Community Attachment and the Building of Social Capital among Single Parent Families in Vancouver

by

Neil Macauley
Bachelor of Arts, Simon Fraser University 2004

PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF PUBLIC POLICY

In the
Faculty
of
Arts and Social Sciences

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

Spring 2006

APPROVAL

Name: **Neil Macauley**

Degree: **M.P.P**

Title of **Community Attachment And The Building Of Social Capital Among Single Parent Families In Vancouver**

Examining Committee:

Chair: **Doug McArthur**

Doug McArthur
Senior Supervisor

Kennedy Stewart
Supervisor

Cynthia Williams
Internal Examiner

Date Approved: Wednesday, March 22, 2006

Abstract

The following research investigated the effects of both income and family type upon the availability of social capital among families in British Columbia. It was hypothesized that the accumulation of social capital was more difficult for single parent families, and especially difficult for single parent families of a low-income status. This was expected to be due to variables associated with such families having a limited capacity to balance work and family life demands and being at a relatively high risk of living in poverty. Results showed that high rates of housing instability and negative neighbourhood assessments were significantly correlated with low levels of social support among single parent families living below the LICO. A policy objective of increasing the attachment of low-income single parent families to supportive communities was established and policy alternatives were proposed and evaluated within the context of the City of Vancouver.

Keywords: Social Capital, Single Parent Families, Community Attachment, City of Vancouver, NLSCY.

Executive Summary

This study explores the relationship between family structure and the generation of social capital within the context of British Columbia and specifically applies findings to the current policy environment of the City of Vancouver. The concept of social capital has gained prominence more recently than the related concepts of financial and human capital but has been documented as important in helping to promote family well being through strong and healthy relationships with extra-familial networks. Understanding why some families have more of these relationships than others must take into account factors that help determine the social context in which the family exists – namely the community of residence. The matching of family needs with community support can be seen as an important determinant of the generation of social capital for families.

For single parent families, the choice of residence can be seen as largely determined by a situation of dual disadvantage in comparison with traditional two parent families. Specifically, dual disadvantage is identified through a limited capacity to balance work and family life commitments and a related situation of being at a high risk of living in poverty. This may result in single parent families having less social capital available to them than dual parent families due to difficulties in becoming attached to the communities in which they live. An analysis of data provided by Statistics Canada's National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth was performed in order to explore this hypothesis.

Results showed large differences among families based upon family structure (dual versus single parent families) and income (above versus below the poverty line). Single parent families exhibited lower levels of social support (as a measure of social capital), higher levels of housing instability, lower levels of home ownership and less positive assessments of the neighbourhoods in which they lived than dual parent families. These findings were stronger among those single parent families of a low-income status, who represented approximately 55% of the entire sample of single parent families. Among other findings, statistical analysis revealed that low levels of social support were significantly correlated with high levels of housing instability and negative neighbourhood assessments among this population as well.

Policy options for the City of Vancouver were developed with the intent of decreasing housing instability and promoting greater community attachment among single parent families. Options included the introduction of a community outreach program, increased funding for childcare and neighbourhood organizations and the preservation of a requirement within the current Southeast False Creek Official Development Plan for a large number of affordable housing units. These options were assessed against the criteria of social sustainability, political acceptability, equity, administrative feasibility and social feasibility.

Evaluation of the options involved ranking them according to their combined assessments on each of the criteria. Increased funding for childcare was ranked as unlikely due to the expected responsibility of funding from the provincial government. Increased funding of neighbourhood organizations was also evaluated as unlikely due to issues related to political acceptability and administrative feasibility. While the preservation of the Southeast False Creek Official Development Plan was evaluated as the most desirable option in regards to social sustainability, it was not considered to be politically acceptable at the present time. The introduction of a large scale community outreach program targeted at low-income families was also assessed to be high on the measure of social sustainability and was considered to have a greater likelihood of being accepted by the City. Therefore, the study concludes with a recommendation for grant funding towards the introduction of such a program being designed and targeted to low-income families.

Dedication

I dedicate this project to my sister, Tara, whose experience in living as a single mother was the inspiration for this study.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Doug McArthur for his continued support and guidance, Cynthia Williams for advancing my understanding of social policy and Nancy Olewiler for always making time for me in her busy schedule.

Special thanks to my family and friends for providing me with an abundance of social capital throughout my life so far.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Glossary

NLSCY	National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth
ODP	Official Development Plan
PEF	Property Endowment Fund
PMK	Person Most Knowledgeable
SEFC	South East False Creek

1 Introduction

It has been said that the life of the average single parent family is a good measure of how progressive the social policies of a particular country are. In Canada, a large proportion of both the child and family poverty rates is in part related to the disadvantaged position of these families in our society. Disadvantage has primarily resulted form the pressure of dual roles for single parents, arising in part from the increasing participation of women in the labour force (combined with the historic marginalization of women in our society) and a decrease in the number of two-parent families. The social costs associated with conditions of disadvantage are substantial since persistent poverty gives rise to problems that can negatively affect the entire developmental life course (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000). Given the large and growing number of single parent families, a commitment from government towards protecting this group from a situation of deep and sustained poverty becomes even more necessary.

One of the problems faced by single parent families is a lack of social capital. In an attempt to understand why some families have less social capital than others do, comparisons are required between dual and single parent family structures over a wide variety of variables. Single parents have less social capital than dual parents as a consequence of factors associated with having an unequal amount of time and opportunities to successfully balance work and family life and living near or below the poverty line. Understanding barriers to the generation of social capital among this family type is the first step in designing policies to increase support for this population at the community level.

The following project highlights the importance of social capital for single parent families, and identifies factors contributing to its variability within the context of Vancouver, British Columbia. The findings of the study are applied to Vancouver in order to determine specific policy measures that can be taken at the municipal level. Broadening our knowledge of this crucial and overlooked resource can assist policy in becoming a more active agent within the evolution of a changing society. Such an objective has the potential to create positive outcomes for this large and growing population of families currently existing on the margins of our society.

1.1 Defining the problem

Family structure has undergone considerable changes in the last few decades, to the point where traditional conceptions are less applicable or relevant to a growing number of Canadians. Today, a broad definition of "family" can be seen when two individuals share a relationship and define themselves as a family (Bowen, Bowen, & Richman, 2000). Yet there still exists a fundamental difference between families that raise children and those that do not. The added costs, responsibilities and experiences of providing care for children means that the development of these families is, in many ways, different from those families where children are not involved. For the purposes of the following research, family is defined as referring to one or more adults who are involved in the rearing of one or more children. Yet even on the basis of this relatively unremarkable definition of families, significant differences are apparent in the diversity of family structures today as compared to the past.

As trends towards increasing urbanization within industrialized countries are compounded by changes in family roles and (most notably) divorce rates, rising numbers of non-traditional families have begun to redefine the relationship between the family and wider society (Arcus, 2000). These changes should help direct the future role of social policy through continuing to aid those families proven to be at risk. Increasing diversity in family forms may ultimately represent new opportunities for governments and interest groups to increase family well-being through customized policies that are responsive to the needs of families. Following the identification of families in need of policy action, the use of an accurate developmental model of the family is crucial in any attempt to uncover the nature of the problem and understand how best to design policies towards it.

If developmental models of the family are to remain relevant, they must take into account changes in order to better outline the diversity among today's families in regards to structure and timing (Bowen, Bowen, & Richman, 2000). A number of scholars have suggested a life course approach as a way of understanding the dynamics of family developmental change. A life course approach is useful to the study of families as it helps explain changes in the family as being the result of changes in the interactions between society and the individuals within specific periods of time (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000). Macro-level events and their effects upon the family and individuals are understood in life course theory as the products of historical time. A prominent example of this is how female labour force participation during World War 2 had a lasting impact upon individuals and families through changing the role of women in society. A life course approach is also concerned with stages within the family life cycle and the periods of

transition between one stage to the next. Family stages represent periods of time that exist only in relation to other periods of time that happen before and following them (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000). These periods are usually related to changes in family structure through the addition, loss or development of family members. A successful transition for the family between one stage to the next is contingent upon both individual and family task completion.

Although often difficult and characterized by heightened stress, these periods of transition are important to the maintenance of family well-being. The concept of transition is relevant to policy since these periods place new demands upon the financial, social and educational resources of the family in their attempt to move from one developmental stage to the other. A lack of any particular resource may sow the seeds of family dysfunction as difficulties in the transition process have been shown to lead to later developmental problems, thus affecting the life trajectory of individual family members (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000). In order for policy to aid in the achievement of family well-being, it is not only necessary to understand the nature of the resources available to the family members, but also how the acquisition of resources varies across different family structures as well. If social networks are seen as beneficial to the family, and the availability of such networks is limited according to differences in family structure, targeted policy measures may be used to help alleviate the disadvantages associated with a particular family type.

1.2 Policy Problem

This study will examine the need for and the opportunities available to increase social capital in the form of support at the community level for single parent families in Vancouver, British Columbia. Single parent families encounter unique challenges and difficulties in providing for family members, particularly children. The study explores the question of whether single parent families have lower levels of social support than dual parent families, and if so why? It is hypothesized that single parent families have less social capital than dual parent families due to the double disadvantages associated with balancing work and family life commitments and being at a higher risk of living in poverty. It also examines how the gap in social support for single parents can be addressed, and what policy means might be considered in the context of Vancouver. Vancouver is home to the largest concentration of people in the province of British Columbia and is the third largest city in Canada.

2 Literature Review and Background

As mentioned previously, three types of resources (financial, human and social capital) are used by families as means of attaining goals that together comprise family well-being. These include the provision of adequate food, shelter, clothing, education, protection and care to name just a few. Since the resiliency of a family is largely a measure of how successfully the family is able to execute the transition process, it is also a measure of the availability of resources used in aid of this process as well (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). A basic understanding of these three types of capital resources provides the background needed to locate differences in the amounts available to different family types in the pursuit of family well-being.

2.1.1 Financial Capital

Arguably, the most cited of these resources is financial (or economic) capital, representing the wealth of the family as measured by the total value of assets that have financial value. Most financial assets find value through social contracts that assign value to such things as money, stocks and bonds but hold no value outside of such contracts (Deardorff, 2000). The wealth of a family may also be in more material forms that can be transformed into financial capital in times of need such as real estate holdings. For the purposes of this research, financial capital is defined as a measure of wealth that includes these "real" assets as well since they have financial value upon conversion.

Financial capital is commonly acquired through savings from wage labour and attachment to the paid labour force. Wage earners generate financial capital in order to pay the costs of providing material necessities and comforts, but may also save such capital in order to respond more effectively to unforeseen costs related to life events. For families, periods of transition often incorporate financial costs as the addition, loss or development of family members may result in financial costs arising from increased expenses or a decrease in income. Without reserves of wealth, the ability to generate financial capital is therefore crucial to the survival of the family itself. Although the provincial and federal governments provide financial assistance, the value of such assistance is quite low in order to promote attachment to paid employment and discourage welfare dependency (Esping Andersson, 1990). This is particularly

true within liberal welfare states such as Canada where there is great emphasis on the emancipating power of the market as represented by means-tested assistance systems. It is generally agreed that such assistance alone cannot be expected to represent a sufficient financial resource for the pursuit of family goals without being supplemented by either saved financial wealth or income generation through employment. It is generally argued that the after-tax income of the family and the existence of any reserves of wealth are viewed as the best indicators of its ability to maintain a particular standard of living (Statistics Canada, 2005).

2.1.2 Human Capital

Often used to increase financial capital by income generation through the specialization of labour, human capital represents investments in education and skills. But human capital can also involve investments in health and ethical values that have positive effects upon individual, and by default, family well-being (Becker, 2003). The nuturing and care of children has been shown to be positively affected by increased education among parents. Decisions related to when and how many children to have, what to teach them and how to raise them, have been linked to long term outcomes for all family members (Becker, 2003). In this sense, increasing human capital is not only useful in increasing financial capital, but (perhaps more importantly) is also highly useful in promoting positive developmental outcomes and thereby increasing family well-being.

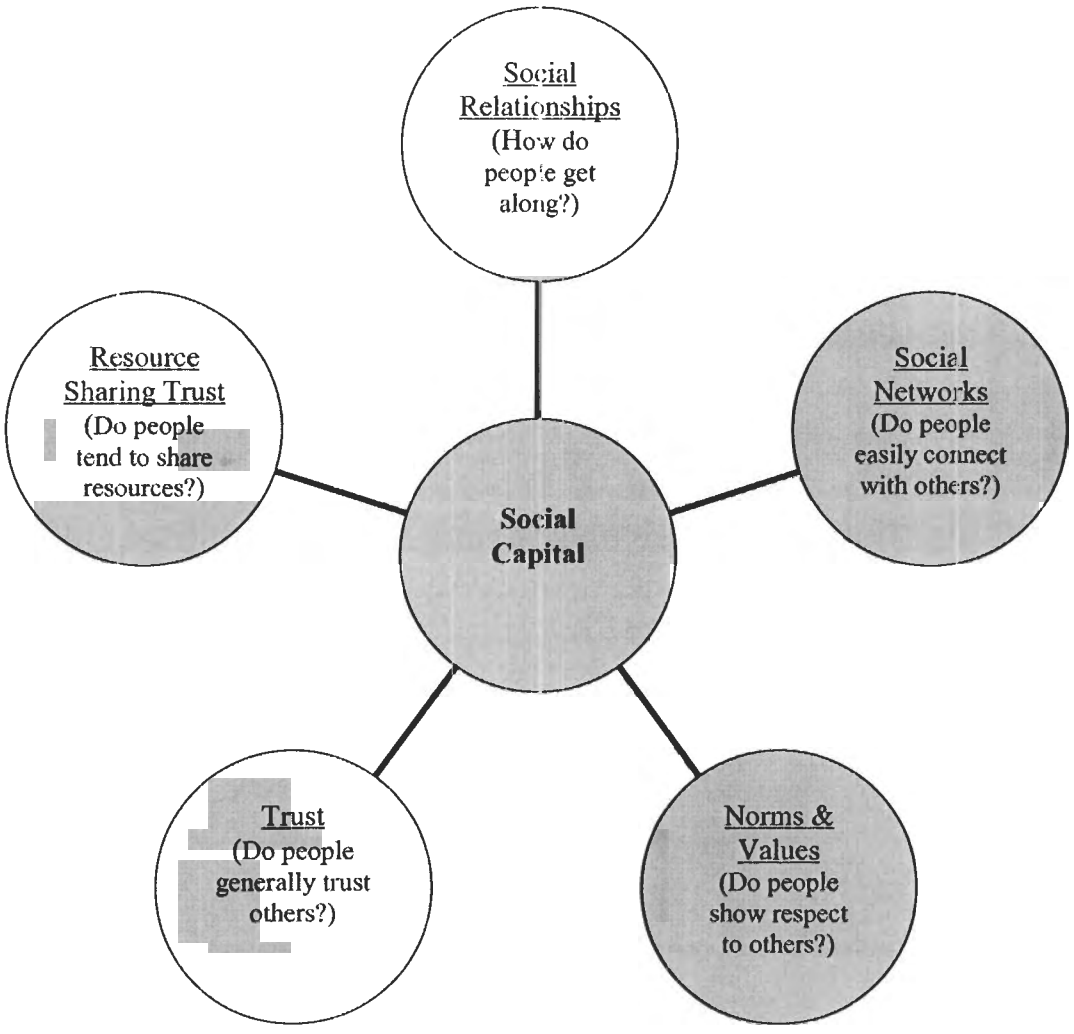
2.1.3 Social Capital

On the basis of its association with positive developmental outcomes, social capital has gained considerable attention in the last 20 years. Like human capital, social capital is based upon the principles of education and learning (OECD, 2005), but is created through investments in relationships with family, friends, neighbours and community organizations (Smith, 2005). The quality and strength of family and community relationships represents the social capital that is available to the family as these relationship-based resources offer security and support (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). This vital resource provides individuals with a social network, which can be used to help them overcome challenges they could not do otherwise on their own or at least without considerable difficulty (Leichtenbritt & Rettig, 2000). Once in place, these relationships provide both tangible and intangible benefits to the individual and family through support in many forms. Such forms of support are responses to the needs of the individual or family, and may be social, emotional, economical or psychological in nature. For example, a

parent may rely upon a neighbour to look after their sick child, confide in a friend regarding an issue causing them great distress or participate in a voluntary service in order to feel connected to the community in which they reside. In all cases, the use of social relationships offers benefits to individual family members that may not be possible through financial or human capital resources alone. In this way, social capital refers to resources available to families via extra-familial social networks (Lin, 1999).

As with the other two types of resources, there are multiple forms of social capital that together lead to the establishment of social norms, obligations and expectations and information channels (Bowen, Bowen, & Richman, 2000). In *Measuring Social Capital: A Guide for First Nations Communities,* Mignone (2003) outlines five components of social capital that have been identified among researchers at the community level. Social capital is thought to be an outcome of strong social relationships based on interpersonal skills and communication. These relationships can lead to the availability of social networks that are likewise important in allowing people to connect with one another. The maintenance of these relationships encourages respect towards others, which aids in the promotion of norms and values. This reinforces a general sense of trust in others and furthers relationship ties through supportive activities such as resource sharing. While highly interconnected, these five elements help to better characterize the concept of social capital at the community level (see figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Elements of Social Capital at the Community Level



Source: (Mignone, 2003)

The concept of social capital represents a recognition that the family unit does not live in isolation and may be aided or hindered in their endeavours to adapt by the community in which they live (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). As relationships are born out of social interactions, the amount of social, psychological and material resources within the environment can greatly influence the success of individuals who actively seek to increase their social capital. Such knowledge allows opportunities for the community to act as a supportive actor in helping families become more resilient in adapting to change. The strength and quality of family relationships with their environment, termed the *family-environment fit,* is partly dependent upon the actions of family members in establishing such relationships, but is also aided or obstructed by the

characteristics of their environment as well. The availability of these resources within a particular community or neighbourhood can be seen as a measure of the social capacity such environments offer to their residents. As families transition between developmental stages, this capacity may be of crucial importance in meeting their needs for social capital. This is especially the case in times when financial and/or human capital resources are either insufficient or are unable to address the specific needs of a family.

The creation of social capital in a community requires a consideration of existing physical and social infrastructure as well as institutional resources (such as police operations, physical and mental healthcare services, churches and community development programs). Therefore, it is not surprising that families have been shown to exhibit both psychological and physical distance from the neighbourhood where they live if they see it as a dangerous or risky place that lacks the social capacity needed for the development of social networks (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). This underlines the importance of the family-environment fit in fostering supportive relationships that represent social capital resources that the family can draw upon in their efforts to successfully balance work and family life. Similarly, it is equally important to recognize that families differ in both the amount and form of social capital that would benefit them. The identification of families in greatest need of social capital is the first step in outlining an effective and equitable approach to building upon the social capacity of our communities.

