

Profiles of Fathers in Canada

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A. Introduction

A “biological male parent living with his own children” used to be an appropriate and adequate definition of a “father”, a role taken by a great proportion of men. However, the roles that fathers play, and thus the definition of fatherhood, are influenced by historical and cultural contexts, and by familial ideologies (Lamb and Tamis-Lemonda, 2004; Marsiglio et al., 2000), and in recent years, these influences have changed families. The changes – mainly brought about by high rates of divorce and cohabitation, and increasing rate of child-bearing among never married women – have, in many instances, split the biological and custodial roles of fathers such that they are no longer played by the same person (King, 1999, Cabrera *et al.*, 2000). Fathers, when broadly defined as men who are involved with their children - that is, *engaged* with, *accessible* to, and *responsible* for their children (Lamb *et al.*, 1987) – could include different groups of men. In addition to men living with their dependent children and men whose children have grown up and are independent adults, fathers now include men living apart from their dependent children because they are not in a relationship with the children’s mother (non-residential and often, non-custodial, biological fathers) and men who have become fathers through marriage (custodial non-biological fathers, or step-fathers) (Eggebeen and Knoster, 2001). Fathers also include men in varying types of relationships – heterosexual, same-sex, or living with no partner – who have adopted or living with children. All these types of fathers differ in levels of involvement in the life of their children.

Creating profiles of fathers requires not only a definition but also a means of identifying fathers from available data. A common source of data on the number of fathers is census data. Assuming that there is a father in each family, the number of fathers is taken to be equal to the number of intact and male-headed lone parent families - obtained from published data or public use micro-data file on *families*. However, because the unit of analysis is the family, characteristics of families could be described but more information about fathers themselves is difficult to derive.

The census public use micro-date file on *individuals* (PUMF) provides more information but identification of fathers is constrained by limited information. In Canada, until the 1991 census, women were asked a question on children ever born, allowing the identification of mothers. No census has asked men a similar question on the number of children ever sired. However, information on living arrangements of men have been made available starting with the 1996 census, which allows identification of fathers, albeit defined in a narrower sense. A father defined as a man living with children, who may or may not be his own biological children, could be identified but men who have fathered a child or men whose children have grown up, with the child or children no longer living with them, can not be counted as fathers.

The census PUMF has the advantage of providing a big sample size. For example, in the 2001 Census public use micro-data file of individuals, a 2.7% sample of the population, there are 270,000 men aged 15-64. This makes it possible to create a profile of sub-

groups of fathers such as fathers differentiated by age (for example, young fathers), aboriginal status or cultural background (for instance, immigrant fathers).

Surveys are possible sources of data as well, but like the Census, surveys do not routinely ask whether a man has fathered a child. In Canada, the surveys that enquired about men and their children are the General Social Surveys (GSS) of Families, the most recent of which was conducted in 2001. The information from the survey allows identifying biological fathers who are not living with their children, which makes it possible to create profiles of these fathers. However, the survey sample size is much smaller than the census PUMF, which has a disadvantage of being subject to sampling error, and of limiting the sub-groups that could be profiled.

Using the 2001 Census Public Use Micro-data file of individuals we draw a socio-economic profile of *all* fathers defined as men living with children aged 24 and under. The same definition and data source are used for profiles of subset of fathers namely, *new* fathers, *young* fathers, *lone* fathers, *immigrant* fathers, and *aboriginal* fathers. For profiles of *biological* fathers not living with their children, and of *step*-fathers, we use the 2001 GSS of Families. The 2001 Census PUMF does not provide data for drawing the profiles of gay fathers and fathers of children with special needs.

These socio-economic profiles are augmented by information from two other types of General Social Surveys, both conducted by Statistics Canada – on Time Use, and on Social Engagement. From the Time Use surveys, we obtain the time spent by fathers in paid and unpaid work in 1986, 1992, 1998, and 2005, and from the 2003 GSS on Social Engagement, we derived information about the social networks and other types of social capital of men categorized by fatherhood status.

B. Socio-Economic Profiles

1. All Fathers

Taking a definition of fathers as men living with children aged 24 years or younger (a definition that will be used in this document, unless otherwise specified), an estimate from the 2001 PUMF shows that there are around 3.8 million fathers or about 38% of all men aged 15-64 (Table 1). If we take into account only men who are living independently, that is, excluding men still living with their parents, the proportion of fathers is 49%. The highest proportion of fathers (at 65%) is among men aged 40-49. A high proportion of younger men would not have as yet fathered children, and children of a great proportion of men at older ages would have already left home to live independently. As expected, the age of children vary positively with fathers' ages, though even at age 50-64, some men (about 3%) have children under 6 years old.

The majority of fathers (81%) are married, 14% are in common-law relationship, and 5% are lone fathers. The trend by age in the proportion of fathers who are in common-law relationships - with the highest proportion at age 20-29 (38%) and lowest at 50-64 (6%) - reflects the changes that have occurred in families over the past decades. While young

fathers in common-law relationship may get married later on, the proportion ever-marrying among these young people would most likely not equal the proportion who have ever-married among older men. As can also be seen in Table 1, majority of teenage fathers are lone parents. This will be separately discussed in the section on young fathers.

Table 1: Fatherhood Status, Age Groups of Children, and Marital Status of Fathers by Age Groups, Men Aged 15-64

	15-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-64		Total 20-64		Total 15-64	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Fatherhood Status of All Men														
Living with children under 25	5230	0.5	249620	13.2	1218685	54.3	1545100	64.7	786730	32.6	3800135	42.5	3805365	38.1
Not living with children under 25	1046525	99.5	1640800	86.8	1024740	45.7	841680	35.3	1625070	67.4	5132290	57.5	6178815	61.9
Total	1051755	100.0	1890420	100.0	2243425	100.0	2386780	100.0	2411800	100.0	8932425	100.0	9984180	100.0
Fatherhood Status of Men Living Independently*														
Living with children under 25	5230	9.1	249620	24.4	1218685	59.6	1545100	67.4	786730	33.1	3800135	49.1	3805365	48.8
Not living with children under 25	52215	90.9	772120	75.6	826910	40.4	747265	32.6	1590050	66.9	3936345	50.9	3988560	51.2
Total	57445	100.0	1021740	100.0	2045595	100.0	2292365	100.0	2376780	100.0	7736480	100.0	7793925	100.0
Age Groups of Children														
Children under 6	5230	100.0	223665	89.6	784345	64.4	274630	17.8	25505	3.2	1308145	34.4	1313150	34.5
Youngest Child 6-14			25955	10.4	399750	32.8	806430	52.2	183110	23.3	1413835	37.2	1414020	37.2
Youngest Child 15-24					34585	2.8	464040	30.0	578120	73.5	1078155	28.4	1078195	28.3
Total	5230	100.0	249620	100.0	1218680	100.0	1545100	100.0	786735	100.0	3800135	100.0	3805365	100.0
Marital Arrangements of Fathers														
Married father	670	12.8	139565	55.9	951875	78.1	1308370	84.7	694080	88.2	3093890	81.4	3094560	81.3
Father in CL relation	1520	29.1	94535	37.9	219585	18.0	152870	9.9	47255	6.0	514245	13.5	515765	13.6
Lone father	3040	58.1	15520	6.2	47225	3.9	83865	5.4	45395	5.8	192000	5.1	195040	5.1
Total	5230	100.0	249620	100.0	1218685	100.0	1545105	100.0	786730	100.0	3800135	100.0	3805365	100.0

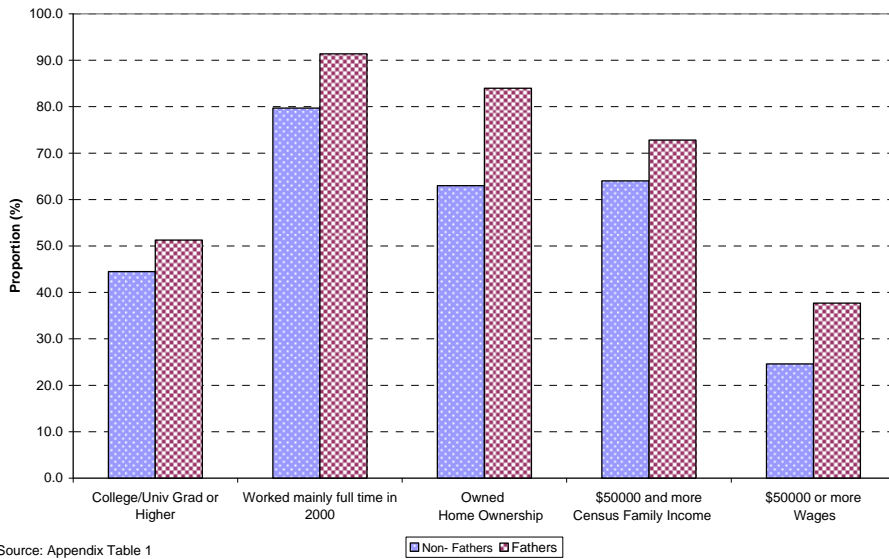
Source: 2001 Census PUMF of Individuals.
Note: estimated numbers are rounded to multiples of 5.
* excludes men living with parents.

Fathers are generally socio-economically better off than non-fathers, using various indicators including education, work status, house ownership, and income and wages of men aged 15-64 (Appendix Table 1). However, the differences between fathers and non-fathers vary by age groups; for instance, the census family income is higher for non-fathers among men younger than 30, and to a certain extent, at age 30-39. This is because many young men are still living in their parents' home and thus the income shown in the Table is that of their family of origin. These young men may still be studying, or in the process of establishing themselves in the labour market. A way of controlling for age when examining the difference in socio-economic profiles between fathers and non-fathers is to focus on one age group, for example, at the age at which the proportion of fathers is concentrated, that is, at aged 40-49.

All indicators in Figure 1 show that fathers aged 40-49 are in better socio-economic position than non-fathers of the same age – a higher proportion of fathers have college or university education, have worked mainly full time in 2000, are owners of their dwelling, and have \$50,000 and higher family income or wages. Could these differentials be attributed to fatherhood status; that is, does living with children result in better socio-economic conditions for men? An essential proposition of generative fathering is that

fatherhood benefits not only the children or the children’s mother but also the father himself, particularly in terms of his own personal development (Snarey, 1993; Hawkins and Dollahite, 1997. Some empirical studies support the proposition. Eggebeen and Knoestner (2001), for example, found that in the United States, men living with at least one minor child (under 18 years old) have more attachment to the labour force and work more hours per week than non-fathers or other types of fathers. They attribute this to the assumption of a good provider role, that is, living with children engender a “sense of responsibility to provide for their children” that results in stronger attachment to the labour force (p. 384).

Figure 1: Socio-Economic Profile of Men Aged 40-49 by Fatherhood Status



While, the “good provider” explanation could account for the fatherhood status differential, a “selectivity” explanation cannot be ruled out. Men who become fathers and continue to live with children may have characteristics conducive to having better socio-economic positions; that is, men with better abilities to earn, for example, are more likely to find marital partners and have children, and less likely to separate from their partners (and thus continue to live with their children). The college or university education of a greater proportion of fathers (shown in Figure 1) was most likely acquired before these men had children, which higher education in turn led to the likelihood of greater attachment to the labour force, higher income, and home ownership. It is difficult, if not impossible, to delineate the effects of living with children from the “selection” effect with the currently available data.

2. New Fathers

In 2001, there were around 413,000 “new fathers”, defined as men living with at least one child under 2, and none over 5 years of age. While there are new fathers at all age groups, the majority (59%) are aged 30-39 (Table 2). This reflects the trend of becoming a parent

at older ages. Had this been data from say, 1981 or earlier, the greatest proportion of new fathers would most likely have been in their 20s. Most of the new fathers are married, though about a quarter are in cohabiting union, again reflecting the more recent trend of having children within common-law union (see Table 1). Only 2% of the new fathers are without spouse or partner; that is, men who have never married or have been separated or divorced but are living with children.

In general, new fathers are in good socio-economic position with 58% having college or university degrees, and an additional 14% who have gone through some post-secondary education. Ninety-one percent worked mainly full time in 2000; and 58% have family income of \$50000 or higher. These are indications that men wait until they are “economically settled” before becoming a parent.

