

AN ECOLOGICAL STUDY OF HOSPITALIZED
MENTAL DISORDERS IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis was to describe relationships between environmental attributes and rates of mental hospital admissions in different geographic regions of British Columbia. Seventy-five environmental variables were reduced to eighteen orthogonal factors which were used, in a canonical regression analysis, to predict rates of admission for twelve diagnosed disorders.

An interpretation of the results with reference to the epidemiological literature indicated two main points of agreement. Higher rates in urban than rural areas appeared to be replicated as did the occurrence of higher rates of non-depressive neurosis and sociopathy in areas of sociocultural disintegration. In addition, several combinations of environmental attributes indicative of sociocultural disintegration were found with higher rates of different combinations of mental disorder on each one.

The identification of a variety of environment-mental disorder relationships within one multivariate analysis was considered to clearly demonstrate the value of canonical regression analysis as an exploratory method in epidemiological research.

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SECTION I: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1: Problem

Statement of Purpose

The essential purpose of this thesis was to describe relationships between environmental characteristics and rates of various mental disorders in different geographic regions of British Columbia. A secondary purpose was to derive an environmental taxonomy, a step preliminary to the epidemiological analysis. The empirical results were to be interpreted with a view to contributing to knowledge of the etiology of mental hospital admission.

On a conceptual, rather than empirical level, attention was directed to questions of statistical methodology. The application of canonical regression analysis, used when relating the diagnostic rates and environmental characteristics, was to be assessed with regard to its general suitability for epidemiological data analysis.

The Epidemiological Study of Mental Disorders: A Review of the Literature

Epidemiology is basically a method of naturalistic observation. In order to better understand diseases in all their aspects, it is involved with the scrutiny of disease incidents in terms of the times, places, and persons in which they occur (Reid, 1960). Through a consideration of these factors, the circumstances under which diseases occur can be identified and etiological hypotheses can be inductively generated.

Historically, epidemiology's original concern was with the investigation of acute infectious diseases. However, as more and more of these diseases were brought under control, it was found feasible to apply the methods of epidemiology to chronic and endemic diseases. The traditional

conception of mental disorder as a medical problem ensured its inclusion in studies of chronic and endemic disease (MacMahon, Pugh and Ipsen, 1960; Plunkett and Gordon, 1960; Reid, 1960).

The basic assumption in epidemiology is that of interaction between organism and environment. In diseased persons, some aspect of the person's organism is assumed to interact with an external agent in such a way that a disease process ensues. In well persons who are also exposed to the disease, the same interactive process does not occur. The two problems defined for epidemiology, then, are the determination of the crucial qualities of diseased individuals that predispose them to illness, and of the nature of the agent which interacts with that personal characteristic.

There is no one prescribed course to follow in epidemiological studies of either mental or medical disorders. Research orientations are dictated by the question at hand, particularly by the state of knowledge which has been previously reached in studying the specific problem. Some differences in orientation to be considered here include the level of analysis focussed upon, and, procedurally, differences between descriptive and comparative studies and primary and secondary data sources. Cutting across these differences are those relating to the primary aim of the study, whether it is theoretical or practical.

Besides sharing the common objective of predicting the occurrence of disorders, epidemiological studies share a naturalistic orientation. The advantages of naturalistic methods have been discussed by Barker (1965, 1968), and are, essentially that the data obtained by such methods are unique to the natural situation and that they can be collected free of iatrogenic influence. (A discussion of particular findings of epide-

miological research follows in Chapter 3.)

Levels of Analysis

Bloom (1968) has distinguished between two main types of epidemiological investigations. The first is the demographic study in which characteristics of disordered persons are related to various rates of mental disorder. In ecological studies, on the other hand, neighborhood or other environmental characteristics are related to mental disorder rates. While demographic studies identify high- and low-risk groups of people, ecological studies identify high- and low-risk areas of residence. In many major programs of epidemiological research (e.g. Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958; Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960; Jaco, 1960; Srole, Langner, Michael, Opler and Rennie, 1962; Leighton, Harding, Macklin, Macmillan and Leighton, 1963; Myers and Bean, 1968) both types of variables have been considered, while in studies on a smaller scale, it is usual to concentrate on one or the other of these types of data.

Because of the limited inferences that can be drawn from ecological relationships, this approach is most appropriately the beginning step in the inductive process of identifying the etiology of a disorder. In a program of study it can be fruitful to begin investigations of the rates of disorder at the ecological level simply to ascertain whether similar relationships exist to those previously found elsewhere.

Faris and Dunham (1960) performed the first and best known ecological study, investigating the distribution of the psychoses in different sections of Chicago between 1922 and 1934. Clausen and Kohn (1959) later discovered that, in a smaller city, psychoses were randomly distributed rather than concentrated in the core of the city as Faris and

Dunham had found. A review by Buss (1966) draws the conclusion that the relationship between rates of mental disorder and area of residence within a city decreases as city size decreases, as does Dunham (1961), who discussed some of the fertile hypotheses generated by these findings.

Ecological studies of mental disorders, usually using census tracts as the unit of analysis, have been gaining in frequency in the past decade. Bloom (1966) studied the distribution of selected socially deviant behaviors in the different census tracts of Pueblo, Colorado, later following this study with an extensive ecological analysis of psychiatric hospitalizations in the same area (Bloom, 1968). Klee, Spiro, Bahn and Gorwitz (1967) performed an ecological analysis of diagnosed mental disorder in the census tracts of Baltimore, Maryland, while Struening and Lehmann (1969) have embarked on a program in the Bronx, the aim of which is to evaluate the effectiveness of and anticipate the need for psychiatric facilities in the different health districts in their catchment area. Another study of interest to epidemiologists, although having a sociological orientation, is that of Cartwright and Howard (1966) on the ecological correlates of gang delinquency in Chicago.

A somewhat different emphasis is found in a review by Sechrest and Wallace (1967), giving particular attention to studies on the effects of weather and climate on behavior. In recent years there has been a revival of interest in this area, an area which saw a great deal of activity early in the present century. Tromp (1968) has written a book considering the effects of the meteorological environment on mental as well as physical disorders. For examples of recent studies see Cerbus (1970), Edelstein, Gnassi and Mishelof (1966), Friedman, Becker and Bachman (1965), and Pantleo (1970).

As a research strategy, the ecological approach has been subject to criticisms that have not been levelled at demographic studies. The most influential criticism was that of Robinson (1950), who demonstrated that ecological correlations derived on a number of groups may be quite different from the correlations that would have resulted had each group member entered the correlation separately. In other words, Robinson was demonstrating that it was not possible to make inferences to individuals from correlations derived on groups. Menzel (1950) replied that such a criticism did not invalidate the approach used in human ecology, stating that correlations between geographic areas were of interest in their own right. However, Dogan and Rokkan (1969) credit Robinson with having stifled research in human ecology for about a decade, as well as, more positively, with inspiring greater rigor in methodology since the discipline has been enjoying a resurgence of interest.

A further criticism of the ecological approach was levelled by Kennedy (1964), but his argument has not had an impact at all comparable to Robinson's. Kennedy's basic assumption was that if the presence of certain environmental phenomena implies higher rates of mental disorder, then the absence of those same conditions must imply the presence of mental health. There is no established empirical validity for this statement. In all, criticism has not indicated invalidity of the ecological approach, Kennedy's criticism being based on a faulty assumption and Robinson's being true only in cases where unjustified inferences are made from results.

Demographic studies of mental disorder have tended to outnumber the ecological studies, probably because of the organic, intrapsychic, and interpersonal nature of most early theories of etiology (Myers and Bean,

1968). The move beyond the level of the individual is seen in the advocacy of Myers and Bean of the consideration of persons within the context of social forces to which they are subjected. Recently, interest has been growing in the study of non-social environmental forces as well (Wohlwill, 1970).

Demographic variables are those which are measures of the individual, such as age, sex, and even socially defined variables such as socioeconomic status. Examples of studies of the demographic type are the classic study of social class and mental illness conducted by Hollingshead and Redlich (1958), the census and follow-up of a small community in Sweden (Hagnell, 1969), Malzberg and Lee's (1956) study of the relationship between migration and mental disorder, and, of interest in the present study, a perusal of age, sex, marital status and other variables for persons resident in Vancouver and Victoria who were hospitalized with mental disorder in the period 1958-60 (Richman, 1968).

In the past few years, teams of researchers in different parts of the world have begun compiling psychiatric case registers in order to better assess the temporal aspects of mental disorder. Two demographically oriented studies derived from such data banks are that of Adelstein, Downham, Stein and Susser (1968) on the epidemiology of mental disorder in an English city, and that of Warthen, Klee, Bahn and Gorwitz (1967) on the epidemiology of diagnosed schizophrenia in Maryland.

Epidemiological Procedures

As mentioned at the outset, epidemiology is basically a method of naturalistic observation. Specific procedures under the more general naturalistic rubric differ in whether the emphasis is descriptive or comparative and in the type of data, whether primary or secondary that is used.

Descriptive studies are the simplest form of studies in epidemiology. Demographically, incidents of disease may be categorized according to age, sex, etc. of the afflicted population, while ecologically, the areas of residence of each member of the population may be described according to population density, crime rate, etc. In this manner, the circumstances under which diseases occur at that point in time can be identified.

It is self-evident that description must precede comparisons, whether the comparisons are between different populations or between the same population at different points in time. Comparisons over time, can, in some cases, be likened to experiments.

Of the experimentation that occurs within the context of epidemiological research, laboratory experimentation as such is invariably the consequence of etiological hypotheses generated from field studies (MacMahon, et. al., 1960; Plunkett and Gordon, 1960; Reid, 1960). The infrequently used technique of observing the spread of an artificially introduced disease in an animal population, as reported by MacMahon et. al. (1960) is of no value in the study of mental disorder. However, the introduction of change into a natural environment, for example, the institution of a community mental health clinic, facilitates experimental study wherein the clinic is seen as the independent variable and rates of mental disorders are seen as the dependent variables. Struening and Lehmann's (1969) continuing program of mental health evaluation in the health districts of the Bronx can be regarded as an experimental study of this type.

The comparison of rates of mental disorder following spontaneous social change can also be observed from an experimental point of view, providing, of course, that there is adequate knowledge of base rates. Results based

on mental hospital admission rates, as reviewed by Reid (1961) and Murphy (1961), indicated increases in neurotic and psychosomatic disorders and decreases in functional psychoses for civilian populations during wartime, with a return to prewar rates after the war. Similarly, further results reviewed by Murphy (1961) indicated an increase in rates of mental disorder in non-Western societies undergoing Westernization, and differing rates of mental disorder, possibly due to varying social demands and prejudices, found in migrants from the same country of origin to different countries. Lesse (1968), in agreement with Murphy, presents evidence indicating increases in certain types of mental disorders in Japan and India with increasing socioeconomic and sociotechnologic change, while Leighton and Hughes (1961) comment that if they were to devise a system for classifying cultures that would have maximal relevance for mental health and illness, they would devise one based on sociocultural change.

With increasing utilization of psychiatric case registers, as mentioned previously (Adelstein et. al., 1968; Warthen et. al., 1967), studies on the effects of social, cultural, and environmental change will be increasingly practicable. As changes naturally occur, it will be possible to observe the details of changes in mental disorder rates. Conclusions derived in this way can be as precise as those from contrived experiments, assuming the nature of the change is understood, with the added advantage that the change is natural and therefore free of iatrogenic influence (Barker, 1968).

The data of both descriptive and comparative studies may be collected from either primary or secondary sources, or both. Primary data are collected directly from persons in the population under study, while sec-

ondary data are originally collected for another purpose but are appropriate for the study at hand. In general, the major epidemiological studies have conducted comprehensive sample surveys (e.g., Gurin, et. al., 1960; Srole, et. al., 1962; Leighton et. al., 1963), obtaining primary data. Such data have the advantage of being uniquely suited to the questions at hand.

Secondary data sources such as hospital records may be of limited value in that they may contain errors and/or less information than desired. Secondary data sources have been used to obtain environmental information in many ecological studies (e.g. Klee et. al., 1967; Bloom, 1966, 1968; Struening and Lehmann, 1969), and in these cases limitations similar to those with demographic data, such as problems of accuracy and suitability, are encountered. Perhaps the most comprehensive epidemiological study using only secondary data was that of Faris and Dunham (1960).

Purposes of Epidemiological Research

The purposes of epidemiological research have been dichotomized by Reid (1960) into descriptive and analytical, or synonymously, practical and theoretical. Ideally, of course, a program of study encompasses both these aspects, such as in the Stirling County study (Leighton et. al., 1963) and the Midtown Manhattan study (Srole et. al., 1962).

Many studies of an epidemiological nature are designed to evaluate community programs in psychiatry. Collins (1968) reviewed a number of evaluative programs in progress at that time, including Struening and Lehmann's (1969) in the Bronx, making particular mention of the increased value of case records with recent advances in computer technology. Richman's descriptive study of mental disorder in the metropolitan areas of British Columbia was conducted with the aim of assessing the use of

psychiatric in-patient care and the results of community mental health programs (Richman, 1968). On the other hand, Klee et. al. (1967) in their ecological study of mental disorder in Baltimore state an expectation that their study would have relevance to both theory and community mental health planning.

With increasing familiarity with the epidemiological literature, it becomes more and more apparent that both practical and theoretical concerns are served by the majority of studies, however limited their scope. Comparisons of data collected in a similar manner but on different people at different times and in different places often reveal interesting differences. A well-known example is the failure to replicate the Chicago relationships between area of residence and rates of schizophrenia (Faris and Dunham, 1960) when dealing with a smaller city (Clausen and Kohn, 1959). Similarly, Jaco (1960) failed to find relationships between socioeconomic status and mental disorder similar to those discovered in New Haven, Connecticut (Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958) when dealing with a Texas population. Comparisons of conditions under which results do and do not replicate provide substantial hypotheses for further investigation.

A more simple operation, comparison of incidence rates, while not so directly conducive to precise hypothesis formation, does raise questions to stimulate further research. For example, Hagnell (1969) reported a lower incidence of mental disorder in the lowest socioeconomic stratum in Sweden as compared to Canada, and Richman (1968) reported a first admission rate for the Vancouver-Victoria area of 90 per 100,000 as compared to his previous findings of 67 per 100,000 in the Regina-Saskatoon area and 69 per 100,000 in London, Ontario.

It is difficult to conceive of a study, whether primarily either

practical or theoretical in purpose, having little utility for other purposes. The general applicability of epidemiological findings can perhaps be best explained by reference to its naturalistic orientation and its goal to describe and understand events that occur spontaneously in nature.

Summary

The stated purpose of this thesis is to describe relationships between environmental characteristics and rates of mental disorder in various geographic regions of British Columbia. As a means to this end, the derivation of an environmental taxonomy is to be undertaken.

A review of literature relating to the epidemiological study of mental disorders began with a definition of epidemiology as a method of naturalistic observation in terms of the times, places, and persons in which disorders occur. Variations in epidemiological methods were discussed in terms of the level of analysis focussed upon, the most commonly observed procedural variations, and the purposes to which epidemiological research addresses itself.

The present study can be readily described in terms of the discussed variations in epidemiological methodology. An ecological level of analysis is focussed upon, in that the unit of analysis was the geographic region rather than the individual. Demographic or individual analysis is not considered in this study. In terms of procedural variations, the present study has a descriptive emphasis, comparisons occurring only in a general sense, and the data sources are secondary rather than primary. Finally, the purpose of the study, as compared to epidemiological studies in general, is theoretical rather than practical.

Basically, then, the present study can be described as an ecological descriptive study using secondary data and having a theoretical purpose.

CHAPTER 2: Method

The Definition of Mental Disorder

It was stated by Scott (1958) that most epidemiological studies use the criterion of exposure to psychiatric treatment as the definition of mental disorder. When such a definition is used, diagnosis after admission usually serves to describe the nature of the disorder.

In previous ecologically designed studies of the epidemiology of mental disorder, wide variations in the applications of this criterion as the definition of mental disorder have been found. Faris and Dunham's (1960) definition, in their study of Chicago in the period 1922-1934, was first admission to both public and private mental hospitals with a psychotic diagnosis. Bloom (1968), in his study of Pueblo from 1959-1961, also used both public and private mental hospitals as data sources, and defined mental disorder as first admission for any psychiatric disorder. In contrast, Klee et. al. (1967) defined as mentally disordered all persons in Baltimore during the period July 1, 1961 to July 1, 1964 who entered both inpatient and outpatient clinics in the Baltimore area, excluding only persons under private psychiatric care and those attending mental health agencies not under psychiatric direction. Jaco (1960) defined a population of interest similar to that of Klee et.al. (1967), in that he obtained his data from private psychiatrists and all public and private hospitals used by his population. However, he included only cases of psychosis, as in Faris and Dunham's (1960) study. More specifically, his population of mentally disordered persons included all bona fide residents of Texas entering psychiatric treatment for the first time during 1951 or 1952. On the whole, considering the variability in def-

initions that have been employed, it is surprising that there has been some agreement in results across studies.

It can be seen that, under the general criterion of exposure to psychiatric treatment, persons attending private mental hospitals, outpatient clinics and private psychiatrists have been included in addition to those admitted to public mental hospitals. Under the definition employed in the present study, only mentally disordered persons who were admitted to Riverview hospital, diagnosed, treated and discharged during the period Jan. 1965 to April 1968 were included. In contrast to some previous studies (e.g., Adelstein et. al., 1968) which have used first admission rates as approximations to the true population incidence of mental disorder, the concern here was with hospitalization per se rather than with mental disorder in general. Mental hospital admission was felt to be a phenomenon worthy of specific attention in that it indicated not only mental disorder but also the inability of the person's community of residence to incorporate the disturbed person and resolve his distress.

Relevant in this regard is Scott's (1958) criticism of exposure to psychiatric treatment as a criterion of mental disorder, that differing rates in different geographic regions may reflect the degree to which communities accept or reject deviants. It was assumed in the present study that rejection of deviants was one of the determinants of mental hospitalization. It was expected that the interrelationships between the diagnostic data and the environmental variates, to be discussed later, would indicate where rejection was more prevalent.

In effect, then, mental hospitalization was studied as an event index-

ing mental disorder and the necessity for hospitalization. Specific diagnoses given subsequent to admission were considered as indexing some observable aspects of the persons' behaviors relevant to severity, social acceptability, etc. The value of analyzing the correlates of mental hospital admission was felt to lie in the possibility of gaining a better understanding of the phenomenon and eventually contributing to its prevention.

The Reliability, Validity and Discriminability of Psychiatric Diagnosis.

Because the reliability and validity of psychiatric diagnosis have generally been found to increase when broad categories are used (Zigler & Phillips, 1961), the available data were collapsed, for purposes of data analysis, into 12 categories. Within the 12 categories, four more basic categories could be distinguished (see Table 2.1).

As in the case of the selected criterion of mental disorder, previous epidemiological studies of an ecologic design have differed in the diagnostic categories upon which they have focussed attention. These differences are summarized for the studies most relevant to the present one, in Table 2.2.

Arguments can be made both for and against the differing degrees of grouping of diagnostic categories seen in Tables 2.1 and 2.2. As mentioned above, reliability and validity in diagnosis have been shown to increase as categories are broadened -- an argument in favor of Bloom's (1968) use of only four categories. On the other hand, such broad groupings may be so heterogeneous within themselves as to curtail the formulation of specified etiological hypotheses.

Further to this question, Zigler and Phillips (1961) have discussed the Kraepelinian view of diagnosis and its original aim to incorporate

Table 2.1

Groupings of Diagnostic Data

Most General Level	Categories Entering Statistical Analyses	Specific Diagnoses forming the more General Categories
1. Brain disorder	1. Brain disorder	Senile and pre-senile dementia Acute and chronic alcoholic psychoses Acute and chronic brain disorders, psychotic and non-psychotic, of other origin
2. Functional psychoses	2. Non-schizophrenic psychoses	Manic-depressive psychoses Involuntional psychoses Psychotic depression Paranoid states
	3. Chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia	Chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia
	4. Acute schizophrenia	Acute undifferentiated schizophrenia
	5. Paranoid schizophrenia	Paranoid schizophrenia
	6. Miscellaneous schizophrenia	Simple schizophrenia Hebephrenic schizophrenia Catatonic schizophrenia Residual schizophrenia Schizo-affective disorders
3. Neurosis	7. Depressive neurosis	Depressive neurosis
	8. Other neurosis	Anxiety neurosis Hysterical neurosis Phobic neurosis Obsessive-compulsive neurosis Hypochondriacal neurosis Psychophysiological disorders Other and unspecified neurosis
4. Personality disorder	9. Personality disorder	Trait and pattern disturbances Sexual deviation
	10. Sociopathy	Antisocial personality
	11. Addiction	Alcoholism Drug dependence
	12. Transient situational disturbance	Transient situational disturbances

Table 2.2

Specific diagnostic categories studied in previous
epidemiological research of an ecologic design

Study	Time period of sample	Diagnoses studied
Faris & Dunham (1960)	1922-1934	Schizophrenia, total cases Paranoid schizophrenia Hebephrenic schizophrenia Catatonic schizophrenia Simple and unclassified schizophrenia Manic-depressive, total cases Manic-depressive, manic Manic-depressive, depressed Alcoholic psychoses Drug addiction (without psychosis) General paralysis Senile psychosis Arteriosclerotic psychosis
Jaco (1960)	1951-1952	Schizophrenia Affective psychosis Involutional psychosis Cerebral arteriosclerosis Senile dementia Toxic psychosis Syphilitic psychosis Other organic psychosis Unspecified psychosis
Klee et. al. (1967)	1961-1964	Schizophrenic and paranoid disorders Involutional and affective psychotic reactions Personality and psychoneurotic disorders Brain syndromes Mental retardation Alcoholic disorders
Bloom (1968)	1959-1961	Functional psychoses Psychoneurotic and psychosomatic disorders Acute or chronic brain syndrome Personality disorders

information relating to etiology, treatment and prognosis into diagnoses, stating that etiological information is usually the last to be discovered about a disorder. But, in order to identify etiological variables, it is an essential condition, as discussed by Eysenck (1961), to first state the precise nature of the disorder under investigation. As epidemiology's main concern is the determination of disease etiology, it follows that it would be most appropriate to study specified discrete disorders rather than heterogeneous groupings of disorders. Unfortunately, the misclassifications encountered when fine discriminations are utilized renders this ideal impractical.

One possible solution is to obtain an unusually large sample, retaining fine discriminations within it. Faris and Dunham's study, covering 12 years and using 28,763 cases, is an example of a case in which such a procedure was possible (Faris & Dunham, 1960). However, criticism can be levelled at the unusually long time period studied and at the possibility that social change may have biased the data in some unknown manner. It is a more usual practise to study admissions over periods from two to three years long, as in the present study.

The 12 diagnostic categories seen in Table 2.1 were chosen as a compromise between the requirements of validity and reliability and those of discriminability of disorders. In order to assess more general trends, the four broader categories, also seen in Table 2.1, could be considered in interpretations.

The Description of Environments

The province of British Columbia is well suited to epidemiological studies of an ecological design because of the great environmental variety within its boundaries. Topographically, it ranges from the fertile delta of the Fraser Valley, the fiords of the western coastline,

the inhospitable mountains covering much of the province's area, the rolling hills of the interior plateau, to the prairie flatlands of the Peace River country which blend in the north to tundra. A great variation in climate is represented within the province, from the mild and rainy marine climate on the coast to the dry temperature extremes of continental climate in the interior.

The most dense population distribution occurs in the Southwest corner of the province, with Vancouver, the third largest city in Canada, at its center. In sharp contrast, there are regions covering about half the area of the province which are so sparsely populated as almost to be considered virtually uninhabited. Between these extremes lie many cities and towns, ranging between 100,000 and less than 1000 in population, and numerous unincorporated hamlets. The province's economy is based on primary industry, mainly logging, mining and fishing, the relative roles of these different industries varying across regions. There are also great differences in the ages of communities, some being over 100 years old, while some are new planned communities, erected within months to service new industries.

Ethnically, like other areas in western North America, British Columbia has many Japanese and Chinese immigrants. In addition, because of the comparatively small white population, the native Indian population is more in evidence and perhaps more culturally influential, particularly in rural areas, than in most areas of the U. S. and in many areas of Canada. The French Canadian influence is not as strong as in eastern Canada, with persons of British ancestry forming the ethnic majority.

Selection of Geographic Areas.

