2.1.1 Family Structure

According to the Census, there are five kinds of families in Canada: married with children, married without children, common-law with children, common-law without children and lone-parent. Findings from the 2006 Census suggest that the structure of Canadian families is evolving. In 2006, 39% of Census families were married with children compared to 41% in 2001. In 2006, 7% of Census families were common-law couples with children compared to 6% in 2001. Thus, the proportion of all Canadian families who are married families with children is declining while the proportion of common-law families with children is increasing.

Implications

With more children living in non-traditional arrangements, the way Canada defines a family must be socially sensitive and sufficiently broad to encapsulate present-day family structures. Beyond that, there needs to be an appreciation that not all families function in the same way or are equally privileged. By recognizing the disparities and struggles that are common to specific family types (e.g., lower incomes among female lone-parent families), we can begin to redress these inequalities and, in doing so, lessen the toll on the family unit and the children affected.

Note: Excludes census data for one or more incompletely enumerated Indian reserves or Indian settlements.

2.1.2 Family Structure

Fig. 2.1.2 Proportion of families with children living at home by family structure, Canada, 2001 and 2006

In 2006, the majority of families with children living at home were married families (63%), while 26% were lone-parent families and 11% were common-law families. Census data from 2001 and 2006 suggest that the structure of families with children is changing. The proportion of lone-parent and common-law families increased while married families decreased.

Implications

We must be aware that family structures are fluid. The relative stability portrayed in these charts can be misleading if readers fail to note that children’s experiences of family structure may have been or will be different than at the time of the Census.
2.1.3 Family Structure

In 2006, across the provinces, the proportion of Census families with children led by married parents ranged from 62% to 69%, except Québec where only 47% of parents were married. In the territories, on the other hand, 50% or less of families were led by a married couple, while 30% or more were led by a lone parent. The Yukon showed the highest proportion of lone-parent families at 33%.

2.1.4 Family Structure

Despite married couples remaining the most common Census family with children under the age of 15, findings from the 2006 Census suggest a shifting distribution among Census family structures. In 2006, married families with children under 15 accounted for 66% of all families with children under 15, down from 69% in 2001. The proportion of common-law families with children under 15 rose to 15% from 13%.

Note: Excludes census data for one or more incompletely enumerated Indian reserves or Indian settlements.

2.1.5 Family Structure

Fig. 2.1.5 Number of children living at home per family by family structure, Canada, 2006

In 2006, the majority of married and common-law families with children had 2 or more children living in their household (64% and 53%), while the majority of lone-parents had only one child living in their household (62%).

Implications

In Canada, the average family size declined from 3.7 in 1971 to 3.0 in 2006.\(^1\) There are many factors influencing the size of a family. Economic security, age of parents, marriage and divorce, educational attainment and participation in the labour force are some of the factors driving the trend toward smaller families in Canada.

\(^1\) Statistics Canada accessed at http://www40.statcan.ca/l01/cst01/famili40-eng.htm on December 13, 2011.
2.1.6 Family Structure

In 2001, a question about same-sex relationships was included in the Census for the first time. On June 17, 2003, Prime Minister Jean Chrétien and Justice Minister Martin Cauchon announced that the federal government was going to introduce legislation legalizing same-sex marriage across the country.

In 2005, the Supreme Court of Canada legalized same-sex marriage. One year later, the 2006 Census reported 17% of same-sex couples were married while 83% continued to live common law. Among opposite-sex couples, 82% were married and 18% were living common law.

Implications
Same-sex couples have made significant progress toward legal equality with opposite-sex couples through Charter litigation. There have been a number of Charter challenges alleging discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation that have proceeded through the courts both in and apart from the family law context. Same-sex couples have used the Charter to gain rights and obligations similar to those available to opposite-sex couples.
The number of lone-parent families in Canada has been increasing steadily for the last many decades. In 2006, there were four times more female-led lone-parent families than male-led families. In that year, over 1.1 million lone-parent families were led by mothers compared to 282,000 families led by lone-parent fathers.

2.1.8 Family Structure

The majority of fathers in Canada (74% in 2006) cared for their children in a married or common-law family. Another 14% of fathers brought their children into a stepfamily or were stepfathers to a non-biological child or children. Fewer were lone-parents (8%) and only 4% of fathers indicated no children living in their household.

Implications

The concept of fatherhood has broadened considerably in the last 20 years. Today, fathers include men who have children in common law-relationships, gay fathers with or without partners, divorced or separated men who do not live with their children, stepfathers or men who have become stepfathers, adoptive fathers, foster fathers, fathers in blended families and older men who no longer live with their grown children. Given the realities of Canadian fatherhood, it is difficult to measure how many of these different types of fathers we have in Canada.

