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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

FEATURES

WINTER 2003 NO. 71
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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

FEATURES

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Across the generations: Grandparents and grandchildren

by Anne Milan and Brian Hamm

The bond between grandparents and grandchildren is often considered special because it can involve a close relationship across generations. Children in touch with their grandparents learn about the elderly, gain a sense of history, and experience life from the perspective of someone older. At times children, particularly older ones, can offer practical assistance to an elderly grandparent.

In turn, grandparents may enjoy renewed purpose and the youthful enthusiasm of their grandchildren. Grandparents are in a unique position to offer love, advice and a listening ear, while maintaining an objectivity that is often difficult for parents to achieve. Their ability to provide emotional or financial help may come in particularly useful when the parents are experiencing marital problems, separation or divorce, health or disability issues, or other difficult situations.

Grandparents' involvement with grandchildren may range from simply sending birthday or holiday cards to caregiving on a part-time basis to occasionally even full-time care. The extent of emotional closeness between the generations is influenced by how far they live from each other and how often they are in contact.[1] Because there is much diversity in the frequency and type of interaction, it is difficult to make generalizations. It cannot even be assumed that all persons in their later years want to take on the role of grandparent and the attendant social expectations. Yet for many grandchildren, grandparents

1. Ward, M. 2002. *The Family Dynamic: A Canadian Perspective* (3rd ed.). Scarborough, Ontario: Nelson Thomson Learning.

CST What you should know about this study

Data in this article come from the 2001 Census of Population and from the 2001 General Social Survey (GSS). The 2001 Census provided data on the number of grandchildren living with grandparents, the number of grandparents living with grandchildren, household financial maintainer status of the grandparent(s), and whether the middle generation comprised two parents, a lone parent, or no parents. The GSS interviewed a representative sample of over 24,000 Canadians aged 15 years and older living in private households in the 10 provinces. In the GSS, respondents were asked a number of questions related to grandparents and grandchildren, including "Do you have any grandchildren?" and "How many grandchildren do you have?" The distinction was not made between biological and step-grandchildren. Information was also available on respondents living in households with three or more generations. There were about 6,400 grandparents sampled in the GSS, representing 5.7 million grandparents in Canada.

Shared home: refers to grandparents and grandchildren living in the same home, which may be either a multigenerational (including the middle generation), or a skip-generation (no middle generation present) household.

are an integral part of the family, reflecting a relationship which can last from early childhood into the adult years.[2]

The potential, however, is for grandparents and grandchildren to be even closer when they share a home, either with or without the middle generation. With the complexity of family forms that exist in society today, grandparents can add a sense of stability to households and contribute in a number of ways. Having multiple generations in the same home may also be a source of stress as a result of varying backgrounds, values and expectations. In cases where no parent is present, grandparents may be the primary caregiver, a situation which can involve challenges as well as rewards. This study will use data from the 2001 Census of Population and the 2001 General Social Survey (GSS) to examine the characteristics of grandparents in Canada, with a focus on those who share homes with their grandchildren.

Snapshot of grandparents

According to the GSS, there were some 5.7 million grandparents in Canada in 2001. As expected, the likelihood of being a grandparent increases with age. While grandparenthood was very rare among people under the age of 45 (2% of women and less than 1%[3] of men), by one's late fifties, it was much more common. Nearly two-thirds (65%) of women aged 55 to 64 were grandmothers and over half (53%) of men in this age range were grandfathers. The average age of grandparents was about 65; some 80% of women and 74% of men this age and older were grandparents. By this age, many seniors had been grandparents for some time already. Overall, women were more likely than men to be grandparents, perhaps partly because women live longer and marry at younger ages than men.[4]

Although there is an increasing diversity in grandparent demographics, many grandparents are seniors, and their characteristics tend to reflect those of the overall elderly population in Canada. In 2001, over two-thirds (68%) of grandparents were married while 18% were widowed. An additional 10% were divorced, separated, or never married and 4% of grandparents were living common-law. Over half (53%) of grandparents were retired, nearly one-third (30%) were in the labour force, and 11% stated their main activity as home makers or childcare providers.

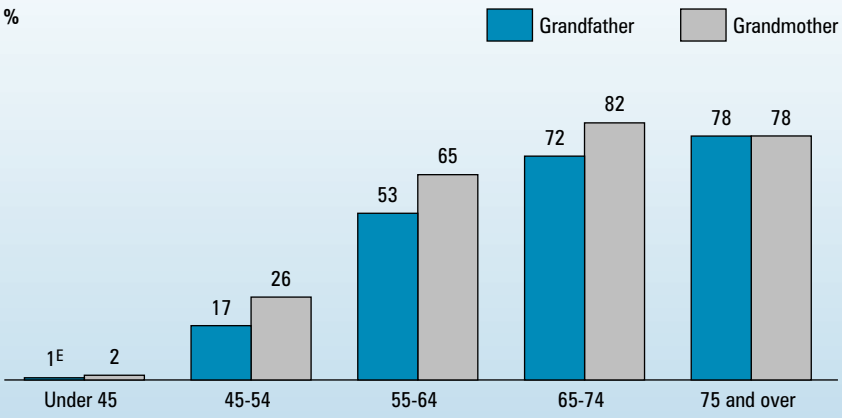
Nearly five grandchildren for each grandparent

According to the 2001 GSS, grandparents have, on average, 4.7 grandchildren. This number, though, is likely to decline as fertility rates continue to fall. In fact, researchers have noted that "beanpole" families, in which multiple generations exist but have fewer members in each generation, are becoming more common. With reduced numbers of kin who can be counted on to "be there," grandparent–grandchild relations may take on added importance.[5]

Many other factors may also influence the relationship between

2. Kemp, C. 2003. "The social and demographic contours of contemporary grandparenthood: Mapping patterns in Canada and the United States." *Journal of Comparative Family Studies* 34, 2: 187-212.
3. Use with caution.
4. Kemp. 2003.
5. Giarrusso, R., M. Silverstein and V.L. Bengston. Spring 1996. "Family complexity and the grandparent role." *Generations* 20: 17-23.

CST **Nearly 4 in 5 people aged 75 and over are grandparents**



E Use with caution.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 2001.

grandparents and grandchildren, including changes in family composition. In particular, parental divorce or separation can severely damage the grandparent–grandchild relationship on the side of the family that has not been granted custody.[6] While remarriages and blended families often come with stepgrandparents, this is a role which can be especially ambiguous. On the other hand, grandparents who are themselves in long-term marriages can serve as sources of stability and positive examples for grandchildren from broken or troubled homes.

Sharing a home: Grandparents and grandchildren

In Canada today, grandparents are most likely to live in a separate household from their adult children and grandchildren. Yet some homes do contain both grandparents and grandchildren; most of these homes also include at least one of the child's parents.

According to the 2001 GSS, nearly 4% of Canadians, or about 930,000 people, lived in multigenerational households; that is, households with at least three generations including grandparents, parents, and grandchildren. Strictly speaking, this arrangement is what social historians and anthropologists refer to as the extended family. Among historical demographers, there is considerable controversy whether this family form was ever very prevalent and, despite the nostalgic perceptions, desired.[7]

Across Canada's provinces, in 2001 multigenerational households were most common in British Columbia (4.9%) and Ontario (4.8%), and least common in Quebec (1.6%). About 3.5% of individuals in each of the Atlantic provinces and in the Prairies lived in this type of household.

Immigrants twice as likely as the Canadian-born to live in multigenerational families

The higher share of multigenerational households in British Columbia and Ontario may reflect these provinces' larger immigrant populations. Previous research also found that multigenerational households were more common among the immigrant population, especially those from Asian countries.[8] In fact, GSS data showed that less than 3% of people who were Canadian-born lived in multigenerational households in 2001, compared with 7% of those born outside Canada.

While living in a multigenerational family can offer many benefits, some families, particularly from certain ethnic or cultural backgrounds, may experience a clash in values between the traditional family ideals of an older generation and the Western values that may have been adopted by the children.[9] Such conflicts could be even more pronounced when there are multiple generations in a home.

Culture might also be one of the reasons accounting for the high proportion of grandchildren sharing homes with their grandparents in Nunavut (9.7%) and the Northwest Territories (5.4%). These territories are home to many Aboriginal peoples, for whom the extended family has traditionally been very important.[10] Indeed, Aboriginal children aged 14 and under are more likely to live with relatives or non-relatives than are non-Aboriginal children.[11]

Nearly half a million grandparents live with their grandchildren

The 2001 Census counted more than 474,400 grandparents who shared households with their grandchildren. However, relatively few grandparents

6. Giarrusso, Silverstein and Bengston. 1996.
7. Laslett, P. 1972. "Introduction: The history of the family." In P. Laslett and R. Wall (eds.), *Household and Family in Past Time*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
8. Che-Alford, J. and B. Hamm. Summer 1999. "Under one roof: Three generations living together." *Canadian Social Trends*. p. 6-9.
9. Francis, R.D., R. Jones, and D.B. Smith. 2000. *Destinies: Canadian History Since Confederation* (4th ed.). Toronto: Harcourt Canada.
10. Ward. 2002.
11. Statistics Canada. 2003. *Aboriginal Peoples of Canada: A Demographic Profile* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 96F0030XIE2001007).

aged 85 and over shared a home with their grandchildren, suggesting that many of the oldest elderly are either living elsewhere or the grandchildren have grown and established their own households.

Over half (51%) of grandparents in shared homes lived with their adult child, his or her spouse and the grandchildren. This could include "sandwich" or even "club sandwich" generations[12] in which the middle generations, particularly women, care for both children and elderly parents. However, regardless of living arrangements, intergenerational exchanges of support flow not only to the older and younger generations from the parents, but from grandparents to their adult children and grandchildren as well.[13]

One-third of grandparents (about 158,200) in shared homes lived in households where the middle generation was a lone parent, most likely the mother. Lone mothers are more likely than mothers in two-parent families to be in need of support — physical, emotional and financial. Living in a multigenerational home may be one way of ensuring that women in these situations are not totally on their own.

Grandparents who share a home with a lone parent tend to be younger than their counterparts in two-parent households. Teen pregnancy across generations means that individuals could potentially become grandparents at a very young age. More than 10% of grandparents who shared a home with grandchildren and a lone parent were under the age of 45 compared with only 2% of grandparents living with a couple as the middle generation.

12. Giarrusso, Silverstein, and Bengston. 1996.

13. Connidis, I.A. 2001. *Family Ties and Aging*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

CST One in 250 children lives with grandparents only

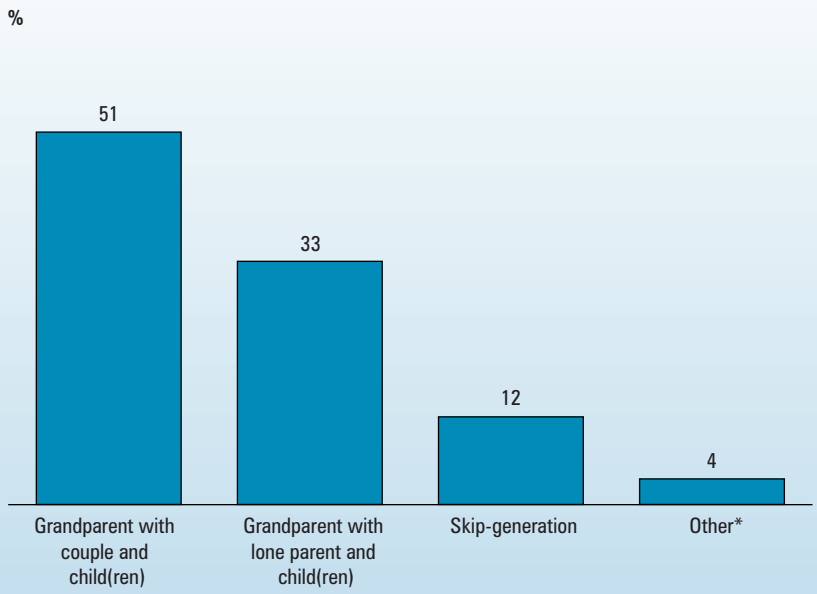
In 2001, nearly 191,000 children aged 0 to 14 (3.3% of all children in this age group) lived in the same household as one or more grandparents. However, at 25,200 (or 0.4% of all children aged 0 to 14), the number of grandchildren living in skip-generation households was much lower. While absolute numbers have increased somewhat between 1991 and 2001, the proportion has remained relatively stable during this period. The highest percentages of children in skip-generation households are found in Nunavut (2.3% of all children aged 0 to 14), the Northwest Territories (1.3%), and Saskatchewan (1.2%) while the lowest are in Quebec (0.2%). In both 1991 and 2001, a slightly higher proportion (0.6% of all teenagers this age) of older grandchildren aged 15 to 19 lived in skip-generation households.