The school districts of British Columbia were chosen as the environ-

mental areas of study to enter the ecological analysis. The chief advantage of these regional divisions was that they were roughly analogous to counties, containing in most cases, at least one major town and a rural area served by that town. The use of areas similar to counties was considered convenient for purposes of comparison to the previous studies after which the environmental taxonomy was to be modelled, such as those of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960), and Kendall (1963). It was also believed, on the basis of general knowledge of the province, that the school district boundaries approximated social areas with which persons tend to identify and which would therefore be expected to determine their environmental standards of comparison or frames of reference.

The diagnostic data, previously described, to which the school district environmental analysis was eventually to be related, had been located during routine record keeping for the Provincial Department of Health, by both school district and town. The fact that there were few cases in many areas of the province indicated that use of the larger school district regions was more practical for statistical purposes than the use of towns as environmental units. At the same time, clustering of the school districts to ensure an even larger sample of admissions within each area entering the analysis was considered unviable because of the high degree of heterogeneity of environmental characteristics within regions, and lack of heterogeneity between regions, that would have resulted.

In 1966, the median year for which the Riverview data were available, there were a total of 83 school districts in British Columbia, representing a wide range of attributes. Although it was considered necessary to

ensure maximum heterogeneity between regions and homogeneity within regions, it was required that the characteristics to be measured be present, and thus measurable, in all regions. To promote comparability among districts, three very large and sparsely populated areas in the north of the province were excluded from the analysis while two particularly small ones were combined with adjacent school districts. As a result, 78 geographic regions entered the analyses. A map of the school districts can be seen in Appendix A-1 and a listing of them in Appendix A-2.

Selection of a Method to Describe the Geographic Areas.

Former ecological studies on the epidemiology of mental disorder have used a variety of methods to describe environmental differences. Jaco's chapter on the spatial distribution of psychosis in Texas (Jaco, 1960) exemplifies the simplest and crudest approach to ecological investigation. He mapped a number of subsets of his data on mental disorder rates, distinguishing between rates on the basis of the quartiles into which they fell. Environmental correlates of the observed rate differences were then noted.

On the next level of sophistication are the studies of Faris and Dunham (1960) and Klee et. al. (1967). Like Jaco (1960), they both mapped the rate differences distinguishing between quartiles, but they followed this by using the same mapping procedure on a number of single variables hypothesized to be relevant to the spatial distribution of mental disorder. Similarities and differences between the maps were ascertained by visual inspection and by perusal of tabulated percentages and population adjusted rates. Klee et. al. (1967) supplemented their visual inspection by testing for variations from chance by using the Chi-square test of signifi-

cance, while Faris and Dunham (1960) calculated correlation coefficients in cases of interest.

The mapping method described above is conceptually correlational, differing from statistical correlation methods in having a constant score range of four points because of the use of quartiles, and in visually estimating rather than numerically calculating the degree of correlation between variables. Dogan and Rokkan (1969) discussed the trend in human ecology away from the mapping approach to the statistical correlational approach, stating that the latter constitutes an improvement because it forces the use of clearer logic and allows a wider range of variation in the measures used.

Bloom (1968) operated at a level of statistical sophistication similar to that advocated by Dogan and Rokkan (1969). Beginning with 42 environmental variables, he performed a cluster analysis and computed scores on the four derived clusters assignable to each of the census tracts. The cluster scores were mapped by quartiles as in the three previously discussed studies, but the principal analysis involved the calculation of product-moment correlation coefficients between cluster scores, other selected environmental characteristics and mental disorder rates. Interpretation of results was based on these correlation coefficients.

None of the described procedures dealt with the problem of redundant or shared variance within data sets -- a problem of particular concern in multivariate analysis. Struening and Lehmann (1969) point to this problem in a preliminary presentation of their continuing study of environmental determinants of behavior pathology in the Bronx. Using nine environmental predictor variables and ten behavioral criterion measures,

they computed multiple correlation coefficients of all the predictors with each criterion. However, even though most of the behavioral measures were highly predictable, the mean correlation between the predictors was .53, indicating that the number of predictor dimensions might have been reduced without losing predictive power. A reduction of dimensions can serve to produce further information about relationships between variables as well as to enable a more parsimonious approach to data analysis and interpretation of results.

In Bloom's cluster analysis (Bloom, 1968), the third and fourth clusters had strong negative correlations with the first cluster, suggesting that the three clusters together were strongly related to another more general dimension. The studies of Faris and Dunham (1960) and Klee et. al. (1967) were probably as unparsimonious as Bloom's (Bloom, 1968), but as neither team intercorrelated their variables, it is impossible to estimate the degree of inter-variable redundancy that existed.

The problems of reducing the influence of shared or redundant variance between variables or subsets of variables was resolved in this study by the use of factor analysis. The original 78 predictor variables were to be factored to produce fewer more general predictors orthogonal to each other. Varimax rotations were to be performed on the factors aimed at obtaining simple structure, and thus better interpretability, while maintaining orthogonality.

The most obvious advantage of uncorrelated predictors is better interpretability of relative contributions of predictors. In addition they are more stable upon cross-validation. In the present case, the factored set of predictors will have the advantages of orthogonality while including all the information in the original set of 75 variables. (See Burket, 1964 for a complete discussion of these considerations.)

The most crucial consideration in the factor analysis of the school districts concerned the variables that would enter the analysis. It was, of course, important to select variables hypothesized to be of relevance to the etiology of mental disorder because the nature of the variables would determine the nature of the factors that were to be used as predictors of mental disorder. There are infinite possible combinations of variables selectable from any environment, and it would be fruitless to attempt to predict mental disorder from irrelevant combinations. A more detailed consideration of multivariate techniques of data analysis follows directly, while a detailed discussion of the variables entering the factor analysis can be found in Chapter 3.

The Summarizing and Analyzing of Data

Previously, studies similar to the present one, although of the same basic design (e.g., Faris & Dunham, 1960; Jaco, 1960; Klee et. al., 1967) have tended to have a less strictly quantitative orientation than today's technology allows. Cattell's statement (Cattell, 1965) regarding differences between clinical and statistical methods of studying personality, can be equally as well applied to the differences between qualitative and quantitative epidemiological analyses.

"For the clinician appraises the total pattern 'by eye', and tries to make generalizations from a good memory, whereas the multivariate experimenter actually measures all the variables and may then set an electronic computer to abstract the regularities which exist, instead of relying on human memory and generalization." (Cattell, 1965, p. 22)

Further discussion of the implications for multivariate measurement techniques of advances in computer technology can be found in a monograph by Gullahorn (1967).

The factor analysis of environments previously discussed was to be the first of the multivariate procedures used in this study, its function being to summarize the large number of environmental variables into a manageable number of dimensions. As mentioned in the quotation from Cattell (1965), the computer can abstract regularities but, however, the human researcher must draw inferences and consider the implications of the findings. Summarization is important because the fewer the variates to be considered simultaneously, the more precisely and efficiently they can be considered. Parsimony is also important in communicating findings.

The diagnostic rates for the various school districts, as discussed earlier in this chapter, were to be related to the environmental variates by canonical regression analysis. As indicated by Lee (1969), canonical analysis can be directly compared to both multiple regression analysis and to principal component analysis, a technique similar to factor analysis.

Multiple regression analysis is actually a special case of canonical regression analysis in which there is only one dependent variable or criterion. Within the regression model, canonical analysis permits the estimation of two or more dependent variables. "Natural variation is multivariate and consequently there are advantages to a model which analyzes the variation of several dependent variates simultaneously." (Lee, 1969, p. 4)

A comparison of canonical regression to principal component analysis, as drawn by Stewart and Love (1968), succinctly delineates the relationship between the two techniques while simply describing the conceptual basis of canonical regression analysis.

"If we were to component analyze two sets of variables independently and then develop weights

which would rotate the two component structures to maximum correlation, we would have a canonical solution....In the canonical case the components are usually referred to as canonical variates. The correlation between the first variate of the left set and the first variate of the right set is the first canonical correlation...." (Stewart & Love, 1968, p. 160.)

Thus it can be seen that canonical analysis can fulfill a summarizing function because of its relationship to principal component analysis, as well as an analytic function in that it produces coefficients of correlation to indicate degrees of relationship between the weighted linear composites constituting the canonical variates.

In order to improve interpretability of canonical regression analysis, it has been suggested (Meredith, 1964; Stewart & Love, 1968) that correlations of the original variables with the canonical variates be computed. Formerly, interpretation was based on patterns of canonical regression weights (e.g., Kendall, 1963), but this procedure has been revised because regression weights are unstable across samples and because the correlations of the variables on the canonical variates yield results interpretable as factor or principal component loadings. These patterns of loadings have come to be known as canonical components (Stewart & Love, 1968; Thorndike & Weiss, 1970).

A recent development designed to further improve the interpretability of canonical analyses is the non-symmetric index of redundancy, proposed by Stewart & Love (1968), which represents the amount of predicted variance in a set of variables. Given the two data sets entering a canonical regression analysis, the redundant variance refers to the variance occurring within the intersection of the two sets of variables. If two sets were unrelated there would be no redundancy; if they had been drawn from the same population of items, the smaller set would be subsumed within

the larger set and would be completely redundant. As a rule, only a certain proportion of the variance between the two sets is redundant or shared, and as one set is usually smaller than the other, the proportion of the variance in each set that is redundant differs. The need for a specifically non-symmetric measure of redundancy was dictated by these differing proportions of the total redundant variance contained in each set.

In this manner, the relevance of strong canonical correlations can be determined. If there was little in common between two data sets (low redundancy) then a high correlation would indicate a high degree of predictability of trivial amounts of variance. Small canonical correlations are, of course, generally of little interest in any event. Further clarification of the relative importance of each canonical component can be determined by calculating the contribution of each component to that set's total redundancy. The percentage of redundant variance accounted for by canonical components is comparable to the percentage of total or common variance accounted for by principal components or factors.

Discussion of canonical regression analysis will be resumed in Chapter 6, wherein the canonical analysis of the present study is described and interpreted. Attention will be directed at that time to difficulties in interpreting canonical results.

Only one previous study has been designed similarly to the present one; that of Kendall (1963) in the area of job satisfaction. A difference lay in the fact that Kendall used four sets of variates, two of an ecological nature based on taxonomies of companies and of communities, one set of personal background variates, while the criterion measures, measures of satisfaction and of behavior related to the job, comprised

the fourth set. Eighteen combinations of criterion and predictor variates were subjected to canonical regression analysis. In contrast, the present study utilized only one set each of predictor and criterion variables.

Summary

The research strategy was to involve the computation of canonical regressions between characteristics of environments and rates of twelve different mental disorders for 78 geographic regions of British Columbia.

An episode of mental disorder was considered to be an episode involving admission, treatment and discharge from Riverview Hospital during the period 1965-1968. This definition was compared to those used in four related studies, and it was found that, although it was dissimilar to the definitions used in those studies, those studies differed among themselves as well. Total admissions, as used in the present study, were felt to merit attention in that they indicated both mental disorder and intolerance of mental disorder in the admitted persons' original social milieus.

The set of diagnostic data was reordered into twelve categories in an effort to compromise between the requirements of reliability and validity of diagnosis which can be improved using broader categories, and the necessity to have categories finely enough discriminated to prevent excessive heterogeneity within categories. The school districts of B. C., the geographic divisions that were chosen for analysis, were considered in terms of the reasons for their selection. The comparability of these regions to counties, and thus to former work on the development of environmental taxonomies, and the apparent maximization of heterogeneity between regions were indicated as advantages of using these areas.

Selection of the method to describe the geographical areas proceeded with a consideration of previous relevant studies. These studies were

generally found to be less statistically sophisticated than today's technology will allow, and it was decided that factor analysis would be the method used in the present study. Factor scores were to be subsequently computed in readiness for further calculations. A consideration of the variables entering the analysis was deferred to Chapter 3.

Consideration of the multivariate statistical techniques to be used followed, and it was demonstrated that while factor analysis serves mainly to summarize data, canonical regression analysis performs both summarization and analytical functions. Two recent developments in canonical regression analysis to be used in the present study were discussed. They included the computation of correlations of the original variables with the canonical variates and a non-symmetric measure of redundancy that can be used to determine the overlap between the two sets of variables in the canonical analysis.

The essential design of the present study was to involve the determination of multivariate relationships between two sets of epidemiological variables. The twelve diagnostic categories were to serve as the dependent or criterion variables, while the environmental factors were to serve as the independent or predictor variables. As the complete population was used, there were no sampling errors in the data to take into account. However, although the problem of generalizing from a sample to the population was absent in this study, generalization from the present set of data to future rates of mental hospitalization was implicit in the study's purpose. Thus, the present data set constituted a sample in time.

**SECTION II: DEVELOPMENT OF AN
ENVIRONMENTAL TAXONOMY**

CHAPTER 3: A Review of the Literature on

Environmental Description

Introduction

The problem of deriving appropriate environmental descriptions has been a recurrent one in the social sciences, but has only attracted attention in psychology in the past few years with the development of interest in situational and ecological determinants of behavior. Rotter, in 1955, pointed to the role of the situation in determining the direction of human behavior, while Barker (1965, 1968) and Sommer (1968, 1969) have traced the development of their ecological perspectives to the work of Kurt Lewin in the 1930's and 40's.

"The approach of Lewin...is similar to the ecological view in its emphasis on the myriad influences within an individual's life space but placed less emphasis upon the time dimension. Lewin's field theory tended to be cross-sectional and ahistorical; the phenomenal field was represented as an instant rather than an interconnection of processes enduring over decades or centuries. The historical method is very much a part of modern ecology." (Sommer, 1968, p. 592)

Barker's programs of research, underway since the late 1940's have provided a proliferation of evidence in favor of the importance of the environmental determinants of behavior:

"When, early in our work at the Field Station, we made long records of children's behavior in real-life settings ... , we found that some attributes of behavior varied less across children within settings than across settings within the days of children. We found, in short, that we could predict some aspects of children's behavior more adequately from knowledge of the behavior characteristics of the drugstores, arithmetic classes, and basketball games they inhabited than from knowledge of the behavior tendencies of particular children..." (Barker, 1968, p. 4)

Wohlwill (1970) discussed the work of these and other authors under the rubric of "environmental psychology", and demonstrated that the

ecological study of the environmental correlates and determinants of human behavior is indeed an "emerging discipline". Taking a refined approach to the accumulation of knowledge to date, Wohlwill described three main areas of study within environmental psychology: first, the structuring of behavior by the proximal situation; second, the influence of environmental variables on broader systems of response; and third, the attitudes and attendant actions of individuals towards their environments. The first mentioned area has received the most attention, and includes the work of Barker (1965, 1968) and Sommer (1968, 1969), while the second, which is the least studied, is cited by Wohlwill (1970) as the most directly relevant to epidemiology. The third orientation is more general and relevant to a broader range of discourse within psychology as a whole, dealing as it does with perception, adaptation, curiosity, and other phenomena.

A Review of Environmental Taxonomies

Sells (1966) noted that an important step towards encoding the environment had been achieved in factor analyses of census and similar data, particularly with the work of Hadden and Borgatta (1965). However, although such work is only beginning to attract attention in psychology, attempts to quantify environments have presented, as mentioned above, a recurrent problem in the social sciences in general. The environmental units of analysis have varied widely to include cities, census tracts, cultures, countries, and various administrative regions. Cities have received by far the most attention.

Hadden and Borgatta (1965) provide a brief review of intuitive classification schemes that have been applied in urban sociology, concentrating

on historical-evolutionary and economic specialization bases of classification. Passing mention is made of size, geographical location, occupational structure, economic base, relationship of cities to their tributary areas, and regional location as criteria that have been used in the history of writing about cities. Following from this, work in Social Areas analysis such as that of Shevky and Williams (1949) and Shevky and Bell (1955) led to Tryon's (1955) successful cluster analysis of political regions in the San Francisco Bay area.

Although cluster analysis continues to attract interest as a typological technique (see Cureton, Cureton, and Durfee, 1970), it is subject to the disadvantages previously noted in regard to Bloom's (1968) cluster analysis of the census tracts of Pueblo, Colorado i.e. clusters are usually correlated (see Chapter 2). Factor analysis can avoid this problem through the use of orthogonal rotation schemes, and has, in fact, seen a longer tradition of community and environmental classification.

One of the earliest studies of regional classification by factor analysis was that of Hagood, Davilensky and Beum (1941), while Price (1942) was the first to apply factor analysis to the city. Further studies in urban typology have been conducted by Hofstaetter (1952, Kaplan (1958), Moser and Scott (1961), and most notably, Hadden and Borgatta (1965). On a more macroscopic level, cultural variables have been factored by such researchers as Cattell (1949, 1950) and Hofstaetter (1951) as well as by anthropologists such as Schluessler and Driver (1956). Even cultural change has proved amenable to analysis as seen in the work of Cattell and Adelson (1951), Cattell (1953) and Gibb (1956). And, most recently, Shafer (1969), an environmental psychologist, has reported the derivation of nine factors that describe Adirondack campground environ-

ments. A comprehensive bibliography of factor analytic studies performed on non-psychological data including geographic and cultural data is provided in Rummel (1970).

As mentioned earlier (Chapter 2), the school districts to be used as geographical regions in the present study are comparable to counties. Accordingly, the works of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963), all of which included factor analyses of counties, have the most direct relevance and merit more detailed consideration than other previously derived taxonomies. It is of interest to note that only two previous data sets have been analyzed for geographical units of this nature, as Kendall's data was an adaptation of Johnson's.

It will be most expedient to discuss the variables used in these earlier studies in the following section of this chapter, and the composition of the factors in Chapter 4. However, certain basic qualities of the analyses deserve mention at this point because of their relationships to the design of the present study.

Johnson (1958) dealt with a simple but important methodological issue in analyzing his data both in raw form and after conversion to rates. Using the raw data, he found six factors accounted for 100% of the variance in the data set, 60% of that variance accounted for by the first factor. Because he felt that the large first factor could be distorting the structures of the other factors, he reanalyzed the data in rate form, extracting nine factors and retaining five after rotation, thereby accounting for 60% of the total variance. The fact that the five factors of his second analysis replicated the final five factors of his first analysis indicated that no loss of information resulted from using rate figures rather than raw data. On the basis of this finding, all data in the pres-

ent study were converted to rates prior to analysis. The advantage of such a conversion is that the raw data become more meaningful in their own right and can then be useful in the interpretation of the final results of data analysis.

The project undertaken by Jonassen and Peres (1960), an analysis of 82 variables for 88 Ohio counties, was surpassed in magnitude by Johnson's study (1958) in which 72 variables were analyzed for a random sample of 370 American counties. Both studies extracted the factors by Thurstone's complete centroid method, then subjecting the factors to manual orthogonal rotation. Kendall's (1963) procedure in reanalyzing 55 of Johnson's variables involved, as in the present study, the more objective principal component method of factor extraction, followed by Varimax rotations. Although the method of analysis was most comparable to Kendall's (1963), the composition of the present data set, with 75 variables and 78 observations, was more similar to that of Jonassen and Peres (1960).

Kendall's solution yielded 12 latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1.00, and 10 factors after rotation, of which eight were used in the construction of community variates. Johnson (1958) and Jonassen and Peres (1960), possibly because of the more cumbersome and time-consuming computational techniques they used, extracted and retained fewer factors (Johnson extracted nine and retained five while Jonassen and Peres extracted and retained seven). As will be seen in Chapter 4, the present study retained many more factors than in these previous studies. The reasons for this difference are discussed in Chapter 4.

Selection of Variables and a Review
of the Relevant Literature

There are an infinite number of variables that can be used to describe any environment, and, the more variables sampled, the more comprehensive the final description will be. Because the composition of the derived factors would depend on the nature of the original variables, the variables in this study were selected on the basis of relevance to the research question. The hypothesized relevance of each variable to the etiology of mental disorder was, in some cases, based directly on the literature concerning the precursors of mental disorder, while in other cases, the variables were selected as possibly indexing some aspect of life in the community environment assumed to be favorable or unfavorable.

In general, the variables indexing the social environment were aggregates (e.g. total population, % of males in the population) while the variables describing the physical environments were single measures referring to the school district as a whole. These two types of variables have been referred to as aggregate and global variables by Dogan and Rokkan (1969), and it has been argued that the two types of variables are incomparable and should not be analyzed together. It could further be argued that as the persons admitted to Riverview contribute to the aggregates themselves, any correlations between them and their social aggregates would be of doubtful validity.

Data collection proceeded in the belief that these arguments were nullified by the ecological design of the study (see Chapter 1 for a full discussion of this point). In ecological epidemiological studies the procedure involves the comparison of the differences in disorder rates over a number of geographic areas and no immediate inferences are made to

the individual case. Instead, inferences are made to the environmental differences between the geographic areas. If this study had incorporated demographic data on individuals admitted to Riverview, the problem of drawing inferences to the individual case would have required consideration.

The derivation of each of the 75 variables is described in some detail in Appendix A-3 and a listing of the eleven secondary sources from which data were collected can be seen in Appendix A-4. In order to facilitate discussion of the nature of the variables, they were grouped in terms of certain common qualities (Table 3.1).

TABLE 3.1
The Ten Groupings of the 75 Variables

Group Number	Group Name	Number of Variables
I	Community Organization	15
II	Economics	12
III	Education	5
IV	Health	5
V	Isolation	4
VI	Physical Geography	7
VII	Political Behavior	5
VIII	Population Figures, General	8
IX	Recreation	4
X	Social Health	10
	Total	75

Description of the Variables

I Community Organization. The fifteen variables falling in the first grouping were selected as relating to the distribution and dynamics of the populations within school districts. For example, the age of the main community in the school district (variable 1) was included in this group-

ing to indicate the length of time that social activity had existed in an organized manner in the area, thus including a temporal dimension in the description.

TABLE 3.2

Variables indexing Community Organization

1. Community age, 1966	*8. Pop. in hamlets, 1961
2. Number of hamlets, 1961	*9. Rural pop., 1961
3. Towns 2500- pop., 1966	10. Town pop. density, 1961
4. Towns 2500-4999, 1966	11. Non-town pop. density, 1961
5. Towns 5000-9999, 1966	*12. Pop. growth, 1956-61
6. Towns 10,000+, 1966	*13. Pop. growth, 1961-66
*7. Pop. in organized area, 1961	*14. Town growth, 1961-66
	*15. Natural pop. growth, 1966

*Figures not available for Indians on reserves.

Bearing in mind the findings of Faris and Dunham (1960) and the results of subsequent research relating to city size and rates of mental disorder (e.g. Clausen & Kohn, 1959), variables 2 to 6, indexing the number and size of communities into which a district's population had gathered, were included in the data set. As reviewed by Rose and Stub (1955), Buss (1966) and Suinn (1970), and discussed by Dunham (1961), it has been found that differentiation between geographic and socioeconomic status groups in terms of rates of mental disorder decreases as city size decreases.

In a similar attempt to isolate influences similar to those operating in Faris and Dunham's original study (Faris & Dunham, 1960), figures on population density in the organized areas (variable 10) were included in the belief that the degree of urban concentration of towns within school districts could be indexed by such a variable. The computation of separate measures of population density for organized and unorganized (vari-

able 11) areas represents a refinement over the use of overall mean population densities of counties found in the analyses performed by Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963).

The percentage of persons living in hamlets (variable 8) was considered to be roughly equivalent to the rural non-farm variable that appears in much of the sociological literature, variable 9 to the sociological variable rural farm population, and variable 7, the percentage of persons living in organized areas, to the urban population variable often used (in U. S. census data, urban areas are those of 2500 population and over). These variables were included as descriptive of the clustering of the school districts' populations and as indexing environmental aspects such as inhabitability of the rural land.

Of the last four variables, number 14, independent growth of organized areas, has not appeared in any previous analyses. It was felt that when analyzing regions with widely varying population dispersions it was important to distinguish between the growth of towns and growth of the area in general when they were independent. Town growth could be expected to correlate with increasing economic and social sophistication and subsequent social change, whereas overall district growth, while possibly indicative of economic well-being, could have an inconsequential effect on the social environment, particularly if the region was large. Differentiation of natural population growth (variable 15) from regional growth in general (variables 12 and 13), thereby distinguishing between population increase due to immigration and to natural growth was felt to be of importance because of the equivocal findings regarding the relationship of migration to mental disorder (Malzberg & Lee, 1956; Jaco, 1960; Klee et. al., 1967).

None of variables 1 to 6 or 14 have appeared in previous analyses. However, variables similar to 7, 8, 9, 12 and 13 were included by Johnson (1958) and Kendall (1963), while both Johnson (1958) and Jonassen and Peres (1960) included a variable similar to numbers 10 and 11 combined and Jonassen and Peres (1960) used variables 7 and 15 and another combining 12 and 13.