Furthermore, many new fathers have spouses or partners who are themselves earners. For example, while 58% have family income of \$50,000 or higher, only about 28% have total individual income of \$50,000 plus, indicating that for more than a quarter (28%) of fathers, their spouses or partners had earnings that boosted the family income to \$50000 or more.

Table 2: Demographic and Socio-Economic Profiles of New Fathers

	Number	%		Number	%
Age Groups			Work Status		
15-19	3780	0.9	Worked mainly full time in 2000	377870	91.5
20-29	125815	30.5	Worked mainly part time in 2000	15735	3.8
30-39	242170	58.6	Not employed in 2000	19530	4.7
40-49	38305	9.3			
50-64	3060	0.7	Census Family Income		
Marital Arrangements of Fathers			Less than \$5000	9520	2.3
Married father	308670	74.7	\$5000-\$14999	18200	4.4
Father in common-law relation	96200	23.3	\$15000-\$29999	44730	10.8
Lone father	8260	2.0	\$30000-\$49999	101125	24.5
			\$50000 and more	239560	58.0
Level of Education			Wages		
Grade 8 or less	9710	2.4	None	49875	12.1
Grades 9-13	57730	14.0	\$1-\$4999	15410	3.7
HS Graduate	49480	12.0	\$5000-\$14999	31455	7.6
Trade, Some College/Univ	59220	14.3	\$15000-\$29999	77235	18.7
College/Univ Grad or Higher	237000	57.4	\$30000-\$49999	124435	30.1
			\$50000 and more	114725	27.8
Total	413135	100.0	House Ownership		
			Owned	282235	68.3
			Rented	130900	31.7
			Total	413135	100.0

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF
Note: Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

In sum, while there are new fathers who are socio-economically disadvantaged (for example, young fathers), in general, new fathers are in good socio-economic situation. However, this does not imply that they have less need for services that would help them get better involved in their children’s lives. Of primary concern to new fathers may be work-life balance as they make the transition to parenthood. As shown in Section C

(below), the hours spent by fathers in both paid and unpaid work have increased between 1986 and 2005.

3. Young Fathers

Young fathers are men aged 15-29 living with children. Teenaged fathers are not common as 99% of men aged 15-19 are single and 95% of them are still living with their parents. At age 20-29, about 29% of men have marital spouse or common-law partner, with 46% of them living with parents, and about a quarter living alone (shown in the table as non-family living).

Table 3: Marital Status and Living Arrangement of Men Aged 15-29

	15-19		20-29		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Marital Status						
Never Married	1042735	99.1	1314845	69.6	1314845	80.1
Married	2195	0.2	272710	14.4	272710	9.3
Common Law	5750	0.5	278860	14.8	278860	9.7
Divorced / Separated	965	0.1	22920	1.2	22920	0.8
Widowed	110	0.0	1075	0.1	1075	0.0
Living Arrangement						
Living with spouse	1155	0.1	262145	13.9	262145	8.9
Living with CL partner	5750	0.5	278860	14.8	278860	9.7
Lone parent	3040	0.3	15520	0.8	15520	0.6
Living with parent(s)	994310	94.5	868675	46.0	868675	63.3
Non-family living	47500	4.5	465215	24.6	465215	17.4
Total	1051755	100.0	1890415	100.0	1890415	100.0

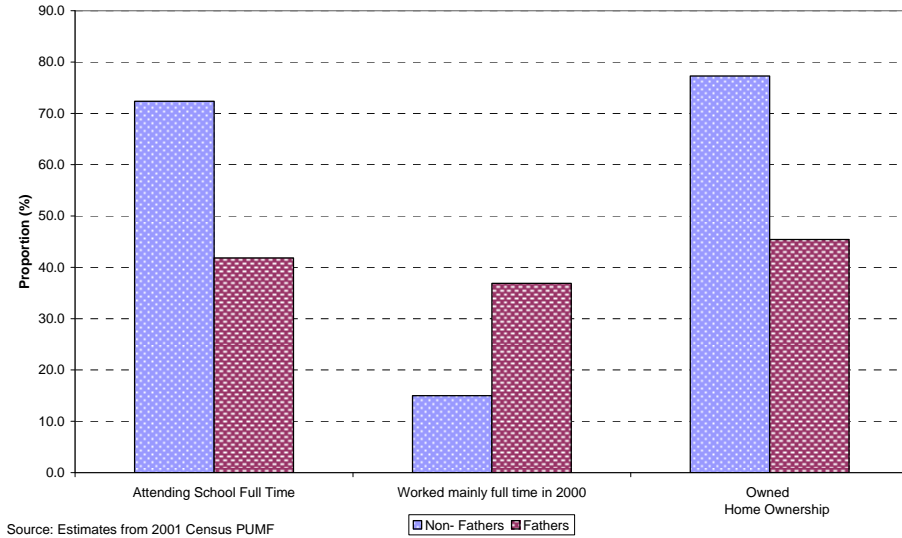
Source: 2001 Census PUMF of Individuals.
Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

As can be seen in Table 1, there are some 5200 fathers aged 15-19, the majority of whom are lone fathers (59%), 29% are fathers in a cohabiting union, and only 13% are married fathers. This differs greatly from the distribution by marital arrangement for all fathers, most of whom are married. Unlike in the past when pregnancy often led to marriage, nowadays when non-marital pregnancy is no longer subjected to normative sanctions, many instances of teenaged child-bearing occurs outside of a marital union. When this happens, in most instances, the child usually lives with the mother, but there are some cases (as the ones counted in the census) when the child gets to live with the father.

While there are not many teenaged fathers, those who are fathers are in a more disadvantaged socio-economic situation than the non-fathers. Compared to non-fathers, teenaged fathers are less likely to be attending school full-time and more likely to be working full-time, although for both groups, the proportions employed full-time are low at 15% for non-fathers and 37% for fathers (Figure 2). Non-fathers are more likely to be living in houses that are owned - rather than rented - with homes very likely owned by

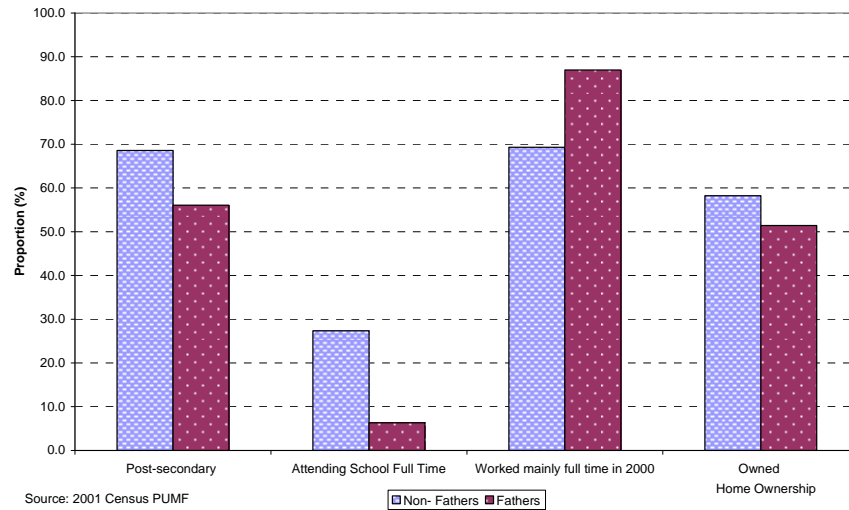
their parents. And, as can be seen in Appendix Table 1, about 38% of teenaged fathers have a family income of less than \$5000, and 30% have income of about \$5000-\$15000.

**Figure 2: School Attendance, Work Status, and House Ownership
Men Aged 15-19, by Fatherhood Status**



Around 250,000 or 13% of men aged 20-29 are living with children most of whom are less than 6 years old (Table 1). While the majority (56%) of these fathers is married, 38% of them are in cohabiting unions, and 6% are lone fathers. For those aged 20-29, the direction of the differentials between fathers and non-fathers are similar to those of the teenaged fathers- that is, fathers are less likely to be attending school full-time and more likely to be working (Figure 3). Furthermore, the proportion of non-fathers who have undertaken post-secondary education is about 12% more than that of fathers.

Figure 3: Education, School Attendance, Work Status, and Home Ownership
Men aged 20-29 by Fatherhood Status



Fathers aged 20-29 have a higher median income (\$28,350) than non-fathers (\$16,420); similarly fathers have higher median wages (\$25,270) than non-fathers (\$14,000) (Appendix Table 1). This is as expected as more fathers are working full-time, compared to non-fathers who may still be living with parents and attending school.

In sum, fathers aged 20-29 are in better socio-economic situation compared to teenaged fathers. However, compared to non-fathers of the same age group, men who have become fathers at young age may find themselves disadvantaged in the long run as those who have not as yet become fathers seem to have attained, or more likely to attain, higher levels of education.

4. Lone Fathers

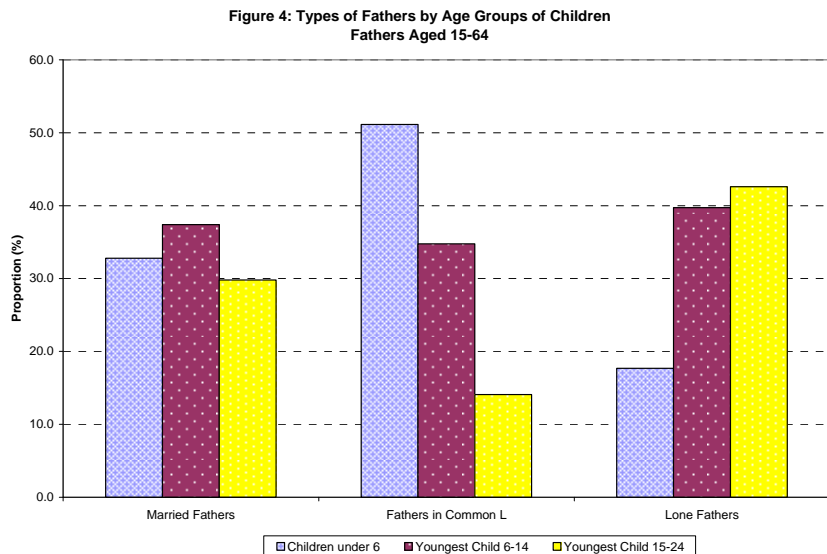
About 195,000 men aged 15-64 are lone fathers defined as men living with at least one child aged 24 years or younger and are not living with a marital spouse or a partner in common law union. Most of them (63%) became lone fathers through separation or divorce (Table 4). About 26% of men living with children have never been married, which indicates that the child or children living with them have been born either in cohabiting union or outside of a union. Only 8% of lone fathers are widowers.

	15-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-64		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Number and Proportion (%)	3041	1.6	15518	8.0	47223	24.2	83863	43.0	45396	23.3	195041	100.0
Marital Status												
Never Married - Single	3004	98.8	12627	81.4	19119	40.5	13270	15.8	2622	5.8	50642	26.0
Married	37	1.2	592	3.8	2068	4.4	2551	3.0	1845	4.1	7093	3.6
Separated / Divorced			2262	14.6	24964	52.9	62835	74.9	32548	71.7	122609	62.9
Widowed			37	0.2	1072	2.3	5207	6.2	8381	18.5	14697	7.5
Total	3041	100.0	15518	100.0	47223	100.0	83863	100.0	45396	100.0	195041	100.0

Source: Estimates from the 2001 Census PUMF
Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

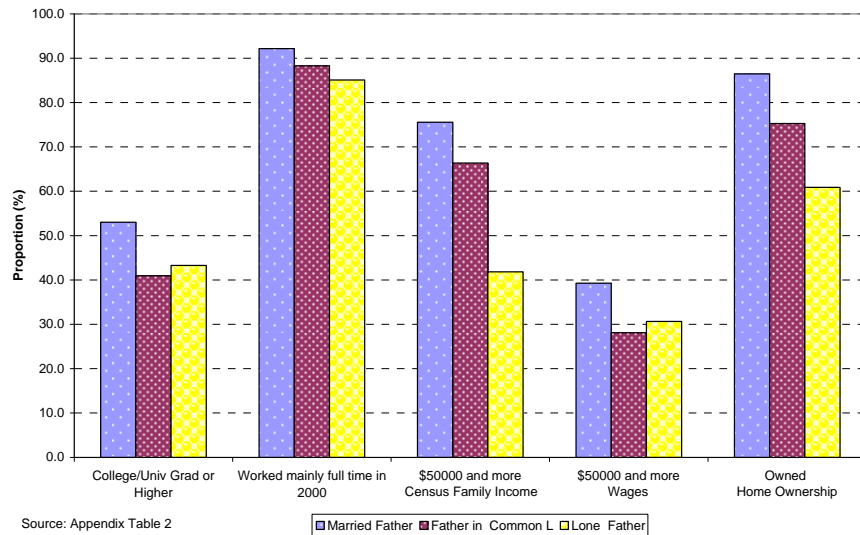
Lone fatherhood, arising from marital or union dissolution, is most likely at older ages; at age 40-49, for example, 75% of lone fathers are separated or divorced. Among younger men, lone fatherhood comes about through child-bearing outside of marriage – at age 20-29, 81% of lone fathers are single.