Grandparents can serve as crucial buffers between parents and teenage grandchildren. Their age and years of experience, coupled with an often stable lifestyle, enable them to act as anchors in the fast-changing and chaotic world of the teen. Their presence and support is even more important for teens in volatile family situations. However, parental conflict and other family problems are not the only reasons why older grandchildren live with their grandparents. These children may be attending a school that is located far from the parents' home but close to where the grandparents live.

	Grandchildren sharing a home with at least one grandparent	Grandchildren in multigenerational households	Grandchildren in skip-generation households
	% of all children aged 0 to 14*		
Canada	3.3	2.9	0.4
Newfoundland and Labrador	5.3	4.6	0.7
Prince Edward Island	3.5	3.0	0.5
Nova Scotia	3.8	3.2	0.6
New Brunswick	3.9	3.4	0.5
Quebec	1.8	1.6	0.2
Ontario	3.6	3.3	0.3
Manitoba	3.9	3.0	0.9
Saskatchewan	3.9	2.7	1.2
Alberta	3.2	2.6	0.6
British Columbia	4.4	3.9	0.5
Yukon	2.6	2.1	0.5
Northwest Territories	5.4	4.1	1.3
Nunavut	9.7	7.4	2.3

* In private households.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

More than one in 10 grandparents in shared households lived without a middle generation



* Middle generation may include both a couple and a lone parent, and/or adult children who are not the parents of the grandchildren.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

When grandparents replace parents

For many grandparents, later life is a time for enjoying the benefits of an empty nest and retirement, while having fewer responsibilities than during their childrearing years. Yet about 56,700 grandparents, or 12% of those in shared households, lived with only grandchildren and no middle generation. These households are commonly referred to as skip-generation households. According to GSS data, most skip-generation grandparents in 2001 were women (67%) and were married (57%), and many were retired (46%).

Grandparents' willingness to take in their grandchildren reflects the importance of family, particularly when faced with difficulties. It is generally the parent's inability or unwillingness to care for the children that leads to full-time grandparent caregiving. Possible reasons include substance abuse, divorce or separation, mental health problems, teen pregnancy, child abuse or neglect, or death of an adult child.[14]

This creates a situation in which grandparents are raising some of the most at-risk children in society at a time when they were probably expecting more rest and relaxation. These grandchildren may have experienced physical or emotional abuse, have special needs, been exposed to parental conflict or toxic substances, and, consequently, might require much care and guidance. They might also feel divided loyalties if tensions exist between their parents and grandparents. In addition, because of problems encountered by their adult children, grandparents might have to contend with the skepticism of others regarding their parenting abilities,[15] and perhaps even their own self-doubt.

While grandparent caregivers may find it rewarding to be involved in rearing their grandchildren, they may also experience challenges related to social isolation, financial problems, or health issues.[16] Adapting to the caregiver role could necessitate changes in employment, living arrangements, social networks, as well as other lifestyle adjustments.

In some cases, parents may be relieved to have the grandparents assume caregiving responsibility, and grandparents can apply for legal custody or guardianship or pursue adoption. But if contested by the adult children, this then can increase any existing conflict between the generations.[17] And without guardianship, there are certain decisions, such as the education or health care of grandchildren, that grandparents cannot make. They might also be ineligible for some types of financial assistance, such as support payments or other child benefits.

Two-thirds of skip-generation grandparents are financial providers

In addition to assuming responsibility for raising a grandchild, some grandparents are also providing for them financially. Overall, about 35% of grandparents in shared homes were household maintainers (or primary financial providers). An earlier study found that grandparents who are the

14. See, for example, Waldrop, D.P. and J.A. Weber. 2001. "From grandparent to caregiver: The stress and satisfaction of raising grandchildren." *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services* 82, 5: 461-472.

15. Minkler, M. 1999. "Intergenerational households headed by grandparents: contexts, realities, and implications for policy." *Journal of Aging Studies* 13, 2: 199-218.

16. Roe, K.M. and M. Minkler. 1998. "Grandparents raising grandchildren: challenges and responses." *Generations* 22, 4: 25-32.

17. Jendrek, M.P. 1993. "Grandparents who parent their grandchildren: Effects on lifestyle." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 55, 3: 609-621.

CST Grandparents in skip-generation households are most likely to be financial maintainers

	% who are financial providers
Total grandparents in shared homes	**35**
Total multigenerational household	30
Middle generation – couple	16
Middle generation – lone parent	50
Middle generation – other*	54
Skip-generation household	65

* Middle generation may include both a couple and a lone parent, and/or adult children who are not the parents of the grandchildren.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

primary financial providers for their grandchildren tend to be younger, healthier, more highly educated, and more apt to be employed than grandparents living in parent-maintained homes.[18]

In the remaining homes, the maintainer is another household member or even someone from outside (e.g. a parent providing financial support while the grandchild stays with the grandparent to attend school). Even though grandparents living in parent-maintained homes are typically older, in poorer health, and less likely to be in the labour force, they can still contribute to the household in the form of income or unpaid help such as child care.[19]

The number of parents in a shared household matters considerably in who is responsible for finances. Only 16% of grandparents in multigenerational households where the middle generation was a couple were primary financial providers, compared with 50% where the middle generation was a lone parent. In skip-generation households, where there were no parents present in the home, nearly two-thirds of grandparents (65%) were financially responsible for the household.

The likelihood of being a household maintainer decreases with the age of grandparents in shared households. Nearly half (49%) of grandparents under 45 years were maintainers. This percentage declines with every age group. By age 75 to 84, about one-quarter (25%) of grandparents were maintainers, as were less than one in five (18%) of those aged 85 and over.

Summary

Whether they are primary or occasional caregivers, reside in the same household or not, live nearby or on the other side of the country, grandparents have the potential to be very influential in the lives of their grandchildren. Although they represent a small proportion of the overall population, about 930,000 individuals lived in a multigenerational household in 2001.

In some cases, grandparents are the financial maintainers of households containing not only the grandchild, but also at least one parent. Given that multigenerational households are more common among foreign-born individuals, their numbers will likely be influenced by levels of immigration. In skip-generation households, grandparents are faced with additional responsibilities. These grandparents may be able to provide a safe haven for vulnerable grandchildren whose own parents may be experiencing problems.

In return for their efforts, grandparents may enjoy a sense of purpose and may be in a position to both give support to, and receive it from, their grandchildren. The motives for living in a multigenerational or extended family may be mixed and may change over time, with a blurring of grandparents as caregivers and care recipients. But whatever shape the roles take on, it appears that the relationship between grandparents and grandchildren is here to stay.

18. Bryson, K. and L.M. Casper. 1999. "Coresident grandparents and grandchildren." *Current Population Reports* P23-198. Washington, DC: US Bureau of the Census.

19. Bryson and Casper. 1999.

Anne Milan is an analyst with *Canadian Social Trends* and **Brian Hamm** is a senior technical officer with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

30 years of education: Canada's language groups

by Jean-Pierre Corbeil

In an era of demographic, social and technological changes, the Canadian population faces an increasingly pressing need for a highly qualified labour force. As a result, education has become an important factor in the social and economic integration of individuals. In addition, the number of years of formal education needed to meet the requirements of many jobs has increased substantially over the past 30 years.

Using data from the Censuses of Population, this article examines how the educational profiles of Francophones, Anglophones and allophones have changed over the past 30 years, and the factors that have contributed to many of these changes.

What you should know about this study

Data from this article come from the Censuses of Population.

Language groups: For the purposes of this article, the Canadian population is divided into three language groups: Anglophones (those whose first language learned at home in childhood is English), Francophones (those whose first language learned at home in childhood is French) and allophones (those whose first language learned at home in childhood is a language other than English or French).

Allophones have largest decline in proportion with less than grade 9 education

According to census data, all three language groups have made considerable progress in educational attainment over the past 30 years. One way to measure this is to look at, over time, the proportion of individuals who have less than grade 9 education, a level historically considered the threshold of literacy. Among Anglophones, the percentage of Canadians aged 15 and over who had less than grade 9 dropped from 23% in 1971 to 5% in 2001. Francophones also recorded a large decline, from 44% in 1971 to 15% in 2001. Finally, the decline has been the largest among allophones, as the proportion who had less than grade 9 schooling dropped from approximately 50% to 17% over the 30-year period.

In 1971 Anglophones were, on the whole, in a considerably more advantageous situation than Francophones and most allophones. Educational improvements for Francophones took more time, as the major transformations to the French education system did not begin to have an impact on youths until the early 1970s.

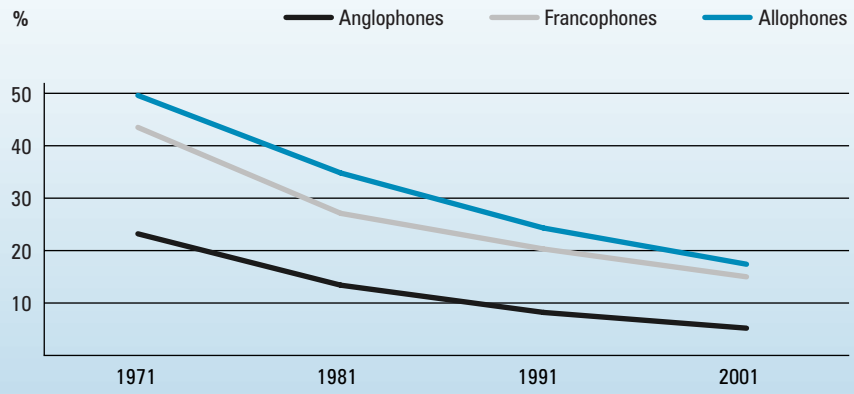
Allophones are more diverse because most have immigrated to Canada from a wide range of countries at various stages of development, and have entered under a range of admission classes ranging from refugees to economic class with diverse backgrounds. Consequently, newcomers to Canada have widely different levels of education and socio-economic backgrounds. Some are highly educated when they arrive, while others acquire much of their education in Canada.[1]

Francophone women aged 20 to 24 were least likely to have not graduated from high school

For young people, today, completion of high school is widely recognized as the minimum educational requirement and with greater demand for skills and knowledge in the labour market, postsecondary education is becoming the new standard. Those who don't complete high school face

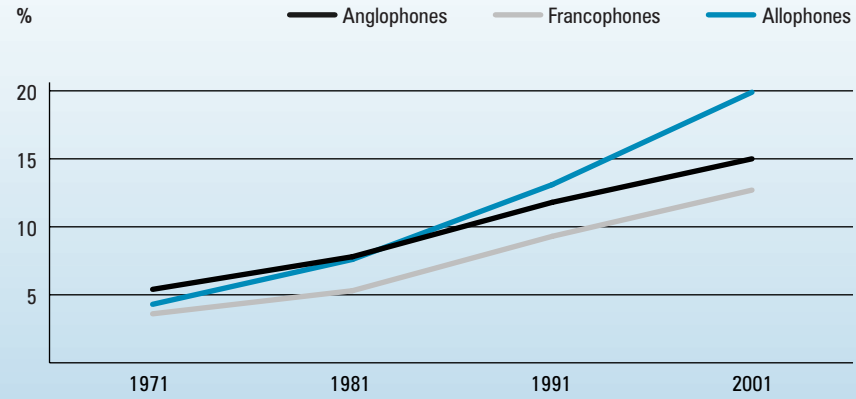
1. Foreign-trained immigrants may experience barriers in having their skills and education credentials fully recognized in the Canadian labour market which may lead to an underutilization of their skills.