II Economics. The frequent implication of socioeconomic variables in the etiology of mental disorders ascribes an important role to the variables in this second grouping. Some readings relevant to this subject include Faris and Dunham (1960), Rose and Stub (1955), Hollingshead and Redlich (1958), Gurin et. al. (1960), Jaco (1960), Dunham (1961), Reid (1961), Theodorson (1961), Srole et. al. (1962), Langner and Michael (1963), Leighton et. al. (1963), Buss (1966), Klee et. al. (1967), Sechrest and Wallace (1967), Bloom (1966, 1968), Myers and Bean (1968) and Suinn (1970).

TABLE 3.3

Variables indexing Economics

16. Increase in liquor sales, 1959-63	22. Non-town property value, 1961
17. Liquor sales, 1963	23. Town property value, 1961
18. Retail sales, 1961	24. Mean male wage, 1961
19. General Mill rate, 1963	25. Female wage level, 1961
20. School Mill rate, 1963	26. % of workers earning wages, 1961
21. Municipal debt, 1963	27. % of wage earners who were female, 1961

Turning first to the variables that have entered previous analyses, variables 18 and 27, retail sales and female wage earners, were used in a nearly identical form by all of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kenall (1963). It was expected that the former variable would serve to

identify the more socially complex distribution centers of the province while the latter might index relevant social differences in terms of family structure.

Variables of different form but similar purpose to number 20, school mill rate, were used by Jonassen and Peres (1960). This variable was entered as an indication of local school support beyond the contributions of the senior levels of government. Variable 22, non-town property value, is reminiscent of the farm value variable used by Johnson (1958) and Kendall (1963), but, while their variable was strictly concerned with prosperity, the present variable was included to index the utility of rural land in addition to prosperity.

The remaining variables were unique to this analysis and related chiefly to urbanism and prosperity. Variables 16 and 17 were cited in the Regional Index, their source, as sensitive economic indicators, and were thus included as relevant to prosperity. The general mill rate (variable 19), municipal debt (variable 21), town property value (variable 23) and the incidence of wage earning (variable 26) were all considered to reflect aspects of prosperity and of social complexity such as that found in urban environments. Variables 24 and 25, relating to male and female wage levels, were considered directly relevant to prosperity, while the female wage level, as it was expressed as a percentage of the male wage level, was expected to reflect social differences in a similar fashion to variable 27, the percentage of female wage earners.

III Education. Educational level is a variable included in most epidemiological studies, whether demographic or ecological in design (see Chapter 1). It was unfortunate that educational data for the adult populations were not available, but it was felt that the included educational

variables should provide an indication of educational practices and standards within the school districts.

TABLE 3.4

Variables indexing Education

28. Mean class size, 1966	31. Visual education circulation, 1966
29. Excess of teachers over the number of classes, 1966	32. High school attendance, 1966
30. Per pupil expenditure, 1966	

Citing precedent once again, variable 32, high school attendance, has seen frequent use in previous studies, having entered the community descriptions of Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Jonassen and Peres (1960) as well as the epidemiological studies of Bloom (1968) and Klee et. al. (1967). As low educational level generally tends to perpetuate poverty and its attendant ills, this variable could be expected to show covariation with some variables in groups II and X which relate to economics and social health, respectively.

The other four variables were felt to relate more specifically to the quality of education. The roles of variable 30, per pupil expenditure on education (in this case, by the provincial government) and the mean class size (variable 28) appeared initially to be obvious in this respect. However, it became apparent during data collection that the relationships were more complex. Per pupil expenditure, for example, was higher in rural areas where there were less pupils to a school building.

Similarly, visual education circulation (variable 31), although included to index teacher effort, was compounded by the fact that certain more populous school districts had their own stock of visual aids and thus used

fewer from the Department of Education, as indexed here. This variable became something of a rural-urban index, as did number 29, the excess of teachers over the number of school divisions. In the latter case, the raw data suggested the excess to occur mainly in more heavily populated areas. Thus it appeared that variables 29 and 31 were serving two functions in identifying a rural-urban as well as an educational quality dimension.

IV Health. As it is generally more feasible to measure community health in a negative rather than positive sense, this group of variables was concerned mainly with mortality rates.

TABLE 3.5

Variables indexing Health

*33. Death rate, 1966	36. Motor vehicle deaths, 1965-68
*34. Infant death rate, 1966	37. Per capita hospital beds, 1961
*35. Hospital death rate, 1966	

*Figures not available for Indians on reserves.

The extent to which variables similar to those indexing health in this study have been used in environmental descriptions in the past suggests that the level of public health is generally assumed to describe an important social dimension. Infant deaths (variable 34) appeared in the taxonomic studies of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963) and in the epidemiological studies of Klee et. al. (1967) and Struening and Lehmann (1969). The overall death rate (variable 33) and possibly the hospital death rate (variable 35), although expected to be related to the prevalence of old age in a district, were included in the

additional expectation that they might relate to measures of social disruption. Death rates were used by all of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963).

The purpose of including the hospital death rate (variable 35) in the data set was to obtain an inverse measure of sudden deaths. The motor vehicle death rate (variable 36) was similarly expected to index the prevalence of sudden and violent demise. Johnson (1958) and Kendall (1963) used motor vehicle death rates in their analyses, while Jonassen and Peres (1960) used a more general measure of accidental death.

The per capita hospital beds variable (number 37) was considered to fulfill two functions. In the first place it could index the degree of health concern in a community, a concern that might extend to mental health, the subject of this study. At the same time, it controlled for the fact that non-hospital death rates (variable 35) could in some cases be inflated because extensive hospital facilities are unfeasible in some of the province's small communities. Thus if both the hospital death rate and the available hospital beds were to have similar loadings on the same factor it would be possible to rule out the assessment of accidental deaths by that factor.

V Isolation. Because some areas of B. C. are cut off from the outside world by great distances and poor roads, it was felt to be particularly relevant to include variables indexing isolation in this study. Life in such communities is less complex because of the greater familiarity with the environment that ensues when there are less people and less buildings with which to become familiar. The social differences between small isolated communities and larger more complex and less restricting communities could be expected to have relevance to mental disorder rates.

TABLE 3.6

Variables indexing Isolation

38. Distance from Riverview Hospital	39. Accessibility by air
	40. Impediments to land travel
	41. Per capita phones, 1961

Variable 38, the distance from Riverview Hospital to the major town of each school district, is similar to a variable used by Johnson (1958), the distance between the county seat and the nearest town of 25,000 or more. In the present study, the distance from Riverview was chosen as a criterion of isolation partly because Riverview is near Vancouver, but chiefly because the definition of mental disorder used in the epidemiological analysis involved admission to that hospital. It has been hypothesized (see Jaco, 1960; Suinn, 1970) that one of the reasons for the consistently lower rates of psychiatric treatment in rural areas may be due to decreased availability of mental health facilities. The testing of this hypothesis and its corollary, that the rural admissions would consist of more severe disorders, was felt to be facilitated by the use of this distance measure.

While variable 38 referred to automobile travel, variable 40, impediments to land travel, was added to index the complications that would surround such travel. Variable 39, indexing the feasibility of air travel, was included as an additional measure of isolation and to control for the fact that, while some regions are almost inaccessible by road, they are only a few hours removed by air. Thus, spuriously high highway isolation scores could be controlled for.

Per capita phones (variable 41) was used to refer to isolation within districts. Although it is commonly believed, after Faris and Dunham (1960),

that social isolation is a problem of the inner city, it does not appear unreasonable to suspect that the type of social isolation which occurs when interaction opportunities do not exist, as in the case of a person in a rural environment with no telephone, could have similar etiological implications to the social isolation hypothesis. Kohn and Clausen (1955) found that any social isolation which their sample of psychiatric patients had experienced appeared to be due more to poor social skills than physical isolation. However, such a finding does not preclude the possibility that physical, and therefore social isolation, may foster the development of mental disorders.

VI Physical Geography. Despite his inclusion of five climate variables, Johnson (1958) obtained no particular climate dimension in his taxonomy. Because of the limited information supplied by the variables, only two of them were used by Kendall (1963) in his adaptation of Johnson's data. The present selection of climatic variables, designed with a view to assessing the extremity of climate, were expected to prove more informative because of the wide range of climates to be found in B. C.

TABLE 3.7

Variables indexing Physical Geography

42. Elevation	46. Mean winter precipitation
43. Ruggedness of terrain	47. Mean summer-winter precipitation difference
44. Mean winter temperature	48. Annual frost-free days
45. Summer-winter temperature difference	

Reviews of the literature on the effects of climatic conditions on behavior indicate that this topic has attracted interest for many years (Tromp, 1968; Sechrest & Wallace, 1967). Unlike in the present study,

where the aim was to assess the overall influence of varying types of climates, most studies relating behavior, both abnormal and normal to meteorological variation, have been concerned with variation over time rather than across regions (for example, see Cerbus, 1970; Edelstein et. al., 1966; Friedman et. al., 1965; Pantleo, 1970; Tromp, 1968). However, the findings suggested by some of these longitudinal studies appear to be suitably applicable to cross-regional studies. For example, Tromp's (1968) observations of hospitalized schizophrenics indicated that this disorder may involve a disruption of the thermoregulation mechanism, with the result that greater than normal stress and therefore restlessness is experienced in periods of temperature change. Tromp (1968) also suggested that the greater restlessness exhibited by his patients in the winter months could be related to a lack of sunlight. Of interest in the study of aggressive acts, particularly suicide and crime, is the finding that these, like schizophrenic restlessness, appear to be associated with changes in the weather. It could be hypothesized then, that in climatic regions with generally changeable weather or decreased sunlight, the aggravation of the above disorders could result in higher rates of mental hospital admission.

While variables 44 to 48 were included in an attempt to assess climatic influences, the choice of variable 42 was based on the possibility that there might be differences in elevation levels between school districts sufficient to create differences in the functioning of the hypothalamic-pituitary system similar to the effects of weather (Tromp, 1968). Variable 43, on the other hand, was included to index the visual environment as in the studies of environmental psychologists such as Shafer (1969) and Sonnenfeld (1969).

VII Political Behavior. Measures of voting behavior were included mainly to indicate community attitudes. The only study using similar measures was Bloom's (1968), in which memberships in five organizations were used as indicators of "Community Participation".

TABLE 3.8

Variables indexing Political Behavior

49. % of registered voters voting in Provincial election, 1966	51. % Social Credit Vote, 1966
50. % spoiled ballots, 1966	52. % Liberal vote, 1966
	53. % N.D.P. vote, 1966

Variable 49, the number of registered voters who voted in the Provincial election of 1966, was considered to indicate the degree of involvement in social responsibilities felt within a community. Thus, it might be expected that a low turn-out of voters could indicate feelings of alienation in regard to society at large. Alienation and anomie have frequently been implicated in the etiology of mental disorder (Michael, 1967).

The percentage of spoiled ballots cast (variable 50) was not included for any specified reason. It was felt that it might relate to levels of education or intelligence, but there was not a formulated expectation, on the basis of inspection of the raw data or on theoretical grounds as to how it would function in the factor analysis.

Variables 51 to 53 represented the range of political opinion within each school district, with Social Credit voting considered the most conservative, N.D.P. the most socialistic, and the Liberals in between. In addition, as the Social Credit party was re-elected in 1966, it was felt that a predominance of Social Credit voting could index community satisfaction with the status quo, which in turn, could be related to mental

disorder rates.

VIII Population figures, general. Reidn (1960), as mentioned in Chapter 1, spoke of dividing populations in terms of time, place, and person when seeking epidemiological information. While this study was aimed primarily at divisions on the basis of place, the variables within this grouping were selected as relating to person characteristics within the place divisions or school districts. Thus, some account was taken of the distribution within regions of groups identified as high and low risk groups in previous studies.

TABLE 3.9

Variables indexing Population Figures, General

54. Total population, 1966	57. % of pop. 65 yearst+, 1966
55. % of pop. 15 yearst+, 1966	58. % of Indians in pop., 1966
56. % of males in pop., 1966	59. Median age, 1966
	60. Fertility rate, 1966
	61. Marriage rate, 1966

High risk groups were identified by variables 55 to 57. Those over 15 years of age (variable 55) comprised the total population which was at risk of admission to Riverview Hospital, since that hospital, as an adult facility, rarely admits persons under 15 years of age. The percentage of males in the population (variable 56) identified the sex distribution of the district and, perhaps more importantly, the extent of excess of single males, a group with a high probability of suffering mental disorder (Rose & Stub, 1955; Buss, 1966; Suinn, 1970). Similarly, while variable 57, which defines the group of retirement age, might identify some aspects of a community's social atmosphere, it also identifies a group found susceptible to mental disorder.

Variable 59, median age, was included to refine the definition of the age composition of the districts. Thus, in a district with many old people and a high median age overall, the environment might be less conducive to mental breakdown for elderly persons than in an area with the welfare of old people of lower priority. Variables similar to number 55 were used by Jonassen and Peres (1960), 56 and 59 by Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Bloom (1968), and 57 by Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Jonassen and Peres (1960).

While the size of the total population (variable 54) did not identify a high risk group directly, it was considered relevant to identifying rural-urban differences because urban areas should show higher rates of disorder (Rose & Stub, 1955; Jaco, 1960; Suinn, 1970). The percentage of Indians in the population (variable 58), on the other hand, was considered primarily relevant to the social environment of the regions. This ethnic minority was not hypothesized to show any particular relation to admission rates because of the varying reports in the literature regarding non-white minority groups (Rose & Stub, 1955; Jaco, 1960; Murphy, 1961, Suinn, 1970). The importance of the influence on the social environments of communities by minority groups which are subject to prejudice is implied in the inclusion of similar variables by Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Jaco (1960). The total population variable (number 54) previously appeared in the community taxonomies of Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Jonassen and Peres (1960).

Fertility rates (variable 60), as opposed to marriage rates (variable 61) which have not appeared in previous studies, were used in the epidemiological studies of both Klee et. al. (1967) and Bloom (1968). Although the fertility rate may appear similar to variable 15, natural population growth, the former involved the adjustment of the number of births for

the number of women of child-bearing age while the latter adjusted the excess of births over deaths for the total population. Thus, while a correlation between these two variables might be expected, it could be of only moderate or even low proportions. Both fertility and the marriage rate could be expected to index the preponderance in a region of young married adults, a group at low risk of developing mental disorder (Rose & Stub, 1955; Buss, 1966; Suinn, 1970).

IX Recreation. The inclusion of recreational variables, not to be found in previous studies, was based on two suppositions. In the first place, it could be hypothesized that in an area with more recreational facilities there would be more community cohesiveness in that organized effort had been expended to make these facilities available. Once such facilities were available they could be expected to contribute to community mental health by providing adaptive social and emotional outlets. The second reason for using these variables lay in the fact that tourism is a major factor in B. C.'s economy, and it was expected that these variables could identify communities where tourist trade was important. Such communities might be expected to contain differences in social structure as compared to more conventional communities.

TABLE 3.10

Variables indexing Recreation

62. Extent of natural recreational facilities	64. Grants to recreation commissions, 1966
63. Acreage in public parks and playgrounds, 1966	65. Hotel and motel units per capita, 1961

Specifically, variables 63 and 64 referred to recreational facilities for the permanent residents of the districts, while variable 62, and

especially variable 65 referred to aspects of tourism.

X Social Health. Because many of them are commonly believed to be related to the incidence and prevalence of mental disorder, variables similar to those found in this grouping have seen more use in epidemiological than taxonomic studies. The work of Faris and Dunham (1960) was the first to show that mental disorder rates in urban areas were distributed in a similar manner to the rates of delinquency, unemployment and communicable disease observed by human ecologists (Theodorson, 1961). Similar measures to some of those in this grouping were used in the Stirling County study (Leighton et. al., 1963; Leighton, 1961) to identify communities showing socio-cultural disintegration, while the implications of Faris and Dunham's (1960) study have led to demographically designed research centering on the question of social status and mental disorder (e.g., Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958; Myers & Bean, 1968).

TABLE 3.11

Variables indexing Social Health

66. Availability of community mental health facilities, 1964-67	70. Delinquency rate, 1965-67
67. Referrals to community mental health clinics	71. Welfare reciprocity, 1965-67
68. Admissions to public geriatric facilities, 1965-68	72. Welfare expenditure per recipient, 1966-67
69. Admissions to Woodlands school, 1965-68	*73. Illegitimacy rate, 1966
	74. Alcoholics Anonymous membership, 1966
	75. Number of Alcoholics Anonymous groups, 1966

* Figures not available for Indians on reserves.

The first four variables in Table 3.11 have been more commonly used, in epidemiological studies, to serve as criterion rather than predictor measures as in the present case. This study was not concerned with other

cases of mental disorder than those admitted to Riverview Hospital, but it was felt that whatever other measures were available could be used to clarify the Riverview information. Thus, if it was found that the availability of mental health facilities within the community (variable 66) had an inverse relationship with rates of admission to Riverview, the possibility of successful prevention of more serious disorders by the community mental health programs might be indicated. A similar inference could be suggested by high rates of referral to community mental health clinics (variable 67) if accompanied by low rates of admission to Riverview. Both these variables were considered necessary in order to help explain any unusually high or low incidence rates within communities.

Variables 68 and 69, new admissions to public institutions for senility and mental retardation, were considered less directly related to Riverview admission rates than variables 66 and 67. And, while variable 67, the referrals to community mental health clinics, was expected to relate to willingness within the community to seek psychotherapeutic assistance before hospitalization was necessitated, it was expected that variables 68 and 69 might relate to the community's tendency to reject deviants, a tendency which could, in turn, relate to Riverview admission rates.

As mentioned above in regard to the pioneering study of Faris and Dunham (1960), correlations between delinquency rates and other measures of social disorganization including mental disorder have long been established. It is, then, not surprising to find delinquency rates such as included here in variable 70, in the epidemiological studies of Leighton et. al. (1963), Klee et. al. (1967), Bloom (1966, 1968) and Struening and Lehmann (1969), and in the county taxonomy of Jonassen and Peres (1960). Like juvenile delinquency, illegitimate births (variable 73) and welfare reciprocity (variable 71) may be surface manifestations of mental

disorder, while the amount of welfare assistance available in a community (variable 72) may reflect the extent to which that community is perpetuating poverty and thereby facilitating the development of mental disorder. Welfare figures were used by Jonassen and Peres (1960), Klee et. al. (1967) and Struening and Lehmann (1969), while Bloom (1968) satisfied approximately the same purpose by using unemployment rates. Both Klee et. al. (1967) and Struening and Lehmann (1969) used illegitimacy rates as one of their criteria of social disorder.

The only variables similar to numbers 74 and 75 to enter previous analyses were Bloom's (1968) relating to club membership. However, the measures used here, relating to Alcoholics Anonymous activity, were felt to be of more direct relevance to the research problem than Bloom's because they directly assessed a type of community participation in dealing with a mental health problem. These figures were felt to be most directly relevant to rates of alcoholism and, as many of the brain damage cases were due to alcoholism, to brain damage rates. As in the case of variable 67, referrals to community mental health services, it could be expected that high scores on these variables, if in combination with low rates of admission to Riverview, would reflect a tendency to seek assistance within the community before hospitalization was required.

Summary

The chapter was introduced with a discussion of the growing interest within psychology in environmental ecological correlates and determinants of behavior. This concern was shown, through a review of the history of social environmental classification, to have been a recurrent one in the social sciences in general. Factor analytic classification methods were suggested to be superior to those of cluster analysis and both of these to older intuitive schemes.

Various sizes and types of geographical regions have been subjected to factor analysis, but cities have received the most attention over all. However, particular attention was focussed in this chapter on the county taxonomies of Johnson (1958), Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963) because the school districts to be analyzed in the present study were closely comparable to counties. The advantages of using rate data rather than raw data and the differences between the more objective factoring techniques used in the present study and in Kendall's (1963) as compared to the two earlier ones were discussed.

The seventy-five variables measuring aspects of the environments within the seventy-eight school districts entering the analysis were then presented, discussed and justified. They were selected, for the most part, on the basis of their relevance to the etiology of mental disorder, and this was established by reference to the psychological literature.

For convenience of discussion, the seventy-five variables were grouped into ten categories: (1) Community Organization -- the types of towns and population distribution within the districts (2) Economics -- sales volumes, taxes, wages and property values (3) Education -- the use and quality of educational facilities (4) Health -- health services and mortality rates (5) Isolation -- availability of Vancouver and of social interaction in general (6) Physical Geography -- climate and type of terrain (7) Political Behavior -- extent and type of voting (8) Population Figures, General -- age, sex, ethnic distributions; birth and marriage rates (9) Recreation -- extent of recreational facilities for both residents and tourists (10) Social Health -- use and availability of community mental health services, welfare reciprocity, delinquency and illegitimacy rates, the prevalence of Alcoholics Anonymous.

It was felt that this selection of variables represented a broad and appropriate sample of the infinite set of variables with possible relevance to mental disorder rates.

CHAPTER 4: The Environmental Taxonomy

Considerations in the Collection of the Environmental Data

Data Collection

The environmental data were derived from eleven secondary sources as listed in Appendix A-4. When figures were listed by school district, as in references 4, 5, 7 and 8, the data were simply transcribed and converted to per capita rates using the appropriate subgroup of the population. Wherever possible, per capita rates were used in order to maximize the meaningfulness of the data (see Chapter 3) and to avoid obtaining a general population factor when the factor analysis of the school districts was performed (Johnson, 1958).

In the other secondary sources, the data were grouped in a variety of ways, none of which corresponded to school districts. The geographical divisions in these other sources were, in most cases, smaller than school districts i.e., polling stations (reference 2), weather stations (reference 3), towns within census districts (reference 6), organized areas such as municipalities, cities and villages (reference 9), towns within eight provincial regions (reference 10) and cities, municipalities, villages and R. C. M. P. detachments (reference 11). Each town, village, weather station, etc. was located by school district and all the values within each school district transcribed, summed and standardized as deemed appropriate. Details of these operations can be seen in Appendix A-3.

It was generally necessary to use statistical regions of smaller size than school districts to avoid cumbersome and inaccurate prorated estimates. Because of this, some potentially interesting provincial government figures could not be used. Conversely, although it would have been possible, with the census figures for 1961, to regroup the many very small enumeration

areas of the province to correspond to school districts, it would have been a long and tedious task yielding only five year old approximations upon completion.

Estimation of Missing Data

Two particular problems of data estimation were encountered in the data collection. First, there were cases where geographic divisions in the data sources were larger than or overlapping between school districts, and second, there was incomplete reporting of some figures. The necessity of finding suitable solutions for these problems was considered particularly important for a factor analytic study such as the present one, because factor analytic operations require Gramian or "true" correlation matrices and often find missing data correlation matrices unsolvable.

In the first case mentioned above, approximations were made on the basis of the available evidence. For example, in the Vital Statistics data (reference 6), figures were given only for towns within census districts and for "others". When census district boundaries did not coincide with school district boundaries, it was necessary to estimate the distribution of the "others" by comparing census district and school district boundaries while considering population density and distribution in the area in question. Similarly, in the Regional Index (reference 8), although the regional boundaries were generally identical with school district boundaries, there were two cases where regions included parts of adjacent school districts in addition to a single school district, and two cases in which more than one school district comprised one region. Again, population density and distribution guided the estimations made.

An additional missing data problem arose in cases in which figures for Indians on reserves were totalled separately from the totals for the rest of the population. This was most evident in the Vital Statistics data

where the Indians were only located by census district, thereby presenting an almost impossible task for assignment to school district. As a result, Indian rates had to be excluded from eleven of the aggregate variables.

The other missing data were dealt with by more empirical means, deriving least squares estimates of the missing cases. This was possible because the majority of the data were already available for each of the school districts with missing cases. The variables in question, with the number of cases missing for each, are listed in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1
Variables for which Least Squares Estimates
were made of Missing Data Points

Variable Number	Variable Name	Number of Missing Cases
16	Increase in liquor sales, 1959-63	3
17	Liquor sales, 1963	3
18	Retail sales, 1961	21
19	General Mill rate, 1963	7
20	School Mill rate, 1963	7
21	Municipal debt, 1963	7
22	Non-town property value, 1961	1
24	Mean male wage, 1961	28
25	Female wage level, 1961	28
26	% of workers earning wages, 1961	28
27	% of wage earners who were female, 1961	28
63	Acreage in public parks and playgrounds, 1966	3

The first step in making the least squares estimations involved the computation of a missing data correlation matrix for unequal numbers of cases. For each pair of variables entering a correlation, if one member of the pair was missing, the other was omitted. Then, step-wise multiple

regressions for each of the variables with missing data, using as predictors all variables with no missing data, were performed. The regression weights and constants derived for the estimation of each variable are given in Appendix A-5.