2.2 Interconnections among Family Resources

When talking of the various types of capital resources available for use by families, it should be understood that although these three types of capital differ in nature, they are often also highly interconnected in their usage. An increase or decrease in the level of one resource can greatly affect the others as well, either through affecting the amount of related forms of capital or through future generation of them as well. This can be seen in situations where social capital is increased by way of learning (human capital) how to establish relationships and make social connections or in cases where future increases in human capital are hindered due to an insufficient level financial capital needed to finance training (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). These kinds of interconnections among capital types are largely determined by the internal structure of the family unit and the environment within which the family resides. For example, a family with two adult wage earners can generate sufficient financial capital so that they can live in communities that have a relatively high amount of social capacity, thereby increasing the

potential to develop social capital through participation in the community. Alternatively, the family may save their financial resources in order to allow one or more family members to take time away from paid employment in order to increase their human capital through specialized training, which in turn increases their financial capital upon re-entry into paid employment at a higher salary. Children can benefit from these forms of capital allocation and generation in both direct and indirect means, such as attending high-quality schools, being provided with high quality food and clothing and benefiting from close parental care and supervision. Importantly, it may also be the case that children are negatively affected by a lack of such benefits when the parent(s) cannot afford to live in areas that have a high level of social capacity, cannot afford to provide quality food and clothing or do not have the time or skills needed to offer quality parental care and attention. Such examples highlight the importance of understanding resource interconnections when examining social policy issues related to the family, such as child and family poverty.

The relationship between parental resources and child well-being underlines how the problem of child poverty is ultimately linked with family poverty. If policy is expected to adequately address the issues of child and family poverty, identification of the families most as risk of poverty is the first step. Only then can the locating of factors that lead to poverty be meaningfully applied and examined in order to develop an appropriate policy response. Currently, family and child poverty can be seen to be highly correlated with the variables of family structure and minority status. Between 1983/84 to 1998/99, the percentage of low-income families in Canada remained around 50% (Statistics Canada, 2005). This persistence of family poverty is rivalled by the persistence in child poverty among low-income single parent families, which are home to approximately forty percent of poor children (National Council of Welfare, 1998).

2.3 Non-Traditional Family Structure: The Single Parent Family

One of the largest changes to family structure in Canada has been the rapid rise in the number of female-headed single parent families. In a period of merely 20 years, from 1981 to 2001, the number of single parent mothers rose by 68% from approximately 330,000 to 555,000 (Galarneau, 2005). There are many competing theories of why this trend has developed, most noting changing cultural norms regarding marriage such as the high incidence of divorce, but most recognize an acceptance of the choice not to get married and the dramatic changes associated with the status of women that have occurred in recent history. That said, the fact that

the overwhelming majority of single parents are women indicates that the responsibility of care giving remains traditionally gender-based, regardless of cultural changes concerning the nature of relationships or the role of women in society.

2.3.1 Life Course of Single Parents Families

Similarly, the goals and functions of individual members remain similar despite this increase in the variety of family types and the new complexities in the arrangement of social interactions among family members (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000). Traditional family models assumed that patterns of interaction among family members were the product of factors such as age, the procreation of children and developmental need. More recent models based upon a life course approach are more flexible and representative of changes in society that move us away from less relevant conceptions of family interactions.

Transition periods for single parent families are experienced differently than dual parents due to the differences in the amount of financial, human and social capital resources such families can draw upon. This situation can lead to family disruptions such as loss of parental employment, changes in childcare arrangements and parental custody arrangements and movement of the family from one community to another resulting in a related decrease in social networks (Bartle-Haring, Bean, Bedell & Perry, 2000). These disruptions can have long-term negative effects upon the development of individual family members and family functioning as well. Families that go through relationship dissolution (either through divorce or the break-up of a non-institutionalized relationship) are faced with tasks and transitional phases in addition to those already involved with the developmental tasks of raising children. These include accepting responsibility for the dissolution and the loss of the former family structure, maintaining connections with extended families and friends and fostering a new co-operative relationship with the former partner for the purposes of financial, custody and visitation arrangements (McKenry, Murphy & Price, 2000).

This re-structuring of financial resources and social networks is especially crucial for single parents who retain custody of their child(ren) as this responsibility increases their demands for a rebuilding of financial and social capital. Yet their ability to do so is often hampered by the time involved in responding to competing demands and outcomes associated with a lack of resources. Single parents are expected to be responsible for the care of their children despite the competing demand of working and earning income as support from the non-custodial parent is usually inadequate and often very difficult to obtain. In a survey of child support payments in

Canada in 1995, reported that of all recipients of child support, 55% of custodial parents received less than $4,000.00 per year in child support payments post-separation and that the most common amounts were between $2,000.00 to $2,499.00 per year for one child (Department of Justice Canada, 2000). It has also been reported that only 25% of mothers receive regular child support payments, and the federal Justice Department collects less than 10% of all outstanding support payments (Dat, 2000). This has also been evidenced in a 30% decrease in the post-divorce standard of living of mothers compared to a 15% increase by divorced men (Coleman, Downs & Ganong, 2000).

Single parent families are thus disadvantaged in comparison with dual parent families by living with a lower amount of resources and a lower capacity to accumulate resources. This state of double disadvantage leads to increased difficulties in balancing work and family life commitments combined with the negative outcomes associated with living near or below the poverty level. On top of this, families of a minority status probably experience the transition of relationship dissolution and/or the transition into single parenthood differently than those of non-minority status, including coping mechanisms used when attempting to balance work and family life commitments (Coleman, Downs & Ganong, 2000). How these disadvantages have affected single parent families is becoming more apparent as a result of recent research on the state of this growing population of families today.

2.3.2 The Balancing of Work and Family Life Commitments

Of all the resources available to the single parent, the resource of time may be the most crucial of all due to its scarcity when balancing competing responsibilities. For these individuals, how time is invested towards the accumulation of financial, human and social capital is substantially affected by the direct and indirect costs specifically associated with lone parenting (Statistics Canada, 2005). Direct costs derived from expenditures (such as the cost of housing, feeding, clothing, providing healthcare, transportation and childcare to name a few) are combined with various indirect costs (Leichtenbritt & Rettig, 2000). These include opportunity costs associated with having a limited amount of time and energy to devout to activities such as increasing financial capital through employment, being responsive to the cognitive and emotional needs of the child, expanding both professional and personal social networks and pursuing educational training. At the same time, in-kind income associated with household production is a major contributor to the standard of living of members of the household.

A falling standard of living increases the pressure for single parent mothers to increase their engagement with the labour market. The perverse effect of such activity is that it takes away from their competing demands of care and support for their child(ren) through household production. Over the life course, this can also have a profound impact upon the development of young child(ren) as they are at an age where a lack of quality care and supervision can lead to long-term difficulties later in life (Bartle-Haring, Bean, Bedell, & Perry, 2000). This difficulty in balancing work and family life commitments increases the need for reliance upon the human and social capital resources available to the single parent. Yet women are also disadvantaged in the career timing of single parenthood, as they may have not anticipated the need for a career outside of the home or the impact of taking a career leave in order to address their childcare responsibilities. This can negatively affect their earning potential by limiting their employability and career aspirations - especially if they are young as they are likely at an early stage in their careers.

2.3.3 Low Income

The difficulties facing children in many non-traditional families may be a function of variables independent of family structure, such as low income or the lack of accessible childcare. Family type is a highly significant predictor of whether a family is low-income since many single parent families have a decreased structural capacity to fulfil the demands of employment and parenting compared to their dual parent counterparts (Morisette, 2005). Such differences in family structure often places alternative family types, such as the single parent family, at a high risk of living near, or below, the poverty line. The ability of the parent to address the basic physical needs of the child is often dependent upon labour force activity that takes time away from their ability to address the other needs associated with being a good parent (such as protection, education, care and activity). The irony in this choice is that a fundamental aspect of being a good parent is the ability to provide food, shelter, clothing, education, protection and care – and many of these things (and arguably all of them) cannot be provided without income.

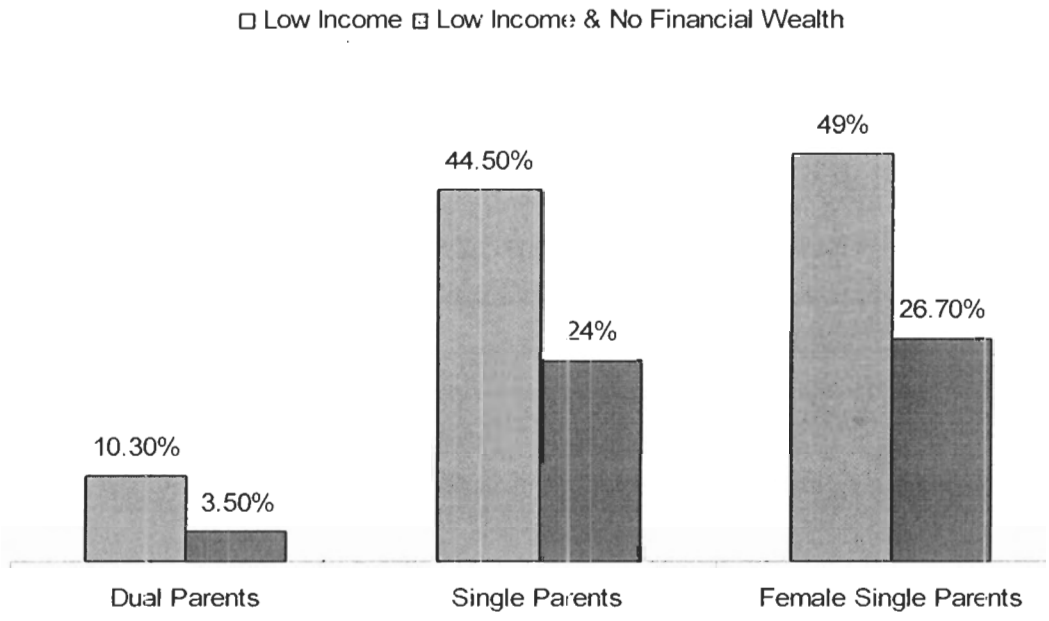
Compounding this situation, low-income single parents tend not to be highly educated and generally work in low-paying jobs. Being able to actively engage with the labour force is hampered by barriers to their employability (as going back to school is an unlikely choice for this group due to the costs involved) and the negative effects associated with low-skilled jobs. These include a lack of income security, health burdens associated with physical labour and burn out from stress & the often dead-end nature of employment. This has implications for their ability to

save and create financial wealth, which in turn puts them at a disadvantage compared to other families.

Low income and low-wealth families are vulnerable populations as they cannot maintain desired or even basic standards of living and have no financial resources in the face of unforeseen events that have an associated economic cost (Statistics Canada, 2005). This is underlined by the fact that a high proportion of families in poverty are working and many children in low-income families have parents who are employed full-time and year-round (Campaign 2000, 2005) (NCCP, 2005). Currently, social assistance in Canada does not meet the poverty line. For example, the combined federal and provincial welfare income of a single parent with one child in British Columbia has fallen from $15,409 in 1999 to $13,778 in 2004 (National Council of Welfare, 2005).

Since many single parents must balance work and family life alone, single parent families are five times more likely to have low-income and no financial wealth than dual parent families (Morisette, 2005). On top of this, the great majority of families with low-incomes had no more savings than they did in the mid 1980's. And although median net worth and financial wealth did rise for most families, this was not the case for single-parent families. Both families with no net worth and those with no financial wealth have increased in number across Canada, with single parent families proving to be the family type most at risk (see figure). It should therefore be of little surprise that female headed single parent families have been found to be the most likely of all families to exist in a sustained low-income status.

Figure 2.2: Financial and Gender Characteristics of Single Parent Families Compared to Dual Parent Families, 1999



Source: Statistics Canada, 2005

2.3.4 Social Capital and Single Parent Families

Public policy can support well-being among single parent families by assisting in their generation of financial, human and social capital. This can be achieved through policy goals that create enabling conditions for these at-risk families in their efforts to balance work and family life commitments and avoid living in poverty. In A Policy Blueprint for Canada's Children (1999), authors Jenson and Stroick defined the enabling conditions of providing an adequate income, ensuring effective parenting and creating supportive communities as policy goals in aid of ensuring good child outcomes. These goals are equally useful in assisting single parent families to increase their financial, human and social resources in support of the family well-being. A goal of increasing child well-being is often a paramount goal of single parents themselves, and therefore such enabling conditions can also be seen to be in aid of family well-being as well. Although many policies make little distinction between the needs of single and dual headed families with children, creating enabling conditions through goals such as these can target policies towards the barriers facing single parents in successfully balancing work and family life while at the same time avoiding poverty.

The goal of creating increased community support for single parent families seeks to increase the capabilities of the community in playing an affordable, safe, nurturing and functional role in the lives of single parent families. To achieve this, communities must be responsive to collective and individual needs by fostering meaningful participation in problem-solving and offering social support (Bowen, Bowen & Richman, 2000). The difficulties associated with balancing work and family life along with a decreased capacity to earn an adequate income is likely to affect many single parents need for social capital. This is primarily due the needs for emotional and cognitive support in the face of such difficulties and the negative effects of living in poverty such as social isolation. However, the dual nature of their disadvantage constrains their generation of social capital as time is needed to build relationships with individuals in the community and not all communities offer the same social capacity to do so. Significant barriers such as these limit the ability of these families to build supportive relationships with others despite evidence that the importance of social capital is greater within a context of low financial capital. Specifically, without available time or sufficient financial resources, these families are less likely to either forge ties with their community or afford communities that have a desirable level of social capacity.

Building a supportive community begins with the fostering of positive and supportive relationships with and among its residents. Doing this for single parent families within the community requires not only a consideration of their limited ability to generate financial capital, but also how their low income status is itself a barrier to such relationships. It has been noted that many current government programs exhibit an implicit goal of increasing social capital through services provided by the community, the provision of family support, welfare assistance and education (Arcus, 2000). Opportunities exist for government to increase the development of social capital among single parent families when the barriers to such development are proven to be correlated with factors related to their predominantly low-income status. Accordingly, a policy goal of increasing the attachment of single parents to supportive communities must be aware and recognize such factors in order to be successful.

3 Methodology

The analytical framework employed in this project utilized a quantitative approach to investigate significant factors related to the accumulation of social capital among different family structures. Most of the data used was for the entire province of British Columbia and did not allow for an exclusive focus on families living in the Vancouver area. However, interpreting exhibited trends as being fairly representative of the City of Vancouver was important in order to develop policy alternatives within this context. The city is home to the largest population of residents in the province – estimated to be just over 550,000 persons or one quarter of the provincial population when the data was collected back in 1999 (BC Stats, 2006).

3.1 Data Sources

Data was gathered through a literature review of relatively recent research and publicly available data provided by both Statistics Canada and the province of British Columbia's statistical agency, B.C. Stats. For background research purposes a literature review of relatively recent research was extensively used in order to acquire a more broad understanding of recent research contributions. Statistics Canada's National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth Cycle 3 (NLSCY, Statistics Canada) provided the majority of data used for descriptive and statistical analysis while demographic information regarding single parent families in B.C. was gathered through the work of B.C. Stats, which derived its analysis primarily from 2001 census data.

3.1.1 The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth

The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) is a representative data set with a cross-sectional target population of 31,194 children aged 0-15 years along with data concerning the adult person most knowledgeable (PMK) of the child. The current study used data from cycle 3 of the NLSCY which was gathered through home interviews with families with children primarily from areas located within 10 provinces and was conducted between November 1998 and May 1999. For British Columbia, the sample size for cycle 3 data was 2,817 children. This formed the basis of the sample pool for the current study. The Although the NLSCY also

contains a fifth cycle which is more recent, cycle 3 was chosen because it represents the last cycle where data is publicly available for all children aged 0-15 while cycle 5 contains no sample of six and seven year olds.

One of the main objectives of the NLSCY was to collect data regarding the context children grow-up in such as family, peers, school and community. The surveying of family environment included a questionnaire for parents used to gather information on parenting behaviours and family characteristics. This was the primary focus of the present study as data was restricted to information from the adult questionnaire concerning single parent families where the person most knowledgeable (PMK) of the child did not have a spouse or partner. Of this sample, income information gathered from the adult questionnaire was used to assess the economic position of the family and compare both dual parents and single parent families and divide each of these two groups into two sub-groups based on whether the family was defined as "low income" according to Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-off (LICO) scale. This was done in order to control for the effects of family type (single or dual parent households) and income (low versus moderate/high income). Households with children aged 16-17 were also excluded as this subgroup was only assessed on four of the eight subjects in the adult questionnaire and were not a part of the cross-sectional sample but rather the longitudinal sample.

3.1.2 Census Data

Census data was provided by B.C. Stats' 2001 Census Profile of British Columbia (B.C. Stats, 2005). This data was used to estimate the proportion of single parent families throughout B.C., their approximate income and gender comparisons. The data was also used in a more general sense to provide information regarding other variables as well.

3.2 Variable Selection

The adult questionnaire of the NLSCY was administered to the adult head of the household, who in the case of single parent households was also the PMK as well. Data gathered assessed subjects responses to a number of questions concerning eight subject areas: education, labour force participation, income, health, neighbourhood safety, social support and socio-demographic characteristics. For the present study, 16 variables were selected from the adult questionnaire in order to identify the potential existence of a relationship between the dependent variable of social support. As mentioned previously, the dummy variables of income and family type were used to separate and compare sub-groups of the sample population. Recoding of the

original sub-categories in each variable was done in order to ensure a normal distribution in responses (see Appendix A).

3.2.1 Dependent Variable

***Social Support Score*:** Social support is considered a primary aspect of social capital. In the NLSCY, this measure was used to asses the level of support that PMK's believe they can rely upon from friends, family and members of the community (NLSCY, 1999). The scale was a condensed form of Robert Weiss's Social Provisions Model that was originally designed to describe the various uses and benefits that can be derived from social relationships. The shortened version of this model was designed by the Government of Ontario's Better Beginnings, Better Futures Project and outlined 3 functional uses of such relationships ranging from attachment, reliable reliance, and guidance. The score was based upon the combined scores from six questions that were meant to measure how well supported the respondent feels from their social network. Such questions included asking the PMK if they have someone to help them in a time of crisis, someone they could trust, friends and family that make them feel secure and happy to name just a few. As a measure of social capital, the social support score was considered a good measure since social support represents social resources that an individual can draw upon in the face of stressful situations (Kawachi, 2000). Such support can take the form of providing direction through offering advice, emotional support, closeness and intimacy gained through trust and practical help in times of emergency. The use of this measure in the NLSCY was meant to assess both the quantity and quality of social support available to the PMK.