The proportion of individuals aged 15 and over with less than grade 9 education has been declining…



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population.

… while the proportion with a university degree has been rising in all language groups



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population.

difficulty integrating into the labour market or finding satisfying work that provides a good quality of life. It is especially important to monitor how many young people don't complete high school. In 2001, about 21% of 20- to 24-year-old men had not graduated from high school, for each of the language groups.[2] Young women were less likely to have not yet graduated from high school than young men: 13% of Francophones, 16% of Anglophones and 17% of allophones.

Being without a high school diploma, however, need not last forever. In fact, among 20- to 24-year-olds who had not yet graduated, a significant proportion attended educational institutions. Some 18% of young Anglophones were in this situation, as were 19% of Francophones and 25% of allophones. In all language groups, women were more likely to be enrolled than men.

Allophones are most likely to be university educated

Another measure of educational change assesses how the proportion of individuals who have at least one university degree changes over time. While Anglophones were clearly in the lead in 1971, by 2001 allophones had taken over and had become the group with the highest proportion of university educated individuals. During these 30 years, the proportion of allophones with a university degree increased by 363%, followed by Francophones (277%) and finally Anglophones (177%). By 2001, nearly 13% of Francophones had a university degree, compared with 15% of Anglophones and close to 20% of allophones.

In Quebec, the creation in the 1970s of the Université du Québec network, as well as access to part-time studies, contributed greatly to the rapid growth of Francophone university enrolment.[3] During the 1970s and 1980s, part-time university programs were more likely to be offered in Quebec's French-language universities than elsewhere in Canada.

Young people have higher education

Naturally, changes in education have affected young people the most. The proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds who left school before Grade 9 is much smaller than in the overall population. In 2001, slightly over 1% of Anglophones in this age group, nearly 4% of Francophones, and 5% of allophones did not have a Grade 9 education.

Similarly, the proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds with a university degree was considerably higher than in the general population. Nearly 23% of

2. High school dropout rates refer to the percentage of the population who have not completed high school and are not working toward its completion. Some of the young people identified as not having completed high school are still working towards a diploma. Therefore, the percentages quoted here are not dropout rates.

3. Chenard, P. and M. Lévesque. 1992. "La démocratisation : succès et limites." *Le Québec en jeu : comprendre les grands défis* (G. Daigle, ed.). Montréal: Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal. p. 405.

both Francophones and Anglophones, and 33% of allophones, this age had a university degree in 2001.

Compared with Francophones and Anglophones aged 25 to 34, the group of allophones this age is highly polarized in educational attainment, containing the highest proportion of both the least educated and the most educated individuals. In 2001, for example, 5 of the 20 most numerous allophone groups had a university education rate that exceeded 50%, while among 4 the proportion with university degrees was less than 20%. The highest proportion of university educated individuals occurred among those with Romanian mother tongue (59%) and the lowest among people with Portuguese mother tongue (15%).

Outside Quebec, young Francophones are more likely to have a university degree than Anglophones

The proportion of 25- to 34-year-olds with a university education varies from province to province and has changed significantly over the last 30 years. In 1971, in every province, Anglophones were more likely than Francophones to have had a university degree. By 2001, only Anglophones in Quebec were more likely to have a university degree than Francophones aged 25 to 34: 31% versus 23%, respectively. Francophones lead Anglophones in every other province. This occurred not because Francophones in Quebec had less education than Francophones in other provinces, but because Anglophones who lived in Quebec had significantly higher levels of education than Anglophones elsewhere.

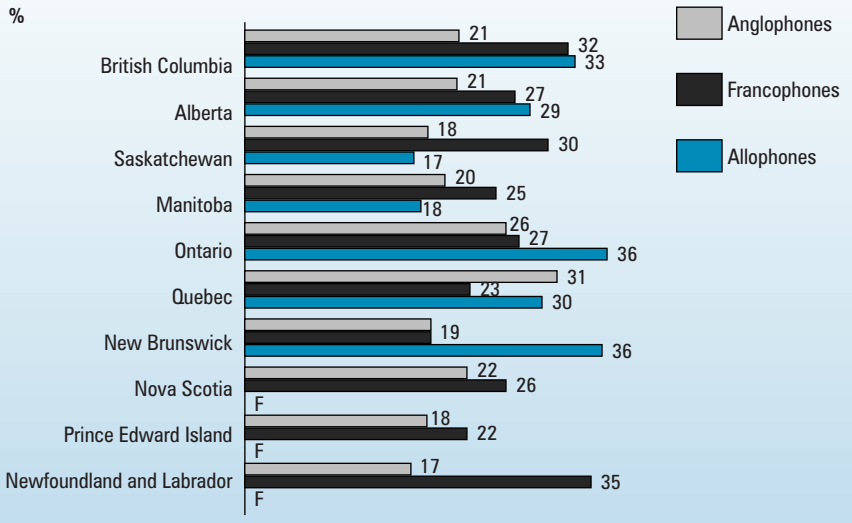
In 2001, allophones in Ontario, British Columbia, Alberta and New Brunswick were more likely to have a university degree than the other two language groups, while in Manitoba and Saskatchewan they were less likely. In Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia

CST Proportion of university degree holders varies widely among young allophones

Mother tongue	% of 25- to 34-year-olds with a university degree
Romanian	59
Korean	55
Russian	55
Urdu	53
Chinese	50
Hindi	45
Gujarati	43
Persian	40
Arabic	39
Tagalog (Filipino)	37
Greek	33
Croatian	33
Italian	28
Punjabi	26
Spanish	25
Polish	24
German	20
Vietnamese	18
Tamil	16
Portuguese	15

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

CST In most provinces, Francophones aged 25 to 34 are more likely than Anglophones to have a university degree



F Too unreliable to be published.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

CST The French experience

The 1960s marked an important milestone in the evolution of education in Canada, particularly in Quebec. In 1963, the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism (the Dunton-Laurendeau Commission) was set up to address the discontent among Francophones about the continued vitality of their language and culture within Canada. The Commission found that Francophones were consistently behind Anglophones in educational attainment, average income, occupational levels and industrial ownership.

For example, according to the 1961 Census, Canadian men with a French origin in the labour force were considerably more likely than those with a British background to have stopped their formal education at the end of elementary school: 54% versus 31%, respectively. The cultural divide in educational attainment persisted at the higher end of the educational spectrum. Canadian men with British origins were more than twice as likely as those with a French background to have a university degree: 13% versus 6%, respectively.

In order to respond to the multiple needs of a society that was seriously behind in its universal access to education, the Parent Commission was set up in Quebec to "create a free and accessible public education system…."[1] In 1964, the Quebec Ministry of Education was founded to implement the recommendations of the Parent Commission.[2]

Because French schools outside Quebec received no government funding, until the early 1970s Francophones outside that province had very limited access to education in their own language.[3] These difficulties meant that only a small number of Francophones attended secondary school and, of those, very few graduated.[4] As a result of much work by various commissions and committees, by 1969 French language secondary schools had begun to be established in Ontario, the province with the largest Francophone population outside Quebec.[5]

1. Chenard, P. and M. Lévesque. 1992. "La démocratisation : succès et limites." *Le Québec en jeu : comprendre les grands défis* (G. Daigle, ed.). Montréal: Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal. p. 385-422.
2. ibid. p. 386.
3. See Bordeleau, L.G., R. Bernard and B. Cazabon. "L'éducation en Ontario français," as well as Levasseur-Ouimet, F., Y. Mahé, F. McMahon and C. Tardif. "L'éducation dans l'Ouest canadien " in *Francophonies minoritaires au Canada : l'état des lieux* (J.-Y. Thériault, ed.). 1999. Moncton: Éditions d'Acadie.
4. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism (1967-70). Ottawa: Queen's Printer. See also Bordeleau et al. p. 447.
5. This change resulted in large measure from the fact that in 1967, the premier of Ontario, John P. Robarts, recognized that "there is an urgent need to provide education at the secondary level in the language of the Franco-Ontarian community". Davis, W.G. 1968. *Report of the Committee on French Language Schools in Ontario.* Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education. p. 9.

the number of allophones is not large enough to provide reliable estimates.

During the past 30 years the proportion of Francophones with a university degree outside Quebec had increased substantially, partly as a result of youth migration from Quebec to other provinces, especially western Canada. In places, such as western Canada, which have small Francophone populations, a small influx of Francophones from Quebec can cause a large increase in the proportion with university degrees. This was the case in all provinces except New Brunswick and Ontario for young adults aged 25 to 34. In New Brunswick and Ontario, where Francophone populations were already sizeable, migration did not have a large effect on the proportion of Francophones with university degrees.

Young Francophone women show largest increase in the proportion with a university degree

One of the most notable changes since the 1960s resulting from social change and education reform is undoubtedly the large-scale enrolment of women at postsecondary institutions, especially universities. In 1971, the gap between university educated men and women aged 25 to 34 was considerable. Among all three linguistic groups, men were at least twice as likely as women to have a university degree. For example, the proportion of Francophone men with a university education was 10% compared with 4% of Francophone women. The corresponding percentages were 14% versus 6% for Anglophones, and 12% versus 6% for allophones.

By 1991, the number of 25- to 34-year-old women with university degrees had caught up with the number of men in all three language groups and by 2001 they had surpassed them. The change was most pronounced among Francophone women, whose proportion with a university degree grew nearly sevenfold between 1971 and 2001. Allophone women recorded the second largest

CST **Women are now more likely than men to hold a university degree in all three language groups**

	Anglophones		Francophones		Allophones	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	% of 25- to 34-year-olds					
1971	14	6	10	4	12	6
1981	16	12	12	8	19	14
1991	16	16	14	14	21	20
2001	21	26	19	27	32	33

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population.

CST **The growth in the proportion of graduate degrees is stronger among women than men**

	Anglophones		Francophones		Allophones	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	% of 30- to 39-year-olds					
1971	3.2	1.1	3.0	1.2	3.4	1.3
2001	3.5	3.2	3.6	3.3	10.0	6.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population.

increase in the proportion who had university degrees over this period, followed by Anglophone women. In 2001, Francophone women lead Francophone men by 7 percentage points, the widest gender gap among language groups.

Allophones most likely to have a graduate degree

Over the last 30 years, the number of individuals aged 30 to 39[4] with a master's or doctoral degree has increased nearly fivefold, contributing to Canada's highly-specialized skills and research capabilities. However, since the total population has also increased over these decades, the proportion of 30- to 39-year-old graduate degree holders has stayed fairly constant, at around 3%, for Anglophones and Francophones. The proportion of allophones with master's and doctoral degrees, however, grew from 3% to 8% between 1971 and 2001.

In each language group, the growth of graduate degrees was stronger among women than men, so by 2001 both Anglophone and Francophone women had caught up to men. Once again, allophones were the exception. Among this group, men were much more likely than women to hold a graduate degree (10% versus 6%), probably the result of changes in immigration policy placing more emphasis on education as an entry criterion for some classes of immigrants.