Having obtained the regression weights and constants for each variable, it was then possible to estimate the missing data points for individual school districts. This was accomplished by solving the regression equation with the raw predictor scores entered.

Limitations of the Data

The present data set, like most, was not completely perfect for the purpose at hand, that purpose being the description of the environments in 78 school districts of B. C. between 1965 and 1968, the period during which the patient population entered and left Riverview Hospital. The two most important limitations were felt to be the necessity to estimate missing data and the unavailability of 1965 through 1968 figures for most variables. On the other hand, two particular strengths in the data set were considered to be that there were no problems of representative sampling simply because the whole population had been used and that the selected variables, as described in Chapter 3, were appropriate to the purpose at hand.

The possible sources of bias in estimating missing data were twofold because two estimation methods had been used. The first method discussed above, that of estimating the distributions of cases within regions on the basis of knowledge of population distribution and density, could have introduced bias because the assumption of relevance to population distribution and density may have been unjustified. The least squares estimation, the second method, was subject to a similar source of bias in that

it was assumed that the multiple regression solutions for variables with missing data were the same as they would have been if no data had been missing. However, as the majority of the data were not affected by these possible sources of bias, data analysis proceeded on the assumption that the complete data set was a close and valid approximation of that which would have been obtained were more information available.

The dates on which the data had been originally collected, although not always coincident with the dates to which the diagnostic data referred, represented the best available data. Basically, it was assumed that the values of the variables when they were measured in 1961 or 1963 were similar to the values between 1965 and 1968 and that any changes that had occurred had also occurred in the province as a whole. In many cases, data for 1966 alone were used. As 1966 was the median year of the data collection period, it was felt that the 1966 figures were probably suitably representative of the 1965 through 1967 period.

The Factor Analysis

Once the set of raw data was complete with missing data estimations included, a final correlation matrix was computed and subjected to Principal Component analysis. (The environmental components are, however, referred to as factors to avoid confusion with the canonical components discussed in Chapter 6). All calculations were performed in double precision in order to minimize rounding error. The first twenty factors in the unrotated factor matrix had eigenvalues greater than 1.00, and, in order to facilitate the final choice of the number of factors to be retained, seventeen to twenty-two factors were subjected to Varimax rotation. An eighteen factor solution was selected as the most meaningful. The correlation matrix, the matrix of 22 unrotated Principal Component factors and the matrix of 18

Varimax rotated factors can be seen in Appendices B-1, B-2 and B-3, respectively.

As mentioned previously (Chapter 3), the number of factors retained in this taxonomy greatly exceeded that in other relevant taxonomies. To reiterate, Johnson (1958) retained five factors, Jonassen and Peres (1960) retained seven, and Kendall (1963) retained eight. The obvious and clear simple structure of so many factors in the present study indicated that, in order to provide this broad range of independent measures, a broader selection of variables had entered the analysis than in the earlier studies.

Although the small percentages of variance in the data set accounted for by some of the later factors (see Table 4.2) could be cited as an argument against retaining those factors, such an argument was rejected. The reason behind this position was previously stated on page 34: there are an infinite number of variables that can be used to describe any environment, and, the more variables sampled, the more comprehensive the final description will be. If more variables related to those that appeared in the smaller factors had been included in the data set, the same dimensions would have accounted for more variance and thus appeared more important than they did in the present analysis. In other words, just because a factor, as a result of variable sampling, accounts for a lesser amount of variance in a data set does not mean that it has lesser importance in the real world. Because all the retained factors appeared to be potentially relevant to mental disorder rates, hypotheses as to the nature or strength of their relationships to mental disorder rates were based on their composition rather than on the percentages of variance they accounted for.

TABLE 4.2

Eigenvalues and Total Variance accounted for by Principal
Component Factors before and after Rotation

Factor Number	Eigenvalue	% of Total Variance Accounted for		Accumulated % of Total Variance Accounted for	
		Before Rotation	After Rotation	Before Rotation	After Rotation
1	14.50	19.33	10.01	19.33	10.01
2	7.09	9.45	9.43	28.78	19.44
3	5.19	6.92	9.00	35.70	28.44
4	4.47	5.96	5.95	41.66	34.39
5	3.43	4.57	5.77	46.23	40.16
6	2.93	3.90	4.24	50.13	44.40
7	2.75	3.66	3.84	53.79	48.24
8	2.65	3.54	3.82	57.33	52.06
9	2.34	3.12	3.61	60.45	55.67
10	2.25	3.00	3.46	63.45	59.13
11	2.02	2.69	3.09	66.14	62.22
12	1.88	2.51	2.72	68.65	64.94
13	1.66	2.22	2.69	70.87	67.63
14	1.55	2.06	2.67	72.93	70.30
15	1.49	1.99	2.62	74.92	72.92
16	1.32	1.76	2.40	76.68	75.32
17	1.23	1.64	2.27	78.32	77.59
18	1.13	1.50	2.22	79.92	79.81
19	1.09	1.45		81.27	
20	1.02	1.36		82.63	
21	.92	1.22		83.85	
22	.89	1.19		85.04	

It could be argued that the retention of such a large number of factors is conceptually clumsy and contradictory to the summarization purpose of factor analysis. It was felt that the elimination of redundant variance from the data set was more important than the obtaining of a small and mnemonically convenient number of factors. The problem of the awkwardness of the number of factors has been previously suggested to be trivial in view of today's computer technology (see quote, page 23, Cattell, 1965). Further-

more, as mentioned above, the nature of the factor structure indicated that the selected solution was a parsimonious one for this data set and that the greater number of dimensions accrued from a broader sampling of variables than in the earlier taxonomies of Johnson (1958), Kendall (1963) and Jonassen and Peres (1960).

Upon completion of the component analysis, component scores (hereafter referred to as factor scores) for each school district were computed in T score form (mean = 50, standard deviation = 10). It was felt that, in view of the clarity of the factors, the factor scores could enter directly into the further calculations of the epidemiological analysis (Chapter 6). Recording of the scores in T score form was regarded as desirable in order to maximize interpretability of the scores. This was considered necessary in order to use the scores of the school districts on the factors as aids in the interpretation of the factors.

Presentation and Discussion of Results

The factor results presented in this chapter were edited from the original factor structure matrix in Appendix B-3. To maximize the clarity of the factors, only the two largest loadings for each variable, if greater than .30, were considered in the factor interpretation. In addition, as its loadings followed no meaningful pattern, variable 69, admissions to Woodlands School, was omitted from the interpretations. It was assumed that the uninterpreted factor loadings would, in each case, either cancel out or add a constant to the values of the factor scores.

The scores of the school districts on the factors were used, in addition to the factor loadings, in the factor interpretations. Specifically, T scores of 60 or greater and of less than 40, representing cases falling more than one standard deviation from the mean, were considered.

In comparing the results to previous findings, attention was directed mainly to the studies of Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963). Johnson's (1958) findings were not considered because Kendall's (1963) results were based on the same data set and were more readily comparable to the present study which had used the same data analysis procedures. Where appropriate, community descriptions used in epidemiological studies were also compared to the present results.

Factor I: Suburban Conditions

The main difference between the first factor here and the first factors in the studies of Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963), is its greater specificity. Jonassen and Peres (1960) named their factor Urbanism, while Kendall's (1963), which was similar, was named Prosperity and Cost of Living. Suburban Conditions, on the other hand, is independent of economic factors, and while consisting of largely organized area, does not show such urban characteristics as high population density.

The loadings on variables 7 and 8 indicate that school districts with high scores on this factor consist almost wholly of organized area and are unlikely to contain small hamlets. A loading of .54 on variable 6 indicated that the populations within the districts are likely to exceed 10,000, or, with less likelihood, as suggested by the loading of .37 on variable 5, be between 5000 and 9999.

The degree of internal autonomy expected in larger organized communities may be reflected in a low per pupil expenditure by the Provincial government (30:-.80), low Provincial grants to recreation commissions (64:-.51) and a small usage of Visual Education materials from Victoria (31:-.50). Such

TABLE 4.3(a)

Varimax Loadings for a
Suburban Conditions Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
8	-.82	Pop. in hamlets, 1961
7	.82	Pop. in organized area, 1961
30	-.80	Per pupil expenditure, 1966
28	.80	Mean class size, 1966
1	.69	Community age, 1966
61	.56	Marriage rate, 1966
6	.54	Towns 10,000+, 1966
56	-.53	% of males in pop., 1966
40	-.52	Impediments to land travel
64	-.51	Grants to recreation commissions, 1966
31	-.50	Visual Education Circu- lation, 1966
9	-.44	Rural pop., 1961
29	.43	Excess of teachers over the number of classes, 1966
41	.43	Per capita phones, 1961
32	.40	High school attendance, 1966
5	.37	Towns 5000-9999, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 10.01%

% of Common Variance accounted for - 12.54%

communities should be more capable of self-support because of having larger populations and therefore more tax revenue. Unimpeded travel (40:-.52) and a high rate of telephone subscription (41:43) are consistent with suburban conditions and may be due in part to greater community age (1:69) and the attendant probability of such facilities being long established and readily available.

A low percentage of males in the population (56:-.53) indicated, because males outnumber females in most areas of B. C., an even sex ratio in areas with high scores on this factor. The high marriage rate (61:56) and large number of children as indicated by a high mean class size (28:80), along with the even sex ratio, point to a large number of young families with children. The higher overall level of education indicated by there being more teachers than school divisions (29:.43) and therefore more well-educated residents in the area, in addition to there being a higher rate of high school attendance (32:40), suggests that the school districts identified by this factor are largely of middle class composition.

Verification of the factor interpretation is evident when the highest and lowest scores on this factor are inspected in Table 4.3(b). An understanding of the low scoring school districts can be better obtained by reversing the signs of the factor loadings in Table 4.3(a). It can be seen that such reflection serves to further verify and clarify the factor interpretation.

Table 4.3(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Suburban Conditions Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
43	Coquitlam	66.4	29	Lillooet	27.7
36	Surrey	66.4	25	Barriere	27.7
61	Victoria	64.0	64	Gulf Islands	28.2
37	Delta	63.4	84	Vancouver Isl.	28.3
44	North Vancouver	62.9		West	
38	Richmond	62.8	26	Birch Island	29.6
53	Terrace	62.4	49	Ocean Falls	32.0
40	New Westminster	62.0	46	Sechelt	32.3
34	Abbotsford	62.0	50	Queen Charlotte	33.9
22	Vernon	61.9	10	Arrow Lakes	36.4
54	Smithers	60.3	13	Kettle Valley	36.8
33	Chilliwack	60.0	85	Vancouver Isl.	37.1
				North	
			14	Windermere	38.1
			66	Lake Cowichan	39.1
			58	McBride	39.2

Factor II: Climate

The reason a climate factor has not appeared in previous taxonomic studies is undoubtedly due to the fact that a more complete set of climate variables occurred in the present data set. High loadings on all variables but one of those originally grouped under the Physical Geography heading in Chapter 3 demonstrate that this factor accounts for most of the variance in those variables. As a result, no appreciable loadings relevant to climate occurred on any other factors.

School districts with high scores on this factor are clearly identified as having a small annual temperature range (45:-.92), a large discrepancy between summer and winter precipitation (47:.89), high winter temperature

(44:.88), heavy winter rainfall (46:.87), low elevation (42:-.86) and many frost-free days in a year (48:.85).

TABLE 4.4(a)
Varimax Loadings for a
Climate Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
45	-.92	Summer-winter temperature difference
47	.89	Summer-winter precipitation difference
44	.88	Mean winter temperature
46	.87	Mean winter precipitation
42	-.86	Elevation
48	.85	Annual frost-free days
43	-.50	Ruggedness of terrain
67	-.41	Referrals to community mental health clinics, 1965-68
71	-.41	Welfare reciprocity, 1965-67
72	.40	Welfare expenditure per recipient, 1966-67

% of Total Variance accounted for - 9.4%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 11.81%

This description suggests that districts with a West Coast marine climate would obtain the highest scores on this factor, an indication borne out upon inspection of the factor scores in Table 4.4(b).

The low rate of referrals to community mental health clinics (67:-.41) in the high scoring districts in Table 4.4(b) may be due in some cases to inaccessibility and in others (e.g., Victoria and Vancouver) to availability of other facilities drawing patients away from publicly supported clinics. Less rugged terrain (43:-.50) is consistent with coastal conditions, while low welfare reciprocity (71:-.41) and high welfare expenditures per recipient (72:.40) indicate a better standard of living in the coastal districts.

TABLE 4.4(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Climate Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
84	Vancouver Isl. West	72.7	3	Kimberely	32.8
85	Vancouver Isl. North	66.8	60	Peace River North	32.9
49	Ocean Falls	65.6	54	Smithers	34.0
79	Ucluelet-Tofino	64.2	59	Peace River South	35.4
50	Queen Charlotte	64.1	4	Windermere	36.2
70	Alberni	64.1	2	Cranbrook	36.2
46	Sechelt	63.3	12	Grand Forks	36.9
62	Sooke	62.7	18	Golden	37.2
61	Victoria	62.6	1	Fernie	37.4
44	North Vancouver	62.6	13	Kettle Valley	37.4
66	Lake Cowichan	61.6	82	Chilcotin	38.4
52	Prince Rupert	61.0	22	Vernon	39.3
41	Burnaby	60.7	58	McBride	39.8
43	Coquitlam	60.7			
47	Powell River	60.6			

Factor III: Decreptitude

The name for this factor is borrowed from Kendall (1963) who obtained a factor which similarly indexed old age in his community taxonomy. Areas with high scores on this factor have larger numbers of persons over 65 (57:.89), a populace of higher median age (59:.85), and, not unexpectedly, a high percentage of persons over 15 years of age (55:.77) and therefore at risk of admission to Riverview Hospital. It is also not unexpected to find a high per capita death rate (33:.42), but the fact that the death rate has only a moderate loading suggests that old age does not account for the majority of deaths in the province.

The low natural population growth (15:-.71) is probably influenced by

the higher death rate, as it is based on the excess of births over deaths. In a similar manner, deaths may serve to lower the overall population growth (13:-.42), and, as these deaths are presumably due mainly to old age,

TABLE 4.5(a)

Varimax Loadings for a
Decrepitude Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
57	.89	% of pop. 65 years+, 1966
59	.85	Median age, 1966
55	.77	% of pop. 15 years+, 1966
15	-.71	Natural pop. growth, 1966
34	-.60	Infant death rate, 1966
66	.56	Availability of community mental health services, 1964-67
56	-.55	% of males in pop., 1966
49	.54	% of registered voters voting in Provincial election, 1966
13	-.42	Pop. growth, 1961-66
33	.42	Death rate, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 9.00%

% of Common Variance accounted for - 11.28%

they may outnumber infant deaths greatly (34:-.60). Considering the greater maturity of the population, it is likely that the negative correlations of this factor with natural population growth and infant death rates are due in some measure to infertility as well as deaths from old age.

If the factor is reflected and considered in terms of the low scoring communities in Table 4.5(b), it can be seen that its obverse appears to indicate rugged pioneer-like conditions. The relationship between variables 15, 34 and 13 then suggests extremely high fertility with the majority of the high population growth accounted for by natural increase despite a high

infant death rate.

Decrepitude, with pioneer like conditions as its opposite, would be expected to exist in more established communities. The fact that community mental health services are more available (66:.56) suggests some proximity to larger towns, while a higher rate of voting (49:.54)

TABLE 4.5(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Decrepitude Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
64	Gulf Islands	82.4	80	Kitimat	26.2
69	Qualicum	70.3	57	Prince George	35.9
22	Vernon	67.7	60	Peace River	36.2
14	South Okanagan	67.5		North	
61	Victoria	67.1	56	Vanderhoof	37.2
78	Enderby	66.8	53	Terrace	38.3
39	Vancouver	64.8	82	Chilcotin	38.4
15	Penticton	63.7	70	Alberni	38.7
8	Slocan	63.4	28	Quesnel	39.1
23	Kelowna	63.2	19	Revelstoke	39.7
40	New Westminster	62.3	59	Peace River	39.8
16	Keremeos	60.8		South	
12	Grand Forks	60.7	43	Coquitlam	39.9
13	Kettle Valley	60.4			

may indicate more accessible polls. Both these variables may index more participation in community affairs. However, it is possible that in the low scoring school districts community participation is different in kind rather than quantity.

Factor IV: Concentration

In his 1926 article outlining the concerns of human ecology, R. D. McKenzie defined the term concentration, as used in human ecology, as the

tendency of persons to settle in a given area. He further suggested that the best measure of this process at a given point in time was population density. Factor IV in the present study represents a refinement over such a measure in giving weight to other variables related to concentration.

The first three loadings appear to describe concentration most clearly and are obviously interdependent, with a high total population (54:.71) resulting in high population density in the main town(s) of the school district (10:89) which in turn results, by the law of supply and demand, in high property value within the same organized towns (23:.93). The

TABLE 4.6(a)
Varimax Loadings for a
Concentration Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
23	.93	Town property value, 1961
10	.89	Town pop. density, 1961
54	.71	Total population, 1966
26	.61	% of workers earning wages, 1961
21	.61	Municipal debt, 1963
41	.44	Per capita phones, 1961
49	.43	% of registered voters voting in Provincial election, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 5.95%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 7.46%

slightly lower loading on total population is probably due to the fact that it measures the total population of each school district as a whole and not just the organized area within each school district.

The remaining loadings are similarly clear in their interpretations. A high percentage of wage earners (26:61) undoubtedly indexes greater

employment opportunities which presumably sustain the large numbers of residents. A high telephone subscription rate in conjunction with an abundance of regular jobs indicates greater business activity and points to a probability of these areas containing distribution centers for the province. A high municipal debt (21:.61) may be a result of greater needs for community services and of the better municipal collateral in terms of many steadily employed taxpayers. A higher rate of voting (49:.43) is probably due mainly to the polls being more available because of shorter distances.

Reference to Table 4.6(b) serves to confirm these inferences regarding the school districts with high scores on this factor.

TABLE 4.6(b)

Extreme Factor Scores on a
Concentration Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
39	Vancouver	111.2	75	Mission	35.2
68	Nanaimo	74.4	78	Enderby	37.3
40	New Westminster	66.0	63	Saanich	37.6
24	Kamloops	65.8	35	Langley	39.3
11	Trail	62.5			
70	Alberni	62.0			
19	Revelstoke	62.0			
3	Kimberley	60.6			
61	Victoria	60.5			

The relationship of the low scoring school districts to this factor can be understood when it is borne in mind first, that the districts all consist largely of organized area in the form of farming municipalities, and second, that this factor refers only to organized area within school districts.

Referring back to Table 4.6(a) and reversing the signs of the factor loadings, it can be seen that these school districts are most strongly characterized by low property value and low population density within the towns or organized area of the district, consistent with the fact that the land is devoted more to farming than sophisticated commercial activity. The remaining factor loadings pose no contradictions to the environmental description expected to be applicable to agricultural municipalities.

Like Factor I, Suburban Conditions, Factor IV is related to the first factors of both Jonassen and Peres (1960) and Kendall (1963), and represents further evidence of more clear differentiation of dimensions in the present study. A resemblance to Jonassen and Peres' (1960) fifth factor which they named Magni-Complexity, was also noted. It appears worth noting, in favor of the present analysis that, while their urban dimensions, Urbanism and Magni-Complexity, were mathematically independent, the comparable pair of factors in the present analysis, Suburban Conditions and Concentration, are conceptually distinct from each other as well.

Factor V: Slum Conditions

Similar factors to this one have been found in previous analyses of community data. Bloom's (1968) cluster analysis of census tracts yielded a cluster which he called Social Disequilibrium, while Jonassen and Peres (1960) obtained a factor named Poverty and Kendall (1963) obtained one which was named Slum Conditions, as in the present study. Although some differences existed between these three previously derived dimensions and the present one, due to differences in the original sets of variables, the underlying dimension appears to represent a consistently stable aspect of human social life.

It must be realized at the outset that none of the vitality figures loading on this factor were available for Indians on reserves, and thus do not refer to these persons. If Indian people affect these figures at all it can only be through there being more Indians without treaty status living near established reserves or through the Indian society itself affecting the adjacent white society. When it is considered that the native people generally live in the most impoverished conditions of all citizens in B. C., it can be assumed that this factor would have been even more strongly identified if their vital statistics had entered the analysis.

TABLE 4.7(a)
Varimax Loadings for a Slum
Conditions Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
58	.78	% of Indians in pop., 1966
33	.75	Death rate, 1966
60	.74	Fertility rate, 1966
13	.60	Pop. growth, 1961-66
32	-.53	High school attendance, 1966
73	.51	Illegitimacy rate, 1966
35	-.46	Hospital death rate, 1966
70	.42	Delinquency rate, 1965-67
51	-.40	% Social Credit vote, 1966
34	.33	Infant death rate, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 5.77%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 7.22%

Similar high birth rates (60:.74) were found by Jonassen and Peres (1960) while Kendall (1963) found high death rates associated with homicide, maternity and influenza. The high general death rate on the present factor

(33:.75) and the high sudden death rate as indexed by a low rate of hospital deaths (35:-.46) is consistent with Kendall's findings. Infant deaths, on the other hand, although contributing slightly to deaths on this factor, was unrelated and marked another discrete factor in Kendall's taxonomy.

The negative loading of high school attendance (32:-.53) on this factor is similar to the negative relationship Kendall (1963) found with a median adult education variable. Such concurrence indicates that present high school attendance may serve, as suggested in Chapter 3, as a suitable statistical substitute for the educational level of the adult population.

An inspection of the loadings on the vitality figures indicates that the school districts with high scores on this factor have high rates of in-migration. Overall population growth is vigorous as seen in a loading of .60 on variable 13. This growth occurs despite high death rates (33:.75), and, the possibility that the contribution of a high fertility rate (60:.74) to population growth is diminished by a high infant death rate (34:.33) is supported by the fact that natural population growth, or the excess of births over deaths (variable 15) does not correlate with this factor.

Comparing Slum Conditions with the reflection of Decrepitude, Factor III, similar relationships between birth and death rates can be seen. However, it is evident that Slum Conditions describes much more unhealthy conditions as seen in the higher death rate, in addition to social ill health, aspects of which are absent from Factor III. Specifically, low high school attendance (32:-.53), high illegitimacy (73:.51) and high juvenile delinquency (70:.42) all indicate social disruption and an inability to adapt to the values of the dominant culture. The fact that a low rate

of Social Credit voting occurs under these unpleasant social conditions supports the suggestion (Chapter 3) that a low vote for the political party in power could indicate dissatisfaction with the status quo.

TABLE 4.7(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Slum Conditions Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T. Score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
82	Chilcotin	113.9	25	Barriere	38.1
51	Portland Canal	82.5	47	Powell River	38.1
30	South Cariboo	66.0	9	Castlegar	38.4
69	Qualicum	61.1	10	Arrow Lakes	38.5
78	Enderby	61.0			

An inspection of the high scoring school districts for this factor reveals results only partially consistent with expectation on the basis of general knowledge of the province. Chilcotin, Portland Canal and South Cariboo all constitute rural poverty areas, but Qualicum and Enderby are not as obviously impoverished. There is probably a greater variation in socio-economic status in these last two districts, while the population of the first three consists largely of persons of low socio-economic status. It is interesting to note, in this respect, that none of the economic variables have appeared on this factor despite its clear indexing of socially disrupted and unhealthy impoverished conditions.

Factor VI: Small Town Autonomy

The school districts identified by this factor, although relating strongly to all three of the variables originally entered as indexing geographic isolation (variables 38, 39 and 40), also tend to contain at least one small organized town (3:.42) and to be relatively self-sufficient

in terms of health facilities (37:.78).

TABLE 4.8(a)
Varimax Loadings for a Small
Town Autonomy Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
37	.78	Hospital beds per capita, 1961
38	.60	Distance from Riverview Hospital
39	.50	Accessibility by air
40	.47	Impediments to land travel
3	.42	Towns 2500-, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 4.24%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 5.31%

The relationship between variables 38, 39 and 40 indicates that high scoring communities on this factor would have reasonably good air travel facilities (39:.50) as a reaction to excessive distance from Vancouver (38:.60) and difficult travel by road (40:.47).