3.2.2 Independent Variables

3.2.2.1 Family Functioning (SS↑, FF↑):

The family functioning score was used to measure components of family functioning such as communication, affective involvement and responsiveness, roles, behaviour control and problem solving. The 12 questions used were designed by researchers and have been used widely in both in Canada and internationally (NLSCY, 1999). Combined, these answers are meant to reflect a global assessment of the strength and quality of relationships within the family unit. It was predicted that an increase in social support from outside the family unit would be positively correlated with an increase in the family functioning score. The final score is a combination of scores from all 12 questions and were categorized for the purposes of this study into either "little

or no family dysfunction", "some/moderate family dysfunction" or "moderate/high family dysfunction".

3.2.2.2 Home Stability (HS↓, SS↓):

This variable assessed the number of years the family had lived at their current address. It was predicted that the level of home stability was an important factor in a family's ability to increase social support through ties with the neighbourhood and wider community. Low levels of home stability were seen to limit the level of social support networks available to the parent(s). Responses were provided for the categories 0-2 years, 3-5 years, 5-10 year and 10 years or more.

3.2.2.3 Home Ownership (HO↓, SS↓):

This variable assessed whether a family member owned the current family residence or whether the family rented their current residence from others. Home ownership is a measure of family wealth and is also seen to encourage home stability by avoiding problems associated with low-income families who rent (Statistics Canada, 2005). Such families must contend with low vacancy rates and high or increasing rental rates. It was predicted that social support would be lower for renters due to the likelihood of family settlement in neighbourhoods with little or no social support networks, or an inability to develop such networks though home instability.

3.2.2.4 Neighbourhood Safety (NS↓, SS↓):

An assessment of the PMK's judgments of satisfaction with his/her neighbourhood was used to create an assessment of the reported level of neighbourhood cohesiveness. It was predicted that the less safe the PMK felt in their neighbourhood, the less social support networks they were to have developed. Responses were categorized as "unsafe", "somewhat safe" and "very safe".

3.2.2.5 Assessment of Neighbourhood for Children (SS↑, ANC↑):

This variable assessed the PMK's feeling towards their current neighbourhood of residence as a place to bring up children. It was predicted to be positively correlated with social support assessments as the safer the neighbourhood is for children, the more likely the supportive ties between neighbours. Responses were categorized as "poor/very poor", "average", "good" and "excellent".

3.2.2.6 Use of Health Professionals (SS↓,UHP↓):

This variable measured the number of times the PMK sought medical advice (either in person or by phone) from a G.P. or family physician. It was predicted that the PMK would be less likely to ask for advice from health professionals when they have less social support due to feeling socially isolated. Responses were categorized as "0-1 times", "2-3 times" and "more than 4 times".

3.2.2.7 PMK Age (PMKage↑, SS↑):

The age of the parent is widely cited as having an influence upon the earning potential and income of the family (Statistics Canada, 2005). Since a low income status was hypothesized to correlate with low social capital, PMK age was likewise predicted to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable. The age of the PMK was grouped into one of three categories: 15-29 years old, 30 to 39 years old and over 40 years old.

3.2.2.8 PMK General Health (SS↑, PMKhealth↑):

This variable was a measure of the PMK's self assessment of their general state of health. It was predicted that lower scores on the social support measurement may be correlated with worse assessments of health. Responses ranged from "fair/poor", "good", "very good" and "excellent".

3.2.2.9 PMK Education (ED↓, SS↓):

Education has often been cited as a significant factor in predicting later life earnings (Statistics Canada, 2005). Since income is hypothesized to have an effect upon the attainment of social support for single parent families, lower educated parents are predicted to exhibit less social support than parents who are higher educated. The variable is defined as the current amount of educational attainment by the PMK, ranging from less than secondary school to the granting of a college or university degree.

3.2.2.10 PMK Working Status (WS↑, SS↑):

This variable is a dichotomous assessment of the PMK's current state of employment (working/not working). Since it is the level of income that is seen as a predictor of a family's capacity to increase social support, whether a family member is employed or not is not predicted to be a sufficient predictor of increased of their level of social support. The inclusion of this

variable was meant to test the competing hypothesis that labour force participation would lead to higher levels of social support through social contact with others while on the job.

3.2.2.11 Volunteer Work (VW↑, SS↑):

This dichotomous variable was used to measure whether or not the PMK was currently participating in any local volunteer activities at the time of sampling. It was predicted that involvement in such activities would be correlated with higher levels of social support insofar as volunteer work represents attachment to the community.

3.2.2.12 PMK Depression (SS↓, PMKdep.↑):

For this variable, a depression scale ranging from 0 to 36 assessed respondents answers to 12 questions meant to measure symptoms of depression. For the purposes of this research, scale answers were converted into the following categories: "little/no depression", "some/moderate depression" and "moderate/high depression". It was predicted that the presence of depressive symptoms would be positively correlated with lower levels of social support. In this way, low social support was hypothesized to lead to a negative affective response.

3.2.2.13 PMK Smoking (SS↓, PMKsmoke↑):

This dichotomous variable asked respondents whether they currently smoked (either daily or occasionally) or not. It was hypothesized that the emotional and mental stress associated with low social support would manifest itself in addictive habits such as smoking.

3.2.2.14 PMK Drinking (SS↑, PNKdrink↑):

An assessment of the PMKs drinking habits was done through responses to one of the following categories: "more than once a week", "once a week", "2-3 times a month", "once a month", "less than once a month" and "never". The prediction that drinking would positively correlated with social support is based upon an assumption that the activity of drinking alcohol is more often a social activity than an activity done in isolation. As such, it is more likely to be associated with the existence of a social network that is likely a source of social support.

3.2.2.15 Child Age (CA↑, SS↑):

Child age was categorized into the following groups: "0-5 years old", "6-10 years old" and "11-15 years old". It was hypothesized that the older the child age, the more social support

available to the PMK as a consequence of the interaction of the child and the community (such as child schooling and extra-curricular involvement). However, this relationship may also be reversed if preschool involves more interaction with the family and the community than school.

3.2.2.16 Child Health (SS↓, CH↓):

This variable was meant to measure the possibility of a relationship between low levels of social support available to families and child health outcomes. Specifically, it was predicted that lower levels of social support available to the PMK would correlate with lower assessments of child health. Categories included: "excellent", "very good", "good" and "fair/poor".

3.2.3 Dummy Variables

Two dummy variables were used to separate out PMKs according to family type and family income (as a measure of wealth). The use of these variables in the regression was meant to represent these different subgroups in the overall sample population.

3.2.3.1 Family Type:

A dichotomous variable was used to categorize families as either having 2 parents or 1 female parent only. Data from single parent families where the parent was a male were suppressed in the public use data file for the NLSCY in order to ensure confidentiality (NLSCY, 1999).

3.2.3.2 Income Ratio to LICO:

This variable provided an assessment of household income in relation to the LICO in 1999 that was used in this study as a filter for selecting out low-income single and dual parent populations. As a measure of poverty, the LICO takes into account factors such as family size and geographic location in determining the income level at which a family would need to spend a considerably large amount of their financial resources upon basic necessities (Government of Saskatchewan, 2002). In regards to single parent families, the LICO for a family of two living in a major city like Vancouver in 1999 was an after tax, before transfer income of $22,357.00 (Canadian Council on Social Development, 2001). However, the NLSCY used a province-wide sample which took into account different LICOs based upon the population of the families selected. It can still be reasonably assumed that the LICO used for Vancouver would be a good

approximation considering a high proportion of single parent families are found in larger urban areas like those found in the lower mainland of the province.

3.3 Analytic Strategy

Data analysis will be done through an ordinal regression using family type (single or dual parent family) and the LICO as filters to test the model for the four sub-populations (dual parent families, single parent families, dual parent families below the LICO, single parent families below the LICO).

3.3.1 Limitations

As mentioned previously, cycle 3 of the NLSCY relies upon data gathered from 1998/1999. Although the age of the data available is noteworthy, it is not considered a major limitation. It's not likely that more current data would have a significant impact on results, since the study concerns data for which trends will be expected to be slow to develop and thus become apparent over the very long term. The research concerns the relationship between social support (as defined by the social support assessment of the adult questionnaire of the NLSCY) and a variety of variables for single parent families in British Columbia. The purpose of this research was to assess differences in social support between families of differing family types (single parent or dual parent) and income levels (families below and above the LICO). The analysis therefore consisted of four separate regressions (one each for single parents, dual parents, single parents below LICO and dual parents below LICO) in order to better understand similarities and differences between these groups.

The distribution of data for the dependent variable was non-parametric and exhibited a double peaked distribution in the scores for social support, with approximately 25% rated as "12" and 29% rated as "18". This meant that a linear regression was not possible as it was not possible to transform the data into a normal distribution for use of this statistical method. After exploring the possibility of using a logistical regression model, it was concluded that it would be inappropriate. Such a model would require data transformations that would result in an extreme imbalance between measurement response rates. This is because the vast majority of reported rates of social support (approx. 91%) are between 12 and 18, making it very difficult to create a large enough measure of low social support that could be balanced in relation to either medium or high measurements. This situation also presented difficulties in attempting to create any overall dichotomous measurement as the technical half-point of the highest score for social support (a

score of "9") represented an exceedingly small number of responses (1.6%). Because of these limitations, it was decided that an ordinal regression model was the most suitable as it allowed for a categorization of scores that both limited the effect of the original dual spiked distribution while still allowing the regression to be sensitive to important differences among respondent scores.

Although the NLSCY does include a weight for the cross sectional data, the use of this weight was not possible as SPSS does not allow for use of a weighting variable inside of an ordinal regression. Attempting to use the weighting variable before the regression created a severely heightened data set that was not adequately sensitive to the strengths of differences between variables. For this reason, it was decided that the data would be un-weighted, despite the likelihood that the sample is thus not completely representative of actual population patterns. This is because un-weighted data may be biased, in that some groups in the survey population are either over or under represented. Although no weight could be applied to the data, analysis results were still considered valid since the original collection of data was based on a random sample of families from across British Columbia.

4 Results

4.1 Descriptive Findings

Descriptive findings generally mirrored the consensus reached through past research done on the effects of family type and income. Looking at census figures from 2001, in British Columbia there were over 168,000.00 single parent families and of these, over 80% were female headed households (BC Stats, 2005). With the City of Vancouver representing approximately a quarter of the population of province's population, the number of single parent families living in the city can reasonably be expected to be over 40,000. With a general trend towards urbanization being exhibited across Canada in recent decades this figure may actually be much higher. When separating the province's population by single and dual parent family type along with a separate analysis of the low-income populations within this group, the differences among these groups can be substantial. Such differences in the frequency of responses to a particular sub-category of a variable provide the context in which regression findings find meaning. For comparative reasons, valid percentages of each population were used in the analysis of findings (see Appendix B).

As expected, the number of cases differed considerably between populations, with the dual parent category being the largest (2,187) followed by single parents (472) low-income dual parents (269) and finally low-income single parents (259). The prevalence of single parent families below the LICO measure represented 55% of all single parent families sampled and this finding is consistent with current estimates. Because of this, it is important to note that a majority of single parent families are considered to live in poverty as defined by the LICO. This is in stark contrast with only 12% of dual parent families sampled living below the LICO.

Figure 4.1: Differences in Income by Family Type

Overall, whether a family is characterized as dual or single parent has a noticeable impact upon the response rates of all variables, which highlights the disadvantaged aspects of single parents in relation to dual parent families. Yet, although single parent families exhibited significantly less positive characteristics over all variables, it was impossible to see the extent to which this difference was actually due to family type and not income effects associated with single-earner households. Since such households are understandably more prone to be limited in the level of household income, analysis of the low- ncome population divide between dual and single parent populations provided better insight.

When taking into account both family type and differences in income (Using the LICO as a dividing measure), a common trend emerged in nearly all categories of variable responses. As expected, the most positive ratings (defined as the most desirable and/or correlated with successful work/family life balance) were exhibitec in the dual parent family category. Dual parent families living below the LICO had the second most positive ratings, followed by single parent families and lastly by single parent families iving below the LICO. The differences between dual parent families and single parent below LICO families were often extremely large, revealing almost near perfect opposite findings in multiple variable categories. This can be seen in comparing the most negative responses (defined as the most undesirable) among non-categorical variables.

Figure 4.2 Negative Responses among Family Types

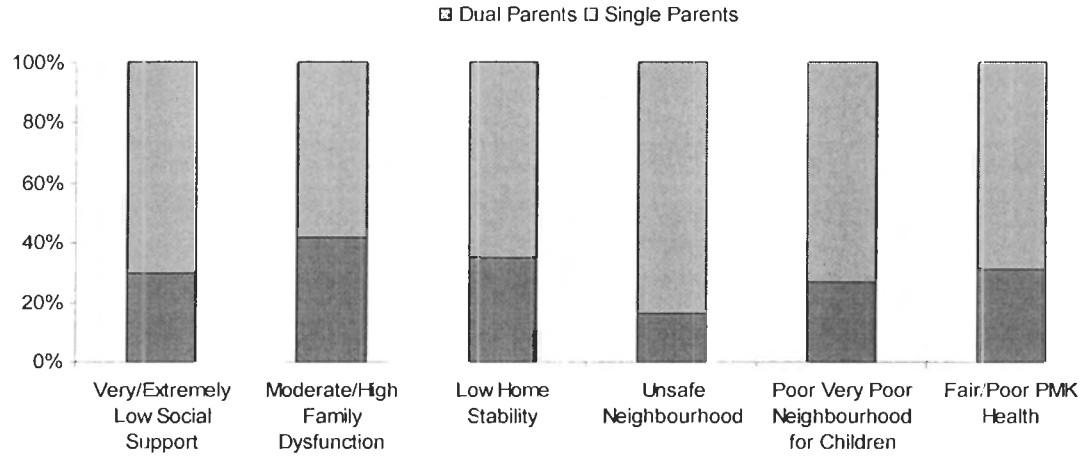
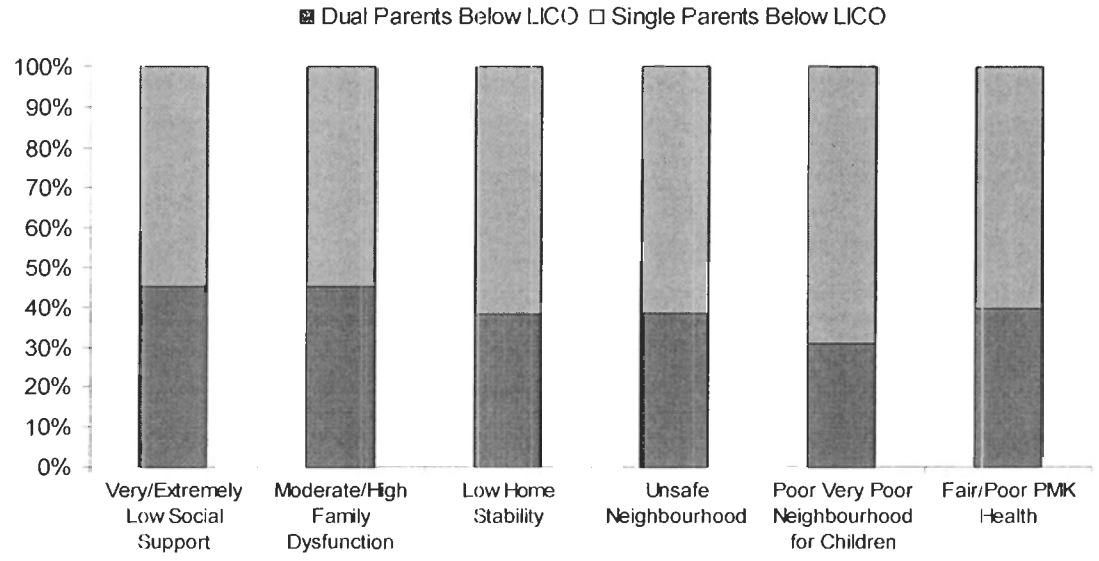


Figure 4.3: Negative Responses by Family Types under the LICO



4.1.1 Family Characteristics

The response frequencies for each variable often revealed significant differences among the different groupings In terms of social support, the percentage of single parent families who were rated as having low to very low social support were nearly three times the percentage of dual parent families. Yet among the low-income populations of these groups the difference was much smaller, indicating the importance of income level upon levels of social support available to the family. Responses to the family functioning variable by single parent families (both as a whole and those below the LICO) showed that approximately half of the respondents were rated

as having a score indicative of moderate to high family dysfunction. Among dual parent families, less family dysfunction was observed even for those of a low-income status.

Figure 4.4: Low/Very Low Social Support by Family Type and Income Level

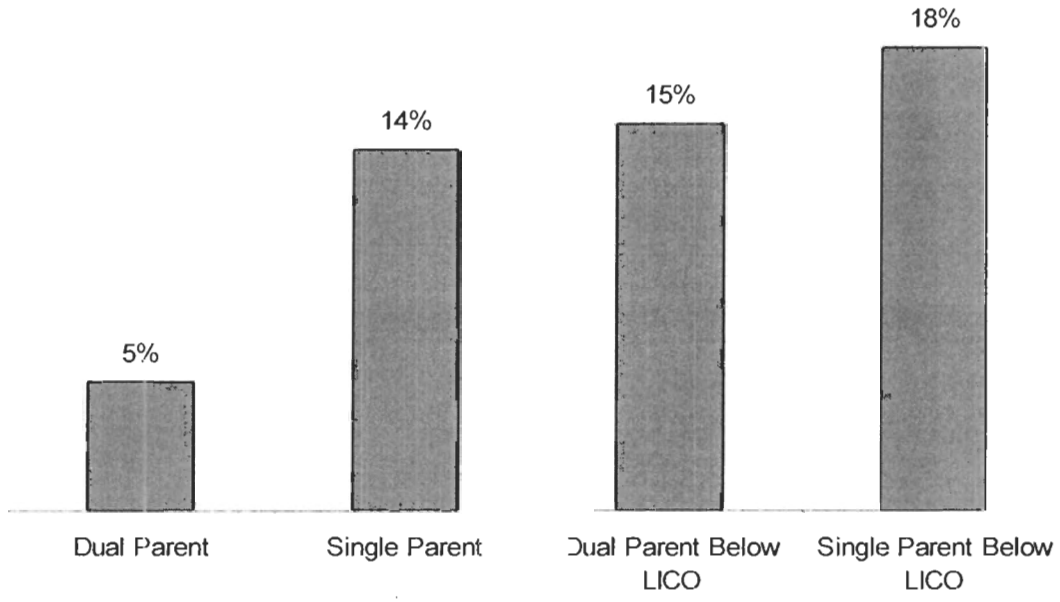
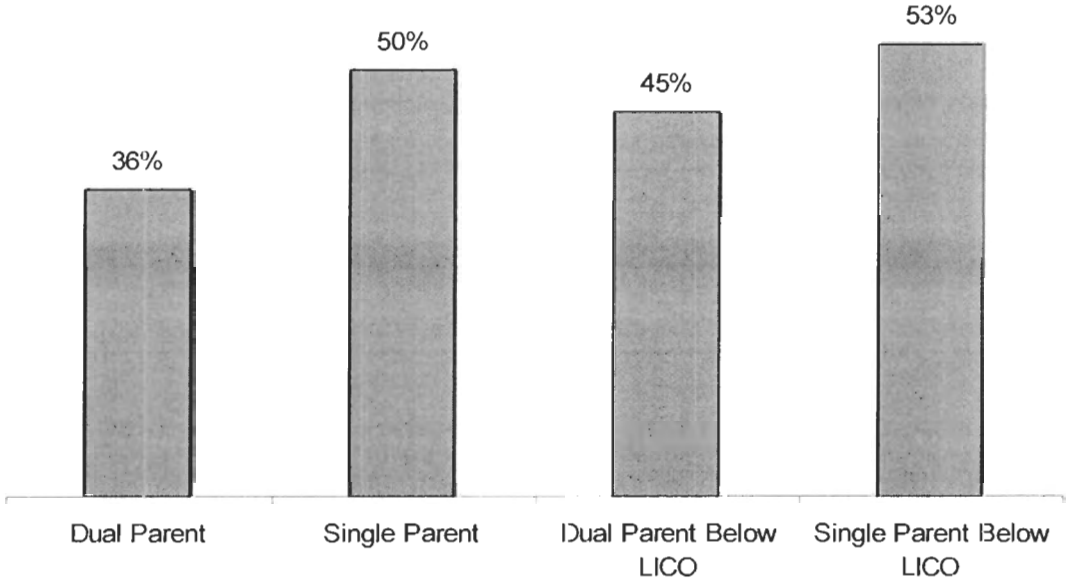


Figure 4.5: Moderate/High Family Dysfunction by Family Type and Income Level



4.1.2 Housing & Neighbourhood Characteristics

The most striking findings were observed for the variables related to home stability and ownership. Single parents much more likely to have moved in their place of residence in the last 2 years than dual parents, and this was especially true for those below the LICO (73% of respondents). As the range of difference between both single and dual parent families was mirrored in the low-income populations of these groupings, family type seemed to be a more powerful indicator of instability of residence. The related variable of home ownership had an equally telling pattern in response rates among families with single parent families below the LICO exhibiting almost exact opposite rates of home ownership than dual parents as a whole. Meanwhile, home ownership rates for dual parent families below the LICO were highly similar to single parents as a whole. Taken together, these findings emphasize the differences among family types and the effects of low-income status in exaggerating those differences even further.