In comparison to children of fathers who are in union, children of lone fathers are older (Figure 4). On average, compared to fathers in two-parent families, lone fathers are older and thus have older children. However, age of fathers is only a partial explanation. As can be seen in Appendix Table 2, in each ten-age group of fathers, children of lone fathers are generally older than children of married or cohabiting fathers. It could be that men who subsequently became lone fathers married or cohabited at younger ages, and thus, fathered children earlier. Or, young children are more likely to reside primarily with their mothers when divorce or separation occurs.



As can be seen in Appendix Table 2, lone fathers in all age groups are socio-economically worse off in comparison to married fathers. In contrast, the difference between lone fathers and fathers in common-law union is not as clear cut - lone fathers have slightly higher education and individual income or wages; but, fathers in common-law union have higher family income as this includes earnings of partners as well. Among fathers aged 40-49, for example, the proportion of lone fathers who are college or university graduates is about 10% lower than among married fathers, but it is 2% higher than among fathers in common-law unions (Figure 5), and the proportion of lone fathers whose wages are \$50000 or more is lower than that of married fathers but slightly higher than fathers in common-law union. However, in comparison to fathers with partners (in marriage or in common-law union) lone fathers are less likely to have worked full-time in 2000, to have family income of \$50000 and more, or to own their homes.

Figure 5: Socio-Economic Profile of Fathers Aged 40-49 by Marital Arrangements



5. Immigrant Fathers

There are about 960,000 immigrant fathers, defined as men born outside of Canada and living with children aged 24 years or younger, which is a quarter of all fathers aged 15 to 64. Seventeen percent arrived before 1991, and 4% each in 1991-95 and 1996-2001 (Table 5). The age distribution of immigrant fathers is different from the non-migrant fathers – expectedly, compared to non-migrants, immigrants who arrived before 1991 are older, and the recent migrants younger. For example, the proportion at age 50-64 among immigrants who came before 1991 is 38%, 17% among non-migrants, and 12% among most recent immigrants (Table 5).

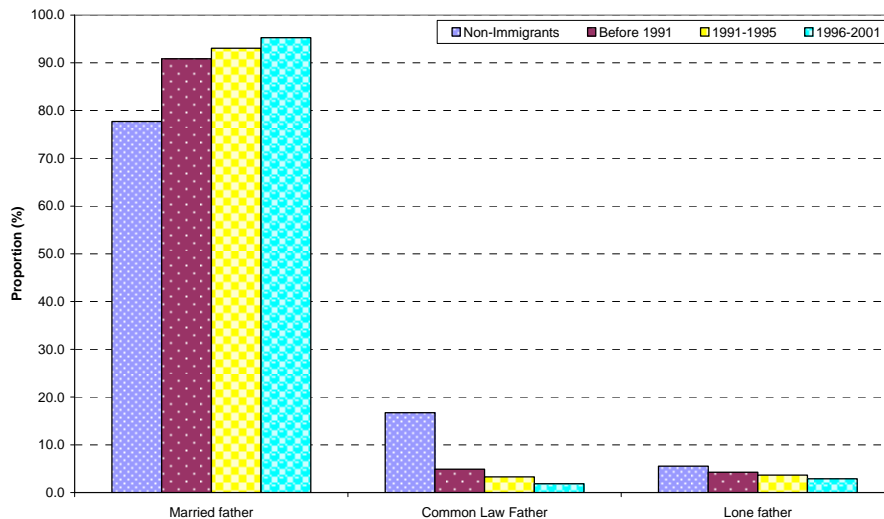
Age Groups of Fathers	Non-Migrants		Migrants						Total	
	Number	%	Before 1991		1991-1995		1996-2001		Number	%
			Number	%	Number	%	Number	%		
15-19	4635	0.2	110	0.0	260	0.2	220	0.1	5225	0.1
20-29	218055	7.7	12495	2.0	7760	4.8	11305	6.9	249615	6.6
30-39	954570	33.5	134595	21.2	61605	38.2	67910	41.6	1218680	32.0
40-49	1172140	41.2	245355	38.6	63115	39.2	64490	39.5	1545100	40.6
50-64	496115	17.4	242850	38.2	28475	17.7	19290	11.8	786730	20.7
Total	2845520	100.0	635410	100.0	161215	100.0	163220	100.0	3805365	100.0
Distribution by Migration Status (%)	74.8		16.7		4.2		4.3		100.0	

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF
Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

As the age of fathers are correlated with the age of children, it follows that compared to non-migrants, immigrants who arrived before 1991 have a greater proportion of older children (aged 15-24), and recent immigrants a greater proportion of youngest children (under 6) (Appendix Table 3).

Immigrants are more likely than non-migrants to be married, rather than being fathers in common-law unions or lone fathers. About 95% of the most recent immigrants are married, 18% higher than the proportion married among non-migrants (78%), and common-law union among recent migrants is 2% whereas among non-migrants, about 17% are in common-law union (Appendix Table 3 and Figure 6). The proportions of lone fathers are all lower among migrants, with the proportion among the recent immigrants (3%) about half the proportion among non-migrants. This indicates that the rate of divorce or separation - that leads to lone parenthood - is lower among immigrants than non-migrants.

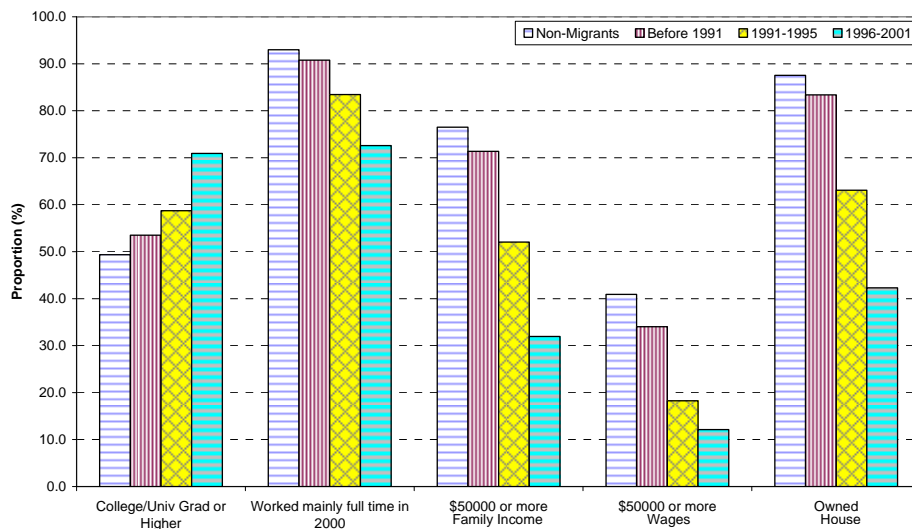
Figure 6: Marital Arrangements of Fathers Aged 15-64 by Migration Status



Source: Appendix Table 3

A comparison of socio-economic profile by migration status of fathers for ages 15-64 shows that immigrants are more likely to be highly educated, but they - especially recent immigrants - are also more likely to be in precarious economic situation (Appendix Table 4). Among fathers aged 40-49, for example, 71% of recent immigrants are college or university graduates whereas among non-migrants, the proportion of graduates from post-secondary education is 49% (Figure 7). However, all other socio-economic indicators of economic well-being - including proportions who worked mainly full-time in 2000, who have \$50000 and higher family income or wages, and who own their homes – show lower proportions among immigrants than among non-migrants, with the most recent immigrants having the lowest.

Figure 7: Socio-Economic Profile of Fathers Aged 40-49 by Migration Status



Source: Appendix Table 4

What this socio-economic profile hints at is that immigrant fathers may have greater challenges in performing their roles, especially fathers who view their main function as providers for the family.

6. Aboriginal Fathers

The aboriginal population is younger than non-aboriginal population. As can be seen in Table 6, for example, the proportions of population at age groups 30-39 and below are greater among aboriginals. This younger age structure is also seen among fathers – for example, 19% of aboriginal fathers are aged 20-29, whereas among non-aboriginals, only 6% are aged 20-29,

Table 6: Age Distribution of Men and Fathers Aged 15-64 by Aboriginal Identity

Age Groups of Men	Non-Aboriginal		Aboriginal	
	Number	%	Number	%
15-19	1009200	10.4	42555	15.2
20-29	1819765	18.8	70650	25.2
30-39	2172470	22.4	70960	25.4
40-49	2333690	24.0	53090	19.0
50-64	2369185	24.4	42620	15.2
Total	9704310	100.0	279875	100.0
Age Groups of Fathers				
15-19	4265	0.1	965	0.9
20-29	229760	6.2	19860	18.8
30-39	1178425	31.9	40260	38.1
40-49	1514520	40.9	30580	29.0
50-64	772815	20.9	13915	13.2
Total	3699785	100.0	105580	100.0

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF
Numbers are rounded to multiples of 5.

which also indicates aboriginal men become fathers at younger ages than non-aboriginal men.

The information on age of children living with their fathers provides an indication that aboriginal men have higher fertility rates than non-aboriginals. For example, the proportion of all fathers living with children under age 6 is higher among aboriginals – 47% as against the proportion for non-aboriginals at 34% (Table 7). Furthermore, the higher proportions of fathers aged 20-29 and 30-39 living with older children (say, aged 6-14 and 12-24) indicate that the onset of fatherhood is earlier among aboriginals.

Table 7: Age Groups of Children and Marital Arrangement of Fathers Aged 15-64 by Age Groups and Aboriginal Identity

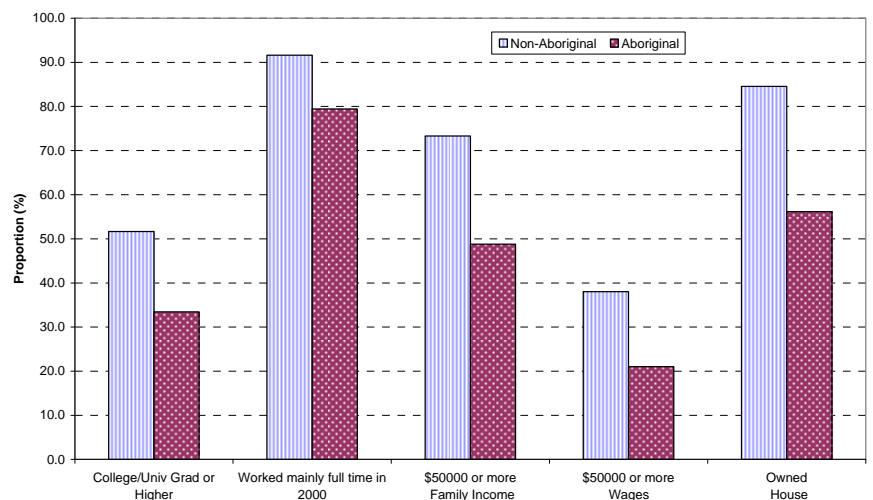
	15-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-64		Total	
	Non-Aboriginal		Non-Aboriginal		Non-Aboriginal		Non-Aboriginal		Non-Aboriginal		Non-Aboriginal	
	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Aboriginal
Age Groups of Children												
Children under 6	100.0	100.0	89.9	86.5	64.7	55.8	17.7	22.3	3.0	14.6	34.2	46.8
Youngest Child 6-14			10.1	13.5	32.6	39.1	52.3	47.9	23.0	36.4	37.2	35.9
Youngest Child 15-24					2.8	5.2	30.0	29.9	73.9	49.0	28.6	17.3
Total Number	4265	965	229760	19860	1178425	40260	1514520	30580	772815	13915	3699785	105580
Marital Arrangements of Fathers												
Married father	14.8	3.8	57.6	35.8	78.9	54.1	85.0	66.7	88.5	72.9	82.0	56.3
Father in CL relation	27.0	38.4	36.7	51.2	17.5	34.2	9.7	20.2	5.8	17.5	13.1	31.2
Lone father	58.2	57.8	5.6	12.9	3.6	11.7	5.3	13.2	5.7	9.5	4.9	12.5
Total Number	4265	965	229760	19860	1178425	40260	1514520	30580	772815	13915	3699785	105580

Source: 2001 Census PUMF of Individuals
Note: numbers rounded to multiples of 5

Aboriginal fathers are also more likely to be living with children in common-law rather than in marital union (Table 7). For all age groups, the proportion of married fathers is 56% among aboriginals and 82% among non-aboriginals, but the proportion living in common-law union among aboriginal fathers is more than double (31%) that among non-aboriginals (13%). The big difference is also seen for lone fatherhood with 12% among aboriginals and 5% among non-aboriginals.