With one exception, the high scoring districts substantiate the interpretation, being far removed from Vancouver and Riverview Hospital and containing at least one organized community. The exceptional case, New Westminster, has obtained a high score on this factor because of an unusually high number of hospital beds per capita. Similar statistical artifacts appear to be operating in the low scoring school districts. There, the isolated rural school districts of Chilcotin, Birch Island and Barriere appear alongside a group of communities which, due to their geographic position, are not self-sufficient and which are close to

TABLE 4.8(b)

Extreme Factor Scores on a
Small Town Autonomy Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
51	Portland Canal	79.2	82	Chilcotin	26.6
85	Vancouver Isl.	73.6	26	Birch Island	29.8
	North		43	Coquitlam	32.2
50	Queen Charlotte	72.8	25	Barriere	33.1
80	Kitimat	68.1	48	Howe Sound	33.5
52	Prince Rupert	65.4	36	Surrey	34.0
49	Ocean Falls	64.3	45	West Vancouver	34.7
40	New Westminster	61.8	37	Delta	38.3
54	Smithers	61.6	44	North Vancouver	39.3
84	Vancouver Isl.	61.6		Sooke	39.3
	West				
53	Terrace	60.4			
60	Peace River North	60.1			

Riverview. The spuriously low scores on the above three districts are due to high isolation scores being cancelled out by there being no organized towns within their boundaries, little or no hospital facilities and limited air service. Because of the heterogeneity of the districts with low scores on Small Town Autonomy, any further interpretations based on its reflection would be unprofitable.

Factor VII: A. A. Prevalence

The failure of the variables indexing Alcoholics Anonymous activity to link with others in the factor analysis demonstrates that such activity is independent of the other phenomena represented in the data set. Although such a result adds no new information from the point of view of environmental description, the simplicity of this factor maximizes its interpretability as a predictor to be used in the canonical analysis (Chapter 6).

TABLE 4.9(a)

Varimax Loadings for an
A. A. Prevalence Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
74	.88	Alcoholics Anonymous membership, 1966
75	.87	Number of Alcoholics Anonymous groups, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 3.8%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 4.81%

It can be seen in Table 4.9(b) that the spatial distribution of scores on this factor are as random as the factor loadings in Table 4.9(a) are independent of the other environmental variables. The nature of these relationships indicates that the development of community resources to deal with alcoholism is not environmentally determined but is probably determined by chance.

TABLE 4.9(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on an
A. A. Prevalence Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
79	Ucluelet-Tofino	117.3	50	Queen Charlotte	32.8
54	Smithers	69.2	51	Portland Canal	33.5
17	Princeton	65.8	10	Arrow Lakes	39.2
67	Ladysmith	62.8			
26	Birch Island	62.2			

Factor VIII: Wage Level

Although this factor indexes wage levels in general, it can be seen that it relates most predominantly to working women.

TABLE 4.10(a)
Varimax Loadings for a
Wage Level Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
25	.81	Female wage level, 1961
27	.81	% of wage earners who were female, 1961
24	.72	Mean male wage, 1961
12	-.42	Pop. growth, 1956-61

% of Total Variance accounted for - 3.82%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 4.79%

The fact that women's wages were higher (25:.81) in the high scoring school districts in 1961 meant that more women were working (27:.81) and, as evidenced in the low population growth at that time (12:-.42), less women

were having babies. It would appear that some aspects of the circumstances accompanying large numbers of working women in a community have been clearly identified by this factor and show some accordance with the expectations expressed in Chapter 3.

TABLE 4.10(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Wage Level Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
75	Mission	63.6	38	Richmond	-7.3
33	Chilliwack	62.3	37	Delta	1.1
13	Kettle Valley	60.9	16	Keremeos	39.9

It can be seen in Table 4.10(b) that the distributions of both high and low scores on this factor add nothing to its interpretability.

Factor IX: Rural Property Value

This factor forms an interesting complement to both Factor IV, Concentration, and its reflection. Where Concentration indexed high population density and high land values within organized areas of an urban nature, and its reflection indexed lower population density and property value in organized farming municipalities, Factor IX relates to districts in which population density and land values are high in the unincorporated or rural area. It would appear that areas with high scores on this factor are in fact quite similar to those scoring low on Concentration, the main difference between them being that in the present case the land area is unincorporated. The presence of moderately sized cities or towns within communities would be needed to service the large rural populations.

Consultation of the factor scores in Table 4.11(b) indicates that the

interpretation fits well for the high scoring communities. The inference that districts with high scores on Rural Property Value would be similar to districts with low scores on Concentration is verified by the fact that Saanich received a T score of 98.4 in the present case and a score of

TABLE 4.11(a)

Varimax Loadings for a Rural
Property Value Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
22	.85	Non-town property value, 1961
11	.83	Non-town pop. density, 1961
4	.65	Towns 2500-4999, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 3.61%

% of Common Variance accounted for - 4.52%

37.6 on Concentration. Evidently that school district consists of both organized and unincorporated areas which are indistinguishable from each other. It is interesting to note that, with only two exceptions, the high scoring school districts are on the east coast of Vancouver Island. Thus, Factor IX is somewhat of a regional factor in that it differentiates a large contiguous portion of the province from the rest of the province with some accuracy.

An inspection of the school districts with low scores on this factor indicates a degree of heterogeneity similar to that seen in the reflection of Factor VI, Small Town Autonomy. This lack of bi-polarity is unfortunate in that it means there was a failure to differentiate the highly centralized school districts, those with small organized areas surrounded by large expanses of uninhabitable land.

TABLE 4.11(b)

Extreme Factor Scores on a Rural
Property Value Variate

High Factor Scores

SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
63	Saanich	98.4	42	Maple Ridge	35.2
68	Nanaimo	86.1	4	Windermere	39.3
65	Cowichan	75.9	40	New Westmin-	39.8
71	Courtenay	69.4		ster	
67	Ladysmith	68.2	51	Portland	39.9
9	Castlegar	66.5		Canal	
64	Gulf Islands	65.4			
62	Sooke	62.3			
11	Trail	60.9			

Factor X: Opposition Voting.

The majority of the variance in Factor X describes the distribution of opposition (non-Social Credit) voting in the 1966 Provincial election.

TABLE 4.12(a)

Varimax Loadings for an
Opposition Voting Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
53	-.82	% N.D.P. vote, 1966
52	.54	% Liberal vote, 1966
29	.45	Excess of teachers over the number of classes, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 3.46%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 4.34%

The implication of this factor's structure is that, independent of Social Credit voting, N.D.P. and Liberal voting tend to be opposed to

each other. In other words, it can be predicted that a school district will probably show a high rate of N.D.P. voting if its Liberal vote is low (and vice versa) but no prediction can be made from either of these to Social Credit voting. The reason for the negative relationship between the rates of endorsement of the two parties appearing on this factor could be attributed to the fact that the Liberal party is traditionally associated with the upper middle class while the N.D.P. tends to be associated with the working classes. The fact that there tends to be an excess of teachers coexisting with a high Liberal vote is consistent with an interpretation based on socio-economic status, as it can be assumed to index, as in the case of Factor I, a higher educational level in the adult population.

TABLE 4.12(b)

Extreme Factor Scores for an
Opposition Voting Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
45	West Vancouver	77.8	51	Portland Canal	18.7
64	Gulf Islands	68.6	13	Kettle Valley	26.8
82	Chilcotin	67.1	32	Fraser Canyon	30.6
44	North Vancouver	66.4	8	Slocan	31.3
61	Victoria	65.5	17	Princeton	33.1
60	Peace River North	65.0	67	Ladysmith	34.4
22	Vernon	63.2	29	Lillooet	35.2
59	Peace River South	62.7	65	Cowichan	36.8
57	Prince George	60.5	36	Surrey	37.6
18	Golden	60.0			

The distribution of high and low factor scores is basically consistent with the above interpretation. The most notable exception is the T score of 67.1 for the Chilcotin school district, one which has already been demonstrated, by its high score on Slum Conditions, to be an area of poverty

rather than upper middle-class affluence. Other less notable exceptions in the high scoring districts are the two Peace River districts and Prince George and Golden, while no notable discrepancies occur in the low scoring areas. The discrepancies are most likely due to the fact that personal qualities of the candidates outweigh political affiliation in obtaining votes in some constituencies.

Factor XI: Rural Distribution Centers

In contrast to Factor IV, Concentration, which appeared to relate to general commercial activity, the present factor appears to relate more strictly to the distribution of goods.

TABLE 4.13(a)

Varimax Loadings for a Rural
Distribution Centers Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
2	.73	Number of hamlets, 1961
18	.73	Retail sales, 1963

% of Total Variance accounted for - 3.09%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 3.88%

The higher number of hamlets and greater per capita retail sales in the communities with high scores on this factor undoubtedly reflect a reciprocal relationship. The fact that the designated towns are surrounded by hamlets raises their retail sales, while the better distribution facilities permit the existence of the hamlets. The relationship between the hamlets and the distribution centers could be compared to that between a city and its suburbs.

Consultation of the list of high scoring school districts in Table

4.13(b) essentially supports the above interpretation. Comparing the scores to those on Concentration, the fact that the high scoring communities on this factor service rural areas becomes clear. While some high concentration areas were strictly urban (e.g., Vancouver, New Westminster), none of the districts in Table 4.13(b) could be so described.

It is found, once again, that statistical artifacts have led to heterogeneity in the list of low scoring school districts. It appears that an inordinate emphasis on one or the other of the defining attributes of this factor has led to affluent suburbs such as North and West Vancouver scoring similarly to such isolated rural districts as McBride and Portland Canal.

TABLE 4.13(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a Rural
Distribution Centers Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
27	Williams Lake	78.5	63	Saanich	26.1
57	Prince George	74.9	1	Fernie	30.9
20	Salmon Arm	70.2	45	West Vancouver	34.3
35	Langley	68.5	44	North Vancouver	34.8
68	Nanaimo	66.9	3	Kimberley	36.7
65	Cowichan	66.1	58	McBride	36.8
46	Sechelt	64.5	61	Victoria	37.9
28	Quesnel	64.0	51	Portland Canal	38.6
23	Kelowna	63.8	50	Queen Charlotte	39.3
24	Kamloops	62.7	48	Howe Sound	39.8
60	Peace River	62.5	76	Agassiz	39.9
	North				
33	Chilliwack	61.3			
72	Campbell River	60.5			

Factor XII: Spoiled Ballots

As was mentioned in Chapter 3, there was no specific a priori reason

for including variable 50, the percentage of cast ballots which were spoiled, in the data set. As a result this factor was more difficult to interpret and a heavier reliance was placed on the factor scores than in other factor interpretations.

TABLE 4.14(a)
Varimax Loadings for a
Spoiled Ballots Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
50	.85	% spoiled ballots, 1966
36	.64	Motor vehicle deaths, 1965-68
17	.40	Liquor sales, 1963

% Total Variance accounted for - 2.72%
% Common Variance accounted for - 3.41%

It would be tempting, but facile, to interpret the high numbers of spoiled ballots and motor vehicle deaths to excessive alcohol consumption. The relationships between the factor scores suggested that the actual underlying common dimension could be the type of highway transportation available.

TABLE 4.14(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Spoiled Ballots Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
30	South Cariboo	104.3	51	Portland Canal	24.6
32	Fraser Canyon	82.2	82	Chilcotin	34.0
31	Merritt	71.1	25	Barriere	36.5
56	Vanderhoof	66.2	53	Terrace	37.1
40	New Westminster	64.3			
29	Lillooet	61.3			

The high scoring districts (except New Westminster) all consist of lightly populated areas of largely rural composition served by paved highways. The highways in these areas, however, are treacherous because of the terrain, the best example being the trans-Canada highway which, on passing through the Fraser Canyon, traverses both of school districts 30 and 32, the districts with the highest scores on this factor. The low scoring school districts, on the other hand, are similarly lightly populated and of rural composition, but have poor roads. It is evident then, that differences in motor vehicle deaths at least, are a result of the fact that high speeds are not possible on the roads in the low scoring school districts while the combination of good roads and dangerous terrain, not to mention heavier traffic, raises the rates in the high scoring districts.

The positive correlation of liquor sales with this factor may be attributable to transportation differences determining the demand and supply of liquor. The relationship of spoiled ballots, although more complex, appears also to be related to transportation. Investigation of scores on previous factors and general knowledge of the province indicate that, on this factor, both high and low scoring school districts tend to be rural, less affluent, and to have a lower level of education in the population. It might be assumed then, that the voters in these areas were less capable, on the average, of correctly filling in a ballot. The inference could then be drawn that in the high scoring districts, with more efficient transportation, more of the large number of less capable voters turned out to vote, while in the low scoring areas only those with a strong interest in voting went to the considerable inconvenience of travelling to the polls.

Therefore, it can be seen that this factor performs the function of distinguishing between rural transportation facilities. The presence of New Westminster in the high scoring districts, once again, represents a statistical artifact due to an unusually high score on one of the strongly loading variables.

Factor XIII: Rural School Support

The interpretation of this factor presents a straightforward task. An implication from its structure is that school taxes are higher when a heavier rural population must be served in a town's schools. The relationship of natural recreation facilities to the factor is not obvious, but it may be that the larger rural population is in part attracted by the recreational facilities and has also led to their development. In any case, this factor clearly relates to rural life i.e. rural in the sense of removed from the greater Vancouver area.

TABLE 4.15(a)

Varimax Loadings for a Rural
School Support Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
20	.78	School Mill rate, 1963
9	.47	Rural pop., 1961
62	.41	Extent of natural recreation facilities
<hr/> % of Total Variance accounted for - 2.6% % of Common Variance accounted for - 3.37%		

TABLE 4.15(b)

Extreme Factor Scores on a Rural
School Support Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
55	Burns Lake	77.6	29	Lillooet	17.5
56	Vanderhoof	71.4	80	Kitimat	26.2
62	Sooke	70.5	25	Barriere	32.9
53	Terrace	68.4	40	New Westminster	33.2
18	Golden	64.3	67	Ladysmith	33.8
58	McBride	63.4	31	Merritt	35.9
85	Vancouver Isl.	62.8	66	Lake Cowichan	36.0
	North		15	Penticton	37.2
30	South Cariboo	62.7	3	Kimberley	37.7
17	Princeton	61.0	60	Peace River	38.3
86	Creston-Kaslo	60.1		North	
			78	Enderby	39.9

Consultation of the lists of high and low factor scores indicates that essentially rural school districts are to be found at both scoring extremes. This means that the distinction is being made between rural districts in which the local school support and other correlates of the factor vary.

There appears to be some heterogeneity in the factor scores that would not be expected on an a priori basis. However, it is probably safe to assume, because it has an appreciably higher factor loading, that the relationship of the School Mill rate is generally consistent with the distribution of factor scores.

Factor XIV: Community Growth

The structure of this factor suggests well-organized community growth.

TABLE 4.16(a)
Varimax Loadings for a Community
Growth Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
14	.80	Town growth, 1961-66
63	.44	Acreage in public parks and playgrounds, 1966
51	-.44	% Social Credit vote, 1966
70	-.41	Delinquency rate, 1965-67

% of Total Variance accounted for - 2.67%

% of Common Variance accounted for - 3.34%

Attention to the needs of children is indicated in there being more extensive playground facilities, while the low rate of juvenile delinquency indicates that attempts to fulfill the children's needs have been successful. The low Social Credit vote, which was suggested at the outset (Chapter 3) to index dissatisfaction with the status quo, could likewise indicate attempts to improve the social environment of the community.

A comparison with Factors III, V and VIII demonstrates that population growth in entire school districts correlates with different events than does growth of the organized area within the district. On the reflection of Factor III, high population growth coexists with a predominance of youth and fertility, while on Factor V it contributes to the description of Slum Conditions and on Factor VIII it has a negative relationship with working women and wage levels.

TABLE 4.16(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Community Growth Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
84	Vancouver Isl.	96.7	49	Ocean Falls	31.1
	West		50	Queen Charlotte	31.5
8	Slocan	90.7	56	Vanderhoof	34.5
60	Peace River	65.5	46	Sechelt	37.4
	North		26	Birch Island	38.8
48	Howe Sound	65.4	25	Barriere	39.5
27	Williams Lake	65.3	47	Powell River	39.5
1	Fernie	60.7	68	Nanaimo	39.7
72	Campbell River	60.3	16	Keremeos	39.7

The listing of factor scores indicates that, on the whole, newly developing rural areas obtain high scores while long-established rural communities which have either reached a state of equilibrium between jobs and population or are actually losing population receive low scores.

Factor XV: Tourist Trade

The pairing of hotel accommodations and natural recreation facilities on a single factor is in accordance with the relationship between them posited in Chapter 3.

TABLE 4.17(a)
Varimax Loadings for a
Tourist Trade Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
65	.70	Hotel and motel units per capita, 1961
62	.43	Extent of natural recreation facilities

% of Total Variance accounted for - 2.62%

% of Common Variance accounted for - 3.29%

The factor appears to have identified a dimension of dependence on tourism as the major source of revenue in a district. It could be expected that social differences would exist along this dimension, with high scoring communities presenting more social complexity because of the high rate of transiency and having many persons employed in jobs relating to tourism. Low scoring communities, on the other hand, could be expected to be relatively unattractive and quiet to live in.

TABLE 4.17(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
Tourist Trade Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
76	Agassiz	79.6	13	Kettle Valley	19.5
19	Revelstoke	73.0	56	Vanderhoof	27.6
17	Princeton	72.5	85	Vancouver Isl.	34.4
18	Golden	68.8		North	
49	Ocean Falls	66.9	34	Abbotsford	36.0
15	Penticton	65.3	33	Chilliwack	37.1
69	Qualicum	63.0	36	Surrey	37.4
52	Prince Rupert	60.6	11	Trail	37.8
4	Windermere	60.1	7	Nelson	37.9
			84	Vancouver Isl.	38.4
				West	
			68	Nanaimo	38.5
			62	Sooke	39.6

It can be seen that the distribution of factor scores is essentially in agreement with this interpretation.

Factor XVI: Liquor Sales Growth

As it has been established in other factors that the rate of hospital deaths is an inverse index of the incidence of sudden deaths, it is interesting to see it and increasing liquor consumption loading on the same factor. The implication, of course, is that the greater consumption of alcohol leads to more accidental deaths. Making a comparison to Factor XII, Spoiled Ballots, it can be seen that, in that case, the actual rate of liquor consumption relates to deaths in motor vehicle accidents.

Inspection of the factor scores does not serve to contradict the above interpretation. However, it appears that the previously cited statement

TABLE 4.18(a)
 Varimax Loadings for a Liquor
 Sales Growth Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
16	.71	Increase in liquor sales, 1959-63
35	-.44	Hospital death rate, 1966

% of Total Variance accounted for - 2.40%
 % of Common Variance accounted for - 3.00%

(Chapter 3) from the Regional Index, that liquor sales are sensitive economic indicators, is open to question. In the present analysis the increase and level of rates of alcohol purchasing have shown no apparent relationship with the economic state of school districts.

TABLE 4.18(b)
 Extreme Factor Scores on a Liquor
 Sales Growth Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
79	Ucluelet-Tofino	73.7	8	Slocan	21.3
51	Portland Canal	72.9	80	Kitimat	24.7
9	Arrow Lakes	72.4	56	Vanderhoof	25.4
32	Fraser Canyon	67.9	58	McBride	35.3
84	Vancouver Isl.	66.2	70	Alberni	35.7
	West		17	Princeton	37.3
18	Golden	64.8	66	Lake Cowichan	37.6
60	Peace River	64.7	69	Qualicum	38.7
	North				
13	Kettle Valley	64.5			
12	Grand Forks	63.5			
31	Merritt	63.3			
41	Burnaby	63.2			
26	Birch Island	62.1			

Factor XVII: Social Malaise

When such indicators of social disorder as high welfare reciprocity and illegitimacy coexist with a low usage of community mental health clinics, it appears safe to assume that social malaise not only exists but is being perpetuated.

TABLE 4.19(a)

Varimax Loadings for a
Social Malaise Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
71	.53	Welfare reciprocity, 1965-67
73	.47	Illegitimacy rate, 1966
67	-.46	Referrals to community mental health services, 1965-68.

% of Total Variance accounted for - 2.27%
% of Common Variance accounted for - 2.85%

The relationships observed in this factor may be best attributed to the fact that persons of lower socio-economic status are less inclined to seek psychiatric care on an outpatient basis (Myers and Bean, 1968). Welfare reciprocity, of course, defines low social status and both it and illegitimacy tend to covary with mental disorder. This factor, then, describes a dimension which should be predictive of mental disorder but is negatively correlated with outpatient treatment of mental disorder. The implication is that mental disorder is going untreated in regions with high scores on this factor.

TABLE 4.19(b)

Extreme Factor Scores on a
Social Malaise Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
54	Smithers	81.0	3	Kimberley	27.2
60	Peace River	73.5	19	Revelstoke	28.7
	North		80	Kitimat	33.0
59	Peace River	67.1	11	Trail	34.6
	South		51	Portland Canal	34.6
50	Queen Charlotte	66.4	18	Golden	35.8
39	Vancouver	65.7	85	Vancouver Isl.	36.0
29	Lillooet	64.3		North	
31	Merritt	63.7	46	Sechelt	36.0
52	Prince Rupert	61.7	48	Howe Sound	37.7
36	Surrey	61.5	22	Vernon	37.8
25	Barriere	61.2	78	Enderby	39.1
55	Burns Lake	60.8	12	Grand Forks	39.3
64	Gulf Islands	60.5	72	Campbell River	39.5
61	Victoria	60.3	32	Fraser Canyon	39.9

Factor XVIII: High Taxes

High taxes and high rates of admission to public institutions for the Aged are indicated, by this factor, to be likely to occur together and to occur elsewhere than in towns with populations between 5000 and 9999.

TABLE 4.20(a)

Varimax Loadings for a
High Taxes Variate

Variable Number	Loading	Variable Name
19	.64	General Mill rate, 1963
68	.47	Admissions to public geriatrics facilities, 1965-68
5	-.41	Towns 5000-9999, 1966

% Total Variance accounted for - 2.22%

% Common Variance accounted for - 2.78%

The fact that the rate of geriatric admissions is unrelated to the prevalence of old age in a community suggests that the tendency to hospitalize old people may be related to the tendency of a community to reject deviants (see Chapter 3). The relationship between geriatric admissions and the Mill rate is unclear, but it may be that the fact that lower taxes occur in towns of 5000-9999 population is due to their larger populations being better able to sustain necessary community services than smaller communities.

TABLE 4.20(b)
Extreme Factor Scores on a
High Taxes Variate

High Factor Scores			Low Factor Scores		
SD No.	SD Name	T score	SD No.	SD Name	T score
52	Prince Rupert	76.3	80	Kitimat	17.8
1	Fernie	73.0	65	Cowichan	31.1
22	Vernon	70.2	60	Peace River	34.4
84	Vancouver Isl.	65.3		North	
	West		28	Quesnel	34.9
11	Trail	65.0	39	Vancouver	35.7
68	Nanaimo	64.2	63	Saanich	36.1
19	Revelstoke	63.5	51	Portland Canal	36.9
56	Vanderhoof	63.2	10	Arrow Lakes	38.7
78	Enderby	62.6	72	Campbell River	38.8
13	Kettle Valley	62.0	14	Sth. Okanagan	39.5
31	Merritt	61.4			
35	Langley	60.9			
66	Lake Cowichan	60.3			

Discussion of Hypothesized Relationships between the
Environmental Factors and Mental Disorder

As was stated prior to the presentation of the results of the factor analysis, all the retained factors were hypothesized to bear some relationship to mental disorder rates. The fact that successive pairs of complex linear composites would be extracted in the canonical analysis made it unfeasible to formulate precise expectations, but general expectations could be stated on the basis of previous research findings.

Factor I: Suburban Conditions

The districts with high scores on this factor were largely of middle-class composition, and, as suburban areas, fell within the urban designation used in previous ecological studies of mental disorder. There were two reasons, then, for expecting higher admission rates in general in these districts.

(a) Admission rates have consistently been found to be higher in urban than rural areas (Rose & Stub, 1955; Jaco, 1960; Buss, 1966; Suinn, 1970)

(b) Persons of middle and higher socio-economic status have been found more willing to enter psychiatric treatment (Myers & Bean, 1968)

It was further expected that the high admission rates associated with Suburban Conditions would be concentrated in the less severe disorders. This expectation was based on the assumption that more readiness to seek psychiatric treatment would prevent the development of more severe disorders.

Factor II: Climate

High scores on this factor indexed a mild rainy coastal climate. It was expected, in accordance with the suggestions of Tromp (1968) that the decreased sunlight and more changeable weather on the coast would result in higher admission rates from there than from the interior. There were

no expectations regarding the types of disorders that would be most affected although previous findings relating to schizophrenia and aggressive acts were considered (see Chapter 3).