Figure 4.6: Home Stability by Family Type and Income Level

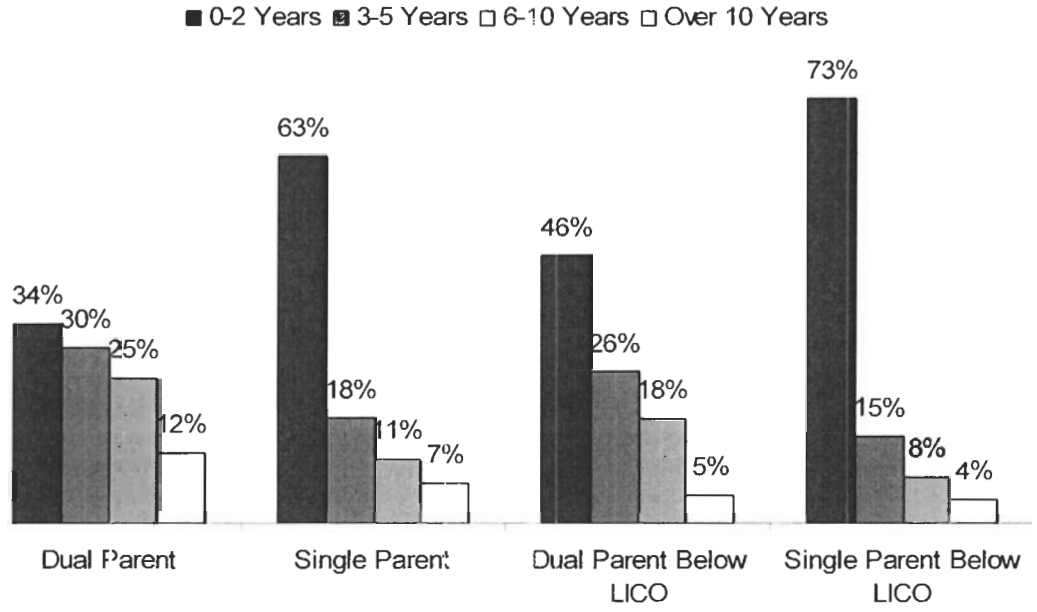
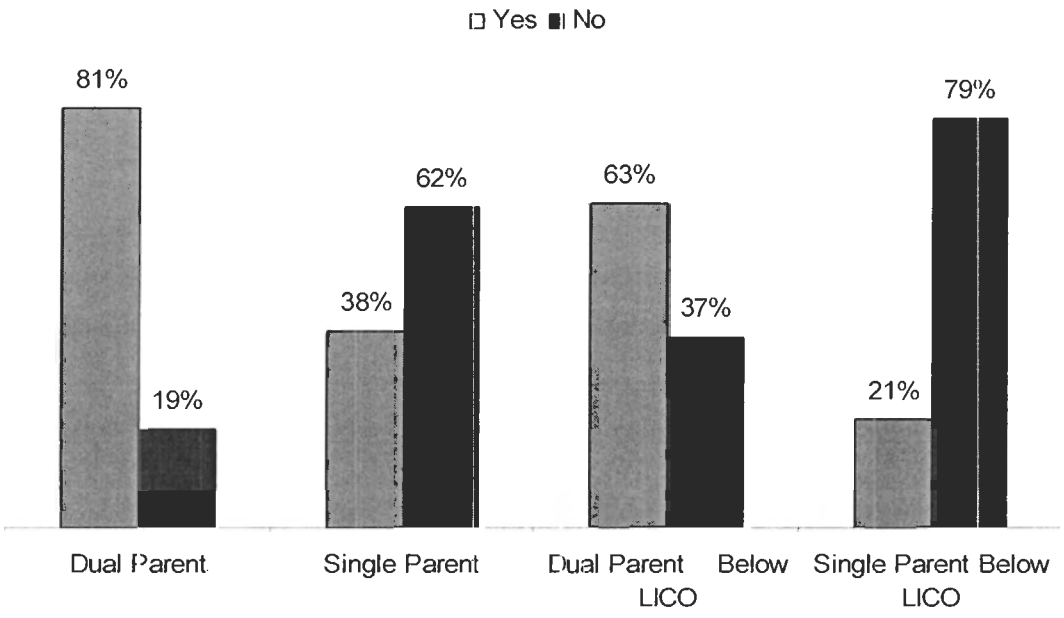


Figure 4.7: Home Ownership by Family Type and Income Level



Neighbourhood variables also showed large differences between low-income populations of dual and single parent families, particularly in regards to their assessment of their neighbourhood as a place to raise children. Single parent families below the LICO were over twice as likely to rate their neighbourhood as poor/very poor on this measure as compared to low-income dual parent families, while this latter group was also more likely to rate their neighbourhood as excellent or good. As a measure of neighbourhood cohesiveness, responses from the neighbourhood safety scale showed that the low scores (indicating low cohesiveness) of single parent families as a whole were nearly 4 times as large a dual parent families. Differences among the low-income populations of these groups were less pronounced, yet still large, as single parent families below the LICO who exhibited low scores were almost twice as common as dual parent families below the LICO.

Figure 4.8: Assessment of Neighbourhood as a Place to Raise Children by Family Type and Income Level

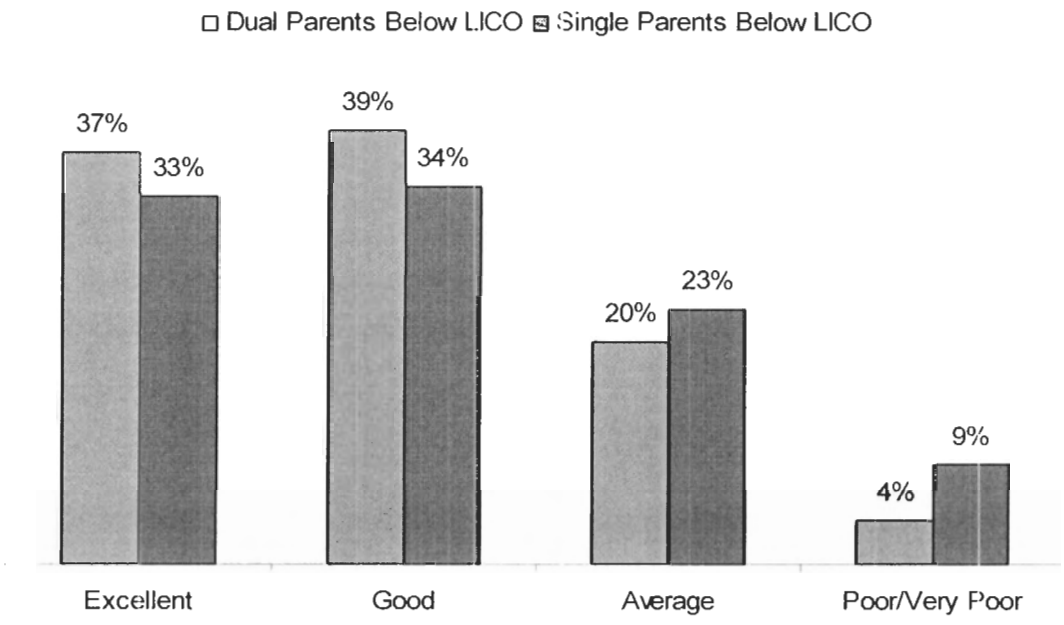
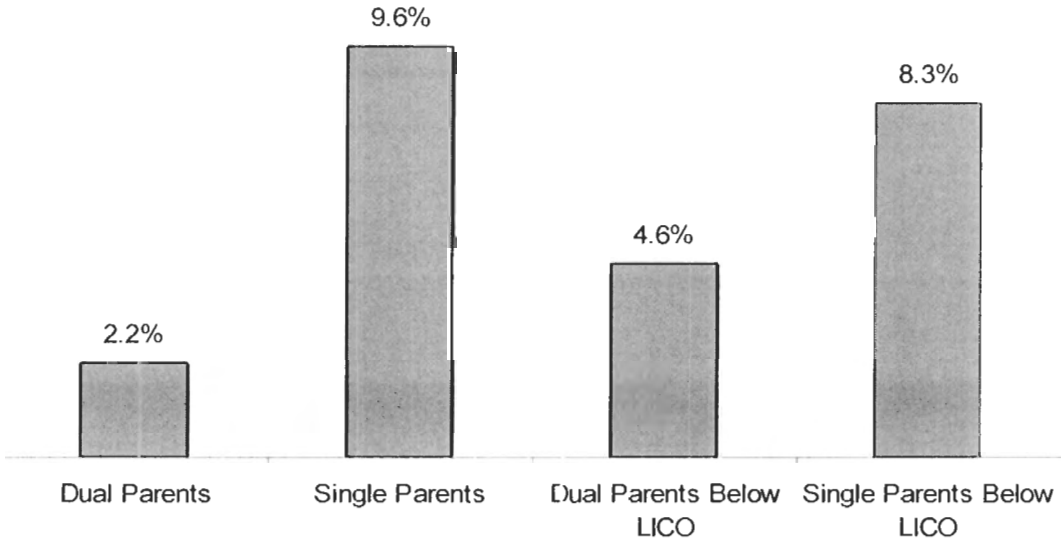


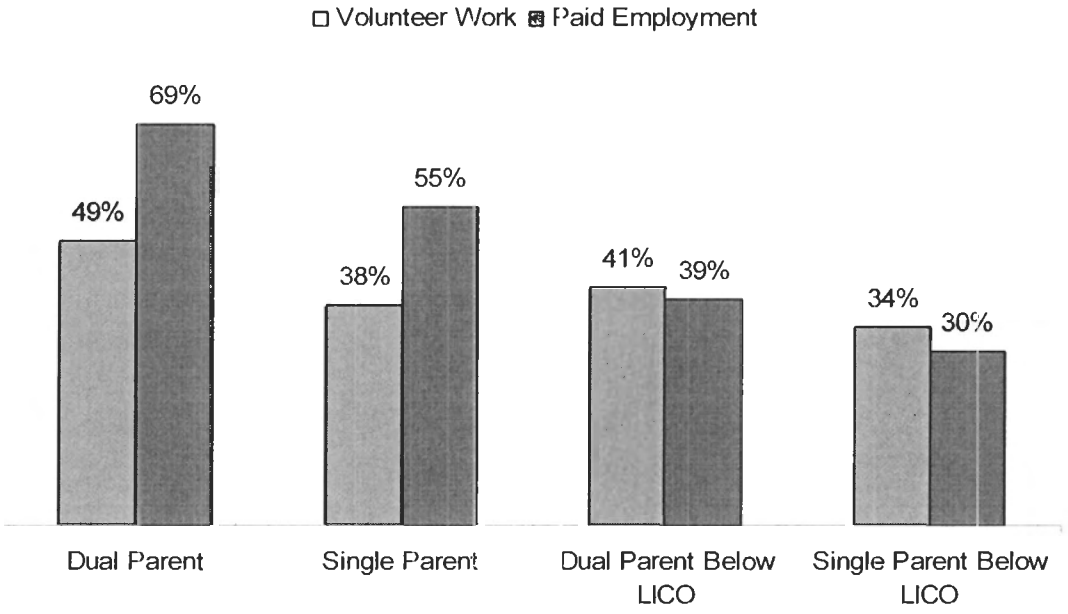
Figure 4.9: Rating of Neighbourhood as "Unsafe" by Family Type and Income Level



4.1.3 Employment & Volunteer Work

PMK's from single parent families were less likely to participate in both volunteer work and paid employment than those from dual parent families, yet the differences among these groups on these measures was not very large for the low-income populations. This underlines the lack of choice single parent families have in engaging in paid employment or volunteer activities without the support of a partner or spouse.

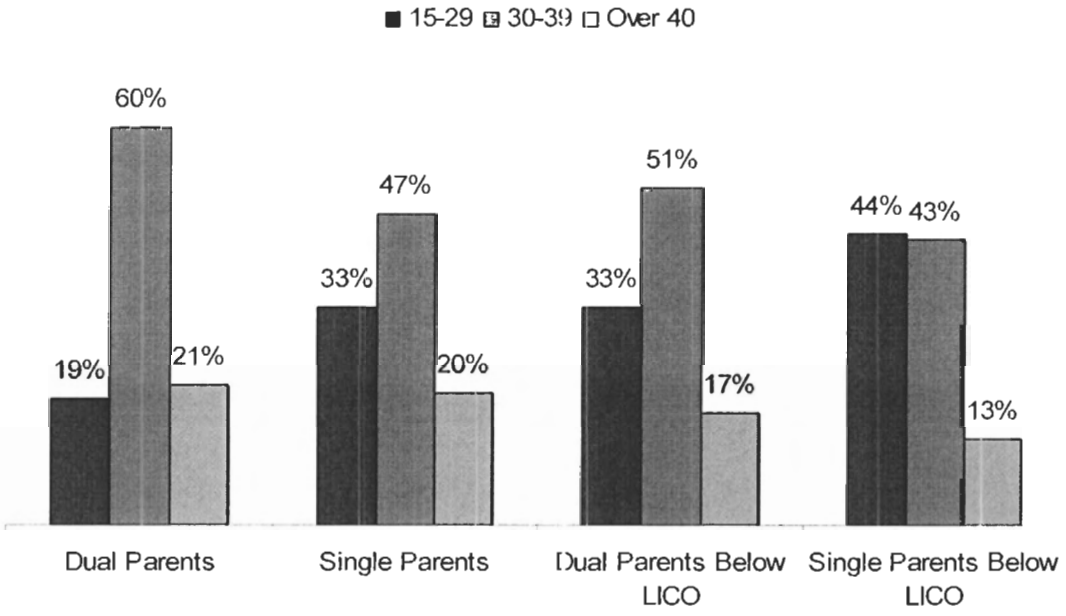
Figure 4.10: Participation in Volunteer Work and Paid Employment by Family Type and Income Level



The personal characteristics of the PMK showed the responses of single parents below the LICO to be relatively unique when compared to both dual parent families below the LICO and the general population of family types as well. One of the strongest examples of this is the relatively young age of single parents living below the LICO; nearly one half (44%) of respondents in this category were between the ages of 15 and 29, in contrast to the 33% of both PMK's from low-income dual parent households and single parents in general. Meanwhile, over half of the PMK's from dual parent families, whether as a whole or specifically restricted to those living below the LICO, were aged between 30 and 39 at the time of sampling.

4.1.4 PMK & Child Characteristics

Figure 4.11: Age of PMK by Family Type and Income Level



Single parents were generally younger in age when compared to PMKs from dual parent families, and this finding was most evident for single parent families living below the LICO as 44% reported being 15-29 years of age. With respect to PMK education level, both in general and those below the LICO, there was a high degree of post-high school education - most notably among low-income single parents who nearly matched the percentage of PMKs from the dual parent families who fell within this response category. Yet low-income single parents were also the most likely to have never completed high school as well; a finding that may be related to the relatively young age of parents within this group. Likewise, they were also the least likely of all groups to have obtained a college or university degree as well, despite having a greater percentage that completed high school than PMK's from dual parent families below the LICO. In terms of reported health, low-income single parents reported being in fair/poor health more often than any other group.