Despite considerable progress made by Francophones in Quebec, Anglophones and allophones aged 30 to 39 were almost twice as likely to have a master's or doctoral degree in that province. Outside Quebec, on the other hand, 4% of Francophone men and women aged 30 to 39 had graduate degrees, compared with 3% of Anglophones. Among allophones both inside and outside Quebec, the proportion who had such a degree was more than twice as large as among Francophones.

Summary

All three language groups — Anglophones, Francophones and allophones — have made notable improvements in their levels of education over the past 30 years. In all three groups, the proportion of individuals with a less than grade 9 education has dropped and the share with a university education has climbed. While in 1971 Francophone Canadians were clearly behind Anglophones in educational attainment, they have since made considerable progress at all levels. In fact, the proportion of Francophones with a university degree exceeds that of Anglophones in every province outside Quebec. In Quebec, continuing a historical trend, Anglophones have higher levels of education than do Anglophones in other provinces.

Many social changes coincided with the large-scale increase in the proportion of women with postsecondary education, especially university education. While in 1971 women were much less likely to have a university degree than men, by 2001 women were more likely to have a degree in all three language groups, with francophone women showing the largest change. Women increased their representation not only in bachelor's degrees, but also in master's and doctorates as well.

In all language groups, young men aged 20 to 24 were more likely than young women to have not completed high school. A number of them, however, attended educational institutions at the time of the Census.

4. This age group was chosen rather than the 25 to 34 age group because students enrolling in master's or doctoral programs tend to be older.

Jean-Pierre Corbeil is a senior analyst with Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

Parental leave: More time off for baby

by Katherine Marshall

This article has been adapted from "Benefiting from extended parental leave," *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, March 2003, vol. 4, no. 3, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XIE.

New parents have much to learn. Although generally considered a happy event, the birth of a baby brings with it significant stresses. Little sleep, redefined roles, the loss of many personal freedoms and the responsibility of taking care of a helpless infant are just some of the tasks that need to be mastered. The transition period of adjusting to the demands of this new lifestyle is often made smoother when parents are able to take some time off work and be home with their newborn.

However, because of financial issues and job security, staying at home, particularly for longer periods of time, is not always feasible. Over the years, the Canadian government has extended parental leave several times to allow mothers and fathers more time with their children. What are the effects of this expansion? Do parents now remain at home longer with their infants, and are there socio-demographic factors which influence the length of leave time taken? Although both fathers and mothers are eligible to receive parental leave, to date mothers are taking advantage of it in much larger numbers. This article examines the labour market characteristics of women who take time off work to take care of their children.

Paid leave allowance increases substantially

The *Unemployment Insurance Act* (EIA)[1] of 1940 introduced unemployment insurance to Canada, but it was another 30 years before the *Act* provided provisions for maternity leave. Starting in 1971, mothers with 20 or more insurable weeks of earnings could claim up to 15 weeks of maternity benefits. Almost two decades later, in 1990, 10 weeks of parental leave benefits were added to the original 15 weeks. These 10 weeks, which could be used by either parent, or split between them,[2] could be claimed only after the birth of the child and had to be taken within 52 weeks of the birth.

Another significant change in December 2000 increased parental leave benefits from 10 to 35 weeks, effectively raising the total paid leave parents could take from six months to one year. To qualify, parents must have worked for 600 hours in the past 52 weeks, down from the previous threshold of 700 hours. However, the rate of

1. In 1996, the *Unemployment Insurance Act* became the *Employment Insurance Act* (EIA).
2. Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC). 1996. *The History of Unemployment Insurance*. Ottawa: HRDC.

What you should know about this study

The Employment Insurance Coverage Survey (EICS), a supplement to the Labour Force Survey (LFS) since 1997, studies the extent of coverage of the Employment Insurance program. Starting in 2000, a special maternity supplement was added to help monitor the effect of the extended parental benefit program, which began December 31, 2000.

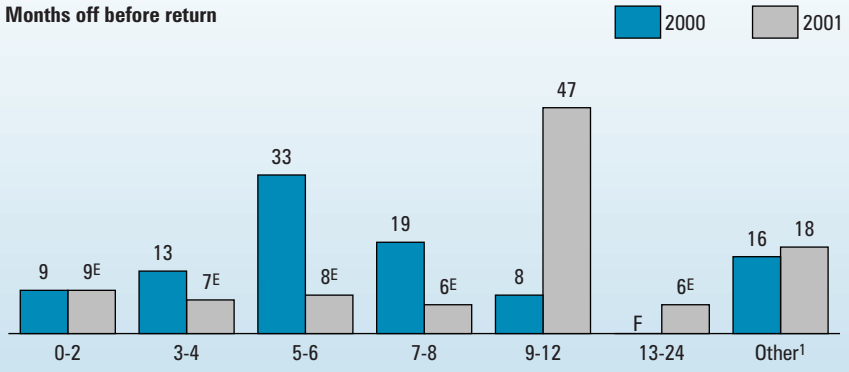
The supplement asked new mothers detailed questions on their labour market situation before and after the birth/adoption of their child. Other information collected included the timing of any breaks, the receipt of Employment Insurance (EI) by type and benefit level, as well as individual and household income prior to or since the birth/adoption. The survey also asked about spousal use of parental benefits, as well as some employer- and childcare-related questions. In cases where an event had not occurred — for example, a mother's return to work or a husband's claim for parental benefits — subsequent questions about intentions were asked. Calculations of the time off work are based on both completed and intended leave spells.

The sample included roughly 1,350 mothers with children under 13 months of age in both the 2000 and 2001 surveys. However, almost 500 of those interviewed in 2001 had given birth or adopted their child in 2000 and were therefore excluded from the analysis. This paper examines the labour market behaviour of a sample of mothers who gave birth before and after the implementation of the parental benefit amendment, that is, births in 1999 or 2000, and 2001.

Employment prior to birth: Women were considered employed if they reported working one or more weeks for pay or profit in any of the 52 weeks preceding the birth of the child.

Reference job characteristics were collected at the time of the LFS, which took place 4 to 6 weeks before the EICS. For women who were not yet back to work, the term refers to their last main job held; for women who had already returned, it refers to their current main job. If mothers, while pregnant or on leave, received employer payments, private insurance payments or other benefits in addition to EI maternity or parental benefits, they were considered as receiving a top-up.

The proportion of mothers who took 9 to 12 months off work to care for their infants increased sharply



E Use with caution.
F Too unreliable to be published.
1. Those who planned to return in 25 months or more, planned to return but did not know when, or did not plan to return at all.
Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Insurance Coverage Survey.

benefit remained unchanged at 55% of prior weekly insurable earnings, up to a maximum of $413 per week.

One aim of the 2000 amendment was to enable working parents to care for their infant longer and still allow them secure re-entry into employment. After the extension of parental benefits, all provinces and territories revised their labour codes to give full job protection of 52 weeks or more to employees taking paid or unpaid maternity or parental leave.[3]

3. Under provincial or territorial labour codes, job-protected parental leave is granted to those with continuous employment, which can range from less than a week to one year.

More mothers stay home for longer periods of time

In both 2000 and 2001, over 300,000 mothers had infants at home. In both years, roughly three-quarters of these mothers had been employed[4] prior to the birth of the child. And regardless of whether they received 10 weeks or 35 weeks of parental leave, just over 8 in 10 returned or planned to return to work within two years in both years.[5] Receiving longer paid leave does not appear to have affected mothers' return-to-work rate.

The combination of increased access to parental benefits and women's greater labour force participation raised the overall proportion of all new mothers receiving maternity or parental benefits from 54% in 2000 to 61% in 2001. Among those with paid jobs, the corresponding proportions jumped from 79% to 84%, respectively. Still, in 2001, 39% of mothers with newborns did not receive birth-related benefits because they were not in the labour force (23%), were paid workers who were ineligible or did not apply for benefits (12%), or were self-employed (5%).

For mothers who returned or planned to return to work within two years of childbirth, the most common return time changed from 5 to 6 months in 2000 to between 9 and 12 months in 2001. Clearly a result of the longer paid-benefit period, the

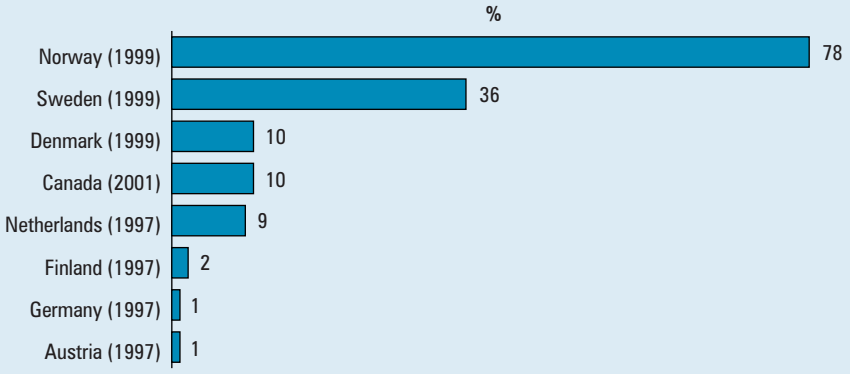
4. For at least one of the 52 weeks.

5. This finding differs from a 1993–94 study of women returning to work after childbirth using the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID), where 93% of women reported being back to work within two years. One reason for the difference may be that at the time of the Employment Insurance Coverage Survey (EICS), about 8% of mothers were undecided about their future return. With the undecided removed, 90% of the women in the EICS also reported returning within two years.

CST Proportion of fathers claiming parental leave triples

The proportion of fathers who claimed or planned to claim paid parental benefits jumped from about 3% in 2000 to 10% by 2001. This is both a statistically and socially significant increase. Although the length of time involved is not known, approximately 1 in 10 fathers take a formal leave from their job to be at home caring for a newborn. This rate moves Canada ahead of many other countries, but still leaves it considerably behind those that offer non-transferable leave to fathers — Norway, for example, where almost 80% of fathers take parental leave.

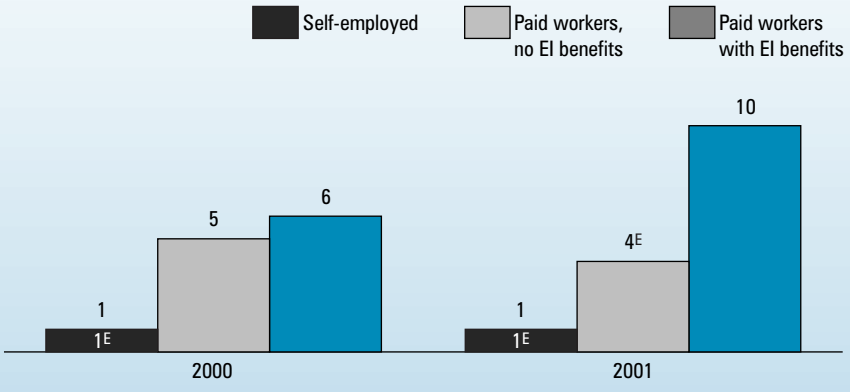
Fathers' participation in paid parental leave in selected countries



Sources: European Industrial Relations Observatory on-line (www.eiro.eurfound.ie); Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2001; Statistics Canada, Employment Insurance Coverage Survey, 2001.

CST The time self-employed mothers took off work remained unchanged

Median months before return



E Use with caution.
1. Based on completed spells only and therefore likely underestimates the true time off.
Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Insurance Coverage Survey.

proportion of women returning to work after about a year off (9 to 12 months) jumped from 8% to 47% between the two years.

Roughly 1 in 10 women in both years took either no time, or only one or two months, off work after childbirth. The vast majority of these early returnees were self-employed or employees without maternity or parental leave benefits. At the other end of the spectrum, in both years, fewer than 2 in 10 women did not plan to return to work, or did plan to return but either did not know when or gave a date beyond two years.