Aboriginals have a socio-economic profile that is also much different from the non-aboriginals. At all age groups, aboriginals are less likely to have attained higher levels of education, more likely to have been unemployed in 2000, have lower proportions with family income or wages of \$50,000 or more, and much less likely to own their homes (Appendix Table 5).

Figure 8: Socio-Economic Profile of Fathers Aged 40-49 by Aboriginal Identity



Source: Appendix Table 5

The disadvantaged socio-economic situation of aboriginals is seen in Figure 8 that compares fathers aged 40-49 by aboriginal identity. In comparison to non-aboriginals, aboriginal fathers have lower proportions: of post-secondary graduates (lower by 18%, that is, 52% minus 34%), of mainly full-time workers in 2000 (by 12%), with family income of \$50,000 or more (by 24%), with wages of \$50,000 or more (by 17%), and of home ownership (by 28%).

The socio-economic profile of aboriginal fathers put them in a similar situation as recent immigrants who are most likely facing difficulties, particularly in fulfilling their role of providers. However, aboriginal fathers differ from recent immigrants in that a greater proportion of them are lone parents or in cohabiting union rather than married.

7. Step-Fathers and Fathers Not Living With Children

The fathers that have been profiled thus far are men living with children aged 24 and under. However, there are men who have biologically fathered children but are no longer living with them – the children may be 25 years or older, may be younger than 25 but living independently or the fathers may have separated from the mothers who have custody of the children. Some of the divorced mothers living with children may have also re-married, with the current husband living as step father of his partner's children. Where living arrangement is used to identify fathers (as with the census data) biological fathers no longer living with children 24 years and under are counted as non-fathers, and step fathers are counted the same way as biological fathers living with children.

The 2001 General Social Survey on the Family provide data that can be used to identify step fathers and fathers not living with their biological children. For the purpose of drawing a profile of types of fathers, the following categories of fathers are derived from the survey: (1) men living with children aged 24 and under in (a) intact family, (b) step family, and (c) lone-parent family, and (2) biological fathers not living with children aged 24 and under who are (a) living with spouse or partner, and (b) not living with spouse or partner. The survey identifies 51% of men aged 20-64 living independently (that is, excluding men living with their parents) as fathers living with children 24 and under (Table 8). About 13% of the men are biological fathers living with spouse or partner but not living with children aged 24 or under; and about 6% are biological fathers not living with a spouse or partner. Altogether, biological fathers not living with children 24 years and under add up to about a quarter (27%) of all fathers aged 20-64.

Comparing the distribution of fathers derived from the 2001 General Social Survey to that derived in the 2001 census for men aged 20-64 (Table 1), the survey shows 2% more fathers living with children but underestimates the proportion of lone fathers (2% as against 5%). Further, as men living with children are more likely to identify themselves as fathers compared to men not living with children, it is possible that the proportion of biological fathers not living with children is underestimated in the survey. Within these limitations, estimates of the number of fathers are shown in Table 8 using as many of the numbers from the 2001 census PUMF as are available (Table 1) and estimating those that

are not based on the survey distribution of fathers from the survey. This broad approximation indicates that there may be nearly half a million step-fathers aged 20-64, and also close to half a million of biological fathers not living with spouse or children.

**Table 8: Canadian Men Aged 20-64 by Fatherhood Status
2001 General Social Survey of Families**

	Number of Weighted Sample ^(b)	Percent of all men living independently	Percent of all Population fathers ^(c)	Estimated of all Population fathers ^(c)
Fathers living with children ^(a)				
Father in intact family ^(d)	3065	42.9	61.8	3171550
Father in step family ^(d)	421	5.9	8.5	436585
Lone father	154	2.1	3.1	192000
Total Number of Fathers Living with children 24 and under	3640	50.9	73.4	3800135
Biological fathers not living with children aged 24 or under				
Living with spouse or partner	920	12.9	18.5	1030730
Not living with spouse or partner	398	5.6	8.0	445785
Total Number of Fathers Not Living with children 24 and under	1317	18.4	26.6	1476515
Total Number of Fathers	4957	69.3	100.0	5276650
Never had children and not living with children 24 and under	2195	30.7		2459830
Total Number of Men Aged 20-64	7152	100.0		7736480

Notes:
 (a) Social Fathers defined as men living with children aged 24 or under
 (b) Used fractional weights
 (c) Estimates from 2001 Census population from PUMF and percent distribution from 2001 GSS, with the estimates rounded to multiples of 5
 (d) Fathers in intact and step families include both married and common-law unions.

Fathers in step families are somewhat younger than fathers in intact families, that is, the proportion of step-fathers is higher at age 20-29 and lower at age 50-64 (Table 9). Step-fathers are also more likely to be living in common-law union (53% as against 10% in intact family) rather than being married.

Most biological fathers living with spouse or partner but not living with children aged 24 and under are aged 50-64 (82%) and are mostly married (86%), indicating that these are fathers in intact families whose children have grown up. In contrast, biological fathers who are not living with partners, spouses, or children are younger (slightly more than half are age 49 or under), majority (68%) are divorced or separated, and about a fifth (21%) have never married.

Table 9: Age Groups and Marital Status of Canadian Men Aged 20-64 by Fatherhood Status

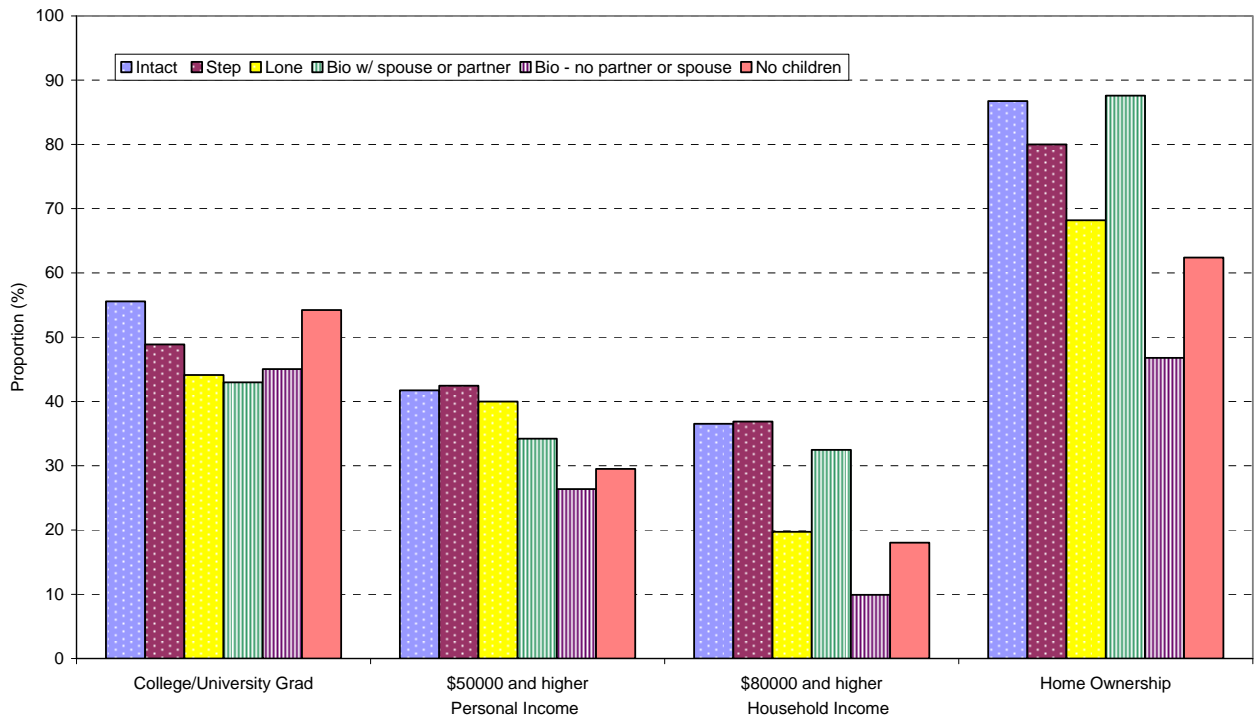
	Father in intact family	Father in step family	Lone father	Biological father not living w children		Never had children	Total
				Living with partner or spouse	Not with partner or spouse		
Age Groups							
20-29	6.3	10.2	3.2	1.8	6.3	36.2	15.1
30-39	34.7	35.3	24.7	3.5	19.4	30.2	28.3
40-49	40.1	42.4	45.5	12.4	28.0	18.2	29.4
50-64	18.8	12.1	26.6	82.3	46.3	15.5	27.3
N	3065	422	154	919	397	2195	7152
Marital Status							
Never Married	0.0	0.0	18.2	0.0	21.2	47.5	16.1
Married	90.3	47.4	1.9	85.7	4.3	30.8	62.3
Common Law	9.7	52.6	0.6	14.3	0.0	17.0	14.3
Divorced / Separated	0.0	0.0	72.7	0.0	68.4	4.3	6.7
Widowed	0.0	0.0	6.5	0.0	6.1	0.4	0.6
N	3065	422	154	919	396	2188	7144

Source: Estimates from 2001 General Social Survey of Families

About two-thirds of the men who have had no children are younger than 40 years old (36% at age 20-29, and 30% at age 30-39), many of whom may yet become fathers in the future.

Appendix Table 6 shows a number of indicators of socio-economic situations of men aged 20-64 by fatherhood status based on data gathered through the 2001 General Social Survey. These indicators do vary considerably by age, and thus, comparison of socio-economic profile for different types of fathers is better done for specific age group, in particular, at age 40-49, the age group with the most number of fathers. As can be seen in Appendix Table 7 and Figure 9, the levels of education and the proportion of home ownership is lower among step father than fathers in intact family. And, while the household and personal incomes of step fathers are not much different from fathers in intact families, a greater proportion of fathers in intact than in step families did not provide income information (see Appendix Table 7).

Figure 9: Socio-Economic Profile, Men Aged 40-49 by Types of Fathers



Source: Appendix Table 7, estimates from the 2001 General Social Survey

In general, most of the indicators show that biological fathers not living with children are less economically well off than fathers living with children. The only exception is in home-ownership, which shows a slightly higher proportion among biological fathers living with partner or spouse but not living with children than among fathers living with a partner or spouse and with children (fathers in intact families). Biological fathers with no

partner or spouse and who are not living with children seem to be the most disadvantaged among all fathers in terms of household and personal income, and home ownership.

C. Time Allocation of Fathers

Ideology about parenthood and sharing of tasks within household has changed such that men are expected and observed to be more involved in their children lives. Lamb (2004: 3) sums the change as follows: “Average levels of paternal responsibility have increased over time, albeit slowly, and there appear to be small but continuing increases over time in average levels of all types of paternal involvement.” An indication of involvement of men in children’s lives is the amount of time spent with children. While mothers continue to be primarily responsible for housework and other unpaid work, fathers have increased their share of the work. Over the period 1986 to 2005, the average time spent by fathers of children aged 0-18 years for childcare and housework has increased, with the greatest increase occurring between 1986 and 1992 (Table 10).