Figure 4.12: PMK Education Level by Family Type and Income Level

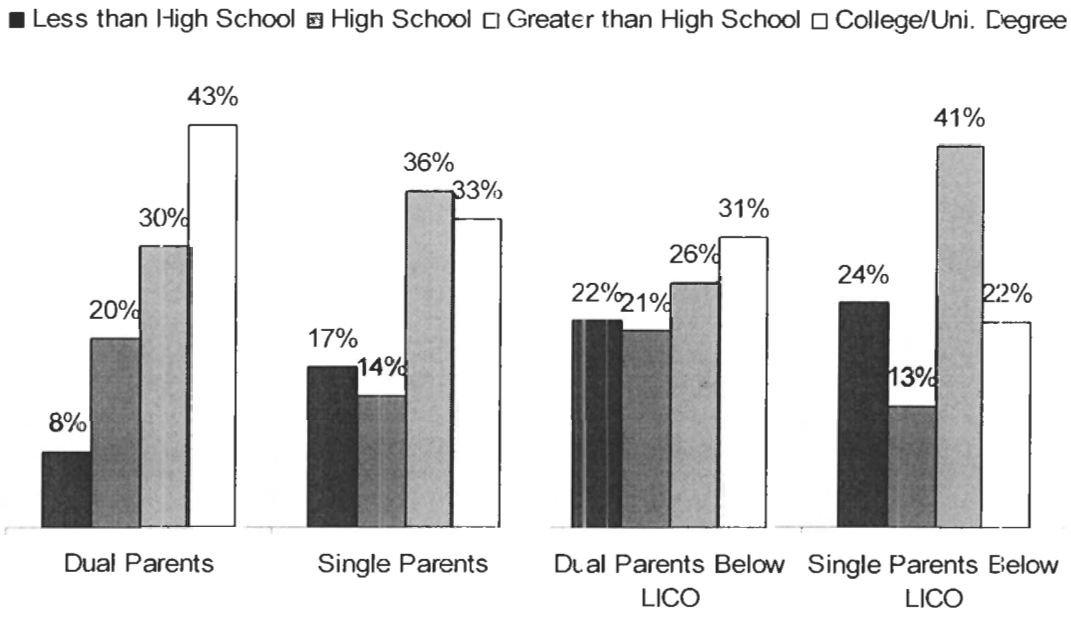
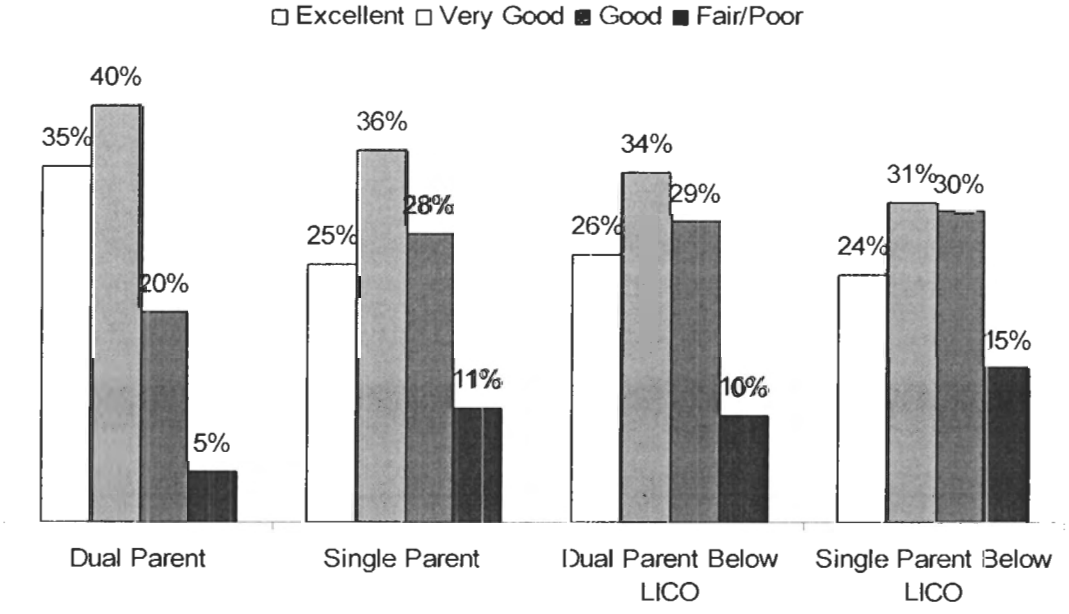


Figure 4.13: PMK General Health by Family Type and Income Level



In regards to the variables of child health and number of times the PMK has seen a medical professional concerning a child health problem, results among all groups exhibit few

differences. However, as a whole dual parents did report their child as being in excellent health slightly more often than single parents, a result that was reproduced in the low-income populations as well. Low-income single parents were also five times more likely to report their health as "Fair/Poor" than dual parents above the LICO.

4.2 Regression Analysis Findings

4.2.1 Hypotheses

The model used an ordinal regression in order to test the significance of the relationship between each variable in the model and the level of social support reported by each or the four populations. The regression used 2,659 observations to test 18 independent variables, and no multicollinearity was exhibited among any of them.

Table 4.1: Variable Hypotheses

Variable	Hypothesis: Direction of Relationship	Expected to be Significant?
Family Functioning	An increase in social support from outside the family unit would lead to an increase in the level of family functioning.	Yes
Home Stability	The more unstable the residence of the family is, the less social support available to them.	Yes
Home Ownership	The less amount of home ownership, the less social support available to the family.	Yes
Neighbourhood Safety	The less safe the PMK feels regarding their neighbourhood, the less their level of social support.	Yes
Assessment of their Neighbourhood as a Place to Raise Children	The more social support available to the PMK, the more likely they are to have positive views of their neighbourhood as a place to raise children.	Yes
Use of Health Professionals	The less social support available to the PMK, the less likely they are to contact a medical professional concerning a child health problem.	Yes
PMK Age	The younger the PMK, the less their social support.	Yes
PMK General Health	The higher the level of social support, the better the health of the PMK.	Yes
PMK Education	The less educated the PMK, the less social support available to them.	Yes
PMK Working Status	If the PMK is employed, they will have more social support.	No

Variable	Hypothesis: Direction of Relationship	Expected to be Significant?
PMK Volunteer Work	The more the PMK volunteers, the more social support available to them.	Yes
PMK Depression	The less social support available to the PMK, the more likely they are to exhibit symptoms of depression.	Yes
PMK Smoking	The less social support available to the PMK, the more likely they are to smoke cigarettes.	Yes
PMK Drinking	The more social support available to the PMK, the more likely they are to drink.	Yes
Child Age	The older the child of the PMK, the more social support available to them.	No
Child Health	The less social support available to the PMK, the less healthy the child will be.	Yes

4.2.2 Summary of Findings

Significant positive relationships were found for neighbourhood safety & family functioning across all populations, while negative assessments of neighbourhood as a place to bring up children were correlated with a decrease in social support among low-income single parents. High rates of housing instability were significantly correlated with lower reported levels of social support among single parent families living below the LICO. The incidence of smoking was correlated with low social support among this group as well. Single parents both above and below the LICO showed a positive relationship between alcohol consumption. This was observed in a more limited finding for dual parents as well. No significance was found for whether the parent was currently working or not.

Table 4.2: Regression Output of Variables in the Equation

Variable	Dual Parents		Single Parents		D.P. Below LICO		S.P. Below LICO	
	Sig.	Est	Sig.	Est	Sig.	Est	Sig.	Est
Family Functioning:								
Little/None	**0.000**	**2.43**	**0.000**	**2.11**	**0.000**	**2.58**	**0.000**	**2.14**
Some/Moderate	**0.000**	**0.99**	**0.000**	**1.15**	**0.000**	**1.69**	**0.004**	**1.17**
Moderate/High	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**

Variable	Dual Parents		Single Parents		D.P. Below LICO		S.P. Below LICO	
Home Stability:								
0-2 Years	0.228	-0.20	0.134	0.66	0.961	0.03	**0.024**	**1.76**
3-5	0.326	-0.16	0.460	0.34	0.371	0.65	**0.011**	**2.15**
6-10	0.345	-0.15	0.626	0.24	0.733	0.25	**0.025**	**2.16**
>10	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	**0.00**
Home Ownership:								
Yes	0.663	-0.06	0.548	0.15	0.116	-0.54	0.504	-0.25
No	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
Neighbourhood Safety:								
Unsafe	**0.000**	**-1.27**	**0.000**	**-1.86**	**0.003**	**-2.56**	**0.000**	**-3.07**
Somewhat Safe	**0.000**	**-0.85**	**0.001**	**-0.86**	**0.000**	**-1.39**	**0.001**	**-1.26**
Very Safe	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**	.	**0.00**
Neighbourhood Assessment as a Place for Children:								
Excellent	0.841	0.06	0.332	-0.46	0.059	1.84	0.372	-0.56
Good	0.536	-0.19	0.085	-0.76	0.080	1.67	**0.010**	**-1.53**
Average	0.502	-0.21	0.068	-0.83	0.094	1.63	**0.030**	**-1.31**
Poor/Very Poor	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	**0.00**
Use of Health Professionals:								
0-1 Times/Year	0.059	-0.22	**0.015**	**-0.68**	0.705	-0.14	0.165	-0.54
2-3	0.643	-0.06	**0.011**	**-0.74**	0.133	0.62	0.185	-0.54
>3	.	0.00	.		.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Age:								
15-29	0.138	-0.25	0.088	-0.63	0.173	0.65	0.143	-0.84
30-39	**0.015**	**-0.30**	0.696	-0.12	0.379	-0.39	**0.043**	**-1.08**
>40	.	**0.00**	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	**0.00**
PMK General Health:								
Excellent	**0.012**	**0.59**	0.459	0.33	0.114	1.04	0.489	-0.41
Very Good	0.095	0.38	0.264	0.46	0.834	0.13	0.940	-0.04
Good	0.271	0.26	0.170	0.55	0.467	-0.44	0.439	0.41

Variable	Dual Parents		Single Parents		D.P. Below LICO		S.P. Below LICO	
Fair/Poor	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Education Level:								
< High School	**0.000**	**-0.97**	0.142	-0.48	**0.023**	**-1.06**	0.261	-0.52
High School	**0.009**	**-0.32**	**0.001**	**-1.27**	0.094	-0.71	**0.006**	**-1.57**
> More Than High School	**0.034**	**-0.23**	0.520	-0.17	0.091	-0.70	0.312	0.44
College/ University Degree	.	**0.00**	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Working Status:								
Working	0.498	0.07	0.491	-0.17	0.674	-0.13	0.342	-0.34
Not Working	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Volunteering:								
Yes	**0.000**	**0.34**	0.550	0.14	0.351	0.29	0.361	0.32
No	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Depression:								
Little/None	**0.026**	**0.38**	0.995	0.00	0.788	0.13	0.371	0.38
Some/Moderate	**0.023**	**0.43**	0.551	0.18	0.533	-0.36	0.533	0.26
Moderate/High	.	**0.00**	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
PMK Smoking:								
Yes	0.988	0.00	0.084	-0.43	0.579	0.20	**0.030**	**-0.77**
No	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	**0.00**
PMK Drinking:								
> Once a Week	0.165	0.22	**0.006**	**1.30**	0.875	-0.09	**0.038**	**1.88**
Once a Week	0.102	0.26	0.078	0.71	0.962	-0.03	**0.028**	**1.30**
2-3 Times a Month	0.099	0.26	0.954	0.02	0.655	0.29	0.538	-0.34
Once a Month	0.989	0.00	0.642	0.17	0.682	-0.24	0.778	0.14
< Once a Month	**0.004**	**0.36**	**0.020**	**0.76**	0.579	0.20	0.791	-0.12
Never	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00
Child Age:								
0-5 Years	0.914	-0.02	0.449	-0.28	0.912	-0.07	0.384	-0.67
6-10	0.752	-0.05	0.416	-0.32	0.835	0.13	0.177	-1.10
11-15	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00

Variable	Dual Parents		Single Parents		D.P. Below LICO		S.P. Below LICO	
Child Health:								
Excellent	0.703	0.13	0.527	0.42	0.231	-0.95	0.319	0.96
Very Good	0.747	-0.11	0.832	0.14	0.810	-0.19	0.431	0.76
Good	0.549	0.21	0.518	0.46	0.442	-0.69	0.256	1.15
Fair/Poor	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.00

The strong correlations across all populations between reported levels of social support and the variables of neighbourhood safety and family functioning scores indicates that the presence of social support is related to the internal health of the family unit and their perceptions regarding the neighbourhood in which they live. Although the direction of these relationships are not revealed, it is possible that low levels of social support can negatively affect the internal health of the family. Similarly, the less safe the neighbourhood in which a family lives may mean they are less likely to develop social networks that can offer social support.

The variables of PMK age and education level also showed some significance in their relationship with the dependent variable and give some insight into how such characteristics are related to available levels of social support. Interestingly, single parents aged between 30 and 39 years old were correlated with a significant decrease in their reported levels of social support. This is possibly as a consequence of factors associated with developmental life stages experienced during this period such as independence from the family home and employment demands associated with early adulthood. These factors may limit the amount of social support available to this age group through an especially acute lack of time and/or movement away from family or earlier social networks. Somewhat surprisingly, single parents who achieved high school graduation without the addition of some form of post-secondary education are seen to exhibit significantly lower social support ratings compared to single parents who did not graduate from high school. However, it is important to remember that this group was also the smallest in number, comprising only 13% of the low-income single parent population or approximately just over 30 individuals. Results using a small sample size such as this may be not be considered representative due to the possible presence of individuals whose social support scores were much lower than the average for this population.

Although the variable of PMK general health did not provide any significant results, variables related to their health status such as smoking and drinking did. Findings show a significant relationship between low-income single parents that smoke and a lowered social support score. These findings support claims that the related factors of isolation and poverty give

rise to substance abuse problems through the use of such substances as coping mechanisms (Health Canada, 2004). This is noteworthy since although the self-reported general health variable showed no significant relationship with the dependent, a correlation between low levels of social support and an addictive and unhealthy habit such as smoking does. In this way, a lack of social support can be related to proven negative health outcomes later in life such as cancer and emphysema. In regards to the significant relationships observed between an increase in the dependent and drinking alcohol once a week or more, a very different explanation is required. Alcohol consumption can be indicative of use as a coping mechanism in response to life stressors or as a social activity done in the presence of a social network. Seeing as such consumption was correlated in this case with higher levels of social support, the latter explanation appears to be more plausible.

Although an increased use of health professionals concerning a child health matter was correlated with an increase in social support scores among single parents as a whole, the same finding was not found among the low-income sub-population of this group. This finding possibly reveals differences on this measure between single parents above and below the LICO. If this is true, this finding supports the conclusion that single parents whose incomes are higher than the LICO are more likely to contact a health professional concerning a child health problem. Since above-LICO single parents also reported higher social support scores, this relationship between income and the use of health professionals is exhibited through their relationship with the dependent. Conversely, a case could be made that single parents who report higher levels of social support are more likely to contact health professionals over a child health problem and this finding is revealed in the population of single parents as a whole because these parents are also more likely to be above the LICO. Because of the confounding nature of these variables, it is impossible to tell which story is true since both increased levels of social support and income have been linked to improved health choices (Glanz et al, 2002) (Hsu et al, 2005).

The most powerful findings concerning single parent families are their high rate of home instability found among those living below the LICO and the significant relationship this has with decreased levels of social support. This strongly indicates that such instability of residence is a barrier to social capital generation among this population. Providing shelter that is stable and desirable is a primary expense to any family, and it is therefore likely to be considerably more difficult for many single parent families. Issues related to housing affordability and availability have the potential to severely limit the ability of single parents families to purchase housing that

establishes stability of residence and offers a better potential for attachment to the community and opportunities to make social capital investments.

It should be noted, that these findings only apply to low-income single parent families who have moved residence in the last 10 years. Those who have stayed in their current home for more than ten years exhibited the lowest social support scores of all. These findings, possibly due to issues related to the creation of intergenerational poverty through residential segregation as being born into and living in poor neighbourhoods, increase the likelihood of living in such neighbourhoods as an adult (Pebly & Sastry, 2003).

Not surprisingly, the vast majority of the single parent families in this sample were renters which was in line with the finding that most female-headed households pay a large and continually increasing proportion of income on rent (McCracken & Watson, 2005). In Vancouver, low vacancy rates are a major contributor to rising rental costs, as landowners are able to charge higher rental rates due to increased demand. Related research has shown housing instability to be a causal factor in children from single-parent families having less desirable educational and personality outcomes (on average) than children from dual parent families (Coleman, Downs & Ganong, 2000). The fact that women head the vast majority of these households is also worth remembering since studies show that an inability to find housing led women (and their children) to stay in unsafe and abusive environments (McCracken & Watson, 2005).

It is no surprise then that although safety is likely to be a primary concern for single parent families when choosing where to live, finding safe and supportive communities to live is complicated due to their low amount of financial capital. This is a very probable explanation for the low neighbourhood assessments as places to raise children exhibited exclusively among this population. Combined, these factors may limit the establishment of social networks, decrease the amount of social capital available to families and sow the seeds of dysfunction during periods of transition for the family.

Findings also highlight the importance of home stability and positive environments in the building of social capital for single parent families. High levels of housing instability such as that observed among low-income single parent families can lead to difficulties in creating social support networks. As indicated by previous research, such networks are an important component in the creation of social capital; a resource that is integral to the management of work and family life commitments for a majority of single parent families. This lack of social support may in turn affect their assessment of their neighbourhood due to the combined effects of poverty and

isolation. However, it may also be the case that single parent families tend to live in neighbourhoods with high vacancy and low rental rates, yet suffer from high rates of crime and a general lack of social cohesion as is often exhibited in such places. This explanation seems more probable due to the very low-income status of this population combined with an equally low level of home ownership.

5 Policy Alternatives

Research findings from the NLSCY revealed high levels of housing instability as a significant barrier to the building of social support among a large number of single parent families. Since this lack of attachment to their community is interpreted in the research to negatively effect their generation of social capital, the following alternatives seek to increase their attachment through various means. The context for the alternatives is the city of Vancouver as the City was the client for this study. Status quo was not considerable a viable option as the attachment of the majority of single parents to their communities is currently quite weak. This can be seen through their instability of residence, low participation in volunteer activities or negative neighbourhood assessments. Policy alternatives were therefore developed with a goal of increasing the attachment of low-income single parent families to their community.

One of the problems in evaluating the various alternatives is that one of the significant alternatives involves a one time capital cost, while the others require annual operating costs. In order for the alternatives to be comparable in regards to cost and scale, it was necessary to develop a way to evaluate each of the alternatives taking into account scale and differing measures of cost. In order to address the problem, a simple cost effectiveness model was used. $50 million is the estimated cost of the option of preserving mixed market housing in the South East False Creek Official Development Plan of the City of Vancouver. The equivalent operating funds for the other options are treated as being equal to the interest that could be expected to be earned from keeping the $50 million within the Property Endowment Fund at an annual interest rate of 5%. Forgoing the alternative of preserving the current SEFC ODP, all other alternatives are treated as costing the equivalent of the interest gained upon leaving the $50 million within the PEF. In this way, alternatives can be evaluated on the basis of relative effectiveness for comparable costs.

Of course not all of the alternatives would be optimally provided at an annual expenditure of $2.5 million. Thus after having examined the options using the outline method, the alternatives were further evaluated to take into account the possibility that annual expenditures of $2.5 million would, in some cases, lead to diminishing effectiveness beyond some optimal level.

5.1.1 Community Outreach through a Parent Learning Program Funded by Direct Social Service Grant's Innovations Program.

Currently, the City of Vancouver provides Community Service Grants to non-profit organizations. This is done in order to ensure the social services they provide give equitable access, increase success and further integrate the policies and priorities of the City with community service providers (City of Vancouver, 2005). The grants are meant to create partnerships with community organizations and meet the social planning goal of working collaboratively in pursuit of positive social change. One of three categories of these grants are the Direct Social Services Grants. In 2005 council approved funding for a specific stream of direct social service grants under a new program called the Innovation Program. This program offers grants which are meant to fund new and creative programs that seek to address social problems and support community development. Such programs are an important part of building the social capacity of communities to allow for greater social capital development among resident families.