Time off work does not increase for self-employed mothers

Since self-employed individuals do not pay into the Employment Insurance program, they are not entitled to maternity or parental leave benefits. Moreover, entrepreneurs on leave can face a double financial loss, not only because of their own lost earnings but because of the possible expense of hiring a replacement worker.[6] As a result, the median time off work among self-employed women who returned to work within two years was only one month in both 2000 and 2001.[7] Similarly, employees who for whatever reason did not receive maternity or parental benefits also took very little time off work — five months in 2000, and four months in 2001.

The median time at home for women with benefits increased from 6 months in 2000 to 10 months in 2001. Although most took advantage of the revised parental leave program and were, or planned to be, off work for almost a year (67%), one-quarter stayed at home for 8 months or less, while the remainder took 13 to 24 months. These groups of mothers share many similarities; they had roughly the same median age (30), the same marriage rate (95%), and the same education (7 out of 10 had a postsecondary diploma or university degree).

CST About 3 in 4 mothers with infants under 13 months worked before their child's birth

	2000	2001
Total mothers	**314,300**	**203,300[1]**
	%	
Worked during year before birth	74	77
Spouse claimed or planned to claim parental benefits[2]	3[E]	10*
Worked prior to birth	100	100
Returned or planned to return to work within 2 years[3]	84	82
Reference job was paid	93	93
Employees	100	100
Received EI maternity and/or parental benefits	79	84
Received EI and employer or other top-up	23	20
Returned or planned to return to same employer[4]	84	89

[E] Use with caution.

* Statistically significant difference between the two years at the .05 level or less.

1. The total of mothers in 2001 was 326,600, but because the extended parental benefit program began in 2001 only those who gave birth in 2001 were included.
2. Of those with a spouse present.
3. This finding differs from a 1993–94 study of women returning to work after childbirth using the Survey of Labour Income and Dynamics, where 93% of women reported being back to work within two years. At the time of the Employment Insurance Coverage Survey (EICS), about 8% of mothers were undecided about their future return. With the undecided removed, 90% of the women in the EICS also reported returning within two years.
4. Of those who took a break from work of one week or longer, and returned or planned to return within 18 months.

Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Insurance Coverage Survey.

However, their husbands' participation in the program differed significantly. Almost one-quarter of the husbands of women who took eight months or less off claimed or planned to claim benefits, while only a handful of husbands of the long leavetakers did so. Logically, if fathers claim some of the 35 paid parental leave weeks, mothers would have less than a year of paid leave for themselves, and thus a shorter stay at

6. Marshall, K. Autumn 1999. "Employment after childbirth." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 11, 3: 18-25.
7. All self-employed women in 2000, and most in 2001, who had not yet returned to work were not asked about their intention to return. Therefore, the calculations are based on completed spells only and likely underestimate the true time off. However, the majority of the self-employed had already returned, and well over half did so in less than three months. This is consistent with analysis of self-employed mothers using SLID (Marshall 1999). Also, self-employed mothers who gave birth in 2000 were included in the 2001 data in Chart 2.

CST **Characteristics of employees with EI maternity and/or parental benefits, by actual or planned return to work, 2001**

	Within 2 years[1]	Within 1 year	
		0–8 months	9–12 months
Total employees	**97,600***	**24,000**	**65,700**
Median time off (months)	**10**	**5**	**11**
Personal characteristics			
Median age (years)	31	30	31
		%	
Spouse employed[2]	90	84	92
Spouse not employed	10[E]	F	F
Spouse claimed or planned to claim parental benefits[2]	10[E]	F	F
Spouse did not claim benefits	90	77[E]	94*
High school or less	28	F	29
Postsecondary diploma, university degree	72	73[E]	71
Income			
Had employer top-up	26	27[E]	26[E]
No top-up	74	73	74
Annual personal earnings			
Under $20,000	35	49[E]	29*
$20,000–$39,999	45	31[E]	51
$40,000 or more	21	F	20[E]
Annual household earnings			
Under $40,000	41	46[E]	38
$40,000–$59,999	34	32[E]	34
$60,000 or more	25	F	28[E]
Median weekly EI benefits	316	300	323
Job-related[3]		%	
Full-time job	86	82	87
Part-time job	14	F	13[E]
Permanent job	95	87	98*
Temporary job	F	F	F
Unionized	36	33[E]	34
Not unionized	64	67[E]	66

[E] Use with caution.

F Too unreliable to be published.

* Statistically significant difference at the .05 level or less. Tests were done between the two return groups for each variable.

1. Excludes cases of non-response. The sample for those who took or planned to take 13 to 24 months off work was too small to present by individual characteristics.

2. Only those with spouses, which was 95% for all groups.

3. Refers to reference job at time of interview.

Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Insurance Coverage Survey.

home. Further analysis[8] indicated that women with partners who claimed or planned to claim parental benefits were 4.6 times more likely to return to work within eight months than those with partners who did not claim benefits.

Lower income associated with quicker return to work

Significantly more mothers who returned within eight months reported annual earnings below $20,000 in their previous or current job (49%), than those who returned after almost a year (29%).[9] In other words, lower individual earnings were associated with a quicker return to work. For example, mothers with maternity or parental leave benefits who returned to work within four months had median annual earnings of just under $16,000. This suggests that women with lower earnings (and possibly lower savings) may not be financially able to stay at home for an entire year on 55% of their earnings.

Since personal income influences total household income, early returnees were also more likely to be part of a household whose total income was under $40,000 — 46%, compared with 38% for those who returned between 9 and 12 months.

Receiving an employer top-up or other compensation in addition to paid maternity and parental benefits does not appear to affect the timing of returning to work. Just over one-quarter of all employees who returned or planned to return to work within

8. A logistic regression model was used to examine the probability of having taken less than 9 months off work. The dichotomous dependent variable was less than 9 months (= 1) and 9 to 12 months (= 0).

9. An assumption is made that employment before and after the birth is largely similar. This is based on the fact that well over 80% of the women return to the same employer, and 90% to the same hours (Marshall 1999).

two years enjoyed this benefit.[10] Although the top-up was substantial for many — half received a supplement large enough to equal 90% or more of their previous earnings — its median duration was only 15 weeks.

The proportion of women receiving maternity and/or parental benefits as well as a financial top-up from either their employer or another source was 20% in 2001 and 23% in 2000. Women were much more likely to receive a top-up if they worked for a large firm (in 2001, 31% of those employed in firms of 500 employees or more compared with 18% of those in smaller firms).

Women in permanent jobs more likely than others to take longer leave

Working full-time does not appear to be associated with the length of time mothers take off from work to take care of their children. Most mothers who took or planned to take a year off had worked full-time in their previous or current job (87%), as had those who took less time off (82%). Similarly, nearly equal proportions (one-third) of these two groups reported their job as unionized.

However, one job-related factor that did contribute to a relatively early return to work, despite receipt of maternity or parental leave benefits, was job permanency. Almost all (98%) mothers on leave for a year had a permanent job, compared with 87% of women who returned in eight months or less and 75% of those who returned in four months or less. Roughly 90% of these non-permanent jobs were temporary, term, contract or casual and so would, in theory, be less likely to offer job protection. Women in non-permanent jobs were almost five times more likely to return to work in less than nine months than those in permanent jobs.

Some of the key factors influencing the time away from work for women with maternity and parental benefits may be interrelated. For example, non-permanent jobs generally offer lower wages than permanent ones, so an early return to work might reflect the possibility of job loss, economic necessity, or both.

Summary

In 2000, a significant change to the *Employment Insurance Act* added 25 weeks of paid parental leave to the pre-existing 10. Including the 15 weeks of maternity benefits, parents are now entitled to receive up to one year of paid leave while caring for their infants.

Most of those who received these benefits took significantly more time off work after the birth or adoption of their child. However, one-quarter returned to work within eight months. Significant factors linked with a shorter leave from work included a father's participation in the parental benefit program, a mother's job being non-permanent, and low employment earnings. In addition, the program amendment had no effect on those without access to parental leave: self-employed women, paid workers who did not qualify or apply for benefits, and those who had not previously been employed.

Since the extension of parental leave benefits, fathers' participation rate in the program has increased. Not only are most newborns receiving longer full-time care by their mothers, but many are experiencing an at-home father for some of the time as well.

Katherine Marshall is the Chief of Content Analysis with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division at Statistics Canada.

10. The overall top-up rates of 20% and 26% found in Tables 1 and 2 respectively, differ because of the population examined. The 26% includes only employees with maternity or parental benefits who had returned to work within two years.

Update on education

This article is adapted from *Education in Canada: Raising the standard*, published as part of the March 11, 2003 data release on education from the 2001 Census of Population. The data release is available from the Statistics Canada Web site: www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/Products/Analytic/companion/educ/pdf/96F0030XIE2001012.pdf.

Canada entered the 21st century with a population better educated than ever before. During the 1990s, the number of Canadians with college or university education increased steadily, continuing a trend that began after the Second World War. The current emphasis on higher education has its roots in three recent developments: a global and technologically advanced economy where wealth is created by increasingly well-trained workers; the arrival of highly skilled immigrants in the 1990s; and uncertain labour market conditions during the recession of the early 1990s, which encouraged young people to continue their studies.

CST What you should know about this study

The Census of Population asked people aged 15 and over to report their level of education. For this study, the population was classified into five levels based on the highest level of education completed and arranged in a hierarchy reflecting increasing time commitments to schooling.

- ❑ Less than high school graduation
- ❑ High school graduation
- ❑ Trade certificate (includes registered apprentices)
- ❑ College certificates or diplomas from community colleges, CEGEPs, schools of nursing, schools of radiology, technical institutes or private business colleges.
- ❑ University education (includes certificates below and above a bachelor's degree, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, earned doctorates, and professional degrees in medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine and optometry).

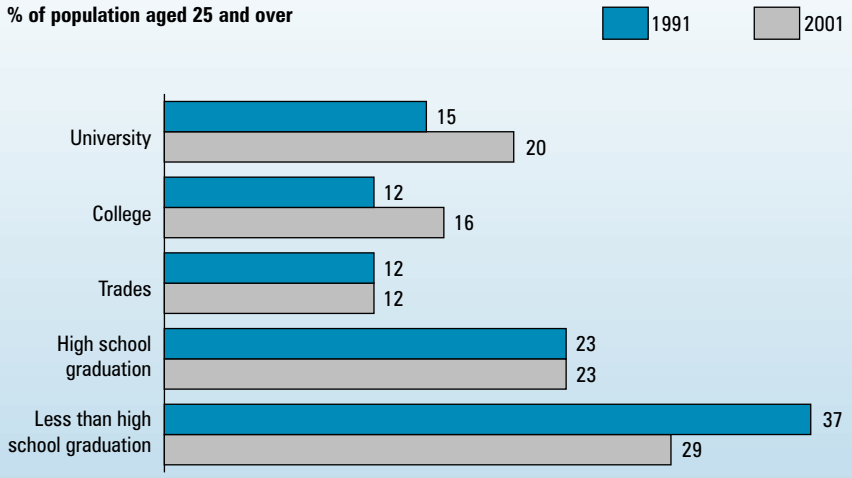
More college and university graduates

Over the past 50 years, the educational levels acquired by Canadians have grown remarkably. The proportion of individuals with a university degree, for example, surged tenfold, from 2% of the population aged 25 and over in 1951 to 20% in 2001, while the share of Canadians with less than grade 9 plunged from 55% to 11%. The trend toward university education was evident during the 1990s: the proportion of individuals aged 25 and over with a university degree rose from 15% to 20% between 1991 and 2001. Similarly, the percentage of those with a college diploma increased from 12% to 16% during this decade, while that of individuals with a trade certificate remained stable at 12%.

All in all, the number of postsecondary graduates increased by 2.7 million individuals between 1991 and 2001, a growth rate nearly three times higher than the rate at which the population aged 15 and over grew: 39% versus 14%.