Adapted from Statistics Canada http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/11-008-x/2010002/t/11165/tbl003-eng.htm, accessed on December 13, 2011. Fathers are 18 to 65 years of age.
2.1.9 Family Structure

In Canada, the 2006 Census found that most (86%) of non-Aboriginal children under 6 years old lived in two-parent families, while 13% lived in lone-parent families and 1% lived in some other form of arrangement.

Aboriginal children under 6 years old were more likely to be living in a lone-parent family compared to non-Aboriginal children. Of First Nations children, 52% under 6 years old were living in a two-parent family.

Implications
There are far more Aboriginal children under 6 years living in lone-parent families than non-Aboriginal children of the same age. This puts Aboriginal children at increased risk of living in poverty.
The 2006 Aboriginal Children’s Survey examined the prevalence of parent, grandparent, relative and non-relative involvement in raising an Aboriginal child under 6 years of age. The vast majority of mothers — First Nations (93%), Métis (94%) and Inuit (92%) — were involved in raising their children, as were many First Nations (72%), Métis (78%) and Inuit (77%) fathers. The survey also found that 44% of First Nations children under age 6 years were raised in part by their grandparents, as were 41% of Métis children and 46% of Inuit children. Other relatives, which includes siblings and extended family, were involved to a lesser degree among First Nations (28%) and Métis (21%) families, but played a more prominent role in raising young children in Inuit families (47%). Community-based, non-relative caregivers played a role in childrearing for 17% of First Nations and Métis children, and for 19% of Inuit children under the age of 6 years.

**Implications**

“Children hold a special place in Aboriginal cultures. According to tradition, they are gifts from the spirit world... They carry within them the gifts that manifest themselves as they become teachers, mothers, hunters, councillors, artisans and visionaries. They renew the strength of the family, clan and village and make the elders young again with their joyful presence.”

*(Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, 1996)*
The average family size among all Census families—with or without children—has declined over the last generation. In 1971, the average family in Canada had 3.7 people; by 2006, that number had dropped to 3.0. Similar decreases have been observed among husband–wife families (from 3.8 to 3.0) and among lone-parent families (3.1 to 2.5).
In 2011, Canada’s national unemployment rate was 7.4%. Newfoundland and Labrador experienced the highest rate of unemployment (12.7%), followed by PEI at 11.3%. Rates for Manitoba (5.4%), Saskatchewan (5.0%) and Alberta (5.5%) fell below the national average. Newfoundland and Labrador’s unemployment rate improved in 2011 compared to 2000 (16.7%), while Ontario’s unemployment rate rose from 5.8% in 2000 to 7.8% in 2011.

Implications

Being unemployed means there are fewer financial resources to meet the needs of the family. The duration of employment also plays an important role in the well-being of the family. Although the Atlantic region had the highest unemployment rates among the provinces, Quebec, Ontario and British Columbia had the highest average weeks spent unemployed (23, 22 and 21 weeks, respectively). To safeguard vulnerable communities from economic collapse during difficult times, leaders need to initiate profitable, sustainable development that can provide a safety net for the labour force.

Youth unemployment is the number of unemployed persons aged 15 to 24 expressed as a percentage of the number in the labour force (those working or seeking employment). In 2000, the youth unemployment rate in Canada was 12.7%.

In 2011, the youth unemployment rate was up to 14.2%. Almost one in five (19.5%) 15 to 19 year olds were unemployed, while 10.9% of 20 to 24 year olds were unemployed. For adults aged 25 to 64 years, the unemployment rate was 6.2%.

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2.2.14 Work and Family

Of all Canadian youth between the ages of 15 and 24 years in 2011, 45.1% were working full time and 40.7% were working part time.

Most employed youth aged 15 to 24 (71%) reported “going to school” as the reason for choosing part-time employment, 5% said it was a personal preference and 20% noted “other”, which included business conditions and unable to find full-time work.¹


Implications

Part-time employment has been increasing steadily, especially among youth aged 15 to 24 years.¹ For this age group, part-time employment is often ideal because it provides income while allowing youth to attend secondary and post-secondary schooling.

In 2011, Alberta (62.7%), Saskatchewan (60.8%) and Manitoba (60.8%) had the highest employment rates for youth aged 15 to 24 years. Newfoundland and Labrador (46.3%) had the lowest proportion of 15 to 24 year olds employed within the labour force.