Much of the increase in average time can be attributed to the increased participation rate in child care, from 38% in 1986 to 50% in 1992, and 52% in 2005. Participation rate is based on the number fathers who reported doing an activity (here, child care) for the day when the data were collected¹. Among those who participated, the average hours spent in child care per day increased from 1.6 hours in 1986 to 1.8 in 2005. The proportion of fathers participating in household has also increased from 53% in 1986 to 77% by 1998, though the rate decreased to 71% by 2005.

Table 10: Participation in, and Time Spent on Paid Work, Housework and Other Unpaid Work Men Aged 25-54, Living with Children aged 0-18 Years

	1986	1992	1998	2005
Average hours per day (population)				
Total paid and unpaid	8.8	9.1	9.7	9.9
Paid work and related	6.4	6.1	6.5	6.9
Housework	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.5
Other unpaid	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.5
Child care	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.9
Shopping and services	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5
Average hours per day (participants)				
Total paid and unpaid	9.3	9.4	9.8	10.0
Paid work and related	9.1	9.5	9.5	9.9
Housework	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.1
Other unpaid	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.3
Child care	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8
Shopping and services	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.9
Participation (%)				
Total paid and unpaid	95	97	99	99
Paid work and related	70	64	68	70
Housework	53	69	77	71
Other unpaid	56	63	67	65
Child care	38	50	53	52
Shopping and services	31	33	36	29

Source: Estimated from the Public Use Micro-Data File of the General Social Survey on Time Use in 1986, 1992, 1998, and 2005

While father involvement is mainly

¹ The data on time use were collected (through a diary) in such a way that each day of the week is represented. This means that, for example, average time for activities is “averaged for a 24-hour day, over a 7-day week. For activities like paid work which are normally considered over a 5-day period, a simple conversion will reconstruct activities to a 5-day average. Multiply the daily average by 7 for a weekly average and divide by 5. For example, a paid workday of 5.7 hours (averaged over 7 days) will convert to an 8.0 hour day (averaged over 5 days)” (<http://www.statcan.ca/english/freepub/12F0080XIE/2006001/glossary.htm>). Also, the seemingly low participation rate in paid work of say, 70%, is due to the many response of no paid work activity reported on a Saturday or Sunday.

looked at in terms of time spent on unpaid work, time spent on paid work is relevant as well, particularly, when the father’s role includes providing resources for children’s development. As seen in Table 10, the time spent by fathers on paid work increased between 1986 and 2005. The average hours per day spent on paid work among those who participated increased from 9.1 in 1986 to 9.9 in 2005.

Estimates from the 2005 Survey on Time Use show that, on average, fathers spend more time on paid work, and mothers on unpaid work, including child care (Table 11). For instance, fathers working full time spend 7.6 hours on paid work and 2.8 hours on unpaid work; mothers working full time spend 5.8 and 4.5 hours on paid and unpaid work respectively. Fathers and mothers who are married or in common-law union and working full time spend an equal amount of total time (about 10.4 hours) in paid and unpaid work. For all other types of parents and types of work, women spend a greater amount of time in paid and unpaid work combined. For instance, lone fathers working full-time spend 10.1 hours on paid and unpaid work, lone mothers 10.9.

**Table 11: Average Hours of Paid and Unpaid Work, by Types of Parents, Labour Force Status, and Gender
Canadians Aged 25-54 in 2005, with Children under 19 Years Old**

	Married and Common Law					Lone Parents					All Parents				
	Unpaid Work				Total Paid & Unpaid	Unpaid Work				Total Paid & Unpaid	Unpaid Work				Total Paid & Unpaid
	Paid Work	Chid Care	Other Unpaid	All Unpaid		Paid Work	Chid Care	Other Unpaid	All Unpaid		Paid Work	Chid Care	Other Unpaid	All Unpaid	
Men															
Full-time	7.6	0.9	1.9	2.8	10.4	7.4	0.9	1.9	2.7	10.1	7.6	0.9	1.9	2.8	10.3
Part-time	3.6	1.1	2.4	3.5	7.0	-	-	-	-	-	3.5	1.1	2.5	3.5	7.0
Not Employed	1.8	1.5	3.4	4.8	6.6	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	1.5	3.4	4.9	6.7
Total	6.9	0.9	2.0	3.0	9.9	6.6	0.9	2.2	3.1	9.8	6.9	0.9	2.1	3.0	9.9
Women															
Full-time	5.8	1.3	3.2	4.5	10.3	6.9	1.0	3.0	4.0	10.9	6.1	1.2	3.1	4.4	10.4
Part-time	3.0	2.0	4.2	6.2	9.2	3.9	1.2	3.5	4.7	8.6	3.1	1.9	4.1	6.0	9.1
Not Employed	0.6	3.0	4.6	7.6	8.2	1.1	2.0	3.9	5.9	7.0	0.7	2.8	4.5	7.3	8.0
Total	3.7	2.0	3.8	5.8	9.4	4.9	1.3	3.3	4.6	9.5	3.9	1.8	3.7	5.5	9.4

Source: Estimated from the Public Use Micro-Data File of the 2005 General Social Survey on Time Use
Note: - estimate based on sample less than 30.

Paradoxically, because of a gender difference in rates of labour force participation, the total average time spent on paid and unpaid work for all types of work status of all parents combined is greater for fathers (9.9 hours) than for mothers (9.4). That is, the “average father” – one who goes through his day as a “full-time”, “part-time”, and “not employed” person in the same proportion as the distribution of fathers over these types of labour force participation – spends a greater amount of time in total paid and unpaid work per day than the “average mother”. In reality, there is no “average” father or mother, only a father or a mother who is a full-time, a part-time, or a not employed person in any given day.

D. Social Capital of Men by Fatherhood Status

The distinctions between fathers and non-fathers and among different types of fathers have thus far been discussed mainly in terms of demographics and socio-economic

characteristics. Another aspect that differentiates men with children from those without, and between types of fathers is social capital defined as “networks of social relations characterized by norms of trust and reciprocity” (Stone, Gray, and Hughes, 2003). Children help embed parents in the community and connect them to networks beyond the family (Furstenberg, 2005, Marsiglio et al., 2000).

The General Social Survey on Social Engagement conducted in 2003 gathered information that allow measurement of social capital in terms of extent of networks, levels of trust in people, and membership in organizations. As shown in Table 12, men living with children (or fathers) know more neighbours than men who are not living with children (non-fathers). Likewise, fathers have higher levels of trust in people - in the family, in their neighbours, and people in general – and are more likely to be members of organizations. Being married - whether or not living with children or in intact or step family – is also associated with greater number of neighbours known, higher levels of trust, and membership in organizations. The number of friends and relatives does not differ by fatherhood status but marital status matters with married fathers in intact family, married men not living with children, and widowers having more friends and relatives.

**Table 12: Indicators of Informal Networks, Trust, and Membership in Organizations
Men Aged 30-64 by Parenthood and Marital Status**

Indicators (overall mean score)	Living with Children						Not Living with Children					
	Intact		Step		Lone	All	Married	Cohabit	Never Married	Divorced/Separate	Widowed/Others	All Non-Parents
	Married	Cohabit	Married	Cohabit	Parents	Parents						
Informal Networks												
FScore - Number of Friends & Relatives (0)*	0.02	-0.24	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	0.00	0.08	-0.10	-0.10	-0.02	0.06	0.00
Number of Neighbors Known (2.65)**	2.78	2.65	2.78	2.46	2.58	2.74	2.78	2.37	2.25	2.36	2.35	2.55
Trust and Reciprocity												
Trust in Family (4.74)***	4.81	4.69	4.73	4.65	4.69	4.78	4.75	4.65	4.63	4.62	4.66	4.69
FScore -Trust in Neighbors (0)	0.10	-0.18	0.20	-0.25	-0.14	0.05	0.15	-0.13	-0.48	-0.21	-0.17	-0.08
FScores - Trust in People in General (0)	0.07	-0.30	0.24	-0.25	-0.06	0.03	0.08	-0.16	-0.22	-0.02	0.04	-0.03
Membership in Organizations												
Per cent members of family, neighbourhood or church-based organizations (25.3)	30.9	15.2	31.2	14.4	23.8	28.6	26.2	12.3	14.5	20.8	30.2	21.3
Per cent members of at least one professional or other purposive organizations (60.5)	62.6	52.3	59.3	58.2	60.1	61.3	62.9	61.2	54.3	56.6	46.3	59.4

Source: 2003 General Social Survey on Social Engagement; Ravanera and Rajulton, 2007a; Ravanera and Rajulton, 2007.
 Note: The overall means are noted in parenthesis beside the variable name.
 *Factor scores (with overall mean of 0) are derived from factor analysis of responses to several related questions.
 A mean score above 0 implies greater number of friends or higher level of trust.
 ** Responses to the question are ranked categories from "1" as 'nobody' to "5" as 'most of the people in the neighbourhood'.
 *** Responses are ranked categories from "1" as cannot be trusted to "5" as can be trusted a lot.

Compared to married fathers in intact families, lone fathers and cohabiting fathers have lower social capital – that is, they have fewer friends, relatives, and neighbours, lower levels of trust in people, and less likely to be members of organizations, especially organizations that are family, neighbourhood, or church-based. Divorced or separated men, who may have had children but are no longer living with them, tend to have lower social capital as well, using as indicators the size of their networks, levels of trust, and organization membership.

E. Quantitative Research on Fatherhood: Some Possible Areas of Research and Data Needs

1. Census Data and Trends in the Number of Fathers

This profile made use of information from the census on living arrangements of men, essentially identifying one type of fathers – the social fathers (or men living with children). Whether the social father is also a biological or is a step father of his spouse’s children cannot be determined from census data. Even with this limited definition of fathers, establishing trends say, in the number of social fathers, cannot be done too far back in time. In Canadian censuses before 1996, the information on presence of children at home was derived only for women aged 15 years and over (Statistics Canada, 2001)².

Interestingly, the number of “lone fathers” could be traced farther back because the variable “census family status and living arrangements” identifies “male lone parent” as a distinct category in censuses since 1981. It is most likely that a lone father is also the biological father of the child or children he is living with, though there would undoubtedly be instances when the co-resident child is his step-child. However, as with fathers living with spouse and children, the limited census information does not allow distinguishing a biological from a step lone father.

With the changes in families – such as widespread practice of cohabitation, births outside of marriage, and separation or divorce – not likely to be reversed in the near future, it is imperative that the main instrument for tracking population changes, the census, be modified to reflect complex family arrangements. Some family categories that have become more common but which are not as yet reflected in census information include: biological, non-custodial parents (most often, male parents not living with their biological children), step parents, and step children. To get information that would allow identifying these family categories, two possible modifications to the census questionnaire that will help identify types of fathers are:

1. Relationship to Person 1. The 2006 census instruction states that “*Stepchildren, adopted children and children of a common-law partner should be considered sons and daughters.*” A suggestion would be to modify this instruction so that at least two categories of children could be distinguished – (a) biological sons and daughters, and adopted children, (b) step-children or children of a common-law partner.
2. Question on biological children: (a) Reinstate the question (dropped in 2001 Census) asked of women aged 15 and older on *number of children ever-born*; and (b) introduce a similar question to be asked of men aged 15 and older on *number of children ever sired* (or fathered).

² “In the 1981, 1986 and 1991 Censuses, this variable was derived only for females 15 years and over in private households. In the 1996 and 2001 Censuses, this variable was derived for both females and males 15 years and over in private households.” (Statistics Canada, 2001:27)

When responses to these two questions are combined, it would be possible to identify different types of fathers including: (a) fathers in intact families (b) fathers not living with their biological children, (c) step fathers, and (d) fathers in blended families. These categories could be further expanded in combination with marital status variable (married, cohabiting, etc.), for example, married fathers in intact families, step fathers in cohabiting unions, lone fathers of step children.

2. General Social Surveys and Research on Fatherhood

Since 1985, Statistics Canada has conducted nation-wide General Social Surveys (GSS) on the living conditions and well-being of Canadians and on emerging social issues. In addition to the GSS used in this Profile (the 2001 GSS on Family, 2003 GSS on Social Engagement, and the 2005 GSS on Time Use), topics covered by the GSS include Victimization, Education, work, and retirement, Social support, Access to and use of information communication technology, and Social support and aging (Statistics Canada, 2006). Analysis of these cross-sectional survey data for fatherhood research is possible because information that help identify different types of fathers are usually collected by the surveys, including information on living arrangements and presence of children in the home. Information on the number of children ever fathered is often collected as well. These, together with information on marital status, make possible identifying types of fathers.