Educational levels increased most dramatically for 25- to 34-year-olds. This group was aged 15 to 24 when the recession of the early 1990s hit and, as a result, many chose to continue their studies while delaying

CST **Educational attainment is improving**



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population, 1991 and 2001.

entry into the labour market. In 2001, 28% of this group of young adults had a university qualification, 21% had a college diploma and 12% had trade credentials. In all, 61% had postsecondary credentials compared with 49% of those aged 25 to 34 in 1991.

As more and more jobs required postsecondary education, young men and women became more likely to extend their stay in their parents' home, and delay marriage and starting their own families. In the early 1990s, there was a major shift away from supporting postsecondary students through grants to student loans. With increased loan limits introduced in the mid-1990s, students received larger loans and less grant assistance. When combined with the higher costs of attending a postsecondary institution, the effect has been a dramatic increase in the average debt loads of students who borrow.[1] These factors have contributed to record high educational costs among young people and delayed economic independence from their parents.

However, education plays a crucial role in the development of individuals and society. Because education empowers people to be involved in the issues and debates affecting them and society, an educated and knowledgeable work force is vital to a strong and prosperous economy.[2] Educated people also derive other benefits from their education. It has long been known that education greatly influences the types of jobs people obtain, the likelihood of being employed and the level of employment income. Indeed, according to the 2001 Census, people with a bachelor's degree were more likely to have higher earnings than high school graduates.

Fewer people without a high school diploma

In accordance with the increasing educational attainment of Canadians, it is not surprising that the number of adults aged 25 and over who did not have a high school diploma declined by nearly 690,000 between 1991 and 2001 to just under 5.8 million Canadians (37% to 29%, respectively). The pattern was similar among the 25- to 34-year-old age group. The proportion without a high school diploma dropped from 23% in 1991 to 15% in 2001 (17% of young men and 13% of young women).

While there are fewer individuals who left high school before obtaining a diploma, those who did so still face many risks. To begin with, high school leavers are considerably more likely than high school graduates to be unemployed and have lower earnings. In addition, a host of other unfavourable conditions, such as poor health, crime, substance abuse and economic dependency[3] are associated with leaving school early. Some people eventually do recognize these risks and complete their secondary studies at a later time, while others may enrol in programs or courses outside of secondary school.

More university-educated young women than young men

In 2001, young women were less likely than young men to have not completed high school, and more likely to have a bachelor's or master's degree.[4] Women's

1. Clark, W. Winter 1998. "Paying off student loans." *Canadian Social Trends*. p. 26.
2. Statistics Canada and Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. February 2000. *Education Indicators in Canada — Report of the Pan-Canadian Education Indicators Program 1999* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 82-582-XIE). p. 1.
3. Gilbert, S., L. Barr, W. Clark, M. Blue and D. Sunter. 1993. *Leaving School: Results From a National Survey Comparing School Leavers and High School Graduates 18 to 20 Years of Age* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 81-575E). p. 4.
4. The level of schooling of 25- to 34-year-olds provides a picture of the future education profile for the entire population. Because most 25- to 34-year-olds have completed their formal schooling, their level of education provides a leading indicator of the future educational attainment of the entire population. Most young people aged 15 to 24 are still in school, so their current level of education understates the skills they will ultimately have.

presence has become more common at higher and higher levels of university education. In 1991, young women aged 25 to 34 represented just over half (51%) of bachelor's degree holders, but men remained in the majority at the master's and doctoral levels. According to the 2001 Census, young women in this age group increased their majority among bachelor's degree holders to 56% and, for the first time, outnumbered men at the master's level (52%). They still, however, fell short of men at the doctoral level (37%).

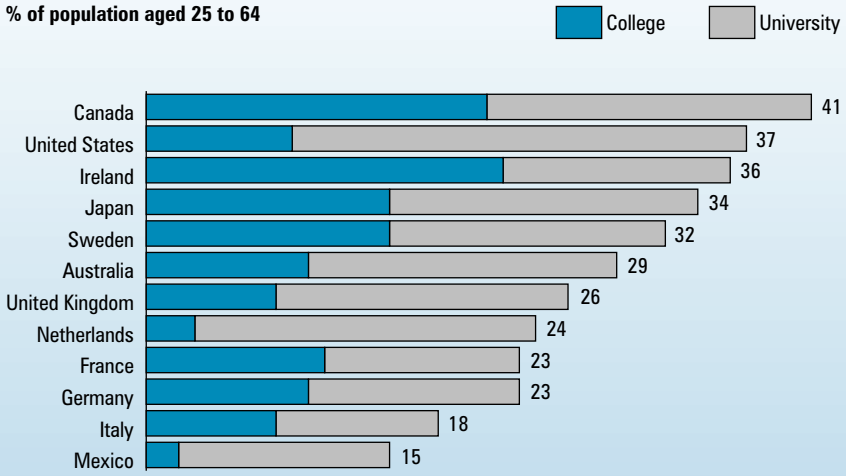
Between 1991 and 2001, educational attainment rose for both young men and women, but the growth in university credentials was stronger for young women. In 1991, equal proportions (18%) of men and women aged 25 to 34 had a university degree, certificate or diploma. By 2001, 25% of men and 30% of women had acquired these qualifications. During the 1990s, the number of university-educated women increased by 41%, while the number of men grew by 14%.

Colleges draw more women, trades more men

College education has also become more popular among young adults, increasing to 20% of 25- to 34-year-olds in 2001 from 17% in 1991, although the actual number of young college graduates declined slightly during the decade (by less than 1%). In 2001, women continued to represent the majority (58%) of young college graduates, a situation not much different from 10 years earlier.

Trades certificates and diplomas appear to be becoming less common. The proportion of young adults aged 25 to 34 holding trades certificates and diplomas decreased from 14% in 1991 to 12% in 2001 (a 28% drop in the actual number). In 2001, men accounted for 60% of young adults with a trades education, a slightly smaller majority than in 1991.

CST In 2000, Canada led OECD countries in combined college and university educational attainment



Source: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Education at a Glance*, 2002.

Highly-educated immigrants

The Canadian labour force has benefited from the skills recent immigrants brought with them. Immigrants arriving in Canada in the 1990s had much higher levels of education than earlier entrants. In 2001, for example, 61% of recent working-age immigrants who arrived in the 1990s had qualifications above the high school level, compared with 48% of immigrants who arrived in the 1980s or 1970s. About 41% of recent immigrants were university-trained; another 13% had a college diploma and 8% a trade certificate.

Not only were recent immigrants better educated than their earlier counterparts, but they were also considerably more likely to have a university education than Canadian-born 25- to 34-year-olds, the other source of new workers. In 2001, 28% of young Canadian adults had a university education. On the other hand, recent immigrants were less likely than those born in Canada to have college (13% versus 21%) or trade (8% versus 12%) credentials. Trades qualifications have become increasingly less common among immigrants, dropping from about 14% of 1970s entrants.

Canada, a leader in educational attainment

According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Canada ranked fourth among OECD countries in the proportion of its working-age population (aged 25 to 64) with a university degree and second with college credentials. In 2000, 20% of Canada's working-age population had a university education, and 21% a college education.

If university and college are combined, Canada has the highest proportion of university- or college-educated working-age population among OECD countries. In 2000, 41% of Canada's population aged 25 to 64 had either a college or university education, compared with 37% in the United States, 36% in Ireland and 34% in Japan.

One reason for this situation could be that Canada offers two parallel systems of education after high school,

each requiring a high school completion for admission and each playing a key role in the development of knowledge and skills. In contrast, in most other OECD countries, either university or college is prevalent.

Education gap narrows slightly between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people

Among 25- to 64-year-olds who identified themselves as members of an Aboriginal group, the proportion with a high school diploma increased from 21% to 23% between 1996[5] and 2001. At the same time, the percentage of those with postsecondary credentials increased from 33% to 38%, and the share without high school diploma was down substantially from 45% to 39%.

These changes have slightly narrowed the gap between the educational attainment of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations. Working-age Aboriginal people were more likely to have a trade certificate (16%) than their non-Aboriginal counterparts (13%), while 15% of Aboriginal and 18% of non-Aboriginal individuals of working age had a college education. The gap remained wide for university graduates: 8% of the Aboriginal working-age population had a university education, compared with 23% of non-Aboriginals.

Engineering most popular field of study for university men

Changes in the skill profile of university graduates over the last decade reflected technology and business trends in the 1990s. Slightly fewer than 3.7 million people aged 25 to 64 had a university education in 2001. That year, engineering (15%), business and commerce (10%) and teaching (8%) were the top three fields of study for working-age university-educated men. Teaching (20%), nursing (6%) and business and commerce (6%) were the most popular fields of study for working-age women. While the proportion of students studying engineering and business and commerce increased between 1991 and 2001, the proportion that went into teaching and nursing declined. Teaching and engineering were the top two most common fields in both 1991 and 2001, while business and commerce crept up from fourth to the third most common field.

College graduates included just over 2.9 million working-age individuals, up by 0.9 million since 1991. According to the 2001 Census, the top five fields of study for college graduates were office administration and secretarial sciences (10%), nursing (8%), financial management (8%), business and commerce (7%), and data processing and computer science technologies (6%). Data processing and computer science technologies was the only newcomer to the top five since 1991, when it ranked seventh among college graduates. During the 1990s the share of working-age college graduates in office administration and nursing declined, while the proportion of those in financial management, business and commerce, and data processing and computer science technologies grew.

Trades certificates were more common among men. Nearly 2.1 million people aged 25 to 64 held trades certificates in 2001, up by 0.2 million since 1991. This represented a 9% rise, which was less than the growth rate for the entire working-age population. The top three fields were building and construction trade (16% of trade certificate holders), mechanical engineering trades (13%) and office administration and secretarial sciences (11%). During the 1990s, the proportion of people with these trades certificates declined slightly. In the meantime, the percentage of data processing and computer science trades graduates moved into the top 10 fields with 3% of trade graduates in 2001.

Summary

The Canadian population is now better educated than ever and Canada ranks highest among OECD countries in the proportion of its working-age population with college and university education combined. Among young adults aged 25 to 34, college and university education grew in popularity, while trade/vocational education was less common in 2001 than in 1991. At the university level, young women represented a majority, not only at the bachelor's but also at the master's degree level, while men remained in the lead at the doctoral level. Immigrants who arrived in the 1990s are more likely to have a university education than Canadian-born individuals and have contributed to raising the level of education in Canada.

The economy of the 21st century will be driven by knowledge, skills, and creativity. Data from the Census show that Canadians have continued to upgrade their education in order to get good jobs to support themselves and their families. In a fast-paced, global economy, today's workplace requires not only an ability to adjust smoothly to a continuously changing environment, but also higher levels of education and skills.

CST

5. Comparable data does not exist for 1991.

Healthcare in French outside Quebec

by Louise Marmen and Sylvain Delisle

Previous studies have shown that patients and healthcare providers communicate better when they both speak the same language.[1] It thus comes as no surprise that French-language minority communities are concerned about access to healthcare services in their own language. Many of these communities are aging and, according to some studies, their socioeconomic situations predispose them to greater health risks than those faced by the general population.[2]

1. Bowen, S. November 2001. *Language Barriers in Access to Health Care*. Study prepared for Health Canada.
2. Fédération des communautés francophones et acadienne du Canada (FCFA). 2001. *French Language Healthcare: Improving Access to French-Language Health Services*. Ottawa: FCFA. p. viii; Public Health Research, Education and Development Program (PHREDP). 2000. *Rapport sur la santé des francophones de l'Ontario*. Sudbury: PHREDP. p. 100.

CST What you should know about this study

This article uses data from the 2001 Census, collected from a 20% sample of Canada's households. The two-part question, newly included in 2001, asks about the language that is most often used and other languages that are used on a regular basis at work by individuals who were employed between January 1, 2000 and May 15, 2001. These data yield information on the pool of healthcare practitioners across Canada who provide services in French.