Factor III: Decrepitude

As this factor indexed the tendency for there to be greater numbers of older persons in the school districts, and as the susceptibility to mental disorder has been found to increase with age (Rose & Stub, 1955; Buss, 1966; Suinn, 1970) it was hypothesized that Decrepitude would be a good predictor of mental disorder. Specifically, it was expected that the rates of brain disorder and non-schizophrenic psychoses (see Table 2.1), the disorders with the latest onsets, would be related to this factor.

Factor IV: Concentration

The role of Concentration in identifying the urban and urban-like cities of the province led to the expectation that Concentration would be predictive of the schizophrenic disorders, sociopathy and addiction in accordance with the findings in human ecology that these tend to be problems of the inner city (Faris & Dunham, 1960; Theodorson, 1961). However, as many of the cities scoring high on this factor were of insufficient size to sustain the ecological relationships found in larger cities (see Clausen & Kohn, 1959), it was expected that the correlations would not be strong.

Factor V: Slum Conditions

The strong indications that this factor related to poor physical health, social disorganization and low socio-economic status gave rise to the hypothesis that it would be predictive of high rates of the more severe mental disorders. Poor nutrition was expected to raise the incidence of brain disorders while the predominance of low socio-economic status was

expected to raise the rate of schizophrenia (Paris & Dunham, 1960; Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958). However, with more reluctance to seek psychiatric treatment in the lower socio-economic strata (Myers & Bean, 1968) it was expected that the schizophrenic admissions would be restricted to its more severe forms, acute and paranoid.

In addition, a less debilitating disorder, sociopathy, was expected to show high rates. This prediction was based on the assumption that the high rates of delinquency and illegitimacy loading on Slum Conditions indexed prevalent tendencies to engage in antisocial behavior within the high scoring communities.

Further evidence in favor of this factor being predictive of mental disorder is found in the epidemiological literature. The most notable comparison might be made with the communities displaying "sociocultural disintegration" studied by Leighton et. al. (1963) in the testing and substantiation of their hypothesis that more mental disorder would exist in such communities.

Factor VI: Small Town Autonomy

The fact that this factor described school districts that contained particularly small towns and were isolated except for relatively good air travel facilities, raised two etiological possibilities. It would be expected, on the whole, that admission rates would be lower in areas with high scores on this factor because the areas were rural according to U.S. Census criteria, and rural areas have been consistently found to have lower rates of mental disorders (Rose & Stub, 1955; Jaco, 1960; Suinn, 1970). On the other hand, the limited social environment and inaccessibility of other communities could be expected to promote a sense of tedium which could influence the development of some kinds of mental disorders. Apart

from the exclusion of organic disorders, it was not possible to make specific predictions regarding the disorders that would be affected by these environmental conditions.

Factor VII: A. A. Prevalence

Although the direction of the relationship could not be predicted, it was expected that the prevalence of Alcoholics Anonymous in a district would be related to the rates of addiction and possibly brain disorder, half of the latter cases being associated with alcoholism. On the one hand, it was considered that high A. A. rates and high alcoholic hospital admissions might be positively correlated with both reflecting higher rates of alcoholism in the general population. On the other hand, it was expected that there might be fewer cases of alcoholism treated at Riverview when A. A. was strong because of the availability of informal treatment right within the community. It was further expected that higher rates of A. A. in a community might index more generalized tendencies to deal with mental health problems informally and within the community thereby reducing the number of cases admitted to Riverview.

Factor VIII: Wage Level

Two specific expectations could be formulated on the basis of this factor indexing higher wages and greater numbers of working women in conjunction with a low population growth. First, the higher wages and therefore higher socio-economic status suggested lower rates of mental disorder in general would occur, particularly schizophrenia (Faris & Dunham, 1960; Rose & Stub, 1955; Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958; Gurin et. al., 1960; Jaco, 1960; Theodorson, 1961; Srole, et. al., 1962; Langner & Michael, 1963; Leighton, et. al., 1963; Buss, 1966; Klee et. al., 1967; Sechrest & Wallace, 1967; Bloom, 1968; Myers & Bean, 1968; Suinn, 1970). Second, the greater

number of working women indicated a social difference which was expected to be influential, although no specific direction of influence could be predicted. On the one hand, the increased stress to the women and possible familial disorganization might be expected to raise disorder rates, while on the other hand the more interesting and varied life styles of the women could be expected to promote mental well-being.

Factor IX: Rural Property Value

The types of school districts scoring high on this factor imply moderation in some aspects of social life. They are not so densely populated as to even slightly suggest crowding, but not so sparsely populated as to produce social isolation. The towns of 2500-4999 population within these districts can adequately fill the demand for consumer goods without the pressures of an urban-like environment. If it can be assumed that such moderation results in an environment favorable to the maintenance and development of good mental health, it would be expected that mental disorder rates in general would correlate negatively with this variate. This expectation was strengthened by the rural composition of the factor, as mental disorder rates have been found, as previously mentioned, to be lower in rural areas.

Factor X: Opposition Voting

The interpretation of this factor was based on social class differences, with high scores indexing higher social class and the reverse for low scores. Thus, higher scores on this factor were expected to be predictive of lower mental disorder rates and lower scores predictive of higher rates. In addition, given the decreased willingness of the lower social classes to seek psychiatric care, it was expected that lower scores would be predictive of the disorders sufficiently severe to make hospitalization a necessity.

Factor XI: Rural Distribution Centers

The towns referred to in this factor, being retail centers and surrounded by more than the usual number of small hamlets, would probably be the more bustling rural centers of the province. The constant influx of consumers from outside the towns would produce more social complexity in the form of more people than in a community where distribution services were more dispersed. Such a difference in the social environment was expected to be reflected in mental disorder rates, but it was not possible to predict which disorders would be affected or in which direction.

Factor XII: Spoiled Ballots

The main underlying dimension on this factor appeared to be transportation, high scores indexing well-built highways through treacherous terrain and low scores indexing a prevalence of poor unpaved roads. It would be expected that the poor roads in the low scoring areas would produce social isolation and that the factor would then correlate negatively with mental disorder rates, particularly schizophrenia (Faris & Dunham, 1960).

Factor XIII: Rural School Support

The evidence suggests lower mental disorder rates in school districts scoring high on this factor for two reasons. First, as rural districts their rates should be lower. Second, if a higher rate of local school support can be assumed to reflect a higher level of concern for good social functioning within the community, even lower rates of mental disorder of all kinds than if only rurality was taken into account would be expected.

Factor XIV: Community Growth

The structure of this factor was reminiscent of positive striving or active adjustment (Scott, 1958; Jahoda, 1950) on a community scale. As such, it was expected to be negatively predictive of all mental disorder rates. In particular, its negative loading on juvenile delinquency

suggested that sociopathy would be most likely to correlate negatively with it.

Factor XV: Tourist Trade

Once again, no direction or specific type of rate differential could be predicted for communities scoring high on this factor. However, the high rate of transience and seasonal employment in tourist-related industries were believed to create a difference in social environment that could be reflected in mental disorder rates.

Factor XVI: Liquor Sales Growth

Higher rates of sudden death and increasing liquor sales suggest that this factor indexes a more violent way of life in its high scoring school districts. Such antisocial social organization might be expected to produce higher rates of addiction and sociopathy and of brain disorders due to alcoholism.

Factor XVII: Social Malaise

Considering the indications that this factor indexes higher rates of non-hospitalized mental disorder in conjunction with unusually sparse attempts to deal with it at the community level, its etiological implications are self-evident. It was expected that this factor would be a good predictor of all categories of mental disorder, particularly the more severe ones such as brain disorders and the schizophrenic psychoses.

Factor XVIII: High Taxes

The loading of most interest on this factor related to the rate of geriatric admissions and it was suggested that those admission rates might reflect the tendency of a community to reject deviants. On the assumption that this inference was justified it was expected that this variate would tend to be predictive of mental disorder rates in general.

Summary

The chapter opened with a description of the procedures involved in collecting the data for the factor analysis. The data sources were all secondary, most of them published by the provincial government. The nature of the geographic units used in the various records were discussed in terms of their recombination into school districts.

Problems of missing data were encountered in two types of situations: first, when incomplete information regarding the geographic distribution of events complicated the recombination of geographic areas into school districts, and second, when some of the data points of specific variables were simply missing. Estimates in the former cases were judged on the basis of population distribution, while in the latter case, least squares estimates were made of the missing data points.

The data were acknowledged to have two principle limitations --

(a) that information was missing for some variables and had to be estimated, and (b) that data were not available in all cases for the years 1965 to 1968, the period to which the diagnostic data pertained. These limitations were felt to be offset in the first case by there being relatively few cases of missing data and in the second case by the available figures falling close to the time period of interest.

Data collection was followed by the execution of the factor analysis, selection of the number of factors and the computation of the factor scores. A Principal Component analysis was conducted on a product-moment correlation matrix, twenty-two factors extracted and eighteen retained after rotation. Reference to the literature on environmental taxonomy indicated that eighteen factors exceeded the number retained in previous studies. The necessity to retain this number was dictated by the distinct simple

structure of that many factors, and was suggested to be due to the broader selection of variables entering the present analysis. Scores of the seventy-eight school districts on the eighteen factors were computed and recorded in T-score form to maximize their comprehensibility when used in the factor interpretations.

The basic guidelines observed in the factor interpretation were that only the two largest loadings for each variable were considered and then only if they exceeded a value of .30. In addition, one variable was omitted from the interpretation entirely because the patterning of its loadings was apparently meaningless. Factor scores which fell one standard deviation or more away from the mean were considered, in addition to the factor loadings, in the factor interpretations.

The eighteen factors were interpreted in some detail, following which, hypotheses regarding the role of each factor in predicting mental disorder rates were presented. A brief summary of the factor interpretations can be seen in Table 4.21 and of the hypotheses attending the factors in Table 4.22.

TABLE 4.21

Summary of Factor Interpretations

Factor Number	Factor Name	Brief description of qualities represented in high scoring school districts.
I	Suburban Conditions	More highly populous communities with larger numbers of middle-class young families
II	Climate	Mild rainy coastal climate
III	Decrepitude	Preponderance of elderliness
IV	Concentration	High concentration of population in the major commercial centers

TABLE 4.21 (cont.)

Factor Number	Factor Name	Brief description of qualities represented in high scoring school districts
V	Slum Conditions	Poverty indicated in high death rates and social disorder
VI	Small Town Autonomy	Self-contained, isolated small towns
VII	A. A. Prevalance	High number of Alcoholics Anonymous groups and members
VIII	Wage Level	More working females and overall higher wages
IX	Rural Property Value	More highly populated rural area
X	Opposition Voting	Voting other than N.D.P. with a preference for Liberal voting
XI	Rural Distribution Centers	Centers distributing retail goods in the rural areas
XII	Spoiled Ballots	Higher rates of spoiled ballots, motor vehicle deaths and liquor sales.
XIII	Rural School Support	Rural areas with higher local school taxes
XIV	Community Growth	Growth within organized area and development of facilities for children
XV	Tourist Trade	High reliance on tourism indicated in extensive hotel and natural recreation facilities
XVI	Liquor Sales Growth	Increasing liquor sales and high accidental death rate
XVII	Social Malaise	Higher rates of welfare reciprocity and illegitimacy in conjunction with low rates of referral to community mental health centers
XVIII	High Taxes	Higher taxes and more admissions to public geriatric facilities in other than towns of 5000-9999

TABLE 4.22

**Summary of the Hypothesized Relationships between
the Factors and Mental Disorder Rates**

Factor Number	Factor Name	Hypothesized Relationship with Disorder Rates	Reasons behind Hypotheses
I	Suburban Conditions	Positively predictive of higher rates Most highly predictive of milder disorders	Higher rates in urban-like areas Middle classes more willing to seek psychiatric care Readiness to seek psychiatric care would prevent more serious disorders developing
II	Climate	Higher rates in general	Decreased sunlight and more changeable weather on the coast
III	Decrepitude	Higher rates of brain disorders and non-schizophrenic psychoses	Susceptibility to mental disorders, particularly those mentioned, increases with age
IV	Concentration	Higher rates of schizophrenia, sociopathy and addiction	These disorders occur more frequently in densely populated inner city regions
V	Slum Conditions	High brain damage High schizophrenia High sociopathy	Poor physical health Low social class Factor indicates prevalence of antisocial behavior
VI	Small Town Autonomy	Lower rates overall Elevation of some un-specific rates possible	Rates lower in rural areas Tedium arising from restriction of the social environment
VII	A. A. Prevalence	Relationship with addiction and brain disorder expected but in unknown direction	Positive correlation between alcoholism and the factor could reflect higher rates in the com-

TABLE 4.22 (contd.)

Factor Number	Factor Name	Hypothesized Relationship with Disorder Rates	Reasons behind Hypotheses
			community while negative correlations could reflect a tendency to resolve the problem within the community
		Lower rates overall	Might index a general tendency to deal with mental health problems within the community
VIII	Wage Level	Lower rates overall	Higher wages and therefore higher socio-economic status
		Relationship of unspecified direction	Greater numbers of working women may be indicative of a social difference which could lower rates by optimizing social stimulation or could raise them by providing stimulation to the point of stress
IX	Rural Property Value	Lower rates overall	Rates lower in rural areas
			Moderate level of environmental stress
X	Opposition Voting	Lower rates overall	High scores indicate higher socio-economic status
XI	Rural Distribution Centers	Relationship of unspecified direction	More social complexity than in areas with dispersed distribution services
XII	Spoiled Ballots	Lower rates overall, particularly schizophrenia	Social isolation in low scoring areas would result in negative relationships between the factor and mental disorder rates
XIII	Rural School Support	Lower rates overall	Rates lower in rural areas
			Greater community concern for good social functioning
XIV	Community Growth	Lower rates overall	Factor indicates positive striving for community betterment

TABLE 4.22 (cont.)

Factor Number	Factor Name	Hypothesized Relationship with Disorder Rates	Reasons behind Hypotheses
		Lower rates of sociopathy	Negative factor loading on juvenile delinquency
XV	Tourist Trade	Relationship of unspecified direction	Social differences between these and other communities possibly influential
XVI	Liquor Sales Growth	Higher rates of brain disorder, addiction and sociopathy	Antisocial social environment
XVII	Social Malaise	Higher rates overall, particularly more severe disorders such as brain disorders and schizophrenia	Higher rates of non-hospitalized mental disorder and less tendency to seek early treatment
XVIII	High Taxes	Higher rates overall	More tendency to reject deviants from the community

SECTION III: CANONICAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS TO FIND THE ENVIRONMENTAL CORRELATES OF MENTAL HOSPITALIZATION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

CHAPTER 5: Preparations for the Canonical Analysis
Collection and Presentation of the Diagnostic Data

From the set of data from Riverview Hospital which was available for the present study, the diagnostic data were tabulated for each school district and arranged into twelve categories. There were fifteen diagnostic differentiations available in the original data set, but the regrouping was necessitated by the problem of low frequencies of admission in many of the school districts and by the need to have a small enough number of categories to allow for manageable data manipulation. The loss of information resulting from regrouping was felt to be compensated for by the fact that fine discriminations between diagnostic categories are, in practice, so imprecise as to be of limited meaningfulness (Zigler and Phillips, 1961).

The total numbers of cases of each diagnosis in each school district were expressed as rates per 10,000 persons fifteen years of age or older in each school district. The fifteen and over age group was chosen to represent the population at risk of admission because, Riverview being an adult facility, admission of persons under fifteen years of age is rare. A strict per capita rate would have spuriously lowered incidence rates in school districts with larger proportions of the population under fifteen years of age.

Population figures for 1966 were those used to estimate the population at risk because these figures were the ones available closest to the period of the data collection. As 1966 was the median year for which the diagnostic data were available, the figures used were probably the best estimates of the populations of the school districts over the three year period that could have been obtained in any event.

In addition to the rates per 10,000 of the twelve diagnoses for each school district, the rate per 10,000 of normality (the total non-hospitalized population) was calculated. The purpose of this was to determine which combinations of environmental qualities would be predictive of mental health rather than mental disorder.

The twelve selected diagnostic categories can be seen in Table 5.1. As mentioned above, there were fifteen diagnostic distinctions made in the available data set, with trait and pattern personality disorders, schizoaffective disorders, and involuntional psychoses formerly listed separately. The reasons for regrouping these categories have been discussed in Chapter 2.

Modifications in Correlation Procedures

Certain considerations relating to the nature of the data had to be dealt with before the calculation of correlation matrices to enter the canonical regression analysis. Specifically, a problem relating to the influence of the base rate on the magnitude of the inter-diagnostic correlations was dealt with by the use of a cross products correlation technique. As an added benefit, singularity of the interdiagnostic correlation matrix was prevented. If the matrix had been singular, a canonical solution would have been impossible (Lee, 1969).

The interpretive advantage of the cross products technique is that the base rates of the disorders are included in its calculation, such that, in interpretation of the canonical component loadings, statements can be made about higher or lower rates as well as of more or less predictability. The initial correlation coefficients, as seen in Appendix C-1, were larger for diagnostic categories with greater numbers of cases, with the coefficients' sizes determined by both the implicit base rate and the degree of similarity in patterning of rates across school districts. A product

TABLE 5.1
Total Number of Cases in each of
the Diagnostic Categories

Diagnosis	Total Cases	%
1. Brain disorder: chronic and acute	674	7.1
2. Non-schizophrenic psychoses: manic-depressive, paranoid and involuntional	1088	11.5
3. Schizophrenia: chronic undifferentiated	902	9.5
4. Schizophrenia: acute undifferentiated	352	3.7
5. Schizophrenia: paranoid	1174	12.4
6. Schizophrenia: other; simple, hebephrenic, residual, cata- tonic, affective	682	7.2
7. Neurosis: depressive	1719	18.1
8. Neurosis: other	608	6.4
9. Personality disorders: pattern and trait	823	8.7
10. Sociopathy	373	3.9
11. Addiction: drugs or alcohol	762	8.0
12. Transient situational disorder	336	3.5
<hr/> Total 9493 <hr/>		

moment correlation would, of course, only assess the degree of similarity in patterning, with differences in base rates being irrelevant to the sizes of the coefficients.

Not all the data entering the correlational calculations were rate measures, however, and the computational formulae were revised accordingly.

The environmental variates, which were deviated measures, were correlated using the usual product moment formula, while a combined cross product-product moment technique was used to find the correlations between the diagnostic and environmental measures. The three formulae can be seen in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2

The Three Formulae used in Deriving
the Initial Correlation Matrix

Let: X and Y be diagnostic measures and
A and B be environmental measures

1. Cross products formula for deriving inter-diagnostic correlations

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\Sigma XY}{\sqrt{(\Sigma X^2) (\Sigma Y^2)}}$$

2. Product moment formula for deriving inter-environmental correlations

$$r_{ab} = \frac{NEAB - (\Sigma A) (\Sigma B)}{\sqrt{[NEA^2 - (\Sigma A)^2] [NEB^2 - (\Sigma B)^2]}}$$

3. Combined cross product-product moment formula for deriving correlations between diagnostic and environmental variables

$$r_{ax} = \frac{\Sigma AX - \Sigma A \frac{(\Sigma X)}{N}}{\sqrt{[\Sigma A^2 - \frac{(\Sigma A)^2}{N}] [(\Sigma X^2)]}}$$

The cross product correlation matrix is reported in Appendix C-1 while the cross product-product moment correlations between the diagnostic rates and the environmental variates are reported in Appendix C-2. The

correlations between the environmental variates are not reported because, as they are correlations between scores on orthogonal factors, they are uncorrelated and can be represented by an identity matrix (ones on the diagonal and zeroes on the off-diagonal). The complete correlation matrix entering the canonical analysis, then, was a super matrix containing four submatrices. In the upper left was the 13 by 13 inter-diagnostic cross products matrix, in the lower right the 18 by 18 identity matrix representing the uncorrelated environmental variates, and in the lower left and upper right the 18 by 13 and 13 by 18 cross products-product moment matrices of correlations between the diagnostic rates and environmental variates.

Summary

Diagnostic data were tabulated and converted to rates per 10,000 for each school district. Although fifteen categories were available they were collapsed, for reasons discussed in Chapter 2, into the twelve categories reported in Table 5.1. Rates of normality were also entered into analysis.

To undergo canonical regression analysis, data must first be inter-correlated. To improve interpretability of results while preventing singularity of the interdiagnostic correlation matrix, a cross-products correlation technique was used. It then became possible to interpret the canonical component loadings in terms of higher and lower rates as well as of more and less predictability. Product moment correlations were appropriate between the environmental variates but, as they were computed on uncorrelated factor scores, the inter-environmental matrix was an identity matrix. To obtain the correlations between the diagnostic and environmental variates a combined cross products-product moment technique was used.

CHAPTER 6: The Canonical Analysis

Derivation of the Population Parameters from

Canonical Regression Analysis

Having obtained the correlation matrices discussed in the previous chapter, the canonical analysis was undertaken. It will be recalled that the total correlation matrix was actually a super matrix consisting, in the upper left of a matrix of cross product correlations between rates of hospitalization for the twelve disorders and normality all expressed as per 10,000 rates; in the lower right if an identity matrix representing the product moment correlations between the factor scores; and in the lower left and upper right of cross product-product moment correlations between the diagnostic rates and the factor scores. As there were 13 diagnostic measures and 18 factor scores, the whole super-matrix was 31 by 31 in dimensions.

Canonical correlations and regression weights were found using a program from the University of Alberta program library. This program was especially suited to the present problem because it employed a Jacobi solution to solve for eigenvalues. The simultaneous method of the Jacobi solution was preferable to a sequential solution which lead, when tried, to improper ranking of the canonical roots. This happened when the sequential solution was used because the larger correlation coefficients obtained using the cross products technique caused the eigenvalues of the inter-diagnostic matrix to be highly correlated before extraction.

Correlations of the variables with the canonical variates were then computed in the manner advocated by Meredith (1964) and Stewart and Love (1968), these to be interpreted as component or factor loadings, known in the case of canonical analysis as canonical component loadings. As a final step, the amounts of redundant or predicted variance of each of the

diagnostic and environmental sets, given the other, were calculated as suggested by Stewart and Love (1968). The amount of redundant variance attributable to each component was also found and expressed as a percentage of the total redundant variance in its set. In this way it was possible to assess the relative importance of each canonical component, useful in deciding how many should be retained for interpretation.

A more complete discussion of the background and rationale for computing canonical component loadings and redundancies can be found in Chapter 2.

Presentation and Discussion of Canonical Relationships
between Environmental Variates and Diagnostic Rates

General Interpretive Considerations

As indicated in Chapter 2, interpretation of canonical regression requires consideration of (a) the strength of the canonical correlation coefficients, (b) the redundancy or predictability of each set given the other, (c) the percentage of each set's redundancy contributed by each of its canonical components, and (d) the structure of the canonical components. Ordinarily, levels of statistical significance would also require consideration, but the use of the entire population in the present study rendered such considerations irrelevant.

It may be profitable to approach the problem of canonical interpretation by first considering what results there would be if there were extreme degrees of relationship between the two sets of measures. No relationship between the sets would be most obvious in the case in which the canonical correlations were all near zero. Less obvious would be the case in which the redundancies were extremely low or zero. The canonical correlations then would be uninteresting because they would be indexing consistency of

negligible amounts of variance. At the other extreme, while strong canonical correlations are always desirable, very high redundancies may or may not be, depending on the problem. High redundancies would be desired, for example, if measures of job performance were being related to scores on relevant selection tests. In the present study, having very high redundancies was not considered important because, as the body of epidemiological evidence shows, characteristics of individuals are also important in the determination of mental hospital admission. Thus, just as with personal or demographic qualities of persons, aspects of the persons' environments would only be expected to account for a limited portion of the variance in predicting mental disorder.

The complete set of results can be seen in Appendix C-3, while the results to be interpreted are presented in Table 6.1. It can be seen that there is a moderate degree of predictability of the two sets of data i.e. 15.17% of the variance in the diagnostic set is predictable from the environmental variates, and 20.05% of the variance in the environmental set is predictable from the diagnostic set. These percentages may appear unremarkable at first glance, but when the unique combinations of personal experiences that culminate in each mental hospital admission are considered, it is surprising to find even this amount of predictability from qualities of the extra-personal and extra-familial environment. These degrees of predictability between the sets as wholes are of even more interest in light of the relatively strong canonical correlations. It will be noted that only canonical correlations exceeding .50 were reported.