However, General Social Surveys have limitations for fatherhood research. Even with a total sample size of 25,000 in each survey, the numbers in the sample of the types of fathers that might be of greater relevance for father-related policies or services (such as teenaged fathers, biological fathers not living with their children, gay fathers) are often too few, and the population of these groups of fathers are likely under-represented in the sample. Furthermore, the topics and issues that have been addressed thus far by the General Social Surveys are at best only indirectly related to concerns or issues about fatherhood. The GSS that have been conducted could still be mined for insights into such topics as differences by types of fathers in health, happiness, life satisfaction, stress, and sense of belonging. However, for greater understanding of levels of father involvement (including accessibility, engagement, and responsibility), father-mother relationship, knowledge and attitudes about fatherhood, and other father-related concerns similar to those gathered through the studies in the DADS Initiative in the US (Cabrera, et al., 2004), it may be necessary to conduct a General Social Survey with fatherhood as its main core content. If such a survey is conducted, the sampling procedure should allow inclusion of a greater number of types of fathers that would otherwise have few cases in randomly selected sample (step fathers, non-custodial biological fathers, teenaged and young fathers, gay fathers).

3. Longitudinal Surveys for Fatherhood Research

Establishing causal relations, which is aimed at in fatherhood research – say, on the effect of father’s involvement on children’s outcome – requires longitudinal rather than cross sectional data. Surveys included in the Developing a Daddy Survey (DADS) Initiative in the US – for example, Fragile Families and Child Well Being Study, the Early Head Start National Evaluation Father Studies, and the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study – all have longitudinal designs (Cabrera et al, 2004). In Canada, there are longitudinal surveys, for example, the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) and the National Population Health Surveys (NPHS) that can be used to study fathers – say the change in their income or health after family transitions such as divorce or onset of parenthood. However, these studies can only provide limited insights as they are not primarily aimed at understanding the impact of fatherhood on the wellbeing of children, of mothers, or of fathers themselves. Often used in the analysis of data gathered through the Canadian National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) is information on family structure, which indirectly examines the effect of presence or absence of fathers in children’s development. However, except for the few fathers who are identified as Persons Most Knowledgeable (PMK) about the children included in the survey, fathers are not part of the NLSCY survey design in the same way that fathers are in the DADS Initiative.

Might there be ways of obtaining longitudinal data without conducting a large scale survey that is mainly focused on father involvement? One possibility is through the NLSCY. If this survey continues with a few more panels, it may be worth exploring possibilities of drawing in the fathers into the survey, for example, through a separate module about father involvement in the lives of children included in the survey. Another possibility is through the Canadian Household Panel Survey (CHPS) that is currently being planned and is modeled after longitudinal household panel surveys in Great Britain, Germany, and Australia. An advantage of the household panel survey is that everyone in the household (including fathers) will be included as respondents. If the CHPS is conducted, it would greatly benefit research if a module on father involvement is included in one panel of the survey, and periodically thereafter. The module should include questions that would tap on fathers’ *engagement*, *accessibility*, and *responsibility* for children (Lamb et al., 1987).

F. Concluding Remarks

Fathers - broadly defined here as men living with children aged 24 years or younger - are in better socio-economic position than non-fathers. Much of the difference could probably be attributed to “selection” effect, that is, men who become fathers have characteristics that would have led to higher education, higher income, etc. regardless of whether or not they have become fathers. However, arguments for generative parenting (Snarey, 1993; Hawkins and Dollahite, 1997) and findings from empirical research (for example, Eggebeen and Knoester, 2001, Knoester *et al.*, 2007) indicate that fatherhood benefits not only the children and the children’s mother, but also the father himself. The

data from survey on social engagement (cited above) support this contention – fathers, particularly of intact married families, have higher social capital³. Further research on the effects of parenting on father's well-being, for example, on his physical and mental health, happiness, life satisfaction, sense of belonging, would be needed to provide further evidence to support this claim.

But fathers are not a homogenous group and not all fathers are doing well. The changes that have occurred in the past decades have brought into existence different types of fathers with varied ways of involvement in their children's lives. Socio-economically, teenaged fathers are not doing very well when compared to other young men most of whom are still living at their parents' home and continuing their education. Teenaged fathers are few in Canada where the more common situation is for men to delay becoming fathers until their late 20s or early 30s.

On the average, new fathers - defined as men living with children aged 5 years or younger – are in good socio-economic situation, mainly because many wait until after they have “well settled” in term of job and income. While in most instances this is good for individuals - parents or children - this has a consequence of contributing to the below replacement fertility levels in Canada, a situation that has persisted since the 1980s. Postponement of entry into parenthood has led to decreased fecundity (particularly for women), and also to establishing lifestyles where children are not seen as important for one's well-being.

Lone fathers are socio-economically disadvantaged in comparison to fathers with partners, mainly because many intact families consist of two earners. Lone father families are also distinct from intact families in that their children are older, possibly because men who subsequently become lone fathers married or cohabited at younger ages and had children earlier. The needs of children may also be a factor; that is, in case of divorce or separation, infants and very young children have greater need for caring that mothers provide. In comparison to younger children, therefore, older children are more likely to live with their fathers. As fathers get more involved in caring for children, the tendency for shared parenting or for sole custody by fathers would likely increase even for children at younger ages.

In comparison to married fathers, cohabiting fathers are disadvantaged, socio-economically and in levels of social capital. The census and survey data on which this conclusion is based are cross-sectional and thus ‘selection effect’ as an explanation cannot be ruled out. That is, men who go for marriage are different from those who go for cohabitation, with characteristics that would have led to better socio-economic profile and higher social capital regardless of their marital status. If this were the sole

³ For some of the indicators of social capital (for example, membership in organizations), the advantage of fathers disappear when variables such as levels of education and income are controlled; but for other indicators such as the number of neighbours known, the effect of fatherhood status persists even after the inclusion of other variables (Ravanera, 2007; Ravanera and Rajulton, 2007).

explanation, the differences between married and cohabiting fathers would disappear as cohabitation becomes widespread. An alternative explanation might hold as well - that is, marriage and the greater stability that it connotes provide incentives and conditions that are conducive to attainment of higher socio-economic status and greater social capital.

Another group of fathers who are not faring too well socio-economically are biological fathers not living with their children. This group of fathers is easily disregarded – they are not identifiable or separately categorized in the census or in surveys – as there may be a perception that there are just a few of them. It could also be that their state (of being fathers not living with children) is seen as transitory – sooner or later they would most likely move on to re-partnering and possibly become fathers again. However, with more flexibility in the formation and dissolution of families, the number of biological fathers not co-residing with children will no doubt increase rather than decrease in the future. There is thus a need to get more information about this group of fathers, including the types of custodial arrangements entered into by parents who separate.

A group that needs to be better understood is step fathers. Socio-economically, they seem not to be too far behind fathers in intact families. Furthermore, *married* intact and step fathers have similar levels of social capital. However, a number of studies have shown that children in step-families are not doing as well as children in intact families. Based on longitudinal data collected through the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, for example, Kerr and Michalski (2007) find that children in step families have greater hyperactivity and inattention problems.

The disadvantaged socio-economic situations of immigrant and aboriginal fathers reflect the prevailing conditions of the groups to which they belong. In spite of their higher education compared to non-immigrants, other socio-economic indicators such as income and home-ownership point to the challenges that immigrant fathers face, particularly in fulfilling their role as providers of the family. Aboriginal fathers face a similar socio-economic situation with an added disadvantage of having lower education than non-aboriginals. Further, in contrast to immigrants, aboriginal fathers are less likely to be married and more likely to be in common-law union or being lone fathers. These differences among aboriginal and non-aboriginals, immigrants and non-immigrants show that in addition to socio-economic conditions, culture plays an important role in shaping fatherhood, which needs to be further explored.

Opportunities could be explored to enable more quantitative research that would complement excellent qualitative research on fatherhood (see for example, Doucet, 2006; Dienhart, 1998). There is still much room for fatherhood research, including research on the involvement in families of different types of fathers, particularly of non-traditional fathers, and the effect of fatherhood on men's well-being and personal development (Brown and Bumpus, 1998). Such research would benefit from a developmental perspective that would require longitudinal data (Hawkins, et al, 1995). Large scale surveys focused on father involvement (such as those included in the DADS Initiatives in the United States) would be ideal. In their absence, however, opportunities should be

explored to include sets of questions or modules on fatherhood in currently existing surveys (such as the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth) or in planned surveys (such as the Canadian Household Panel Surveys). Cross-sectional data collected through censuses and surveys could be useful as well but they would need to be modified to allow meaningful research on fatherhood (see suggestions above).

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Appendix Table 1: Socio-Economic Characteristics By Fatherhood Status

Socio-Economic Characteristics	15-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-64		Total	
	Non-Fathers		Non-Fathers		Non-Fathers		Non-Fathers		Non-Fathers		Non-Fathers	
	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers	Fathers
Education (%)												
Grade 8 or less	3.6	5.7	1.9	3.9	3.5	3.1	6.0	4.1	14.9	9.7	6.4	4.9
Grade 9-13	66.2	66.7	14.8	23.7	15.4	15.8	20.7	16.5	20.0	9.7	25.8	16.2
HS Graduate	16.1	13.5	14.7	16.3	12.4	13.8	13.7	14.3	12.1	12.5	13.7	13.9
Trade, Some College/Univ	11.4	9.2	25.5	18.3	14.9	14.5	15.2	13.9	13.7	12.8	16.8	14.1
College/Univ Grad or Higher	2.6	5.0	43.1	37.7	53.8	52.9	44.5	51.3	39.3	51.6	37.2	50.9
Work Status (%)												
Worked mainly full time in 2000	15.0	36.9	69.3	87.0	83.0	91.8	79.7	91.4	62.5	82.7	62.0	89.4
Worked mainly part time in 2000	41.3	23.4	19.4	5.9	6.9	3.4	6.5	3.4	8.6	5.6	16.4	4.0
Not employed in 2000	43.7	39.8	11.3	7.1	10.1	4.8	13.8	5.3	28.8	11.7	21.6	6.6
Housing Tenure (%)												
Owned	77.3	45.4	58.2	51.4	55.9	75.1	63.0	84.0	78.7	87.0	67.1	79.6
Rented	22.7	54.6	41.8	48.6	44.1	24.9	37.0	16.0	21.3	13.0	32.9	20.4
Census Family Income												
Less than \$5000	1.3	37.6	2.0	3.1	2.5	1.3	2.3	1.1	2.5	1.2	2.1	1.4
\$5000-\$14999	4.5	29.9	3.3	7.7	2.9	3.8	3.4	3.0	4.4	2.4	3.9	3.5
\$15000-\$29999	9.6	18.5	9.1	17.4	8.5	8.3	10.4	6.2	11.5	6.2	9.9	7.6
\$30000-\$49999	18.2	12.0	18.0	34.5	19.4	23.4	20.0	16.9	21.5	14.0	19.4	19.5
\$50000 and more	66.3	2.1	67.6	37.4	66.7	63.2	64.0	72.8	60.1	76.2	64.7	68.0
Total Census Family	999025	5230	1175580	249620	570150	1218685	452290	1545100	1247710	786730	4444750	3805365
Median Total Income (\$)	1,000	6,170	16,420	28,350	31,312	39,587	33,182	43,438	33,500	42,497	20,569	40,200
Median Wages (\$)	600	1,500	14,000	25,268	29,016	36,000	29,664	40,000	15,420	35,000	12,000	36,000
Wages (%)												
None	41.9	40.5	14.1	13.0	16.7	13.2	22.5	14.6	38.2	22.0	26.7	15.6
\$1-\$4999	36.4	22.7	12.4	6.2	5.1	3.6	4.5	3.1	4.1	3.3	12.0	3.5
\$5000-\$14999	17.8	21.3	24.5	11.7	9.1	6.1	7.4	5.0	6.9	6.0	13.8	6.1
\$15000-\$29999	3.1	9.9	25.6	26.7	19.6	16.1	15.9	12.9	11.8	12.3	15.9	14.7
\$30000-\$49999	0.6	5.6	17.6	29.7	29.0	30.8	25.2	26.6	17.9	21.2	17.7	27.0
\$50000 or more	0.2	0.0	5.7	12.7	20.5	30.2	24.6	37.7	21.1	35.1	13.8	33.1
Total Individuals	1046525	5230	1640800	249620	1024745	1218685	841680	1545100	1625070	786730	6178815	3805365

Source: 2001 Census PUMF of Individuals.
 Note: estimated numbers are rounded to multiples of 5.