For the purposes of this article, "French speakers" are defined as individuals whose mother tongue[1] is French and who still speak this language, and those whose mother tongue is not French, but it is their first official language spoken.[2] These individuals make up the potential pool of healthcare users (referred to interchangeably as patients) who may require health services in French. "French-speaking practitioners" refers to healthcare providers who use French at work most often or on a regular basis.

The geographic regions employed in this article correspond to the geographic concepts used in the census. Major centres correspond to census metropolitan areas (CMAs) and census agglomerations (CAs). A "fringe" area is defined as one in which 5% or more of the total employed labour force that lives in its constituent municipalities works in a CMA or a CA urban core. A "remote" region is a municipality in which less than 5% of the total employed resident labour force works in a CMA or a CA urban core.

1. "Mother tongue" refers to the language first learned at home in childhood and still understood by the respondent at the time of the census. According to this definition, the respondent does not have to be able to speak the mother tongue language any more.
2. This variable represents the official language actually spoken by the person which, in most cases, was acquired first. It is based on three linguistic variables in the census: knowledge of the official languages, mother tongue and language spoken at home. For further information, see the 2001 Census Dictionary (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 92-378-XIE).

Until quite recently, national-level information on the use of French in the workplace by healthcare practitioners was not available. The 2001 Census of Population, however, asked a new two-part question about the language used most often at work and other languages that are used regularly in the workplace.

Using data from the 2001 Census, this article examines the potential pool of healthcare practitioners who use French at work (most likely within the framework of their practice) as well as those who do not regularly use French in the workplace, but who have knowledge of that language. The paper focuses on two groups of "primary health care"[3] providers: general practitioners and nurses who work in the healthcare field.

CST In most provinces, French speakers are older than the general population

	Total population		French-speaking population[1]	
	'000	% aged 65 and over	'000	% aged 65 and over
Newfoundland and Labrador	508	12	2	14
Prince Edward Island	133	13	6	22
Nova Scotia	898	13	36	19
New Brunswick	720	13	241	13
Ontario	11,286	12	587	13
Manitoba	1,104	13	46	20
Saskatchewan	963	14	18	28
Alberta	2,941	10	66	13
British Columbia	3,869	13	71	16

1. Individuals whose mother tongue is French and who still speak this language, and those whose mother tongue is not French, but it is their first official language spoken.

Source: Census of Population, 2001.

French speakers older than overall population

French speakers (potential patients requiring service in French) include individuals whose mother tongue is French and who can still conduct a conversation in this language, as well as those whose first official language spoken is French, although it is not their mother tongue. Other than in New Brunswick, French speakers only represent a small proportion of the total population of the provinces and territories outside Quebec.

Not surprisingly, the most likely group to require healthcare services are seniors. Therefore, the higher the proportion of seniors in a group, the greater that group's demand for such services. In all provinces other than New Brunswick, the proportion of persons aged 65 and over is higher among French speakers than among the population as a whole (in New Brunswick it is the same at 13%). In Saskatchewan, seniors make up 28% of French speakers, twice the proportion in the general population (14%). A large gap also exists in Prince Edward Island (22% versus 13%, respectively), while in Ontario the difference is negligible (13% versus 12%).

The geographic distribution of French-speaking seniors varies depending on the province they live in. In some provinces, they are heavily concentrated in large urban centres (for example, 80% in Ontario, 84% in British Columbia), while in others the majority reside in fringe areas or remote regions (73% in Nova Scotia, 61% in New Brunswick). In provinces such as in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, the concentration of individuals most likely to require healthcare services is therefore highest in the fringe and remote regions.

A substantial proportion of French-speaking seniors are unilingual French speakers, a situation that makes them all the more vulnerable in circumstances when healthcare services are not available in their language. In New Brunswick, unilingual individuals represented some 32% of the senior French-speaking population in 2001. In the remote regions of this province, their proportion was even higher (45%). In Ontario, 12% of this group was unilingual throughout the province as a whole, with 25% of them living in remote regions. In the other provinces, unilingual French seniors represented less than 4% of all senior French speakers.

In New Brunswick and Ontario the proportion of French-speaking healthcare providers corresponds to the proportion of French-speaking population

The access of French speakers to French-speaking practitioners can be estimated by comparing the proportion of French-speaking healthcare providers in the population to the proportion of French speakers. The

3. Shah defined this as care dispensed directly by a practitioner during the patient's initial contact with the system. Shah, C.P. 1998. *Public health and preventive medicine in Canada* (4th ed.). Toronto: University of Toronto Press. p. 385.

"relative density ratio"[4] indicates if the number of healthcare providers who work in French is proportionate to the number of French-speaking individuals. If the ratio is 1, the proportion of healthcare providers who work in this language corresponds to the proportion of French-speaking individuals. Then, assuming that the total number of practitioners is adequate to meet the needs of the overall population, the French-speaking population should be well-served. If the ratio is larger than 1, healthcare providers are proportionally more numerous than French-speaking clients and if the ratio is less than one, the opposite is true. For example, in Ontario the relative density ratio for general practitioners is 1.7; this implies that the proportion of French-speaking general practitioners is nearly twice as high as the proportion of French-speaking clients.

Among the provinces, only New Brunswick and Ontario have a relative density ratio greater than 1 for both the general practitioner and nurse categories. While the proportion of French-speaking general practitioners is greater than the proportion of French speakers in all provinces,[5] that of French-speaking nurses is lower in all provinces except New Brunswick and Ontario.

Some healthcare practitioners who do not use French at work did, nonetheless, indicate that they were able to conduct a conversation in French. Although not everyone who can converse in French is able to work in that language, there is a strong possibility that at least some portion of this group would be able to do so. Accordingly, the potential pool of French-speaking healthcare practitioners comprises those who use French at work as well as those who do not, but who are, nonetheless, able to conduct a conversation in French.

Including this group substantially increases, in all provinces except New Brunswick, (where practitioners able to conduct a conversation in French already seem to be practicing in this language) the number of French-speaking healthcare providers and, hence, this group's ability to meet the healthcare needs of their French-language clients. For example, in Alberta, the number of French-speaking general practitioners will then increase from 130 to 760 and in British Columbia from 140 to 975. However, if clients do not know how to find this additional group of practitioners or if these practitioners are not willing to provide services in French, the benefits might be quite limited.

CST In New Brunswick and Ontario, the proportion of French-speaking general practitioners and nurses exceeds that of the French-speaking population

	Relative density ratio	
	General practitioners	Nurses
Newfoundland and Labrador	F	F
Prince Edward Island	F	F
Nova Scotia	F	0.8
New Brunswick	1.1	1.3
Ontario	1.7	1.3
Manitoba	F	0.8
Saskatchewan	F	F
Alberta	1.4	0.4
British Columbia	1.4	0.3

F Too unreliable to be published.

Note: Ratios are not comparable between provinces.

Source: Census of Population, 2001.

Healthcare practitioners concentrated in urban areas

In general, people can only make use of the services of healthcare providers if these practitioners are located within an accessible distance. Because healthcare providers, including those who work in French, are highly concentrated in large urban centres, French speakers in these locations do have adequate access to healthcare practitioners — particularly general practitioners — in their own language.

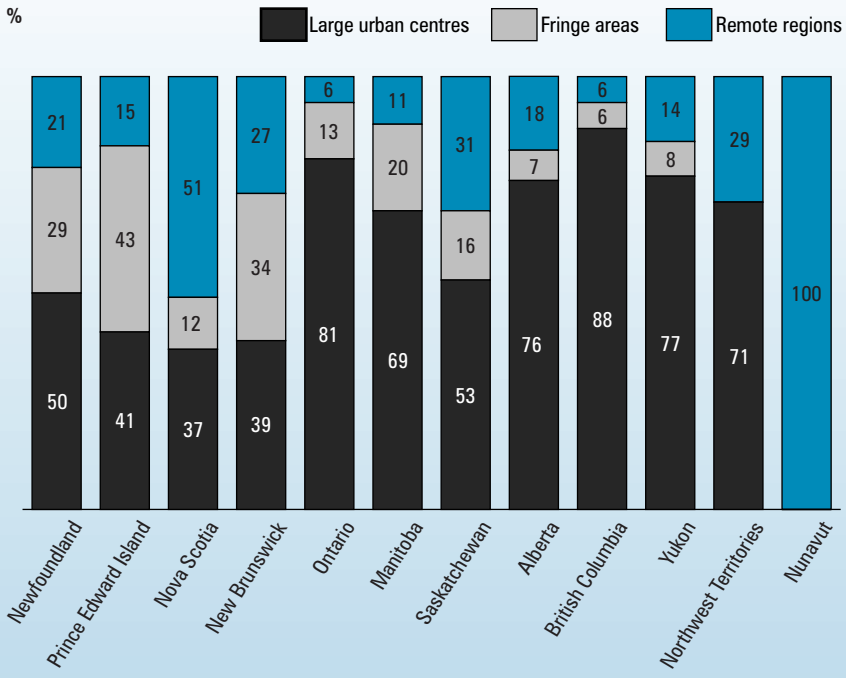
In Ontario, 91% of French-speaking practitioners are located in urban centres, while in British Columbia and Alberta the proportions are 89% and 85%, respectively. Although in New Brunswick the proportion is lower (73%), it is still almost twice that of French speakers who reside in this province (39%).

However, in many provinces a notable proportion of French speakers tend not to live in large cities; they are more likely to reside in remote regions and fringe areas, and for them finding healthcare service in French may be more problematic.

4. For general practitioners in a given province, this ratio is determined by dividing the proportion of French-language general practitioners by the proportion of French speakers. For more on the relative density ratio, see Robichaud, J.-B. 1986. *Objectif 2000. Vivre en santé en français au Nouveau-Brunswick. Le système de services de santé*, vol. 2. Moncton: Éditions d'Acadie. p. 176.

5. Because of small sample sizes in some provinces, data must be used with caution.

In the eastern provinces, French speakers are concentrated outside large urban centres



Source: Census of Population, 2001.

For example, in eastern Canada, the proportion of French speakers who live in remote regions or fringe areas ranges from 50% in Newfoundland to 63% in Nova Scotia. In the remaining provinces, these proportions are lower, but in some cases, still substantial. In Saskatchewan, for instance, 47% of French speakers live in remote or fringe regions, as do 33% in Manitoba and 25% in Alberta. In contrast, in Ontario, Alberta and British Columbia, the majority of French speakers reside in large urban centres (81%, 76% and 88%, respectively).

However, even in provinces where the majority of French speakers live in large urban centres, the distribution of practitioners to clients can be problematic. For example, in Metropolitan Toronto, general practitioners who work in French in the Metropolitan Toronto area are highly concentrated in certain cities such as Toronto, Mississauga, Richmond Hill and Brampton, while nearly one quarter of French speakers live outside these cities. French speakers in these locations have easier access to health care in French, a situation not necessarily shared by those outside these areas.

Practitioners who do not work in French but are able to converse in that language are also more concentrated in large urban centres. Therefore, including them in the pool of available French-speaking practitioners does not change the regional distribution of this group.

Summary

Members of French-speaking communities outside Quebec are older than the overall population in all provinces except New Brunswick. In New Brunswick and Ontario only, the relative density ratio for French-speaking general practitioners and nurses is at least one, suggesting that as long as the number of practitioners is adequate to meet the needs of the overall population, the pool of French-language practitioners is sufficient to serve French-speaking clients.

However, an adequate number of French-speaking practitioners within a province is not enough — healthcare providers also have to be conveniently located for patients to be able to take advantage of their services. In the eastern provinces, French-speaking communities tend to be located in the fringe areas and remote regions, while healthcare providers are highly concentrated in large urban centers. And even in provinces where French-speaking communities are more likely to be located in urban centers, French speakers do not necessarily live in cities where French-speaking practitioners are highly concentrated.