The national employment rate for youth aged 15 to 24 years was 55.4% in 2011. Newfoundland and Labrador (46.3%), Ontario (52.0%), New Brunswick (52.2%), Nova Scotia (54.0%) and British Columbia (54.5%) all had employment rates below the national average.
In 2010, the unemployment rate for First Nations youth living off-reserve was 26.9% and the rate for Métis youth was 16.9%. The comparable rate for non-Aboriginal youth was 14.6%.

The employment rate for First Nations youth living off-reserve was 36.6% while that for Métis youth was 52.6%.
2.2.17 Work and Family

Fig. 2.2.17 Employment rate of women with children by family status, Canada, 2009

A mother’s employment status can be affected by her family structure. Women with younger children are less likely to be employed than are those with older children. Still, in 2009, 45.9% of lone-parent mothers and 66.5% of women with partners who had a child under 3 years were employed outside the home.

By the time children are in school, 75.7% of lone-parent mothers and 79.2% of mothers with partners are employed.

Implications

With an increasing number of mothers working outside the home, it is important to provide more accessible and affordable early childhood care and education, and after school care.
The majority of women with children are employed, whether they are lone parents or have a partner. In 2009, 74% of mothers who had at least one child under 16 and who were with a partner were employed, as were 69% of lone-parent mothers. This is a 95% increase for mothers with partners and a 44% increase for lone-parent mothers since 1976. The employment rate of women with children under 16 has remained relatively stable since 2001.
Section 2 - Family Life

2.2.19 Work and Family

In 1971, a lone-parent mother worked on average 12 hours per week to support her family. By 1987, that number had increased to 21 hours per week. At the start of the new millennium, lone-parent mothers were working 27 hours per week and most recent estimates suggest that number is continuing to climb, having reached 29 hours per week in 2006. In spite of this increase, in 2006, real disposable incomes for lone-parent mothers were low.

Earnings for lone-parent mothers have also increased. In 1971, lone-parent mothers on average had disposable incomes of $9,825. In 1991, this had increased to $15,120 and, by 2006, the average amount of disposable income for lone-parent mothers was $22,874.

Implications

Although in recent years mothers who are lone-parents are earning more employment income, they are also spending more time in the workplace, leaving less time for them to be at home with their children. Further, in spite of the increase in the amount of time they are working, their incomes continue to be low.

Note: Weighted by household and not individual.

In 1971, mothers and fathers living in couple relationships and having children under 18 years of age living with them worked on average 48.6 hours per week for pay. By 2006, that number had increased by 37% to 66.6 hours; however, the increase was attributable to mothers working more hours for pay. The time mothers spent in paid work increased over threefold to 26.2 hours per week in 2006 from 8.2 hours in 1971. Furthermore, the increase in mothers' paid hours has been proportionally greater for lower-income families. While the largest increases in hours have occurred for low and middle-income families, the largest increases in real income have occurred for higher-income families.
2.2.21 Work and Family

A recent study on work-life conflict included 100 Canadian companies with 500+ employees. The study included 31,571 people, 55% of which were women.\(^1\)

This study showed an overall increase in work hours from 1991 to 2001. Employees working 50 or more hours per week rose from just 10% in 1991 to 25% in 2001. Employees with a 35 to 39 hour work week decreased over that period from 48% to 27%. It was estimated that no fewer than one in four but as many as 60% of employed Canadians struggle to balance their work and home lives. This speaks almost exclusively to the demands of caregiver duties, either for an elderly parent, an ill family member or a child or children.

2.2.22 Work and Family

**Fig. 2.2.22 Percentage of Canadians aged 25 to 39 who have a university degree by parents’ education, Canada, 2009**

![Pie chart showing percentages of Canadians aged 25 to 39 who have a university degree by parents’ education.](https://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/11-008-x/2011002/article/11536-eng.pdf)


Women are more likely to have a university degree than men. In 2009, 37% of women 25 to 39 years of age held a university degree compared with 27% of men. However, young people are more likely to get a university degree if their parents have one. In fact, if both parents had a university degree, 67% of men and 77% of women aged 25 to 39 had a university degree compared with 20% and 31% of men and women, respectively, whose parents had a high school diploma. The likelihood of obtaining a university degree increases as parental level of education increases.
In 2009, 31.4% of all Canadians aged 25 to 39 had a university degree. Of those who had at least one parent with a degree, 55.8% had a university degree. Of those Canadians aged 25 to 39 whose parents did not have a degree, 23.0% had a university degree, or roughly half the percentage of those who have a parent with a degree.

Among people whose parents did not have a degree, the likelihood of their obtaining a degree nearly doubled between 1986 and 2009. The increase was less dramatic for those whose parents had a degree, at 1.25 times higher.