**Appendix Table 2: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Fathers
Fathers Aged 15-64, by Marital Arrangement and by Age Groups**

	15-19			20-29			30-39		
	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father
Age Groups of Children									
Children under 6	-	100.0	100.0	93.0	87.8	69.9	66.7	61.3	30.7
Youngest Child 6-14	-	0.0	0.0	7.0	12.2	30.1	31.3	34.0	57.8
Youngest Child 15-24	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	4.7	11.5
Socio-Economic Characteristics									
Level of Education (%)									
Grade 8 or less	-	14.7	1.2	3.1	5.0	4.8	2.7	4.5	5.5
Grades 9-13	-	65.9	72.0	19.4	29.2	29.0	13.8	22.7	24.7
HS Graduate	-	9.8	13.4	15.9	17.1	15.3	13.3	15.8	13.9
Trade, Some College/Univ	-	4.9	11.0	17.4	18.4	26.3	14.0	16.2	16.1
College/Univ Grad or Higher	-	4.8	2.4	44.2	30.3	24.6	56.3	40.8	39.9
Work Status (%)									
Worked mainly full time in 2000	-	68.2	14.7	90.9	83.7	71.7	93.0	88.8	82.0
Worked mainly part time in 2000	-	9.7	31.7	4.3	7.5	11.3	3.0	4.6	6.7
Not employed in 2000	-	22.0	53.7	4.8	8.8	17.0	4.0	6.5	11.3
Census Family Income (%)									
Less than \$5000	-	12.2	58.5	1.9	3.3	12.4	1.3	1.0	4.5
\$5000-\$14999	-	36.7	33.0	5.0	9.1	23.0	3.2	4.6	12.8
\$15000-\$29999	-	26.7	6.1	13.0	21.7	30.6	7.0	10.4	24.1
\$30000-\$49999	-	24.3	2.4	33.7	36.7	28.0	21.6	28.5	35.1
\$50000 and more	-	0.0	0.0	46.4	29.2	6.0	66.9	55.5	23.5
Median Total Income (\$)	-	7526	4303	31551	24326	22363	40476	33000	34201
Median Wages (\$)	-	5000	0	30000	21647	15000	38000	30000	26000
Wages (%)									
None	-	29.3	50.0	11.2	14.4	20.4	12.7	14.0	19.1
\$1-\$4999	-	19.5	29.3	4.7	7.7	10.3	3.2	4.9	6.0
\$5000-\$14999	-	26.9	14.6	9.3	14.4	17.2	5.5	7.9	9.9
\$15000-\$29999	-	17.0	4.9	24.7	29.8	26.3	14.7	21.4	18.6
\$30000-\$49999	-	7.3	1.2	33.0	26.0	21.8	30.7	31.8	27.8
\$50000 and more	-	0.0	0.0	17.1	7.6	4.1	33.1	20.0	18.5
Tenure (%)									
Owned	-	19.6	61.0	60.8	38.3	47.1	78.7	64.1	52.8
Rented	-	80.4	39.0	39.2	61.7	52.9	21.3	35.9	47.2
Total	-	1520	3040	139565	94530	15520	951880	219585	47220

	40-49			50-64			Total		
	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father	Married Father	Father in Common	Lone Father
Age Groups of Children									
Children under 6	17.5	26.4	6.0	2.9	9.0	2.3	32.8	51.1	17.7
Youngest Child 6-14	53.1	49.1	44.4	22.5	40.0	18.3	37.4	34.8	39.7
Youngest Child 15-24	29.4	24.5	49.6	74.6	51.0	79.4	29.8	14.1	42.6
Socio-Economic Characteristics									
Level of Education (%)									
Grade 8 or less	3.8	5.6	4.8	9.4	11.9	10.9	4.7	5.6	6.3
Grades 9-13	15.4	22.2	22.8	13.1	15.7	15.9	14.6	23.2	22.9
HS Graduate	14.2	15.7	13.4	12.6	12.6	11.5	13.6	15.7	13.2
Trade, Some College/Univ	13.5	15.6	15.8	12.7	13.7	14.1	13.6	16.2	16.2
College/Univ Grad or Higher	53.0	41.0	43.3	52.3	46.2	47.6	53.5	39.3	41.3
Work Status (%)									
Worked mainly full time in 2000	92.2	88.3	85.1	83.2	81.1	75.7	90.3	87.0	80.0
Worked mainly part time in 2000	3.1	4.9	4.1	5.5	6.0	6.7	3.7	5.4	6.3
Not employed in 2000	4.7	6.8	10.8	11.2	12.9	17.6	6.0	7.7	13.7
Census Family Total Income (%)									
Less than \$5000	1.0	0.9	2.9	1.0	1.5	4.5	1.1	1.5	5.3
\$5000-\$14999	2.5	3.7	9.5	2.0	2.7	7.2	2.7	5.1	11.2
\$15000-\$29999	5.3	8.9	15.6	5.6	6.9	14.4	6.3	11.8	18.4
\$30000-\$49999	15.7	20.1	30.2	12.9	18.9	25.9	17.7	26.6	29.8
\$50000 and more	75.5	66.4	41.8	78.5	70.0	48.0	72.2	55.1	35.3
Median Total Income (\$)	45000	37794	40371	43160	40000	39322	42000	32640	36140
Median Wages (\$)	40034	33772	34929	36000	31470	29536	38754	30000	29000
Wages (%)									
None	14.2	16.5	18.9	21.5	22.7	28.0	15.2	15.6	21.6
\$1-\$4999	2.9	3.9	4.0	3.2	3.0	4.6	3.2	5.0	5.5
\$5000-\$14999	4.8	6.3	6.0	5.9	7.6	5.8	5.5	8.6	7.9
\$15000-\$29999	12.4	16.2	14.4	12.3	14.0	12.0	13.6	20.7	15.7
\$30000-\$49999	26.4	29.0	26.1	21.3	20.5	21.5	26.9	28.8	24.7
\$50000 and more	39.3	28.1	30.6	35.8	32.2	28.2	35.6	21.2	24.5
Tenure (%)									
Owned	86.5	75.3	60.9	89.1	75.9	67.7	83.5	63.7	59.4
Rented	13.5	24.7	39.1	10.9	24.1	32.3	16.5	36.3	40.6
Total	1308370	152865	83865	694080	47260	45395	3094560	515765	195040

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF
Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.
- sample size less than 30

**Appendix Table 3: Age Groups of Children and Marital Arrangements of Fathers Aged 15-64
by Age Groups and Migration Status**

	15-19				20-29				30-39			
	Non-Immigrants	Immigrants			Non-Immigrants	Immigrants			Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		
		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001
Age Groups of Children												
Children under 6	100.0	-	-	-	89.4	85.8	93.8	95.4	62.6	67.5	76.7	71.9
Youngest Child 6-14	0.0	-	-	-	10.6	14.2	6.2	4.6	34.3	30.4	21.1	26.6
Youngest Child 15-24	0.0	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	2.1	2.2	1.5
Total Number*	4638	-	-	-	218056	12497	7758	11306	954571	134597	61607	67912
	4640				218055	12495	7760	11305	954570	134595	61605	67910
Marital Arrangements of Fathers												
Married father	11.2	-	-	-	52.6	68.2	81.8	88.5	74.5	88.2	92.5	95.6
Common Law Father	31.2	-	-	-	41.5	20.8	10.0	5.9	21.4	8.1	4.6	2.0
Lone father	57.6	-	-	-	5.9	11.0	8.1	5.6	4.1	3.7	2.9	2.3
Total Number*	4635				218055	12500	7760	11305	954570	134595	61605	67910
	40-49				50-64				Total			
	Non-Immigrants	Immigrants			Non-Immigrants	Immigrants			Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		
		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2001
Age Groups of Children												
Children under 6	15.9	20.9	32.2	26.3	3.0	3.2	6.5	5.7	35.1	25.3	47.7	47.8
Youngest Child 6-14	52.7	52.1	44.2	51.3	22.4	24.2	23.6	33.1	37.9	36.1	29.8	35.5
Youngest Child 15-24	31.5	26.9	23.7	22.3	74.6	72.6	69.9	61.2	27.0	38.6	22.5	16.7
Total Number*	1172140	245355	63115	64490	496115	242850	28475	19290	2845520	635410	161215	163220
Marital Arrangements of Fathers												
Married father	82.1	91.5	94.5	96.4	85.3	92.9	94.7	95.0	77.7	90.8	93.1	95.3
Common Law Father	12.0	4.3	2.3	1.2	8.0	2.9	0.8	0.8	16.7	4.9	3.3	1.8
Lone father	6.0	4.3	3.2	2.3	6.7	4.2	4.5	4.2	5.5	4.3	3.6	2.9
Total Number*	1172140	245355	63115	64490	496115	242850	28475	19290	2845520	635410	161215	163220

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF

Notes: * Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

- Total number of fathers aged 15-19 in the sample is too small to derive robust estimates.

**Appendix Table 4: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Fathers Aged 15-64
By Age Groups and Migration Status**