The City of Vancouver can help to facilitate the attachment of single parent families to their communities through promoting community engagement in the form of parent learning programs. One way this can be done is to introduce specific grant funding under this new Innovations Program for an innovative parent learning program that is meant to increase human capital through adult learning while at the same time setting the context for social interactions among single parents. The overall goal would be to strengthen the relationship between these families and the communities where they live with the content of the programs tailored to their specific needs.

An example of this approach can be seen in the work of Washington State University's Cooperative Extension "Family Focus" project that was originally designed to focus on problems associated with at-risk youth in the West Central neighbourhood of Spokane, Washington (Donovan, 1998). The main philosophy of the 5-year project was to build upon assets that already existed within the community with the first objective being to strengthen relationships between and within families. This was done through life skills training on issues that families in the community had reported an interest in learning such as how to better manage money, resolve conflict, parenting skills and time management. With one of the aims being to combat social isolation among families, information regarding the classes was disseminated largely by word of mouth among parents of school-age children (who predictably were mostly women). Classes were taught inside people's homes (in order to better address childcare and transportation needs)

by facilitators who had a proven ability to communicate effectively with neighbourhood residents including the Native American sub-population. Importantly, the classes created a safe forum for parents with similar needs and objectives to interact and socialize.

This had the effect of increasing the attachment of these parents to their community in part by expanding their number of social contacts. Besides being commended by a number of foundations and the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the reported success of the project over its 5-year timeline included:

> ...a 56 percent increase in time spent directly with children, a 40 percent decrease in television watching, a 70 percent increase in self-improvement activities, and a 116 percent increase in parents working or going to school. Parents spent 40,963 hours volunteering for community activities, equivalent to four full-time employees. The school turnover rate and the number of child abuse cases came down significantly. (Donovan, 1998)

By playing an active role in strengthening the family, the Family Focus project increased the connections between families and their community. Using programs like this as a model for grant funding to create such a program in Vancouver could replicate the Family Focus project and increase the attachment of single parents to their community. This can happen through cooperative engagement in addressing barriers such as a lack of awareness, time constraints and factors related to social isolation and the stigmatization involved with being considered poor. It would also offer the opportunity for social inclusion through interactions with individuals or groups, the dissemination of useful information or referrals, targeted education programs and the encouragement of financial, human and social capital creation (Green, 2001).

5.1.2 Increase Funding for the Vancouver Childcare Grants Program

The City of Vancouver's Civic Childcare Grants Program contributes to the social capacity of Vancouver communities by striving to create affordable, accessible and high-quality childcare services that seek to offer more childcare choices for low-income families (Blown & Young, 2005). This has resulted in city-sponsored provision of childcare spaces that cater to many low-income families. The benefits afforded to low-income single parent families through such a program have the potential to increase the attachment of such families by assisting them in achieving a better work-life balance through sharing in their parenting responsibilities. Ideally, the services offered by this program would help single parent increase their human capital through education or financial capital through entrance into the labour market, movement from part time towards full time employment or pursuing better employment opportunities. Children

may also benefit through the quality of care provided and increased social interactions with other children.

A goal of accessibilty in childcare means that program access is ensured for all families regardless of their level of income or whether they are employed or not. Childcare is meant to be made affordable through this program by ensuring that the cost of childcare for the parent is relatively small and can be further subsidized for low income parents (Blown & Young, 2005). The viability of the current system is highly dependent upon public funding as high fees exclude those families of a low-income status while low wages for childcare staff threatens levels of quality. Currently, the program is targeted towards situations of high need and although the idea of a universal system of childcare is supported by the council, grant funding is limited to those programs concerning high need situations in which the fees charged do not exceed city averages.

An increase of $2.5 million in the funding for the Civic Childcare Grants Program would more than triple the existing budget and help to significantly expand the supportive capacity of communities and benefit both the child and adult in low-income single parent families. Assisting parents in their childcare responsibilities directly benefits children by ensuring quality care that has a positive impact on healthy brain development and school readiness (City of Vancouver, 2002). Childcare assistance also helps to support the labour force participation of the parent by easing the tensions between balancing their employment and parenting objectives. Childcare is a key aspect of creating supportive communities for this population as it has the potential to significantly limit the dual disadvantages of single parenthood. By facilitating a better work-life balance, these parents have an increased potential to raise their employment earnings and lower their risk of living in poverty. Such an outcome would help to increase their attachment to the community by providing the opportunity for a more stable stream of financial resources to meet the expenses of providing stability in housing arrangements.

5.1.3 Increased Funding and Greater Priority for Services to Single Parents through Neighbourhood Organizations

As a sub-category of the Community Services Grants program, Neighbourhood Organization Grants seek to fund the work of neighbourhood-based organizations in responding to social issues in order to improve the strength of local neighbourhoods (City of Vancouver, 2005). The main priority in the use of these grants is to help fund programs or services to residents who are disadvantaged either socially, physically or economically and those who are discriminated against. This is done in the hopes of limiting the negative consequences of such

disadvantage and involving these groups in efforts to create positive change. Grant funding is calculated by an assessment of whether the services offered by the organization are in line with one or a number of outlined priorities. Accordingly, those services that meet a high number of priority objectives will be more likely to receive funding than those that only meet a few. Priority objectives therefore have the potential to target funding towards increasing the supportive capacity of the community specifically towards single parent families.

A common example of neighbourhood organizations are neighbourhood houses that offer a wide range of services, some of which are directed at low-income families such as single parent families. Examples include parenting classes, one on one support, childcare, family activities such as family weekends and other events that promote social contact among families. Services like these are important for low-income single parent families since they typically have fewer resources to draw upon when responding to the demands of work and family life than two parent families. They can also help to combat some of the underlying determinants of poverty such as low levels of education and intergenerational factors. Gordon Neighbourhood House, in Vancouver's West End, even caters directly to single parent mothers through its Single Mothers' Support Group service (ANH, 2005). These organizations rely heavily upon government funding along with donations from the general public and charitable foundations.

By increasing funding and the priority of providing services specifically related to single parent families, the result would be more services directed at single parent families that are more numerous or wider in their scope. Greater funding of the supportive capacity of neighbourhood organizations towards single parent families may result in creating stronger ties between this population and the community in which they live through the assistance such services offer.

5.1.4 Preserve the Mixed Model of Housing for the Southeast False Creek Development Plan

In recent months, Vancouver city council has been reviewing modifications to the Official Development Plan (ODP) for the Southeast False Creek (SEFC) area to be completed by 2010. As it stands now, the ODP includes an integrated housing mix of affordable, modest market (or middle income) and market housing. Preserving this mixed model of housing for the SEFC ODP would seek to provide better stability in the living conditions of low-income single parent families.

A lack of mixed housing in a high-demand housing market like Vancouver translates into families being segregated according to wealth, a situation that for the majority of single parent

families means that they are concentrated within poorer neighbourhoods (Covell, 2004). Family attachment to these neighbourhoods is likely to be low since these areas are less desirable places than wealthier neighbourhoods, are often less safe and offer a reduced range of services for both the child and parent. By increasing the affordability of housing over a range of income levels within areas that are desirable to families, low-income single parent families can create attachments to their community that otherwise would not happen when forced to live in poorer areas that have a limited social capacity. As a major development project based on the rezoning of industrial land for residential use, the current plan of mixed housing options for the SEFC represents a rare opportunity to create housing that was affordable to low-income single parent's families without segregating these families into poorer neighbourhoods with a low social capacity.

Currently, only half of the 20% target of social housing in the False Creek basin has been achieved with a substantial amount of land in the Southeast False Creek area in the process of being developed (Andrews, Bayne & Smith, 2006).. The SEFC ODP was first proposed in May 2003 in regards to land that was owned by the City as part of its Property Endowment Fund (PEF). The overall vision for the development was built upon the SEFC Policy Statement, which outlined the use of these lands as a place:

> ...in which people live, work, play and learn in a neighbourhood that has been designed to maintain and balance the highest possible levels of social equity, livability, ecological health and economic prosperity, so as to support their choices to live in a sustainable manner. (Andrews, Bayne & Smith, 2006, pg.7)

The original ODP proposed in February 2004 planned to use the current 20% target of housing units as affordable housing with a requirement that 35% be for families (Andrews, Bayne & Smith, 2006). In July of that same year, City Council changed the proposal to reflect the original 1973 policy of requiring mixed housing for housing units so that 1/3 was to be designated as low income, 1/3 as middle income and the remaining 1/3 as market housing. This version of the ODP was adopted in March of 2005, but since January of 2006 City Council has begun to pursue a reversal of this requirement towards the original 20% social housing on the site, with an objective of this being increased to 33% dependent on alternative funding (such as senior government funding).

Since 1973 the number of affordable housing units available to low-income single parent families has been steadily shrinking just as the prevalence of this population has been rapidly growing. Now, there is currently no senior government funding for social housing beyond that

directed towards frail seniors. Preserving the previous changes to the SEFC ODP would increase the amount of social housing available to single parent families living below the LICO after years of dramatic decreases. Such an objective is in line with the vision of the SEFC as a place that strives to "...maintain and balance the highest possible levels of social equity..." (Andrews, Bayne & Smith, 2006, pg. 7) through helping to increase the attachment of single parent families to the community through affordable housing arrangements.

5.2 Key Considerations for Policy Alternatives

An evaluation of different policy options was done through use of the criteria of social sustainability, political acceptability, equity, administrative feasibility and social feasibility. Together, these criteria determined how well a particular policy option would achieve the goal of improving the social connections between low-income single parent families and their communities in the Vancouver area. This section offers brief descriptions of each criteria and how they were measured.

5.2.1 Social Sustainability

The consideration of social sustainability asks whether the alternative contributes to overall community health by understanding its impact upon the well-being of the residents of Vancouver through the calculation of social costs and benefits. It is concerned with the indirect costs of the alternative such as the social impacts upon certain groups in society and the financial costs associated with these impacts over the long term. The Consideration is meant to measure how well the alternative meets the basic needs of Vancouver residents, how well it contributes to the development of human capital and the extent to which it supports the social capacity of communities (City of Vancouver, 2006). Meeting basic needs is particularly concerned with the provision of appropriate and affordable housing options but also includes healthcare, employment opportunities, adequate income and safety in the community and workplace. Human capital development is concerned with the availability of opportunities in the areas of educational upgrading, life-long learning, a variety of employment opportunities and places and programs that promote cultural, recreation and leisure activities. Social capacity is related to the previous understanding advanced in this paper as it supports improvement in the family-environments fit as it sees the community as a place for families to have opportunities for social interaction while also benefiting from supportive community organizations and networks.

As a specific measure for single parent families of a low-income status, this criterion is used as a measure of the effectiveness of the alternative in increasing social capital through promoting better family attachment to the community. Strengthening the family-environment fit is meant to increasing the supportive capacity of the community. This is based upon the research findings that reveal home stability and positive neighbourhood assessments as significant factors in predicting the amount of social capital available to low-income single parent families. Accordingly, each alternative is measured both by the approximate number of low-income single parents it is likely to benefit as well as the strength of the benefit in fostering greater community attachment. The combination of these two measures, one quantitative the other qualitative, determines whether the alternative is ranked as low, medium or high in regards to its level of social sustainability.

5.2.2 Political Acceptability

Understanding the extent to which a policy alternative is politically acceptable is necessary in determining how feasible it will be seen to be among the relevant decision makers and stakeholders. Gauging acceptance within the political context involves assessing both the level of opposition and support towards the alternative in question as the political environment ultimately determines which policies are advanced and which are not. Therefore, the combined values, beliefs and preferences of individual actors and stakeholder groups together comprise the political climate in which the alternative is judged and how well the alternative fits within this context greatly decides its success in being adopted. Acceptability is measured by past council judgements on the issue of or related issues, or with a comparison with similar judgements from other jurisdictions.

5.2.3 Equity

The consideration of equity in evaluating a policy alternative involves determining who benefits from the adoption of the alternative and who does not. Specifically, consideration of equity means identifying the group(s) to whom the trade-offs involved with the alternative are most likely to represent a negative or positive result. How benefits and burdens are shared among the population is important in understanding the implications associated with a particular course of action, particularly in regards to the calculation of social and economic costs.

5.2.4 Administrative Feasibility

The question of whether the alternative represents a feasible option is more than the acceptability of public, private and political actors. Also important in determining feasibility is understanding how well the alternative can be implemented within the context of existing administrative constraints. Consideration of administrative feasibility requires a comparison of the existing administrative capacities with the administrative demands of the alternative with consideration of the resources required to undertake the alternative, the commitment and accountability of staff during its implementation and whether the alternative is within the authority of the City. As such, administrative feasibility is concerned with outlining what it will take to undertake the alternative and as such, even if it is highly desirable on other measures, the expected success of the alternative may be very limited due to difficulties in the implementation process.

5.2.5 Social Feasibility

The perceptions held by individuals and groups in society must be taken into account when introducing policies directed towards low income single parents. Social feasibility represents an important consideration is assessing compliance to the alternative among public and private stakeholders. Strong, mobilized opposition by residents, advocacy groups and/or private businesses has the potential to decrease support for the implementation of the alternative. There may also be significant spill-over effects associated with high levels of opposition that affect the political acceptability of the alternative as well. Approximate measurement of the amount of support or opposition the alternative generates can be taken from reactions to the alternative in the past either here in Vancouver or in other jurisdiction where similar alternatives have been proposed.

5.3 Evaluation of the Alternatives

5.3.1 Community Outreach through a Parent Learning Program Funded by Direct Social Service Grant's Innovations Program

Social Sustainability: With an approximate cost of $2000.00 per family for enrolment in this program, the alternative would serve 1,250 low income families. Looking at the nearly equal number of single parent families and dual parent families living below the LICO seen in the

NLSCY sample used in this study, approximately 625 low-income single parent families are estimated to be served by this alternative.

Based upon the experience of the Family Focus Project in Spokane, Washington, this type of program has the potential to improve community health significantly by bringing about positive social change for families at risk of isolation and social exclusion. If this outcome were to be replicated here, such a program would foster greater attachment of low-income single parents to the community by increasing the supportive capacity of the community. With a focus on community outreach, such a program can help limit the isolation that many single parent families likely experience due to living in unsafe neighbourhoods and through continued instability in housing arrangements. Community attachment would occur through the social connections gained, increased employment (leading to greater financial stability), and increased volunteer work in the community. Based upon the positive results that are likely from such a program and the over 600 families that could be benefited by it, this alternative is rated as high in social sustainability.

Political Acceptability: Recent reports that the City of Vancouver is looking at reducing the community grants budget have been supported by letters from the City's social planning department that have been sent to neighbourhood houses and other organizations (Garr, 2006). These letters outline a limited commitment to grant funding for six months as opposed to a full year. Regardless of whether this is a sign that City funding for community grants is to be scaled back after six months or not, under such uncertainty the further funding required for an extension of the Innovations Program for another year is not assured. Based on this, political acceptability is seen as medium.

Equity: A parent learning program of this type would primarily benefit low-income families, of which single parent families represent a sizable number. The program would also benefit from content being tailored to the specific needs of families of an aboriginal, immigrant or visible minority status as such groups exhibit significantly higher child and family poverty rates than the rest of the population (Campaign 2000, 2005). Funding of such a program would come at a cost to other organizations who were in competition for funding under the Innovation Program but were turned down. The alternative is therefore judged as rating medium in consideration of equity concerns.

Administrative Feasibility: Administration of the program would be contingent upon meeting defined eligibility criteria outlined by the City. For this type of a program, consideration of funding should also focus upon requiring that program design is informed by research gained

through the experiences of previous programs in other jurisdictions. This could be done through direct consultation and/or guidance from the staff of these previous programs and in partnership with the researchers from University of British Columbia or Simon Fraser University. Due to the fairly low administrative work involved with the funding of such a program and the research required in its implementation, administrative feasibility is rated as medium.

Social Feasibility: Resistance to this alternative would likely come in the form of taxpayer groups and residents who are already unhappy with the funding of the Innovations Program. However, given that the program has already been approved once without any noticeable resistance from these groups, resistance would more likely revolve around the amount of money allocated to fund such a program. Such resistance could be sizable if the funding of a program as new as this was seen as ineffective and a waste of public funds. Social feasibility is therefore considered to be low.

5.3.2 Increase Funding for the Childcare Grants Program

Social Sustainability: An important aspect of parenting for single parents who are employed are child care arrangements as daycare centres are a popular main child care arrangement for single parents who work or study (Statistics Canada, 2005). Single parents would likely be prone to choose the cheapest childcare option available, as the ability of lower income single parent households to sustain childcare costs is different from the ability of middle or upper income households to do so. In British Columbia, a single parent earning the *average* weekly wage would spend 40% of their before-tax earnings on childcare if based on two children being enrolled in regulated childcare centres charging the current average fees (Campaign 2000, 2005).

The affordability of childcare in Vancouver for low income families is a function of the city average fee for childcare minus the provincial subsidy offered to these families. Looking at the average of fees charged for childcare spaces servicing infants, toddlers, 2.5-6 year olds and spaces for out of school care, minus the average of the provincial subsidies allocated to families, the average cost of childcare for low income families is approximately $236.00. Based upon this figure, a budget increase of $2.5 million would cover the cost of an estimated 10,593 childcare spaces for low-income families. With approximately half of the low income population of families being of a single parent status, this alternative would make childcare free for approximately 4,237 of them based upon a ratio of 1.25 children per family.

Expanding the provision of affordable quality childcare to low-income single parents would limit the barriers to balancing work and family life and allow for the building of financial capital through increased employment. By having the community play a greater role in assisting with the parenting of their children, community attachment by single parents would be increased through engagement with community childcare centres. Such attachment may also be furthered through increased housing stability as a result of income generated through employment. Considering the large number of free childcare spaces created by this alternative and the positive impact this would have upon helping single parents to balance work and family life, this alternative is rated as high on social sustainability.

Political Acceptability: Increasing funding for the Childcare Grants program is very unlikely to be accepted by City council due to considerable amount of money recently received by the province from the federal government for the purpose of building a province-wide childcare program. Future funding increases for the provision of childcare will now be seen to be the responsibility of senior government departments. For this reason, the political acceptability of this alternative rates as low.

Equity: The primary beneficiaries of this alternative would be low-income families, and especially single parents due to their greater need. The children of these families would benefit from quality care and supervision while the parent(s) would benefit from decreased demands upon their time and resources and the opportunities for financial and human capital generation that childcare assistance provides. The majority of Vancouver taxpayers would be the losers, specifically those without children or those that are no of a low-income status. As a result of the fairly specific target population benefited by this alternative combined with the considerable benefits towards a population of children and families living in poverty, equity is rated as medium.

Administrative Feasibility: Increased funding for childcare would expand the capacity of current organizations as opposed to the creation of new ones. The administrative challenges this alternative poses concerns the creation of new space for an increased amount of children and a substantial amount of hiring and training of staff. For this reason, administrative feasibility is rated as low.

