity	* number of charitable donors (\$)		A,G, R/P, SES	Tax data, volunteering survey (97)
5.c Political Participation	* voter turnout by level of government	fed, prov (years will vary)	R/P	Elections Canada
6. Literacy	* functional literacy levels	89, 94	A,G, R/P, SES	IALS, Survey of literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities.

Appendix II – Databases and Abbreviations

Major Databases:

National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY)

The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY), developed by Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, collects information on over 20,000 children (newborns to 13 years of age). Starting in 1994, the NLSCY will survey these children every two years until they reach adulthood. In the first cycle of the survey, both the child's primary caregiver and teacher were asked to provide information, as were children aged 10 and 11. In the second cycle of the survey in 1996, children aged 12 and 13 were also included. The NLSCY includes a broad range of family, household, and community characteristics affecting child development.

National Population Health Survey (NPHS)

The National Population Health Survey (NPHS), conducted by Statistics Canada, collects information related to the health of the Canadian population. A cross-section of information is obtained by surveying all members of the survey households (58,000 individuals). To collect longitudinal information, one respondent per household, aged 12 years and older, is surveyed (18,000 individuals). Data will be collected every two years, starting in 1994.

Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF)

The Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF) is an annual Statistics Canada survey that provides a cross-section of information on the sources and distribution of income for families and individuals. Data are obtained from approximately 38,000 households in Canada, excluding persons living in the Yukon, Northwest Territories, on Indian reserves and Crown lands, and residents of institutions.

1996 Census

Statistics Canada's 1996 Census provides national coverage of the entire Canadian population, including variables on demographic, social, cultural, labour force, and income data as well as details on dwellings, households and families. Generally, data are presented for Canada, the provinces, territories and for Census Metropolitan Areas. Some tables include comparisons with data from earlier Censuses.

Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID)

Beginning in 1993, the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) is an ongoing longitudinal survey that interviews each sample member over a six-year period. The longitudinal nature of this survey as well as the extensive data content allow analysis of issues related to the labour market and income, including low income and changes in income over time.

National Graduate Survey (NGS)

This Statistics Canada survey, sponsored by Human Resources Development Canada, provides information on the integration of recent graduates into the labour market. Data are collected on such things as jobs obtained since graduation (number, type and duration of jobs) the length of the job search, the relationship between the students' education or training and the jobs obtained, and any additional studies or training since graduation. Surveys were conducted in 1978, 1984, 1988, 1992, and 1997 for students who had graduated two years earlier. Data used in this report are from the 1992 and 1997 surveys.

Personal Security Index Survey (PSI)

This survey is commissioned by CCSD and is conducted in December of each year. Sample size of the survey population was 1500 persons in 1998 and more than 3000 persons in 1999.

World Value Survey (WVS)

This data collection is designed to enable cross-national comparison of values and norms in a wide variety of areas and to monitor changes in values and attitudes of mass publics in 45 societies around the world. Broad topics covered are work, the meaning and purpose of life, family life, and contemporary social issues.

Labour Force Survey (LFS)

The Canadian Labour Force Survey (LFS) is a source of monthly estimates of employment and unemployment. Following each decennial census, the LFS has undergone a sample redesign to reflect changes in population characteristics and to respond to changes in the information needs to be satisfied by the survey. The redesign program following the 1991 census culminated with the introduction of a new sample at the beginning of 1995.

Survey of Household Spending (HFS)

The public-use microdata file for the Survey of Household Spending provides detailed information on household expenditures, dwelling characteristics, and ownership of household equipment such as appliances, audio and video equipment, and vehicles. Expenditure categories include: shelter expenses, furnishings and equipment, cost of running the home, communications, child care, food, alcohol and tobacco products, clothing, gifts, medical and health care, transportation and travel, recreation, reading materials, education, taxes, insurance payments and pension contributions.

General Social Survey – Time use cycles (GSS)

The General Social Survey, cycle 12, collected data from persons 15 years and older. The core content of time use repeats that of Cycle 7 (1992) and Cycle 2(1986), and provides data on the daily activities of Canadians. Question modules were also included on unpaid work activities, cultural activities and participation in sports. The target population of the General Social Survey consisted of all individuals aged 15 and over living in a private household in one of the ten provinces.

National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating

The purpose of the survey was to ask Canadians 15 years of age and over about the ways in which they support one another and their communities through their involvement in giving, volunteering and participating. This survey is a first for Canada and given the scale of the survey, it is one of the first times internationally that volunteering, giving and civic participation have been looked at in such a large and integrated fashion.

The Survey of Family expenditures (FAMEX)

The Survey of Family expenditures provides detailed information on household expenditures including: housing (type and value of dwelling, mortgage, additions, renovations and installations); characteristics of reference person and spouse (income by source, occupation, employment); household characteristics (members, employment insurance and social assistance indicators); food and shelter; household operation (communication, child care, household supplies); household furnishings and equipment; clothing (by age, sex of household members);

transportation (public and private); health care; personal care; recreation; reading materials and other printed matter; education (tuition and supplies); tobacco products and alcoholic beverages; miscellaneous (interest payments, games of chance, taxes, insurance payments and pension contributions, money gifts and contributions); and total expenditure.

Abbreviations:

IDS: Income Distribution by Size from Statistics Canada

A: Age

G: Gender

R/P: Regional/Provincial

SES: Socio-economic Status

VM: Member of a visible minority

CIHI: Canadian Institute on Health Information

OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development