Socio-Economic Characteristics	15-19			20-29				30-39				
	Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants	
		Before 1991	1991-1995		1996-2001	Before 1991		1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995
Level of Education (%)												
Grade 8 or less	6.4	-	-	3.4	6.8	8.1	7.2	2.6	5.3	5.9	2.6	
Grades 9-13	68.0	-	-	24.4	19.9	27.3	12.5	16.4	15.7	15.2	7.7	
HS Graduate	11.2	-	-	16.3	17.2	17.2	14.4	14.4	13.7	12.0	6.8	
Trade, Some College/Univ	9.6	-	-	18.1	21.6	20.6	17.4	15.1	13.7	13.6	8.0	
College/Univ Grad or Higher	4.8	-	-	37.8	34.4	26.8	48.5	51.5	51.5	53.3	74.9	
Work Status (%)												
Worked mainly full time in 2000	36.8	-	-	87.4	87.8	87.1	77.0	93.0	91.5	88.3	79.2	
Worked mainly part time in 2000	24.8	-	-	5.8	5.4	6.7	7.9	3.1	3.5	5.0	6.6	
Not employed in 2000	38.4	-	-	6.7	6.8	6.2	15.1	3.9	5.0	6.7	14.3	
Census Family Total Income (%)												
Less than \$5000	35.2	-	-	2.6	3.0	2.4	13.1	0.7	1.1	1.7	10.2	
\$5000-\$14999	32.9	-	-	7.8	5.3	6.2	9.2	3.1	3.7	5.9	12.4	
\$15000-\$29999	19.2	-	-	16.9	17.5	21.0	24.3	7.2	8.6	13.7	19.1	
\$30000-\$49999	11.9	-	-	34.7	33.6	37.3	29.5	22.5	24.7	31.8	25.2	
\$50000 or more	0.8	-	-	38.0	40.6	33.0	24.0	66.5	62.0	46.8	33.0	
Median Total Income (\$)	6460	-	-	28774	30000	26248	20300	40253	38600	30326	22004	
Median Wages (\$)	1500	-	-	26000	27045	22550	16000	38000	35000	28000	17613	
Wages (%)												
None	39.2	-	-	12.4	9.8	14.4	27.5	12.1	13.2	16.3	25.0	
\$1-\$4999	24.8	-	-	6.2	5.6	6.2	5.9	3.2	3.7	5.3	7.7	
\$5000-\$14999	21.6	-	-	11.5	11.0	16.3	13.1	5.5	5.7	9.3	13.1	
\$15000-\$29999	11.2	-	-	26.7	28.8	28.2	25.3	15.2	17.3	22.2	20.4	
\$30000-\$49999	3.2	-	-	30.1	31.5	29.2	19.3	31.9	31.1	28.0	17.8	
\$50000 or more	0.0	-	-	13.1	13.3	5.7	8.9	32.1	29.1	18.9	15.9	
Tenure (%)												
Owned	44.8	-	-	51.8	57.3	59.8	31.4	78.9	75.8	59.3	34.3	
Rented	55.2	-	-	48.2	42.7	40.2	68.6	21.1	24.2	40.7	65.7	
Total Number of Individuals	4637	-	-	218056	12497	7758	11307	954571	134596	61606	67912	
Socio-Economic Characteristics	40-49			50-59				All Fathers				
	Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants		Non-Immigrants	Immigrants	
		Before 1991	1991-1995		1996-2001	Before 1991		1991-1995	1996-2001		Before 1991	1991-1995
Level of Education (%)												
Grade 8 or less	3.3	7.3	5.6	4.9	8.6	11.7	10.2	10.3	4.0	8.5	6.7	4.7
Grades 9-13	17.6	14.3	12.2	7.4	14.8	10.9	12.6	11.1	17.3	13.4	14.2	8.4
HS Graduate	15.3	11.6	12.7	9.6	13.6	10.1	14.6	10.3	14.8	11.6	13.0	8.9
Trade, Some College/Univ	14.5	13.4	10.8	7.2	13.6	11.8	9.5	9.2	14.8	13.0	12.1	8.5
College/Univ Grad or Higher	49.3	53.5	58.7	70.9	49.4	55.5	53.1	59.1	49.1	53.5	54.0	69.5
Work Status (%)												
Worked mainly full time in 2000	93.0	90.8	83.4	72.6	83.7	84.5	64.4	62.1	90.8	88.5	82.0	74.3
Worked mainly part time in 2000	2.9	3.4	6.3	8.1	5.6	5.0	10.5	7.6	3.7	4.1	6.5	7.4
Not employed in 2000	4.1	5.8	10.3	19.3	10.7	10.6	25.1	30.2	5.5	7.5	11.4	18.3
Census Family Total Income (%)												
Less than \$5000	0.7	0.8	1.5	9.4	1.0	0.9	3.4	8.4	0.9	0.9	2.0	10.0
\$5000-\$14999	2.2	2.9	6.1	14.0	2.0	2.0	5.6	11.8	2.9	2.8	6.0	12.7
\$15000-\$29999	5.2	6.3	13.2	17.7	5.5	4.9	18.6	20.7	6.8	6.5	14.8	19.1
\$30000-\$49999	15.5	18.8	27.1	27.0	13.4	12.9	25.3	25.2	18.9	18.1	29.1	26.2
\$50000 or more	76.5	71.3	52.0	31.9	78.1	79.2	47.2	33.9	70.4	71.8	48.2	32.0
Median Total Income (\$)	46000	40187	30000	19795	45400	41721	20232	16447	42000	40000	28482	20343
Median Wages (\$)	42000	36643	25000	13280	38000	35000	12000	7600	39000	35439	24000	15000
Wages (%)												
None	13.2	15.6	21.2	31.1	20.7	21.6	35.5	39.4	14.1	17.3	21.6	29.3
\$1-\$4999	2.7	3.4	4.6	8.5	3.1	3.3	5.3	6.7	3.2	3.4	5.1	7.8
\$5000-\$14999	4.3	5.6	9.0	12.0	5.5	5.7	12.9	14.1	5.5	5.8	10.2	12.8
\$15000-\$29999	11.7	14.3	22.1	20.7	11.5	12.1	21.4	22.0	14.0	14.4	22.3	21.0
\$30000-\$49999	27.2	27.2	24.9	15.6	21.3	22.8	15.0	9.8	27.9	26.4	24.5	16.0
\$50000 or more	40.9	34.0	18.2	12.1	38.0	34.5	9.8	8.0	35.2	32.7	16.4	13.0
Tenure (%)												
Owned	87.5	83.4	63.1	42.3	88.8	88.7	67.1	50.7	82.0	83.3	62.1	39.2
Rented	12.5	16.6	36.9	57.7	11.2	11.3	32.9	49.3	18.0	16.7	37.9	60.8
Total Number of Individuals	1172140	245354	63116	64491	496117	242851	28474	19289	2845521	635410	161214	163221

Source: Estimates from 2001 Census PUMF

Notes: * Numbers rounded to multiples of 5.

- Total number of fathers aged 15-19 in the sample is too small to derive robust estimates.

Appendix Table 5: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Fathers Aged 15-64 by Age Groups and by Aboriginal Status

Socio-Economic Characteristics	15-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-64		Total	
	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal	Non-Aboriginal	Aboriginal
Level of Education (%)												
Grade 8 or less	4.3	-	3.5	8.6	2.9	8.1	3.9	11.5	9.3	32.2	4.7	12.4
Grades 9-13	64.4	-	22.5	37.3	15.4	27.1	16.2	27.9	13.3	20.4	15.8	28.8
HS Graduate	15.7	-	16.8	10.5	13.9	10.1	14.4	8.8	12.6	6.1	14.0	9.2
Trade, Some College/Univ	9.5	-	17.9	23.0	14.3	19.8	13.8	18.4	12.8	13.8	14.0	19.1
College/Univ Grad or Higher	6.1	-	39.2	20.6	53.5	34.9	51.6	33.5	52.1	27.5	51.5	30.5
Work Status (%)												
Worked mainly full time in 2000	38.3	-	88.8	65.9	92.3	78.4	91.6	79.4	83.0	63.1	89.8	73.9
Worked mainly part time in 2000	24.3	-	5.4	12.2	3.3	7.9	3.3	6.2	5.6	9.0	3.9	8.5
Not employed in 2000	37.4	-	5.8	21.9	4.5	13.6	5.1	14.4	11.4	27.9	6.3	17.6
Census Family Total Income (%)												
Less than \$5000	36.5	-	2.8	6.0	1.3	2.2	1.1	1.2	1.2	3.4	1.3	3.2
\$5000-\$14999	27.9	-	6.5	21.0	3.6	9.2	2.9	8.7	2.3	8.0	3.2	11.4
\$15000-\$29999	20.0	-	16.4	28.8	7.9	20.2	6.0	15.2	5.9	19.9	7.3	20.3
\$30000-\$49999	13.0	-	35.1	27.9	23.2	28.2	16.8	26.0	13.9	21.8	19.3	26.5
\$50000 or more	2.6	-	39.2	16.2	63.9	40.2	73.3	48.8	76.8	46.9	68.8	38.7
Median Total Income (\$)	6736	-	29657	14000	40000	25155	44000	30002	43000	24041	40601	23340
Median Wages (\$)	2000	-	26944	9192	36000	20000	40000	25000	35352	15000	37000	18000
Wages (%)												
None	40.0	-	11.9	25.5	13.0	17.2	14.5	19.6	21.8	31.6	15.4	21.6
\$1-\$4999	19.1	-	5.6	13.1	3.4	9.6	3.0	7.3	3.2	6.1	3.4	9.4
\$5000-\$14999	22.7	-	10.7	23.2	5.8	14.9	5.0	9.2	5.9	11.2	5.8	14.3
\$15000-\$29999	11.3	-	27.3	20.2	15.9	19.9	12.8	18.0	12.2	17.8	14.6	19.0
\$30000-\$49999	6.9	-	31.2	11.8	31.0	24.3	26.7	24.9	21.3	19.6	27.2	21.3
\$50000 or more	0.0	-	13.2	6.2	30.7	14.1	38.0	21.0	35.5	13.8	33.6	14.5
Tenure (%)												
Owned	51.3	-	53.8	24.0	76.2	43.1	84.5	56.2	87.7	52.4	80.6	44.3
Rented – for cash, other or Band h	48.7	-	46.2	76.0	23.8	56.9	15.5	43.8	12.3	47.6	19.4	55.7
Total Number	4265		229760	19860	1178425	40260	1514520	30580	772815	13915	3699785	105580

Notes: numbers rounded to multiples of 5.
 - Sample size less than 30.

Appendix Table 6: Socio-economic Profiles of Canadian Men Aged 20-64 by Fatherhood Status							
	Father in intact family	Father in step family	Lone father	Biological father not living w children		Never had children	Total
				Living with partner or spouse	Not with partner or spouse		
Education							
Some HS or lower	14.7	18.7	19.3	30.8	28.7	11.3	16.8
High School Grad	18.3	19.7	20.7	19.9	18.0	17.2	18.3
Some College	10.8	14.9	16.0	8.0	11.7	15.8	12.4
College/University Grad	56.2	46.8	44.0	41.3	41.6	55.7	52.5
N	3043	417	150	913	394	2164	7081
Personal Income							
Less than \$15000	3.9	4.3	9.7	5.8	13.1	11.5	7.1
\$15,000 to \$29,999	10.6	16.6	9.1	13.7	18.1	17.7	13.9
\$30000-\$49999	25.2	28.5	24.0	22.7	24.4	25.5	25.1
\$50000 and higher	38.0	35.2	38.3	32.6	23.7	23.7	32.0
Missing	22.3	15.4	18.8	25.3	20.7	21.5	21.9
N	3065	421	154	918	397	2195	7150
Household Income							
Less than \$15000	1.5	0.6	4.2	0.9	10.8	5.3	2.7
\$15,000 to \$29,999	5.0	9.5	9.9	5.3	14.4	7.5	6.6
\$30000-\$49999	12.0	11.2	25.4	20.2	26.1	18.0	14.7
\$50000 - \$79999	27.0	32.4	22.5	27.2	18.0	25.6	26.6
\$80000 and higher	36.5	36.9	19.7	32.5	9.9	18.0	30.9
Missing	17.8	9.5	18.3	14.0	20.7	25.6	18.5
N	3065	422	154	919	399	2195	7154
Home Ownership							
Owned	83.8	71.4	64.9	87.1	45.3	48.9	70.3
Rented	16.2	28.6	35.1	12.9	54.7	51.1	29.7
N	3014	413	148	905	391	2141	7012

Source: Estimates from the 2001 General Social Survey of Families

**Appendix Table 7: Socio-demographic and Economic Profiles of Canadian Men Aged 40-49
by Fatherhood Status**

	Father in intact family	Father in step family	Lone father	Biological father not living w children		Never had children	Total
				Living with partner or spouse	Not with partner or spouse		
Distribution (%) by Fatherhood Status	58.5	8.5	3.3	5.5	5.2	18.9	100.0
Marital Status							
Never Married	0.0	0.0	12.9	0.0	22.7	41.3	9.4
Married	92.5	44.7	4.3	70.4	2.7	35.3	68.8
Common Law	7.5	55.3	0.0	29.6	0.0	14.9	13.5
Divorced / Separated	0.0	0.0	74.3	0.0	73.6	7.8	7.8
Widowed	0.0	0.0	8.6	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.5
N	1229	179	70	115	110	397	2100
Education							
Some HS or lower	14.3	16.3	19.1	21.1	20.7	12.9	15.1
High School Grad	18.7	21.9	22.1	24.6	19.8	21.3	20.0
Some College	11.4	12.9	14.7	11.4	14.4	11.6	11.8
College/University Grad	55.6	48.9	44.1	43.0	45.0	54.2	53.1
N	1220	178	68	114	111	389	2080
Personal Income							
Less than \$15000	3.6	3.4	4.3	5.3	13.6	8.3	5.1
\$15,000 to \$29,999	9.1	15.1	10.0	11.4	14.5	12.5	10.7
\$30000-\$49999	23.4	30.7	27.1	26.3	28.2	22.0	24.3
\$50000 and higher	41.7	42.5	40.0	34.2	26.4	29.5	38.2
Missing	22.2	8.4	18.6	22.8	17.3	27.8	21.7
N	1229	179	70	114	110	400	2102
Household Income							
Less than \$15000	1.5	0.6	4.2	0.9	10.8	5.3	2.7
\$15,000 to \$29,999	5.0	9.5	9.9	5.3	14.4	7.5	6.6
\$30000-\$49999	12.0	11.2	25.4	20.2	26.1	18.0	14.7
\$50000 - \$79999	27.0	32.4	22.5	27.2	18.0	25.6	26.6
\$80000 and higher	36.5	36.9	19.7	32.5	9.9	18.0	30.9
Missing	17.8	9.5	18.3	14.0	20.7	25.6	18.5
N	1229	179	71	114	111	399	2103
Home Ownership							
Owned	86.7	80.0	68.2	87.6	46.8	62.4	78.9
Rented	13.3	20.0	31.8	12.4	53.2	37.6	21.1
N	1206	175	66	113	109	383	2052

Source: Estimates from the 2001 General Social Survey of Families