Social Feasibility: Resistance from the residents of Vancouver as well as taxpayers organizations is estimated to be substantial due to the increased costs involved in funding this alternative at a time when senior levels of government are expected to provider such funding under the federal-provincial childcare agreement. Also, resistance from childcare providers not

covered under grant funding could also be strong as the increase provision of affordable childcare could result in a loss of business to these individuals and organizations. Because of this, social feasibility is therefore rated as low.

5.3.3 Increased Funding and Greater Priority for Services to Single Parents through Neighbourhood Organizations

Social Sustainability: Neighbourhood organizations are an important aspect of the social capacity of a community in directly building human and social capital of its residents through the supportive services they offer. By increasing funding and creating an incentive for more services tailored to the needs of single parents, the social capacity of the community becomes larger for this population and encourages greater participation. This helps to promote attachment to the community among low-income single parents who benefit from these services.

Currently, eight neighbourhood organizations are funded through grant funding by the City at an average grant amount of $60,000 per organization. If the funding of neighbourhood organizations was to increase by $2.5 million, this would result in an increase in the current number of such organizations by 42 to a total of 60. As it's estimated that each neighbourhood organization on average caters to 50 single parent families each, then this alternative can be said to serve approximately 2,500 single parent families.

However, the number of single parents who are aware or take part in these services would still be relatively small due to barriers such as transportation, childcare and a lack of information. Neither does the alternative substantially address the disadvantages of difficulty in balancing work and family life or living in poverty. It is also doubtful that such a large increase in funding would represent the best use of city funds considering the limited capacity of these organizations to address these disadvantages. Despite the possibility of serving 2,500 single parents, this limited capacity means that the alternative is rated as low on social sustainability as the contribution of increased funding to single parent services will be very small in creating attachment between single parent families and their community.

Political Acceptability: Concerns over such a large increase in funding to neighbourhood organizations that have a relatively small capacity is likely to make this alternative unattractive. There would also likely be concern over opposition from competing organizations that oppose such a substantial increase in funding for neighbourhood organizations, as well as public opposition. Because of these factors, the alternative has a rating of low for political acceptability.

Equity: The obvious winners in the adoption of this alternative will be the groups currently served by neighbourhood organizations that benefit from an increase in services meant to address issues tailored to them. Besides single parent families, these other groups include low-income dual parent families, seniors, immigrants and youth. Those who would not benefit from such an allocation of funding include other organizations and groups not funded through neighbourhood organizations along with residents who do not directly benefit from their services. Equity is therefore considered to be medium.

Administrative Feasibility: In terms of administrative ease, the alternative rates as low since an increase of $2.5 million in the funding of neighbourhood organizations would likely overwhelm their relatively small-scale current capabilities. Although changing funding priorities should be fairly easy, the management of such a large amount of funds would likely be difficult for such organizations.

Social Feasibility: The alternative is likely to be met with opposition from individuals and groups whose interests are ignored by the allocation of such a large amount of grant funds. This may not be limited to groups and organizations who are competing for funding, but also by those who generally support more funding for services to single parents but feel this is not the best use of funds. And a large number of Vancouver residents would probably oppose the alternative if they do not understand the work of neighbourhood organizations or do not value such work as highly as putting the funds towards decreasing property taxes. Due such mixed support for the alternative, social feasibility is seen as low.

5.3.4 Preserve the Mixed Model of Housing for the Southeast False Creek Development Plan

Social Sustainability: Increasing the amount of affordable housing speaks directly to the goals of social sustainability. Housing assistance is a primary means of helping to meet residents' basic needs, while a mixed housing approach helps to avoid economic segregation according to income allowing disadvantaged families to benefit from safe neighbourhoods offering quality services. According to Thom Armstrong, the Canadian Housing Federation of British Columbia's executive director, there are 13,000 households currently on the provincial waitlist for housing and the mixed-market housing plan for SEFC is exactly the kind of development needed (CHF BC, 2006).

Looking at RBC's affordability index which estimates the percentageof pre-tax income needed to afford housing in Canadian cities, Vancouver is the most unaffordable in all housing

categories (see table 4.1) (RBC, 2005). These finding are further supported by the Demographia International Housing Affordability Survey 2006 which concluded that the city of Vancouver is the 15th most unaffordable city among English-speaking countries (Cox & Pavletich, 2006). Within this context, it is probable that the already low home ownership of single parent families is even lower for those living in Vancouver than it is for those in other areas of B.C. When combined, rising rental rates, low vacancy rates and limited affordable housing lead to very few housing options for low-income families. Most of the options that do remain are likely found in communities that have a low social capacity and are generally unsafe for families.

Table 5.1: RBC Affordability Index 2005

City	Detached Bungalow	Standard Two Storey	Standard Townhouse	Standard Condo
Vancouver	*53.6*	*61.0*	*42.0*	*28.5*
Calgary	*33.0*	*35.2*	*24.7*	*20.4*
Toronto	*41.5*	*48.8*	*32.5*	*26.9*
Ottawa	*31.9*	*37.7*	*26.5*	*22.2*
Montreal	*33.5*	*42.4*	*29.9*	*27.4*

Source: RBC, 2005

With an estimated residential population of 15,000 for the SEFC area, if the number of housing units were said to house an average of two residents per unit then approximately 7,500 housing units would be constructed. Of this, the one third of affordable housing targeted towards the low-income population would amount to approximately 2,500 housing units. The mixed housing ODP for the SEFC area further targeted 35% of low income housing units to be for families which, based upon half of the low income family population being single parent families, would amount to approximately 438 single parent families being housed. Judging from the research findings of this study, an increase in affordable housing for low-income families is the most direct way to promote their attachment to the community and reduce housing instability. Because this alternative directly responds to the housing crisis facing such families, its social sustainability rating is considered high.

Political Acceptability: Incorporating mixed housing into the redevelopment of the False Creek basin has actually been a policy goal since 1973 when City council decided that the basin was to reflect the population income mix of the Greater Vancouver region (Andrews, Bayne & Smith, 2006). The initial basin-wide objective was to have 1/3 of all new residential housing units set aside for individuals and families below the 33rd percentile of current incomes, an additional 1/3 for those with incomes between the 33rd and 66th percentiles and the remaining for those above these incomes. This was to be achieved through separating land for senior government programs to fund the development. In 1998, social housing was restricted to only 20% of all new housing units as a response to fewer senior government programs. The redevelopment policy was now targeted towards families and seniors considered to be in core housing need and low-income households that had to pay more than 30% of gross income on rent. In 1993, the policy was again changed since the federal government had stopped funding all new social housing developments and the provincial government required that funding of the remaining 20% of social housing be administered under a mixed program. Under this new program, core need and low-income households were restricted to 12% and the remaining 8% was now to be for middle income households. In 2002, the provincial government again changed the requirements for social housing funding to be limited exclusively to housing for frail seniors. There is now no senior government funding for new affordable housing developments aimed at families.

Controversy over the use of this $50 million debt to the PEF associated with the SEFC ODP concerns different perceptions of the use of PEF funds and the city's role in funding affordable housing for its residents. The changes in the composition of the council highlight these differences in assessing the acceptability of keeping the current ODP in place. Although council is not unanimous in their approval of the changes proposed to the SEFC development plan, it is unlikely that the majority of council members would reverse their endorsement of these changes at this stage. Political acceptability is therefore judged as low.

Equity: Preserving the mixed model of housing for the SEFC ODP would seek to have the PEF recover the $50 million cost over 15 to 20 year period of time while proposed changes would shorten this timeline by immediately reducing the debt by $28 million. This longer period of time needed for debt reduction means that future uses of the PEF may be restricted and such a restriction can be said to decrease the future opportunities of using the PEF for the residents of Vancouver. Also, by not reducing the amount of affordable or modest market housing, the alternative restricts that amount of housing available for developers to sell at market prices.

Therefore, the primary losers in this alternative are the private developers of the SEFC area and to a lesser extent, residents of Vancouver who do not support the use of PEF funds in this way.

Those individuals and groups that are considered winners with the alternative are primarily the low-and modest income individuals and families (including single parent families, disabled persons and senior citizens) who would directly benefit from the housing options available to them through the mixed housing strategy. Residents of Vancouver who are supportive of a mixed-income communities would benefit as well by seeing a more socially sustainable future for the city. Due to a consistent lack of achievement to the goal of 20% affordable housing outlined by the City in 1988, combined with a lack of funding by senior governments for new affordable housing developments, this alternative rates as high in equity.

Administrative Feasibility: The development process for the SEFC area lands under the current alternative are already underway with a timeline of completion before the 2010 Olympics. This administrative process is only in its infancy, but is well within normal operating procedures for a development of this size and type. The alternative is rated as high on administrative feasibility.

Social Feasibility: Judging from the comments received during the open houses held in October of 2004 during SECF ODP public consultations, 85% of the feedback was in support of the sustainability directions which included the incorporation of the mixed housing plan (City of Vancouver, 2004). There have been numerous public consultations and the response to the alternative has generally been positive. Social feasibility is therefore considered to be high.

Table 5.2: Evaluation of the Alternatives

Criteria	Community Outreach Through a Parent Learning Programs Funded by Community Services Grants	Increase Funding for Childcare Grants Program	Increased Funding and Greater Priority for Services to Single Parents through Neighbourhood Organizations	Preserve the Mixed Model of Housing for the Southeast False Creek Development Plans
Social Sustainability	High	High	Low	High
Political Acceptability	Medium	Low	Low	Low
Equity	Medium	Medium	Medium	High
Administrative Feasibility	Medium	Low	Low	High
Social Feasibility	Low	Low	Low	High

6 Recommendation

Based upon an evaluation of the alternatives, the preservation of the mixed model of housing for the SEFC ODP is recommended in light of its significant contribution towards a goal of social sustainability. Failing this recommendation, community outreach through a parent learning program funded through the Innovations Program is considered to be a feasible alternative. Increasing the affordable housing options for low-income families through a mixed model housing strategy is the most effective way to increase the attachment of these families to communities with an adequate amount of social capacity. Doing so through the development of the SEFC area would represent a large step in a long-term commitment to decreasing housing instability among a significant number of single parent families and assisting them in building their social capital. Such an outcome would represent a critical achievement in enabling this population to benefit from supportive communities and contribute to the social sustainability of Vancouver for generations to come.

Historically, the 20% target of affordable housing has not been enforced, and this has resulted in the target consistently not being met as in the case of the development of the Yaletown area where low-income housing only comprises 15%. Changes to the existing mixed housing plan for the SEFC area still aims for a goal of 20% affordable housing, but in light of consistently failing to reach this goal and with a the current percentage of affordable housing in Vancouver standing at 8.5%, the city can now be said to be in a deficit of affordable housing. In addition, the a large amount of the housing units that are to comprise the goal of 20% affordable housing in the area are actually a part of the City's Olympic Legacy commitment that was a part of the bid to win the 2010 Winter Olympic Games (Andrews, Bayne, & Smith, 2006). The double counting of affordable housing that was designated specifically to be a special legacy project for the purposes of meeting an affordable housing goal that was set back in 1988 and has since rarely been met is misleading.

A firmer commitment to real housing options for families who are negatively affected by housing instability and/or living in unsafe communities should not be ignored. While funding from senior government sources should continue to be sought, the use of the PEF to ensure social sustainability in the city of Vancouver should not be viewed as financially irresponsible. This

conclusion is based upon the current and growing need for affordable housing options for low income families and the goal of the PEF as "...an endowment for the current and future residents of the City" (Bayne, 2005, pg. 3). However, this evaluation is also sensitive to issues concerning the costs and political acceptability of preserving the current SEFC OPD, and recognizes that this alternative is unlikely to be accepted.

As a more viable alternative, the city has the opportunity to facilitate and fund the introduction of an outreach program targeting low-income families that is well researched and modelled after successful efforts in other jurisdictions. The primary reasons for this recommendation concerns its expected contribution to a goal of social sustainability and its political acceptability. As was the case in Washington State, the creation and design of such a program would be greatly benefited from a the participation of existing research bodies such as SFU's Economic Security Project or UBC's Human Early Learning Partnership. Annual evaluation of the program would be needed to ensure effectiveness and continued funding through the Innovations Program. If such a program replicates the results of the Family Focus Project, funding could become more long-term and stable.

Efforts to strengthen and expand the capital resources of low-income families through community outreach programs such as the one being proposed would be beneficial in increasing the supportive capabilities of communities. This objective is in line with the City of Vancouver's goal of creating socially sustainable communities through targeting support towards families who are having difficulties in fulfilling their basic needs and are often socially isolated. Providing services that offer a greater supportive role in the lives of these families would increase the incentives for low-income single parent families to become better attached to their community. Such an outcome would increase their contact with others and create opportunities to increase their social capital as a result.

Appendices

Appendix A – Recoding of NLSCY data

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
SOCIAL SUPPORT SCORE 0-18 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON'T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED Coverage: Answered by all respondents. Note: This factor score was derived using the unweighted items (ASPHQ01A to Q10F). In order to calculate the scores, we reduced the item values by 1 (ie. a value of 1 ('strongly agree') was recoded to 0, and 2 was recoded to 1 etc.). This was done in order to associate a value of zero for the lowest score. The values were reversed for ASPHQ01A, ASPHQ01D and ASPHQ01E. The total score varies between 0 and 18, a high score indicating the presence of social support. The Cronbach Alpha value for this factor score is 0.82.	0-11=Very/Extremely Low 12=Low 13=Medium Low 14=Medium 15=Medium-High 16=High 17=Very High 18=Extremely High
FAMILY FUNCTIONING SCORE 0-36 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED Coverage: Answered by all respondents. Note: This factor score was derived using the unweighted items (CFNHQ01A to Q01L). In order to calculate the scores, we reduced the item values by 1 (ie. a value of 1 (-strongly agree-) was recoded to 0, 2 was recoded to 1, 3 to 2, and 4 to 3). This was done in order to associate a value of zero for the lowest score. The values were reversed for CFNHQ01A, CFNHQ01C, CFNHQ01E, CFNHQ01G, CFNHQ01I and CFNHQ01K. The total score varies between 0 and 36, a high score indicating family dysfunction.	0-5=Little/No Family Dysfunction 6-10=Some/Moderate Family Dysfunction 11-36=Moderate/High Family Dysfunction

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
Home Stability This section asks questions about your neighbourhood. How many years have you lived at this address? (ENTER 0 IF LESS THAN 1 YEAR.) 00 : 50 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON'T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	0-2=0-2 Years 3-5=3-5 Years 6-10=6-10 Years Over 10=Over 10 Years
Home Ownership Now a few questions about your dwelling. Is this dwelling owned by a member of this household (even if being paid for)? 1 YES 2 NO 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON-T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	1=Yes 2=No
NEIGHBOURHOOD SAFETY SCALES 0-15 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON'T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED Coverage: Answered by all respondents. Note: This factor was derived using the following weighted items: CSFHQ06A, CSFHQ06B, CSFHQ06C, CSFHQ06D and CSFHQ06E. The values were reversed to create this scale. No imputation was done for this score. The score varies between 0 and 15, a high score indicating a high degree neighbour cohesiveness. The Cronbach Alpha value for this factor is 0.863	0-5=Unsafe 6-10=Somewhat Safe 11-15=Very Safe
Neighbourhood as a Place to Bring Up Children How do you feel about your neighbourhood as a place to bring up children? Is it... 1 Excellent? 02 Good? 03 Average? 04 Poor? 05 Very poor? 96 NOT APPLICABLE	1=Excellent 2=Good 3=Average 4-5=Poor/Very Poor

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
97 DON'T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	
Use of Health Professionals IN THE PAST YEAR, HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU SEEN OR TALKED ON THE TELEPHONE ABOUT CHILD-S PHYSICAL OR MENTAL HEALTH WITH: A general practitioner, family physician? (ENTER 0 IF NONE.) 0-60 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED Coverage: Answered by all respondents.	0-1=0-1 Times 2-3=2-3 Times 4-60=4Times or More
Age group of PMK 01 15-24 02 25-29 03 30-34 04 35-39 05 40+ 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	1-2=15 to 29 Years 3-4=30 to 39 Years 5=40 or More Years
PMK General Health The following questions ask about your/his/her general health. In general, would you say your/his/her health is: 01 Excellent? 02 Very good? 03 Good? 04 Fair? 05 Poor? 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	1=Excellent 2=Very Good 3=Good 4-5=Fair/Poor
PMK Education Recoded highest level of schooling obtained - 2 1 Less than secondary 2 Secondary school graduation 3 Beyond high school	1=Less Than High School 2=High School 3=More than High School

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
4 College or university degree (including trade) 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON-T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	4=College/University Degree
PMK Working Status Current Working Status 1 Currently working (i.e., at the time of collection) 2 Not currently working but had at least one job in the past 12 months 3 Not currently working and (did not work during past year) 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON-T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	1=Currently Working 2-3=Not Currently Working
PMK Volunteer Work Are you involved in any local voluntary organizations such as school groups, church groups, community or ethnic associations? 1 YES 2 NO 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON'T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	1=Yes 2=No
PMK DEPRESSION SCORE 0-36 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED Coverage: Answered by all respondents. Note: This factor score was derived using unweighted items. In order to calculate the scores, we reduced the item values by 1 (ie. a value of 1 (-yes-) was recoded to 0, and 2 was recoded to 1). This was done in order to associate a value of zero for the lowest score. The values were reversed for CDPPQ12F, CDDPQ12H and CDDPQ12J. The total score varies between 0 and 36, a high score indicating the presence of depression symptoms.	0-5=Little/No Depression 6-10=Some/Moderate Depression 11-36=Moderate/High Depression
PMK Smoking At the present time %do/does% %you/he/she% smoke	1-2=Yes

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
cigarettes daily, occasionally or not at all? 1 DAILY 2 OCCASIONALLY 3 NOT AT ALL 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON-T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	3=No
PMK Drinking During the past 12 months, how often did %you/he/she% drink beer, wine, liquor or any other alcoholic beverage? 01 EVERY DAY 02 4-6 TIMES A WEEK 03 2-3 TIMES A WEEK 04 ONCE A WEEK 05 2-3 TIMES A MONTH 06 ONCE A MONTH 07 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH 08 NEVER 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	1-3=More Than Once a Week 4=Once a Week 5=2-3 Times a Month 6=Once a Month 7=Less than Once a Month 8=Never
AGE OF CHILD 0-16 YEARS 996 NOT APPLICABLE 997 DON-T KNOW 998 REFUSAL 999 NOT STATED	0-5=0-5 Years Old 6-10=6-10 Years Old 11-15=11-15 Years Old
Child Health In general, would you say %FNAME%-s health is: 01 Excellent? 02 Very good? 03 Good? 04 Fair? 05 Poor? 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	1=Excellent 2=Very Good 3=Good 4-5=Fair/Poor