Moving next to the pairs of canonical components, interpretation centers around component loadings, the size of the canonical correlation and the percentage of redundancy accounted for. The canonical correlation describes

TABLE 6.1

Correlations of Variables on Diagnostic and Environmental Canonical Variates

(Canonical correlations of .50 or greater and canonical component loadings of .25 or greater reported)

Diagnosis	Component Pair							Total Redundant Variance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. Brain Disorder				.30		.41		
2. Non-schizophrenic psychosis	.25		.31					
3. Schizophrenia: chronic undiffer- entiated					-.36	.31		
4. Schizophrenia: acute	.34				.29	.31		
5. Schizophrenia: paranoid	.35			.48		.36		
6. Schizophrenia: other	.38							
7. Neurosis: depressive	.49	.46						
8. Neurosis: other	.30	.27				.25	.28	
9. Personality disorder			.35					
10. Sociopathy								
11. Addiction	.34		.39			-.25	.25	
12. Transient situational disorder								
13. Normal								
Contribution to the redundant variance	.0506	.0184	.0199	.0162	.0117	.0162	.0073	.1517
% contribution to the redundant variance	33.35	12.13	13.12	10.68	7.71	10.68	4.81	

TABLE 6.1 (Cont.)

Environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total Redundant Variance
1. Suburban Conditions	.44							
2. Climate	.45		.28					
3. Decrepitude				.34		-.42		
4. Concentration				.32	.28	.31		
5. Slum Conditions		.37	-.26		.54	.30		
6. Small Town Autonomy								
7. A. A. Prevalence	-.47		.27					-.48
8. Wage Level								
9. Rural Property Value	-.32		-.34			-.25	.38	
10. Opposition Voting						-.40	.30	
11. Rural Distribution Centers								
12. Spoiled Ballots		.54		.57		-.35		
13. Rural School Support			.46		.53			
14. Community Growth		-.34	-.43	.26				-.51
15. Tourist Trade								.39
16. Liquor Sales Growth		.32		-.29				
17. Social Malaise			.29	.26	-.35			
18. High Taxes	-.26		.28	.32				
Contribution to the redundant variance	.0374	.0295	.0287	.0256	.0210	.0162	.0148	.2005
% contribution to the redundant variance	18.65	14.71	14.31	12.77	10.47	8.08	7.38	
Canonical correlations	.82	.75	.72	.68	.62	.54	.52	

the consistency of the relationship between each pair of canonical variates while the contribution to the redundancy describes the relationship of each canonical variate to the set from which it was derived. The patterns of component loadings (to be discussed later in this chapter) are straightforwardly descriptive of the interrelationships of the variables. In line with the suggestion of Stewart and Love (1968), the respective contributions to the redundancies were used chiefly in deciding whether a canonical component deserved interpretation and further attention.

Correspondence between the Hypothesized and Actual Predictive

Properties of the Environmental Variates

In order to clarify the interpretation of the pairs of canonical components the environmental variates were first considered in terms of their actual behavior in the canonical analysis and that hypothesized in Chapter 4. At this stage of the interpretation, attention was directed to the rows of Table 6.1. Only very general statements could be made on this basis, as the component loading of each environmental variate on each canonical component is part of a linear composite which could be greatly changed if that variate were removed and considered out of context. Similarly, the correlation of each environmental variate with each of the diagnostic variables, or the multiple regression of all the diagnostic variables on each of the environmental variates would yield different results to those of a canonical regression analysis.

The best predictor of all, in terms of the number of components on which it loaded, was Slum Conditions. And, on three of the five components, it did, as expected, constitute part of a composite which accompanied higher diagnostic rates. With four loadings each, Community Growth and Rural Property Value also contributed well to the prediction and description of

relationships. In general they were negatively loaded on components predictive of higher rates, as expected. Another variate of almost equal efficacy to these was Spoiled Ballots. Although it only loaded on three components, two of its loadings were among the highest in the analysis. However, these high loadings, contrary to hypothesis, contributed to the prediction of elevated rates. Other relatively good predictors were A. A. Prevalence, Social Malaise, and High Taxes, with three component loadings each.

The poorest predictors were Wage Level and Rural Distribution Centers, neither of which loaded on any components at all. Although this was contrary to hypothesis, the almost equally poor predictive power of Concentration was not. The similarly weak contributions of Tourist Trade to a composite predictive of only slightly elevated rates and of Decrepitude, negatively, to one predictive of higher rates, were both contrary to hypothesis in addition to indicating limited utility of these variates as predictors.

On the other hand, even the environmental variates which loaded only once each were nevertheless useful from a simply descriptive point of view. This was particularly evident for Suburban Conditions. Its single loading identified the first environmental component as referencing suburban areas. At the same time, the fact that the linear composite to which it contributed was related to one third of the redundant variance in the diagnostic set suggested that it had only one loading because all the relevant diagnostic covariance had been accounted for, and not because it was superfluous. In this manner, Suburban Conditions and the other variates with only one or two loadings could be seen to be functioning, like marker variables in factor analysis, as aids to interpretation.

On the whole, the behavior of the environmental variates in the canonical analysis was in general agreement with the hypotheses suggested in Chapter 4. Two notable exceptions were Wage Level and Rural Distribution Centers which, with no loadings at all, were irrelevant in the present analysis.

The Predictability of the Diagnostic Categories

The interpretation of raised or lowered rates was based on the direction and size of the component loadings in Table 6.1 and on the number of cases originally falling in each diagnostic category. For example, it can be seen in Table 5.1 that neurotic depression, with 1719 cases, was the most frequently occurring diagnosis. This means that rates in all districts tended to be higher on this diagnosis than, say, acute schizophrenia with only 352 cases overall. Thus, on the first component pair, while the loadings on acute schizophrenia and neurotic depression, being of similar magnitude, indicate similar proportional excesses of cases, the actual number of cases accounted for by each is a function of the original number of cases in each category.

If all incidents of mental hospitalization were due to chance i.e. if there were constant base rates in all situations, no correlations would be found between different environments and rates of certain mental disorders. Faris and Dunham (1960), for example, would have found all mental disorders to be distributed in equal proportions throughout Chicago. The present set of results, in line with previous epidemiological findings, indicates that deviations from base rates occur in such consistent manners as to be predictable from certain environmental qualities.

The total redundancy for the diagnostic set indicated that diagnoses were not as predictable from environmental qualities as vice versa. In addition, the loadings were generally lower and no diagnostic variable

loaded on more than three components (four and five component loadings for some variates were seen in the environmental set).

Random distribution of a diagnostic rate would have been indicated by a failure to load on any of the environmental components. As shown in Table 5.2, this occurred only for the rate of normality, indicating that its rate was, in effect, unrelated to any particular environments. Such a failure to discriminate differences among school districts was probably a result of there being very large values in the denominators of the two cross product correlation formulae (see Table 5.2). Among the diagnostic rates proper, depressive neurosis and paranoid schizophrenia each had only one component loading, indicating that their rates were unpredictable under most conditions.

Only two diagnostic categories, miscellaneous neurosis and acute schizophrenia loaded on as many as three canonical components. This greater variability in loadings indicates a systematic variability in rates of hospitalization across environments for disorders which were given these diagnoses. The implication, then, is that the environment of origin had more of an influence on the diagnosed rates of these disorders either through influencing the rate of disorder and type of symptom formation or through somehow shaping behavior in such a way as to influence the judgement of the attending physician at the time of admission.

It can be seen in Table 6.1 that neurosis:other was the most discriminable category, with two of its loadings at .49 and .46. Schizophrenia:other had a loading of .48 on one of its two components and brain disorder had one of its two loadings at .41. The rest of the categories were less clearly marked, with reported loadings ranging between .25 and .39.

Interpretation of the Pairs of Canonical Components

First Canonical Component Pair. The fact that over one third of the predicted variance in the diagnostic set was predicted in the first pair of canonical components, indicates that, given the indexed environmental description, a large percentage of all the predictable variability in diagnostic rates was explained. On the whole, the diagnostic categories predicted appear to be those that would be expected from the predominantly middle class areas indexed by the environmental component. The loadings on Suburban Conditions and Climate mark the relevant areas as being the populous suburban school districts close to both Vancouver and Riverview Hospital.

Except for the two schizophrenic categories, the indexed diagnostic categories are generally those in which less severe personality disorganization and less tendency to act out conflicts are found. It can probably be assumed that the absence of manifest behavior along these lines led to the observed distribution of diagnostic differentials in the suburban areas. However, it is possible that, as hypothesized in Chapter 4, the residents of these areas, being more willing to seek psychiatric care, were better able to keep the development of more dramatic symptoms under control. Their proximity to the hospital would be expected to increase this willingness for early treatment.

The two schizophrenic categories loading on this factor are only slightly contradictory to the general trend for less debilitating disorders to occur under the described circumstances. As can be seen in Table 5.1, acute schizophrenia accounted for only 3.7% of the total cases and schizophrenia:other for 7.2%. These percentages, except for neurosis:other, are lower than for any of the other categories loading on this component and

TABLE 6.2
Canonical Relationships between the
First Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
8. Neurosis:other	.49	7. A. A. Prevalence	-.47
7. Neurosis:depressive	.38	2. Climate	.45
6. Schizophrenia:other	.35	1. Suburban Conditions	.44
4. Schizophrenia:acute	.34	9. Rural Property Value	-.32
11. Addiction	.34	18. High Taxes	-.26
9. Personality disorder	.30		
2. Non-schizophrenic psychosis	.25		
% contribution to redundancy		33.35%	18.65%
Canonical correlation		.82	

indicate that a comparatively small number of actual cases of hospitalization were explained by their loadings. The cases diagnosed as acute schizophrenia may even merit consideration among the less severe disorders as it is usually characterized by good pre-morbid adjustment, short duration, and good prognosis.

The environment component, as mentioned above, was identified as relating to the suburbs of Vancouver on the basis of its loadings on Suburban Conditions and Climate. The negative loading on Rural Property Value may relate to the fact that there was generally no rural property in the relevant school districts, while the weaker negative loading on High Taxes could be related to any or all of the variables originally describing that factor (see Table 4.20(a)).

The fact that the strongest loading on this component was a negative one on A. A. Prevalence is somewhat difficult to explain. It is probably not legitimate to say that there is less A. A. in the described school districts because, even though the per capita rates are lower, the resi-

dents of the areas have a greater number of A. A. groups in nearby school districts to visit, and thus effectively have more A.A. available to them than in other regions of the province. It does not appear justified therefore to claim, as hypothesized, that either the lower per capita A. A. membership is directly related to the higher rate of hospitalization for addiction or that lower A. A. rates reflect a more general lack of concern with informal care for mental disturbance in the community.

However, if the component pair is reflected a different and interesting pattern of interrelationships can be seen. Reference to Table 4.3(b) reveals that the school districts scoring strongly on the reflection of Suburban Conditions are more recently established rural areas with a high percentage of their populations in hamlets and little or none of it in larger towns. The component loading on Climate identifies these areas as in the interior, the loading on Rural Property Value indicates a fairly well dispersed population throughout the districts, and High Taxes may reflect greater need for revenue to develop these relatively new areas. Within such an environmental context, high rates of A. A. membership are found, and the complete environment described, of course, is strongly predictive of lower rates of seven of the twelve diagnoses.

High A. A. membership in these rural areas is, in contrast to the low membership in the suburban areas, straightforwardly interpretable. It would appear that when it is in combination with the other environmental variates represented here, A. A. membership can be predictive of low rates of mental hospitalization for disorders diagnosed as among the less debilitating.

The fact that both the suburban areas and the rural areas described by this component pair and its reflection are independent of the five non-

loading diagnostic variables means that they both contribute unpredictably high and low (probably average overall) numbers of cases of these five disorders. Thus it appears that the suburban areas may keep their hospitalizations for more severe disorders down by obtaining early treatment, while the described rural areas may keep their severe disorder rates down by coping with the disorder in its early stages within the community.

Second Canonical Component Pair. The second diagnostic component accounts for approximately one third the amount of variance that the first did, and has its loadings on two of the smallest diagnostic categories (see Table 5.1). The canonical correlation of .75 indicates that the excess of neurosis:other and less consistently pronounced excess of sociopathy represent a consistent relationship even though relatively small numbers of persons are involved. On the whole, some excess of emotional distress, symptom formation, and acting-out behavior in otherwise rational oriented persons is suggested.

The interpretation of the environmental component was complicated only by the loading on Spoiled Ballots, a factor which had presented problems for interpretation in Chapter 4. However, the overall picture of poor health and social disorder (Slum Conditions), low school attendance and possibly greater ignorance (Slum Conditions and Spoiled Ballots), greater and growing liquor consumption and high rates of violent and sudden death (Spoiled Ballots and Liquor Sales Growth), and less community growth or development of recreational facilities within the community (Community Growth) indicates that Spoiled Ballots interacts with the other three variates as an index of social disorder.

On the whole, the environmental component appears to describe social conditions very like those Leighton et. al. (1963) referred to in the

TABLE 6.3

Canonical Relationships between the
Second Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
8. Neurosis:other	.46	12. Spoiled Ballots	.54
10. Sociopathy	.27	5. Slum Conditions	.37
		14. Community Growth	-.34
		16. Liquor Sales Growth	.32
<hr/>		<hr/>	
% contribution to redundancy	12.13%		14.71%
<hr/>		<hr/>	
Canonical correlation	.75		

Stirling County study under the heading of "sociocultural disintegration". The diagnostic loadings are directly in agreement with the mental disorder rates Leighton et. al. found in conducting a sample survey in communities selected as showing sociocultural disintegration. This close replication of the Stirling County results is particularly remarkable on two counts. First, strong agreement between actual disorder rates in the general population and in those of the population that were hospitalized are shown to exist. Second, it has been possible, in the present study, to obtain similar results to those of Leighton et. al. simply through data analysis rather than through the complicated procedure of selecting communities and sampling and interviewing persons.

A consideration of the reflection of this component pair indicates low rates of mixed neurosis and sociopathy to occur in rural areas with poor transportation (Spoiled Ballots) where physical and social health are sound (Slum Conditions, Community Growth, Liquor Sales Growth) and the organized towns are growing (Community Growth).

Third Canonical Component Pair. The third environmental component is

marked by its highest loading as descriptive of rural areas, while a moderate loading on Climate indicates a tendency for these areas to be near the coast.

TABLE 6.4
Canonical Relationships between the
Third Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
12. Transient situational disorder	.39	13. Rural School Support	.46
10. Sociopathy	.35	14. Community Growth	-.43
2. Non-schizophrenic psychoses	.31	9. Rural Property Value	-.34
		17. Social Malaise	.29
		2. Climate	.28
		18. High Taxes	-.28
		7. A. A. Prevalence	.27
		5. Slum Conditions	-.26
<hr/>		<hr/>	
% contribution to redundancy	13.12%		14.31%
<hr/>		<hr/>	
Canonical correlation	.72		

This component pair is similar to the previous one in two respects. First, on the diagnostic component, the loading categories indicate excessive admissions of persons who are basically rational and oriented without apparent personality disintegration. A second similarity is found in the fact that the relationships of each component to its set of origin and the correlations between both pairs of components are almost identical, indicating that they are of equal importance in explaining the variance within and between the two sets. This would indicate, then, that the relationships found by Leighton et. al. (1963) and replicated in the second component pair only represent one important set of environment-mental disorder interrelationships.

Transient situational disorder, sociopathy, and manic depressive psycho-

sis, which comprised the majority of the non-schizophrenic psychoses, could perhaps all be viewed as responses to unusual levels of frustration, responses in lieu of the overt expression of anger. In the cases of transient situational disorder and sociopathy it could be interpreted that an outwardly manifested mode of expressing hostility was selected, while with the mainly manic-depressive disorders hostility was directed inwardly and made manifest in affective disorder. Such internalization of hostility has been implicated in other disorders, particularly schizophrenia, but with manic-depressive psychosis as with the other disorders loading on this component, personality and reality orientation tend to remain relatively intact.

The environmental component, as mentioned above, related to rural areas which tend to have milder climates. Within these areas there are some apparently contradictory trends to be seen. The most evident involves the positive loading on Rural School Support and to a lesser extent on A. A. Prevalence, together suggesting a concern within the community for stable social functioning, in contrast to the strong negative loading on Community Growth and a less strong positive loading on Social Malaise which suggest the opposite. Similarly, if it can be inferred that High Taxes, with its factor loading on geriatric admissions, is related to a lack of community concern for the deviant and disabled, and that A. A. Prevalence indexes informal community concern at least with alcoholism and maybe with other disturbances, the fact that both have loaded positively constitutes an apparent contradiction. However, the loadings are small and may not index an important relationship.

High taxes might, alternatively, be better explained with reference to its factor loading on the higher taxation rate, and when this is considered

in view of the negative loading on Slum Conditions, it can be seen that the described areas are likely more prosperous. The low rural property values, when considered with the mild climate, would appear to designate coastal school districts in which habitation of the entire district has been unfeasible because of the mountainous terrain and thick forests. However, the fact that Small Town Autonomy has not loaded on this component pair indicates that these districts are not isolated from each other or the lower mainland area.

On the whole, the description here appears to be of a working class small town environment. Small town may be a better term than rural because the low rural property value indicates a lack of developed area outside the towns. A low concern for developing recreational facilities for children (Community Growth) and high rates of illegitimacy, welfare reciprocity and low rates of admission to community mental health services (Social Malaise) suggest lower overall social status, while the negative relationship with Slum Conditions and high rates of School and General taxation suggest a fairly high income level.

The reflection of this component pair similarly contains some contradictions. Thus lower than average rates of situational disorder, sociopathy and non-schizophrenic psychoses are predicted, in general accordance with the hypotheses in Chapter 4, by high Community Growth, high Rural Property Value, low Social Malaise, more severe climate, and low taxes (and thus lower geriatric admissions). However, low Rural School Support, high Slum Conditions, and to a lesser extent, low A. A. Prevalence appear inconsistent with lowered hospitalization rates.

Fourth Canonical Component Pair. On this component pair, it appears that the coincidence of poverty and economic well-being within the same

school districts is being described. The loadings of Spoiled Ballots and Slum Conditions on the present component pair are very similar to their loadings on the environmental component in the second pair. In this case a complementary loading on Social Malaise is also found and all together they index a general state of poverty, poor health, and social disorder. On the other hand, relationships between high Community Growth and low Liquor Sales Growth in interaction with high Concentration and high taxes indicates the presence of socially healthy commercial centers in the school districts as well.

TABLE 6.5

Canonical Relationships between the
Fourth Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
6. Schizophrenia:other	.48	12. Spoiled Ballots	.57
1. Brain disorder	.30	4. Concentration	.34
		18. High Taxes	.32
		5. Slum Conditions	.32
		16. Liquor Sales Growth	-.29
		17. Social Malaise	.26
		14. Community Growth	.26
% contribution to redundancy			
	10.68%		12.77%
Canonical correlation			
	.68		

How the excesses of hospitalizations for the miscellaneous schizophrenias and the brain disorders would relate to the relative extremes of economic status in these school districts is not clear. It might be that the impoverished segments of the population contribute both types of disorders or it may be that both tend to stay in the cities near medical and welfare facilities. However, an excess of chronic undifferentiated schizo-

phrenia would add credence to the latter possibility.

A consideration of the interrelationships when this component pair is reflected sheds no further light on its relatively straightforward interpretation.

Fifth Canonical Component Pair. Unlike the other diagnostic components, the fifth indexes a case in which lower than usual overall rates are found. Reference to Table 5.1 shows that chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia constituted 9.5% of the total hospitalizations while acute schizophrenia accounted for only 3.7%. The larger loading on chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia indicates that it accounts for proportionately as well as numerically more cases and, having a negative loading, takes the overall admission rate down farther than the slight excess of acute schizophrenia raises it.

TABLE 6.6

Canonical Relationships between the
Fifth Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
3. Schizophrenia:chronic undifferentiated	-.36	6. Small Town Autonomy	.54
4. Schizophrenia:acute	.29	13. Rural School Support	.53
		17. Social Malaise	-.35
		5. Slum Conditions	.28
% contribution to redundancy			10.47%
Canonical correlation		.62	

The environmental component describes an interesting coincidence of conditions in areas, as indexed by the loading on Small Town Autonomy, in which the main town is geographically isolated. If Rural School Support can be assumed to index a concern for sound social functioning, the ob-

served relationship with lower rates in general makes sense as does the relationship of both of them to a negative loading on Social Malaise. However, the loading on Slum Conditions, while not strong, appears to contradict these relationships. It may be that this slight loading is due to there being more Indians in the relevant areas.

It is not possible, of course, to say whether the observed inter-relationships between the two schizophrenic disorders and the environmental variates really indicate higher and lower levels of these disorders in the population as a whole. It is possible that chronic schizophrenia is tolerated in these communities while the more dramatic manifestations of acute schizophrenia are not. However, if greater tolerance of chronic schizophrenia existed, it might be expected that negative correlations with other disorders would also be found. An alternative explanation might be that these communities are more intolerant than usual of mental disorder with the result that the chronic undifferentiated schizophrenics are not likely to return to their community of origin between readmissions.

Sixth Canonical Component Pair. The relationships observed here, generally indicative of higher rates of the more severe disorders in isolated rural areas, forms an interesting complement to the first component pair which, it will be recalled, indexed essentially the opposite relationship. However, the appreciably lower canonical correlation in this case indicates a much less consistent relationship to be present.

The interpretation of the diagnostic component as indexing relative excesses of more severe disorders is reinforced by the two strongest loadings being on brain disorder and paranoid schizophrenia. As noted earlier (page 124), despite the high overall rates of paranoid schizophrenic hospitalizations, this is the only case in which the rates were predictably higher. The higher hospitalization rates for acute and chronic

TABLE 6.7

Canonical Relationships between the
Sixth Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
1. Brain Disorder	.41	3. Decrepitude	-.43
5. Schizophrenia:paranoid	.36	10. Opposition Voting	-.40
4. Schizophrenia:acute	.31	12. Spoiled Ballots	-.35
3. Schizophrenia:chronic undifferentiated	.31	5. Slum Conditions	.31
8. Neurosis:other	.25	6. Small Town Autonomy	.31
12. Transient situational disorder	-.25	9. Rural Property Value	-.25
% contribution to redundancy		10.68%	8.08%
Canonical correlation		.54	

undifferentiated as well as paranoid schizophrenia suggest two main possibilities. First, it might be that the environments described here are stressful and produce and maintain more cases of schizophrenia or, as a second possibility, it may be that there is selective migration of persons predisposed to schizophrenia in the relevant areas. As the interpretation of the environmental component will show, the latter probably constitutes the more feasible interpretation.

The overall diagnostic distribution appears similar to those found both in urban slum regions (eg. Klee et. al., 1967; Bloom, 1968) and in socially disintegrated rural communities (Leighton et. al., 1963). Specifically, the studies of Klee et. al. and Bloom showed higher rates of brain disorder and schizophrenia in areas high in poverty and social disorganization. On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, Leighton et. al. found neurosis and sociopathy to occur more frequently in rural communities showing similar impoverishment and social disorganization.

Although it might be expected that regions in which excesses of the more severe mental disorders occur would show clear signs of social disorder and poverty, such is not the case on this component pair. Basically, the relevant areas appear to be isolated with an unusual predominance of youth and in-migration.

Reference to Table 4.5 (a) and a consideration of the reflection of Decrepitude indicates a pioneer-like type of setting marked by a youthful population and high population growth through both births and migration. Similar high rates of fertility and population growth in general loaded on Slum Conditions in Table 4.7(a). The predominance of younger people may partly account for the greater tendency to vote N.D.P.

The main geographic aspects of the environment are poor highway transportation (Spoiled Ballots), isolation from other school districts and the lower mainland (Spoiled Ballots and Small Town Autonomy) and centralization of the population (Small Town Autonomy and Rural Property Value). Although the high rate of brain disorder would be expected to be associated with poor health and related social disorder, the relationship between Slum Conditions and Spoiled Ballots, which load in opposite directions on this component, may serve to cancel out, as it were, signs of social disorder.

There are only two apparent inferences based on the environmental description that could be used to explain the high rates of severe disorders found. It could be suggested, first, that the geographic isolation of the districts makes it impractical for persons to seek psychiatric care until very dramatic symptoms have developed. However, the relative isolation seen in the fifth component pair actually predicted lower overall rates than average. A second possibility

is that the geographic and social isolation in these areas contributed to the development of psychopathologies. This, however, does not explain why rates are not higher for all disorders rather than just the more severe ones.