The presence of practitioners who do not use French at work but are able to conduct a conversation in that language could increase the pool of French-speaking practitioners. However, these healthcare providers are not always inclined to use French at work and, even if they do, French-speaking patients need to be aware of their existence and know where to find them.

Louise Marmen is a senior analyst and **Sylvain Delisle** is an analyst in Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

Dropout rates are lower for students who work moderate hours

Students who worked moderate hours at a paid job during their last year of high school were least likely to drop out of school. However, those who worked 30 or more hours a week during their last year of high school were the most likely to end up leaving.

Those who worked 30 or more hours a week were 2.4 times more likely to drop out than students with moderate work schedules (between 1 and 20 hours). Students who did not work at all were 1.5 times more likely to drop out than moderate workers.

The 2000 Youth in Transition Survey confirmed previous research showing that there is a strong relationship between the number of hours students worked and dropping out of high school. It points to the fact that working and finishing high school can mix, if working is done in moderation.

Learning, earning and leaving: The relationship between working while in high school and dropping out
Catalogue no. 81-595-MIE, no. 4

High school graduates delay postsecondary studies

According to the 2000 Youth Transition Survey, 4 in 10 high school graduates delay postsecondary studies by at least one year. By age 20, 2 in 10 high school graduates still have not enrolled in a postsecondary program.

High school graduates who did not continue studies by the age of 20 were more likely to have parents without a postsecondary education. In particular, the odds of not going to postsecondary school were three times greater than for graduates whose parents had a university degree.

Those who did not continue studies also reported that their parents thought furthering education past high school was not very important. Their odds of not going on to postsecondary studies were three times greater than those whose parents thought furthering their education was very important.

High school graduates who had delayed their postsecondary education by at least one year but had enrolled by the age of 20 differed from those who went directly to postsecondary studies. Those who delayed their studies were less socially engaged and had lower grades in their last year in high school compared to those who had gone on to postsecondary studies right after high school.

Who goes to postsecondary education and when: Pathways chosen by 20-year-olds
Catalogue no. 81-595-MIE2003006

Rate of spousal violence higher in 2001 than in 1995

One-quarter of all violent crimes reported to a sample of police services in 2001 involved cases of family violence. Two-thirds of these cases were violence committed by a spouse or an ex-spouse (including common-law partners), and 85% of the victims were women.

Rates of spousal violence reported to the police fluctuated between 1995 and 2001, but increased overall for both sexes. However, the rates were much higher for women. In 2001, there were 344 female victims of spousal abuse for every 100,000 women aged 15 and older in the population, compared with 302 in 1995. For men, in 2001, there were 62 incidents for every 100,000 men in the population, up from only 37 in 1995.

In some cases, spousal violence escalates to homicide. There has been an overall decline in spousal homicide rates since data collection began in 1974. At that time, the rate of females killed by a spouse or ex-spouse was 16.5 females per million couples and in 2001, the rate had dropped to 8.3. The rate of men killed by a spouse or ex-spouse was at its highest in 1975, at 5.9 men per million couples, and in 2001, the rate had dropped to 2.1.

Family violence in Canada: A statistical profile 2003
Catalogue no. 85-224-XIE

Home computers less common in rural areas

Data from the Youth in Transition Survey showed that only 8% of households with students aged 15 and 16 in cities with a population of 100,000 or more had no computer at home. However, the proportion was twice as high, around 18%, among students in villages with a population of less than 3,000.

In contrast, 29% of students who lived in rural villages reported that they used a computer at school almost everyday, compared with 19% of students in cities. In addition, 8% of rural youth reported almost daily computer use at libraries, compared with 4% of students in cities.

Rural schools reported less access to educational software, and tended to use fewer types of specialized and subject-specific software than urban schools. They were also less likely to have different types of technical training for computer teachers.

The digital divide in Canadian schools: Factors affecting student access to and use of information technology
Catalogue no. 81-597-XIE

Movie theatre attendance on the rise

According to new data from the Motion Picture Theatres Survey, movie theatres, including drive-ins, sold 119.6 million tickets in the 2001 fiscal year, an increase of only 0.3% from the previous year. Reduced attendance at older cinemas has been offset by increases at huge new multiplex cinemas, which have contributed significantly to gains during the last decade. In addition, the industry suffered an operating loss of $26.5 million.

Nevertheless, the number of tickets sold was at a 41-year high. Attendance has increased for nine straight years, but the rate of growth has fallen in recent years. After posting a growth rate of 14% in 1998, attendance rose just 6% in 1999 and only 0.3% in 2000.

Movie theatres and drive-ins
Catalogue no. 87F0009XPB

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
POPULATION									
Total population (July 1)	*29,035,981*	*29,353,854*	*29,671,892*	*29,987,214*	*30,248,412*	*30,509,323*	*30,790,834*	*31,110,565*	*31,413,990*
0-17 years	7,129,781	7,165,631	7,205,638	7,209,093	7,185,557	7,147,999	7,118,038	7,090,396	7,057,074
18-64 years	18,466,074	18,676,227	18,884,263	19,119,660	19,333,509	19,568,865	19,813,562	20,092,509	20,367,720
65 years and over	3,440,126	3,511,996	3,581,991	3,658,461	3,729,346	3,792,459	3,859,234	3,927,660	3,989,196
Population rates (per 1,000)									
Total growth	11.2	10.8	10.4	9.8	8.0	9.0	9.5	10.3	8.2
Birth	13.3	12.9	12.3	11.6	11.3	11.1	10.6	10.6	10.4
Death	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.5
Natural increase	6.1	5.7	5.2	4.4	4.1	3.9	3.5	3.3	3.0
Immigration	7.7	7.2	7.6	7.2	5.8	6.2	7.4	8.0	7.3
Total emigration	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4
Interprovincial migration	9.9	9.8	9.6	9.7	9.9	9.1	9.4	9.8	10.9
Marriage	5.5	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.0
Percent growth in largest census metropolitan areas (to July 1)									
Toronto	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.7	2.4
Montréal	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.1
Vancouver	3.2	3.2	3.3	2.9	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.1
HEALTH									
Total fertility per woman	1.66	1.64	1.59	1.55	1.54	1.53	1.49	..	..
Teenage pregnancies	46,484	45,161	44,140	41,540	41,588	..	..	..	..
Pregnancy rate per 1,000 women aged 15-19	48.8	46.9	45.1	42.1	41.7	..	..	..	..
Low birthweight babies (< 2,500 grams) as % of all births	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.6	..	..
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	6.3	6.1	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.3	5.3	..	..
Life expectancy at birth (years)								..	..
Men	75.0	75.1	75.5	75.8	76.0	76.3	76.7	..	..
Women	81.0	81.1	81.2	81.3	81.5	81.7	82.0	..	..
Selected causes of death for men (per 100,000 males),****									
Cancer	242.7	239.9	237.6	230.7	231.1	228.9	225.3	..	..
Lung	75.5	73.2	72.9	69.9	70.1	70.3	64.3	..	..
Colorectal	25.0	25.1	24.3	23.5	24.1	24.1	24.0	..	..
Prostate	30.7	31.0	29.0	28.4	27.9	26.7	26.7	..	..
Heart diseases	249.5	245.6	240.9	231.8	227.8	220.8	202.9	..	..
Cerebrovascular diseases	54.8	54.6	52.5	52.4	49.6	47.3	46.4	..	..
External causes**	65.8	66.1	64.3	60.8	61.2	63.7	58.6	..	..
Selected causes of death for women (per 100,000 females),****									
Cancer	155.6	152.4	155.7	149.1	151.6	149.4	149.4	..	..
Lung	31.9	31.3	33.6	32.3	34.5	34.8	34.4	..	..
Colorectal	16.1	16.2	15.7	15.2	15.7	15.2	15.1	..	..
Breast	30.0	28.7	28.9	27.4	26.4	25.2	25.0	..	..
Heart diseases	139.9	137.5	135.3	130.2	126.2	121.1	113.4	..	..
Cerebrovascular diseases	45.9	44.9	44.3	44.2	41.9	40.0	38.8	..	..
External causes**	25.3	25.8	25.5	24.4	24.4	25.0	23.5	..	..

.. Data not available.

* Age-standardized to the July 1, 1991 Census of Population (both sexes combined).

** Includes environmental events, circumstances and conditions as the cause of injury, poisoning and other adverse effects.

*** Significant disruption of some mortality trends was caused by the implementation of ICD-10 as the Canadian mortality classification standard, effective in 2000. The impact of the implementation of ICD-10 on Canadian mortality trends is assessed in Health Statistics Division's ICD-9/ICD-10 comparability study.

Sources: Population estimates come from Demography Division, and birth and death statistics come from Health Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

INDEX OF ARTICLES

Spring 1999 — Winter 2003

INDEX OF ARTICLES [CONT.]

LESSON PLAN

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for **"Across the generations: Grandparents and grandchildren"**

Objectives

- ❑ To consider the social expectations associated with grandparenthood.
- ❑ To examine the factors influencing the level of involvement between grandparents and grandchildren.

Classroom instructions

1. Poll your class to see how many students have at least one living grandparent. Use this as an introduction for a discussion of grandparenthood. How do the students see the grandparent–grandchild relationship as different from the parent–child relationship?
2. Explore with your class the social roles of grandparents and grandchildren and the expectations associated with each role. Examine the possible ways in which the grandparent–grandchild relationship might vary across age or sex of grandparents and grandchild?
3. Ask your students about the living arrangements of their grandparents. Have them think about advantages and disadvantages of having three generations in one home. In what ways can grandparents be both caregivers and care recipients at the same time?
4. Discuss with your class potential reasons for the existence of skip generation households, i.e. households in which grandparents are the full-time caregivers of their grandchildren, and there are no parents present. What challenges are faced by these grandparents, both within their own family and from the wider society?
5. Have your students research how grandparent–grandchild relationships might differ in another culture or historical period and have them report the findings to the rest of the class.
6. How might parental separation or divorce affect the relationship between grandparents and grandchildren? What could be some positive and negative consequences?
7. Although our society expects that many older people enjoy being grandparents, it can also be viewed as an involuntary role that arises from the actions of others. Have your students consider possible reasons why older persons might not wish to be active grandparents.

Using other resources

Profile of Canadian Families and Households: Diversification Continues
www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/products/analytic/companion/fam/contents.cfm

Che-Alford, Janet and Brian Hamm. Summer 1999. "Under one roof: Three generations living together." *Canadian Social Trends.*
www.statcan.ca/english/kits/pdf/social/3gene2.pdf

- ❑ For further ideas on this topic, see the lesson plan for "Under one roof: Three generations living together." www.statcan.ca/english/kits/social/3gen1.htm
- ❑ To find other lessons for home economics and family studies, check out our Statistics Canada Web site at www.statcan.ca/english/kits/teach.htm. There are more than 30 lesson plans for secondary home economics and family studies.
- ❑ See the Family studies kit at www.statcan.ca/english/kits/Family/intro.htm for detailed graphs that you can use to make overheads for your class.

Educators

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It's easy! Visit our site at www.statcan.ca, click on Canadian Statistics and then choose Health. Click on the *Guide to Health Statistics* banner and let your mouse lead the way.

Bookmark it!

Here are some of the handy links you'll find in the *Guide to Health Statistics*

Links to insightful analysis and data on:

- Cancer

Health Surveys

- Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS)
- National Population Health Survey (NPHS)
- Smoking and Tobacco Use Surveys
- Health Care
- Therapeutic Abortions
- Vital Statistics

Sample links to related sites:

- Canadian Cancer Statistics
- Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI)
- Health Canada
- Canadian Health Network

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