Original NLSCY Coding	Recoding
Family Type Regrouped from CDMCDO4 (child-s single parent status) 1 2 PARENTS 2 1 PARENT ONLY - FEMALE 6 NOT APPLICABLE 7 DON-T KNOW 8 REFUSAL 9 NOT STATED	1=Dual Parent 2-Single Parent
Recoded ratio of household income to the LICO 96 (CINHD03A) 01 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is <0.75 02 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is >=0.75 and <0.9 03 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is >=0.9 and <1.0 04 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is >=1.0 and <1.1 05 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is >=1.1 and <1.25 06 Ratio of household income to LICO96 is >=1.25 96 NOT APPLICABLE 97 DON-T KNOW 98 REFUSAL 99 NOT STATED	1-3=Below LICO 4-6=Above LICO

Appendix B – Response Frequencies

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Social Support Score	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Very/Extremely Low	126.00	5.86	66.00	14.32	37.00	14.74	46.00	18.47
Low	548.00	25.49	115.00	24.95	77.00	30.68	60.00	24.10
Medium-Low	166.00	7.72	29.00	6.29	26.00	10.36	19.00	7.63
Medium	164.00	7.63	28.00	6.07	22.00	8.76	18.00	7.23
Medium-High	167.00	7.77	51.00	11.06	18.00	7.17	24.00	9.64
High	135.00	6.28	33.00	7.16	14.00	5.58	19.00	7.63
Very High	176.00	8.19	39.00	8.46	13.00	5.18	14.00	5.62
Extremely High	668.00	31.07	100.00	21.69	44.00	17.53	49.00	19.68
Total	2,150.00	100.00	461.00	100.00	251.00	100.00	249.00	100.00
Missing	37.00		11.00		18.00		10.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Education Level	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Less Than High School	174.00	8.00	80.00	17.09	57.00	21.67	60.00	23.53
High School Graduation	430.00	19.77	66.00	14.10	56.00	21.29	34.00	13.33
More Than High School	627.00	28.83	168.00	35.90	68.00	25.86	105.00	41.18
College/University Degree (Including Trade)	944.00	43.40	154.00	32.91	82.00	31.18	56.00	21.96

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Total	2,175.00	100.00	468.00	100.00	263.00	100.00	255.00	100.00
Missing	12.00		4.00		6.00		4.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Current Working Status	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Currently Working	1,480.00	68.65	256.00	54.94	98.00	39.04	76.00	30.04
Not Currently Working	676.00	31.35	210.00	45.06	153.00	60.96	177.00	69.96
Total	2,156.00	100.00	466.00	100.00	251.00	100.00	253.00	100.00
Missing	31.00		6.00		18.00		6.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
General Health Report	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Excellent	745.00	34.54	116.00	24.84	67.00	26.48	61.00	24.02
Very Good	871.00	40.38	168.00	35.97	87.00	34.39	78.00	30.71
Good	437.00	20.26	131.00	28.05	73.00	28.85	77.00	30.31
Fair/Poor	104.00	4.82	52.00	11.13	26.00	10.28	38.00	14.96
Total	2,157.00	100.00	467.00	100.00	253.00	100.00	254.00	100.00
Missing	30.00		5.00		16.00		5.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Family Functioning Score	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Little/No Family Dysfunction	716.00	33.65	100.00	22.08	60.00	24.49	53.00	21.63
Some/Moderate Family Dysfunction	639.00	30.03	125.00	27.59	74.00	30.20	61.00	24.90

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Moderate/High Family Dsyfunction	773.00	36.33	228.00	50.33	111.00	45.31	131.00	53.47
Total	2,128.00	100.00	453.00	100.00	245.00	100.00	245.00	100.00
Missing	59.00		19.00		24.00		14.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Home Stability	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
0-5 Years	1,366.00	63.45	381.00	81.94	193.00	75.69	222.00	87.40
6-10 Years	537.00	24.94	52.00	11.18	48.00	18.82	21.00	8.27
More than 10 Years	250.00	11.61	32.00	6.88	14.00	5.49	11.00	4.33
Total	2,153.00	100.00	465.00	100.00	255.00	100.00	254.00	100.00
Missing	34.00		7.00		14.00		5.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Home Ownership	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Yes	1,758.00	80.57	171.00	37.92	169.00	63.06	51.00	20.90
No	424.00	19.43	280.00	62.08	99.00	36.94	193.00	79.10
Total	2,182.00	100.00	451.00	100.00	268.00	100.00	244.00	100.00
Missing	5.00		21.00		1.00		15.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Assessment of Neighbourhood as a Place for Children	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Excellent	1,010.00	46.95	157.00	33.69	95.00	37.40	85.00	33.46
Good	783.00	36.40	172.00	36.91	99.00	38.98	87.00	34.25
Average	302.00	14.04	99.00	21.24	51.00	20.08	58.00	22.83
Poor/Very Poor	56.00	2.60	38.00	8.15	9.00	3.54	24.00	9.45
Total	2,151.00	100.00	466.00	100.00	254.00	100.00	254.00	100.00
Missing	36.00		6.00		15.00		5.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Neighbourhood Safety Score	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Unsafe	42.00	2.21	38.00	9.64	10.00	4.55	18.00	8.29
Somewhat Safe	1,032.00	54.34	229.00	58.12	137.00	62.27	118.00	54.38
Very Safe	825.00	43.44	127.00	32.23	73.00	33.18	81.00	37.33
Total	1,899.00	100.00	394.00	100.00	220.00	100.00	217.00	100.00
Missing	288.00		78.00		49.00		42.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Involvement in Volunteer Work	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Yes	1,059.00	49.12	177.00	38.06	103.00	40.55	87.00	34.39
No	1,097.00	50.88	288.00	61.94	151.00	59.45	166.00	65.61
Total	2,156.00	100.00	465.00	100.00	254.00	100.00	253.00	100.00
Missing	31.00		7.00		15.00		6.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	
Age of PMK	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
15-29 Years Old	415.00	18.98	158.00	33.47	88.00	32.71	114.00	44.02
30-39 Years Old	1,305.00	59.67	221.00	46.82	136.00	50.56	112.00	43.24
Over 40 Years Old	467.00	21.35	93.00	19.70	45.00	16.73	33.00	12.74
Total	2,187.00	100.00	472.00	100.00	269.00	100.00	259.00	100.00
Child Health	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
Excellent	1,333.00	61.86	225.00	54.09	153.00	59.53	122.00	51.91
Very Good	590.00	27.38	132.00	31.73	67.00	26.07	72.00	30.64
Good	190.00	8.82	47.00	11.30	26.00	10.12	33.00	14.04
Fair/Poor	42.00	1.95	12.00	2.88	11.00	4.28	8.00	3.40
Total	2,155.00	100.00	416.00	100.00	257.00	100.00	235.00	100.00
Missing	32.00		56.00		12.00		24.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	

Variable and Levels	Dual Parents	Total: 2,187	Single Parents	Total: 472	Dual Parents Below LICO	Total: 269	Single Parents Below LICO	Total: 259
Times Seen a G.P. or Family Physician Regarding Child Health	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**	**Frequency**	**Valid %**
0-1 Times	868.00	40.35	170.00	40.87	111.00	43.36	85.00	36.17
2-3 Times	681.00	31.66	109.00	26.20	65.00	25.39	58.00	24.68
More Than 4 Times	602.00	27.99	137.00	32.93	80.00	31.25	92.00	39.15
Total	2,151.00	100.00	416.00	100.00	256.00	100.00	235.00	100.00
Missing	36.00		56.00		13.00		24.00	
Total	2,187.00		472.00		269.00		259.00	

Reference List

Andrews, J., Bayne, K. & Smith, I.. (2006). *Policy Report - Southeast False Creek and Olympic Village: review of Financial Plan and Strategy.* Available: http://vancouver.ca/ctyclerk/cclerk/20060119/documents/csb2.pdf. Last accessed 8 March 2006.

Arcus, M. E.. (2000). Family Life Education Over the Life Course. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Families Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 204-214.

Association of Neighbourhood Houses of Greater Vancouver (ANH). (2005). Gordon Neighbourhood House. Available: http://www.anhgv.org/Houses/Gordon+House/default.htm. Last accessed 11 March 2006.

BC Stats. (2006). *2001 Census Profile for British Columbia.* Available: http://www.bcstats.gov.bc.ca/data/cen01/profiles/59000000.pdf. Last accessed 14 March 2006.

BC Stats. (2006). *Community Facts: City of Vancouver.* Available: http://www.bcstats.gov.bc.ca/data/cen01/profiles/59000000.pdf. Last accessed 14 March 2006.

Bartle-Haring, S., Bean, R. A., Bedell, T. and Perry, B. J.. (2000). Family Systems in Flux: Clinical Implications for Life Course Transitions. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Families Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 215-229.

Bayne, K. (2005). *Administrative Report - Southeast False Creek Redevelopment: Financial Plan and Strategy.* Available: http://vancouver.ca/commsvcs/southeast/documents/financial.pdf. Last accessed 13 March 2006

Beauvais, C. Jenson, J.. (2001). *Two Policy Paradigms: Family Responsibility and Investing in Children.* Available: http://www.cprn.com/en/doc.cfm?doc=177. Last accessed 27 October 2005.

Becker, G. S.. (2003). *Human Capital.* Available: http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc/HumanCapital.html. Last accessed 10 February 2006.

Blown, S. Young, C. A. . (2005). *Administrative Report: 2005 Child Care Grant - Allocation 1 of 3.* Available: http://vancouver.ca/ctyclerk/cclerk/20050524/documents/a6.pdf. Last accessed 11 March 2006.

Bowen, G. L., Bowen, N. K. & Richman, J. M.. (2000). Families in the Context of Communities Across Time. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 117-128.

Campaign 2000. (2005). *2005 Report Card on Child Poverty in Canada.* Available: http://www.campaign2000.ca/rc/rc05/05NationalReportCard.pdf. Last accessed 4th December, 2005

CHF BC. (2006). *CHF BC urges Vancouver Council to keep False Creek Affordable.* Available: http://www.chf.bc.ca/pages/news.asp. Last accessed 14 March 2006.

Canadian Council On Social Development, (2001). 1999 Poverty Lines. Available: http://www.ccsd.ca/factsheets/fs_lic99.htm. Last accessed 5th March, 2005.

City of Vancouver. (2002). *"Moving Forward" Childcare: A Cornerstone of Child Development Services.* Available: http://www.city.vancouver.bc.ca/ctyclerk/cclerk/020423/a13.pdf. Last accessed 11 March 2006.

City of Vancouver. (2004). *SUMMARY OF COMMENT SHEETS FROM OCTOBER 19th and 23rd 2004 OPEN HOUSES.* Available: http://www.city.vancouver.bc.ca/commsvcs/southeast/documents/FinalSummaryOctober 2004.pdf. Last accessed 13 March 2006.

City of Vancouver. (2005). *Community Service Grants.* Available: http://www.city.vancouver.bc.ca/COMMSVCS/SOCIALPLANNING/grants/commgrants .htm. Last accessed 11 March 2006.

City of Vancouver. (2005). *Community Service Grants Information Sheets.* Available: http://www.city.vancouver.bc.ca/COMMSVCS/SOCIALPLANNING/grants/pdf/06csgin fosheet.pdf. Last accessed 14 March 2006.

City of Vancouver. (2006). *Social Sustainability.* Available: http://www.city.vancouver.bc.ca/commsvcs/socialplanning/initiatives/socsust/index.htm. Last accessed 7 March 2006.

Coleman, M., Downs, K. J. M., & Ganong, L.. (2000). Divorced Families Over the Life Course. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 24-36.

Commonwealth of Australia . (2003). *Social Capital: Reviewing the Concept and its Policy Implications.* Available: http://www.pc.gov.au/research/commres/socialcapital/socialcapital.pdf. Last accessed 8 March 2006.

Covell, K.. (2004). *Why Quality Housing is Important for Children.* . Available: http://www.chra-achru.ca/CMFiles/Katherine_Covell17RAG-11162004-9861.doc. Last accessed 8 March 2006.

Cox, W. & Pavletich, H.. (2006). 2nd Annual Demographia International Housing Affordability Survey: 2006. Available: http://www.demographia.com/dhi-ix2005q3.pdf. Last accessed 14 March 2006.

Dat, C.. (2000). *Analysis of the New Child Support Strategy.* Available: http://www.harbour.sfu.ca/freda/reports/polb08.htm. Last accessed 5 March 2006.

Deardorff, A. V.. (2000). *Glossary of International Economics.* Available: http://www-personal.umich.edu/~alandear/glossary/f.html. Last accessed 10 January 2006.

Department of Justice Canada. (2000). *Selected Statistics on Canadian Families and Family Law: Second Edition.* Available: http://canada.justice.gc.ca/en/ps/sup/pub/rap/SelStats.pdf. Last accessed 5 March 2006.

Donovan, P.. (1998). *Generating Social Capital in an Urban Neighborhood.* Available: http://managingwholes.com/spokane.htm. Last accessed 30 January 2006.

Esping-Andersen, G., (1990). *The Three worlds of Welfare Capitalism.* Cambridge: Polity Press, pp.9-34.

Field, J. (2005) 'Social capital and lifelong learning', *the encyclopedia of informal education,* www.infed.org/lifelonglearning/social_capital_and_lifelong_learning.htm. Last accessed 8 March 2006..

Fu, S.. (2005). *What Has Been Capitalized Into Property Values: Human Capital, Social Capital, or Cultural Capital?.* Available: http://webserver01.ces.census.gov/index.php/ces/1.00/cespapers?down_key=101735. Last accessed 30 January.

Fulmer, R.. (1989). Lower-income and Professional Families: A Comparison of Structure and Life Cycle Processes. In: Carter, B. and McGoldrick, M. *The Changing Family Life Cycle.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 545-584.

Galarneau, D.. (2005). Education and Income of Lone Parents. *Perspectives on Labour and Income.* 6 (12), 5-16.

Garr, A. (2006, March 3rd). Grant Cuts Could be 'Drastic'. The Vancouver Courier, pg. 10.

Glanz, K., Rimer, B.K. & Lewis, F.M. . (2002). *Health Behavior and Health Education. Theory, Research and Practice.* Available: http://www.tcw.utwente.nl/theorieenoverzicht/Theory%20clusters/Health%20Communication/Social_Support.doc/. Last accessed 16 March 2006.

Government of Saskatchewan. (2002). *Income Update.* Available: http://www.swo.gov.sk.ca/Income%20Update%20Mar%202002.pdf. Last accessed 28 January 2006.

Green, K.. (2001). *"We Did It Together": Low-Income Mothers Working Toward a Healthier Community* . Available: http://www.pwhce.ca/pdf/didItTogether.pdf. Last accessed 5th December, 2005.

Health Canada. (2004). *Exploring the Links Between Substance Use and Mental Health.* Available: http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/ahc-asc/pubs/drugs-drogues/mental-mentale_discussion/drugs_links-drogues_liens_e.html. Last accessed 15 March 2006.

Hines, P. M.. (1989). The Family Life Cycle of Poor Black Families. In: Carter, B. and McGoldrick, M. *The Changing Family Life Cycle.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 515-544.

Hsu, Huang J., Kinsman, J., Fireman, B., Miller, R., Selby, J. & Ortiz, E.. (2005). *Use of e-Health Services between 1999 and 2002: A Growing Digital Divide.* Available: http://www.ahrq.gov/research/jun05/0605RA15.htm. Last accessed 16 March 2006.

Jenson, J., Stroick, S.M.. (1999). *A Policy Blueprint for Canada's Children* . Available: http://www.cprn.com/en/doc.cfm?doc=179. Last accessed 27 October 2005.

Kawachi, I. (2000). *Social Capital.* Available: http://www.macses.ucsf.edu/Research/Social%20Environment/notebook/capital.html. Last accessed 28 January, 2006.

Kohler, J. K. & Zimmerman, S. L.. (2000). Policy Issues and Families Over the Life Course. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Families Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 230-241.

Leichtenbritt, R. D. & Rettig, K. D.. (2000). Family Economic Issues Across Time. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Families Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 160-172.

Lin, N.. (1999). Building a Network Theory of Social Capital'. *Connections.* 22 (1), 28-51. Available: http://www.insna.org/Connections-Web/Volume22-1/V22(1)-28-51.pdf

McCracken, M & Watson, G.. (2005). *Women Need Safe, Stable, Affordable Housing: A study of social housing, private rental housing and co-op housing in Winnipeg* . Available: http://www.pwhce.ca/safeHousing.htm. Last accessed 5th December, 2005.

McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J.. (2000). Introduction. In: McKenry, P. C., Murphy, M. J., and Price, S. J. *Families Across Time: A Life Course Perspective.* Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company. 1-22.

Mignone, J.. (2003). *Measuring Social Capital: A Guide for First Nations Communities.* Available: http://secure.cihi.ca/cihiweb/en/downloads/MeasuringSocialCapital2003_e.pdf. Last accessed 17 February 2006.

National Centre for Children in Poverty. (2005). *Most Low-Income Parents are Employed.* Available: http://www.nccp.org/pub_pel05.html. Last accessed 4th December, 2005.

National Child Benefit. (2005). *Progress Report 2004.* Available: http://www.nationalchildbenefit.ca/ncb/ncb-2005/report_e.pdf. Last accessed 5th December, 2005.

National Council of Welfare. (1998). *Summary - Child Poverty Profile* . Available: http://www.ncwcnbes.net/htmdocument/principales/childpovertysummary_e.htm. Last accessed 4th December, 2005.

National Council of Welfare. (2005). *Welfare Incomes 2004.* Available: http://www.ncwcnbes.net/htmdocument/reportWelfareIncomes2004/WI2004EngREVISED.pdf. Last accessed 6 March 2006.

OECD. (2005). *Human and Social Capital* . Available: http://www.oecd.org/department/0,2688,en_2649_34543_1_1_1_1_1,00.html. Last accessed 10 February 2006.

Pebly, A. R. & Sastry, N.. (2003). *Concentrated Poverty vs.Concentrated Affluence:Effects on NeighborhoodSocial Environments andChildren's Outcomes.* Available: http://www.rand.org/labor/DRU/DRU2400.10.pdf. Last accessed 16 March 2006.

Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC). (2004). *Social Inclusion as a Determinant of Health.* Available: http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/ph-sp/phdd/overview_implications/03_inclusion.html. Last accessed 4th December, 2005.

RBC. (2005). *Housing Affordability.* Available: http://www.rbc.com/economics/market/pdf/house.pdf. Last accessed 9 March 2006.

Smith, M. K.. (2005). *Social Capital.* Available: http://www.infed.org/biblio/social_capital.htm. Last accessed 5 March 2006.

Morisette, R. (2005). Families on the Financial Edge. *Perspectives on Labour and Income.* Special Edition, 81-92.

Temkin, K. & Rohe, W. M.. (1998). *Social Capital and Neighborhood Stability: An Empirical Investigation.* Available: http://www.fanniemaefoundation.org/programs/hpd/pdf/hpd_0901_temkin.pdf. Last accessed 30 January 2006.