As mentioned earlier, it appears most reasonable to attribute the higher rates of these disorders to selective in-migration. Such an interpretation is supported largely by the high rates of population growth indexed by both the reflection of Decrepitude and by Slum Conditions. Furthermore, earlier research by Malzberg and Lee (1956) indicated similar trends in rates of schizophrenia and brain disorders, finding these to be most prevalent in persons who had migrated to New York within five years of the period for which hospital admission data were collected. Given the isolated nature of the areas under discussion, it does not appear unreasonable to infer that persons who are unable to adjust comfortably to life in more conventional communities might be both predisposed to the indexed disorders and likely to migrate to isolated rural areas.

If the component pair is reflected, an environment can be seen which is mainly characterized by many elderly people (Decrepitude), higher Liberal voting (Opposition Voting), low Slum Conditions and higher Rural Property Values as predictive of unusually low rates of the more severe disorders discussed above.

Seventh Canonical Component Pair. Only slight predictability, in view of the small loadings of the two diagnostic categories, personality disorder and addiction, was seen on this component pair. In addition, the canonical correlation of .52 indicates that the relationship between the diagnostic and environmental components is of only moderate consistency.

TABLE 6.8

Canonical Relationships between the
Seventh Pair of Canonical Components

Diagnostic set		Environmental set	
9. Personality Disorder	.28	14. Community Growth	-.51
11. Addiction	.25	7. A. A. Prevalence	-.48
		15. Tourist Trade	.39
		9. Rural Property Value	.38
		10. Opposition Voting	.30
% contribution to redundancy		4.81%	7.38%
Canonical correlation		.52	

The described environments are most strongly characterized by low Community Growth and low A. A. Prevalence. Thus, as on the second and third component pairs, Community Growth is negatively related to higher rates of hospitalization and A. A. Prevalence is, as on the first component pair, negatively predictive of hospitalizations for addiction and personality disorder.

The loadings on Tourist Trade and Rural Property Value indicate that the relevant areas are probably comparatively attractive rural areas in that they have many visitors and a relatively dense rural population. The positive loading on the Opposition Voting variate indicates that the regions may be mainly of middle class composition.

The low rate of Community Growth may be a result of growth in the rural areas surrounding the small towns rather than in the towns themselves. In addition, there may be less parks and playgrounds (Community Growth) because there are natural recreational facilities available (Tourist Trade) which eliminate the need to specially construct recreation areas.

If this component pair is reflected, a set of interrelationships is found somewhat reminiscent of those seen on the reflection of the first component pair. On this seventh pair, rural conditions are again being indexed (see high factor scores for Community Growth and A. A. Prevalence) while the negative loading on Rural Property Value in this case suggests that whereas the areas mainly contain small towns, they are larger than 4999 population rather than that size, smaller, or hamlets as on the first component pair.

The vigorous growth in the indexed areas is presumably independent of the areas' physical attractiveness, with Tourist Trade negatively related, and if it can be assumed that the growth involves some in-migration, it is interesting to see, as on the sixth component pair, N.D.P. voting again associated with migration.

The diagnostic rates in the reflected communities are, of course, unpredictable except for personality disorder and addiction which are lower. The fact that A. A. Prevalence can predict lowered rates of these disorders, as it did for these and other less severe disorders on the first component pair, provides further evidence that this type of informal facility may be useful in controlling hospitalization rates at least for alcoholism.

Summary

The super matrix of intercorrelations was solved to find canonical correlations and regression weights. The weights were then used to compute canonical component loadings, and from the loadings, measures of redundancy for each set and each component were found.

Interpretation proceeded with four basic considerations in mind: (a) the strength of canonical correlations (b) the sizes of the redundant variances (c) the percentage contribution of each component to

its set's redundancy (d) the structure of the canonical components. Moderate degrees of redundancy were found and results with canonical correlations of .50 or greater were retained for interpretation.

The performances of the environmental variates were briefly compared to the performances that had been hypothesized for them in Chapter 4. Slum Conditions, Rural Property Value, Community Growth and Spoiled Ballots were found to be the best predictors while Wage Level and Rural Distribution Centers, which did not load on any of the components, were the worst predictors.

A brief consideration of the diagnostic set indicated that the set as a whole was less predictable than the environmental set. Depressive neurosis and paranoid schizophrenia, with only one loading each, had the most similar distributions, and thus the least differential predictability across environments, while neurosis:other and acute schizophrenia showed wider variation in rates by loading on three components each.

Turning then to a detailed consideration of the relationships for each pair of canonical components, it was found in the first pair that one third of the variance in the diagnostic set was explained in the diagnostic component of the pair. This variance was found mainly in diagnostic categories indicating less severe personal disorganization and was predictable from a set of qualities descriptive of the suburban school districts surrounding Vancouver. On the second pair, conditions of poverty and social disorder were predictive only of neurosis:other and, to a lesser extent, sociopathy. Higher rates of transient situational disorder, sociopathy and non-schizophrenic psychoses were predicted, on the third pair, from a working-class small town environment with mild climatic conditions. Discrepancies between

poverty and economic well-being within the same school district predicted schizophrenia; other and brain disorder in the fourth component pair, while in the fifth pair isolated small towns were indicated to be predictive of higher rates of acute schizophrenia but of even lower rates of chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia. Generally more severe disorders were associated, on the sixth component pair, with isolated rural areas where youth and in-migration were notably prevalent. On the seventh and final pair, slight predictability of personality disorder and addiction was associated with rural tourist areas.

Interpretation included a consideration of the reflections of the components. This was of interest because, except for one case, the canonical components were reported in the direction indicative of higher rates. Thus, after reflection, the interrelationships predictive of lowered rates could be scrutinized.

SECTION IV: AN OVERVIEW

CHAPTER 7: Concluding Discussion

The discussion of the results of the present study centers around a consideration of their differences and similarities with those of previous ecological studies of mental disorder. The task of comparison is complicated by the fact that this was the first ecological study to use canonical regression analysis or factor scores as predictors.

Bloom (1968) represented an earlier attempt to use composite predictors, with the use of cluster scores. Similarly, Kendall (1963) derived composites based on factor structures to use as predictors in a study of job satisfaction, but both his and Bloom's predictors were correlated. The predictors in the present study were not only uncorrelated, but they were also greater in number than in these previous studies. Thus, the predictors, being composites rather than single variables, and being composites dissimilar to those previously used, did not provide ready comparability.

Another difference resided in the fact that the type of geographical unit used in this study was dissimilar to those used in most ecological studies of mental disorder. The economic sub-regions of Texas used by Jaco (1960) were similar in composition to the school districts of the present study, but Jaco concentrated on a restricted number of single variables, in contrast to the consideration of eighteen environmental composites in the present study.

The use of canonical regression analysis was consistent with a growing trend towards the use of correlational methods in human ecology and epidemiology. However, the fact that it represented the first actual use of canonical regression in epidemiology com-

plicated its comparison to previous studies. Some earlier related studies used such quantitative techniques as chi-square (Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958; Klee et. al, 1967), percentages (Leighton et. al., 1963), quartiles and product moment correlations (Jaco, 1960; Bloom, 1968) and multiple regression (Struening and Lehmann, 1969).

The ensuing discussion proceeds with a general consideration of the findings of this study in relation to the relevant literature. Following this are some comments on methodology and some suggestions for future research on the environmental correlates and determinants of mental disorder in British Columbia.

The Correlates of Mental Hospital Admission

Rural-Urban Differences

One of the more clearly replicated findings in this study was the higher rates in urban than rural areas (see the reviews by Rose and Stub, 1955; Buss, 1966 and Suinn, 1970; and the studies by Jaco, 1960 and Richman, 1968). Discussion of the interpretation of measures of redundancy will be taken up later in this chapter, but at this point it should be mentioned that the high percentage of redundant variance accounted for by the first diagnostic component (see Table 6.2) appeared to be interpretable as indicating higher rates through accounting for greater extremes of variability. It appears that the majority of the variability in the diagnostic set had contributed to the description of an urban or urban-like dimension in the first pair of components, leaving the remaining component pairs to describe differences within the overall rural environment. Such an interpretation is supported by Richman's (1968) figures for Greater Vancouver and Victoria versus the rest of the province from 1958-60; Greater Vancouver and Victoria had 267 admissions per 100,000 persons 15-64 years of age while there

were only 188 per 100,000 in the rest of the province.

There exists an important difference between the types of disorders accounted for in higher urban rates in this and Jaco's (1960) study. Jaco, dealing only with psychoses, found urban rates to be two and a half times greater than rural rates. However, as was indicated in the previous chapter, the excess of cases on the first component pair was attributable, in most part, to non-psychotic disorders. This difference may be partly due to the fact that Jaco defined "urban" according to the U.S. Census definition of 2500 or more population, this meaning that the suburban areas referred to in the first component pair would have constituted only a limited segment of the range of communities included under Jaco's definition. The differences in diagnostic distribution are probably also partly attributable to the suburban areas being predominantly of middle-class composition, a point to be discussed presently.

Although Jaco (1960) rejected the so-called "law of distance" and Dunham (1961) has referred to it as controversial, the diagnostic distribution of less debilitating disorders in the less distant (suburban) areas in this study indicate that distance does influence mental hospital admission in British Columbia. This would be expected in view of the extreme distances between many British Columbia communities and Riverview Hospital, an expectation supported by the finding of Gurin et. al (1960) that one of the main differences between persons who do and do not seek psychotherapeutic help when they feel the need of it lies in facilitating factors.

The rural-urban difference in disorder rates described by the first component pair and its reflection appears possibly relevant to the findings of Barker (1968) regarding the sizes of populations

of "behavior settings". It will be recalled that the reflection of the first component indicated unusually low rates of the less severe mental disorders to occur in rural areas with greater proportions of the population in hamlets and other unincorporated areas.

Barker has found that in certain types of human communities, usually smaller ones, "behavior settings" are underpopulated with the result that persons within the settings are more important to their functioning. As a consequence, persons living in smaller communities would tend to have more social interaction, to judge others on the basis of role performance rather than personality characteristics, to see themselves as having greater functional importance, and to experience more general satisfaction in their social life, despite the greater insecurity associated with their greater responsibilities. It can be seen that extreme differences between the perceived degree of importance of one's self to community functioning would exist between the anonymity of the suburbs and the close-knit relationships within rural hamlets. Such a high degree of community involvement may account for the positive relationship of Alcoholics Anonymous activity to the low-incidence communities described on the reflection of the first component pair.

It would be expected, however, that underpopulated behavior settings would exist in all rural areas, even those showing excessive hospitalizations for some disorders. Further discussion of this point is deferred to a consideration, later in this chapter, of implications for future research.

Socioeconomic Status

Beginning with the ecological study of neighborhood variations in mental disorder rates of Faris and Dunham (1960), socioeconomic

status has received considerable attention as a correlate of mental hospitalization (Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958; Jaco, 1960; Klee et. al., 1967; Bloom, 1966, 1968; Myers and Bean, 1968) and of mental disorder in the general population (Gurin et. al., 1960; Srole et. al., 1962; Leighton, et. al., 1963).

In contrast to these previous studies, the present study did not use direct measures of socioeconomic status; rather the general socioeconomic environment of communities was inferred from factor structures and factor interrelationships on the canonical components. The most clear relationships to socioeconomic standing were found in the middle class environment distinguished on the first component pair and the lower class environment found on the second component pair. The other relationships were less clear, with the third pair indicating lower middle or working class tendencies, the fifth pair tending to imply low socioeconomic status, the sixth indicating a higher status similar to that on the first, and the fourth indicating discrepancies in social class within the same school district. Except for the first component pair, the role of socioeconomic status was generally unclear and appeared to be more fruitfully considered as an interacting component of such concepts as sociocultural disintegration, to be discussed presently.

When the loadings on the first diagnostic component are compared to the findings of Hollingshead and Redlich (1958), some agreement with their findings regarding social status can be found. To begin with, they found neuroses to be more prevalent in classes I, II and III, the class composition suggested on the first environmental component. However, within the neurotic category, they found depression to be relatively infrequent and to be quite evenly distributed across classes. While no explanation can be offered for the

much higher rate of depression found in British Columbia, its apparent relationship to socioeconomic status may be explained as reflecting the proximity of the suburban school districts to Riverview rather than actual greater depression in middle socioeconomic strata. It would also be expected, considering the indications that persons of higher socioeconomic status are more willing to seek psychiatric help (Gurin et. al., 1960; Myers and Bean, 1968) that this willingness, in interaction with proximity, could account for the greater number of hospitalizations for milder disorders, including depression, in the suburban areas.

Another point of agreement with Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) was found in high rates of personality disorder. The relationships with addiction and non-schizophrenic psychoses in the present analysis, however, were not found by Hollingshead and Redlich, while the present results regarding schizophrenia are not comparable because Hollingshead and Redlich grouped all their schizophrenics into one category.

The fact that mixed neurosis related both to the first and second component pairs, despite their apparently different environmental structures in terms of socioeconomic status, may be best explained by the statement of Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) that "the class V neurotic behaves badly, the class IV neurotic aches physically, the class III patient defends fearfully, and the class I-II patient is dissatisfied with himself". The loading of neurosis:other along with schizophrenia and brain disorders on component pair 6 is probably explainable in similar fashion.

Sociocultural Disintegration

As noted in the previous chapter, the relationships found by Leighton et. al., (1963) in the Stirling County Study appear to have

been replicated on the second component pair. The replication applies to both the components in the pair, with there being a predominance, on the diagnostic component, of mixed neurosis and, to a lesser extent, sociopathy, as in the comprehensive sample survey conducted by Leighton's team. However, other variations of environmental characteristics indicative of less than optimal sociocultural integration were found to be predictive of higher rates of some other disorders besides neurosis and sociopathy. These findings indicate that the relationships found by Leighton et. al., (1963) only referred to one of many relevant combinations of environmental and mental disorder characteristics.

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the third component pair was just as important as the second in explaining variance within and between the environmental and diagnostic sets. However, the environmental description suggests a slightly higher socioeconomic standing to be present on the third. Consistent with this, there was a loading on the diagnostic component on non-schizophrenic psychoses, the majority of which were manic-depressive, a disorder which tends to be less prevalent in the lowest social classes (Rose and Stub, 1955; Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958). Although similar geographic conditions may not have existed in Nova Scotia, where Stirling County was located, it is evident that an environmental dimension indicating a somewhat different but nevertheless important selection of qualities predictive of mental disorder was missed by Leighton and co-workers.

A coexistence of contradictory environmental conditions within school districts on the third component pair was even more strongly in evidence on the fourth pair, where poverty and economic well-being appeared to be existing side by side. Relevant in this regard may be Leighton's (1967) comment regarding the role of relative deprivation as a contributor to mental disorder.

"The process of disintegration, therefore, is not only a matter of poverty, starvation, poor health, and short life expectancy, important as these are; it is also a matter of a sentiment system which says that the situation is unjust and needless -- an outrage. When such a state of mind persists without change of conditions it brings about deterioration in zestful attitudes and a blunting of ability to cope. Withdrawal and hostility emerge instead,...and from this follows progressive disintegration of the social system. Psychiatric symptoms then occur such as irrational fears, depressions, delusions, mental dullness, psychophysiological disturbances, and much else." (Leighton, 1967, p.343)

While the Stirling County findings pointed to higher rates of mixed neurosis and sociopathy in rural areas of sociocultural disintegration, the urban studies (eg. Faris and Dunham, 1960; Klee, et. al., 1967; Bloom, 1968) have indicated brain damage and schizophrenia to occur more frequently in the socially disordered sections of cities. An apparent combination of these trends was indicated on the sixth component pair to occur in isolated, rapidly growing rural areas. Such a diagnostic distribution was suggested in the previous chapter as probably reflective of selective immigration.

Taking the argument one step further, it may also be useful to consider the relationship from the viewpoint of sociocultural integration. If the population were growing rapidly, and particularly if the movement was of white population into a formerly Indian area, there would be no pre-existing sociocultural milieu to aid the adaptation of in-migrants to their new environment. Some of the criteria of sociocultural disintegration used by Leighton et. al., (1963) such as cultural confusion, few and weak formal and informal associations, few and weak leaders, few patterns of recreation and leisure time activity, and weak and fragmented networks of communication would be expected to exist in these regions. However, such conditions would

exist not because of disintegration but because the population was small and not sufficiently settled to have developed a social system. In such cases, it might be more appropriate to speak of sociocultural unintegration rather than disintegration.

Migration

While the unsettled social order in the communities represented on component pair 6 may account in part for the high rates of hospitalization, it appears nevertheless necessary to at least partially attribute the high rates of schizophrenia to selective in-migration. There is a body of evidence to suggest that predispositions to schizophrenia can be genetically determined (see reviews in Suinn, 1970 and Goldenson, 1970) and, given a rather high concentration of schizophrenia in one type of geographic area, it seems reasonable to infer that more predisposed individuals were present in order for this to occur.

If this interpretation is correct, it provides a rare substantiation of the "drift hypothesis". This hypothesis was first proposed as an alternative explanation for Faris and Dunham's (1960) results, stating that high rates of schizophrenia and brain damage in the inner city could be due to downward social and geographic mobility of afflicted persons. On the whole, little evidence has been found to support this hypothesis. Both Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) and Leighton et. al., (1963), to name two particularly relevant studies, found that there had been neither downward drift in the social hierarchy nor drift into disintegrated areas with the development of mental disorder.

The diagnostic relationships on the sixth component pair are consistent with previous findings regarding migration and mental

disorder. Malzberg and Lee (1956) found migrants to have higher rates of brain damage and schizophrenia, as in this case, with the rates highest for the most recent immigrants, while Klee et. al. (1967) found migration and mobility to be predictive of mental disorder in general. Jaco (1960), on the other hand, found no relationship to exist, but as Murphy (1961) has observed, his geographic regions were biased in respect to social class.

Further evidence from Scandinavian studies by Hagnell (1969) indicate that internal migrants from rural to urban areas are at greater risk of developing a mental disorder. It is possible that, in part, the higher rates in the urban areas of British Columbia may be due to similar selective migration away from rural areas.

Age and Sex

As with socioeconomic status these variables were not, on the whole, clearly represented on the environmental variates of the factor analysis or the environmental components of the canonical analysis. Decrepitude was perhaps the most clear indicator and, comparing its performance in the canonical analysis to its hypothesized performance in chapter 4, it can be seen that it did not predict as expected. The basic reason for this failure was probably a lack of elderly patients in the hospitalization data. The finding of Richman (1968) that the disorder rates in British Columbia for persons 65 and older were 408 and 483 per 100,000 for urban and rural areas respectively demonstrates that relationships between Decrepitude and old age disorders would have been found if more elderly persons had been included in the data set. A difficulty in obtaining old age figures in British Columbia is that persons over 65 are admitted to Riverview as well as to geriatric hospitals,

this necessitating the use of data sets from several institutions if old age disorders are to be represented. Future research using the data set of the present study should include complete geriatric data if comparability with previous research including old age disorders is desired.

The one component pair on which Decreptitude did load, the sixth pair, indicated excessively high rates of brain disorders, paranoid, acute and chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia, non-depressive neurosis, and excessively low rates of transient situational disorders to be associated with an unusually youthful population. The high rates of acute and paranoid schizophrenia in such regions are consistent with the tendency for schizophrenia to have an earlier onset than other disorders, occurring more frequently in persons in their 20's and 30's (Rose and Stub, 1955).

Referring back to the original factor loadings on Decreptitude, seen in Table 4.5(a), the loading on percentage of single males indicates that there would be a greater than usual number of single males in the environment described on the sixth component pair. This too is consistent with higher rates of schizophrenia, as young single males have been found to be the group most at risk of developing this disorder (Rose and Stub, 1955). However, a possible contradiction of this trend is seen on the first component pair. Reference to Table 4.2(a) shows a loading of single males on Suburban Conditions equally strong to that on Decreptitude and of such a nature that a high percentage of single males would contribute, in the first component pair, to the prediction of unusually low rates of the less severe disorders. However, as it was only one of many variables entering the prediction, these results can only be considered suggestive.

Climate

As was noted in the previous chapter, the strong loading of climate on the first component pair was confounded by its association with the suburbs of Vancouver. Thus the relationship may have been due simply to its coincidence with the social conditions of the suburbs rather than to any influence of climate on disorder rates. The apparently unconfounded relationship seen on the third component pair, if reflective of a climatic influence, indicates the relationship is not a strong one.

Support for the possibility that the results in the present study indicate an actual relationship between climate and disorder rates may reside in similar relationships previously found. Tromp (1968) mentions that sleep disturbance, suicide and crime all appear to be related to weather disturbances. The findings, on the third component pair, of higher rates on sociopathy and non-schizophrenic psychoses, most of which were manic-depressive, are consistent with these earlier findings.

Although Tromp (1968) found weather to affect restlessness in schizophrenic patients, no relationship between climate and schizophrenia was found in this study. This is not necessarily inconsistent, as Tromp was dealing with persons who were already hospitalized.

Urbanization

As was hypothesized in chapter 4, it was expected that if the Concentration variate predicted the types of disorders more characteristic of the inner city, it would be only slightly predictive. This expectation was based on the fact that, except for Vancouver, even the larger commercial centers of B. C. are too small to contain the types of social conditions necessary to produce the relationships

found by Faris and Dunham (1960) and replicated in such studies as those of Klee et. al (1967) and Bloom (1968). Although the usual relationships, with more brain damage and schizophrenia in the inner city slum areas, probably apply in Vancouver, that city is so unique in the province and so heterogeneous within itself that any operation of these relationships was obliterated in the analysis.

Clausen and Kohn's (1959) study of a small city, in which they found the Faris and Dunham relationships to be completely absent, is of direct relevance to the small cities indexed on the Concentration factor in the present study. The city they studied had a population of 36,000, larger than any of the nine high scoring districts in Table 4.6(b) except for Vancouver, New Westminster, and Victoria. It would thus be expected that, in most of the relevant school districts, the same lack of associations found by Clausen and Kohn (1959) would prevail.

The association found with brain disorders and one of the schizophrenic categories is probably not attributable to the same social processes found in large urban areas. If it was, the other schizophrenic disorders should also have shown higher rates. As was indicated earlier in this chapter, Concentration's function in this study appeared to lie in a contribution to a description of school districts in which social discrepancies occurred.

Comments on Methodology

The multivariate methods employed in the present study represent a departure from earlier methods of data analysis used in epidemiology. Rather than considering the effects of various combinations of two or three variables at a time, all variables in combination were considered simultaneously. Thus, in the canonical analysis, between the

75 environmental variables that had already been reduced by factor analysis and the 13 diagnostic rates, there were 88 variables under consideration at once.

The importance of simultaneous analysis of all variables is indicated in the observation made by Lee (1969) in regard to canonical analysis, that canonical component loadings are not stable as variables are removed from or added to an analysis. The same observation can be made of factor analysis. In both these multivariate methods, interactions between variables are being assessed. It is clear that if a variable which strongly interacted with other variables was added to or removed from a data set, that a very different set of interrelationships might then be found. This kind of information about interactions cannot be obtained when only two or three variables are considered at a time.

Factor Analysis as a Method of Environmental Description

The use of factor analysis in environmental description has an impressive history, as indicated in chapter 4. The advantages of factor analysis as a tool for developing environmental predictors have been discussed in chapter 2. Its two main advantages are that it can reduce massive amounts of data to a manageable number of dimensions and that it can be rotated to provide orthogonal predictors which, in contrast to correlated predictors, provide more stable and interpretable results.

Any weaknesses with the factors derived in this study in terms of their interpretations being unclear was attributable to a lack of previous knowledge of some of the initial variables. A good example of such a problem occurred with the Spoiled Ballots factor. Despite the ambiguity of this factor, however, it provides a lead for further research that, in view of its good predictive power,

would probably be fruitful.

It must be remembered, however, that the value of factor analyzing predictors depends on the research question. Factor analysis creates new more general variables which may be of interest, but sometimes old familiar variables are of more crucial interest. In demographically designed studies in epidemiology, where characteristics of persons are focussed upon, it is evident that single variables such as age, sex, marital status, etc. must usually be studied as such rather than as part of a composite.

Canonical Analysis as a Method of Relating Diagnostic Rates and Environmental Attributes

As the discussion of canonical regression analysis in chapter 2 indicated, refinements in this technique in the past few years have greatly increased its utility as a research tool. Despite these advances, however, interpretation may still provide a complex task. The technique is also limited by its inability to delineate definite etiological relationships. This limitation is, of course, common to all correlational techniques and, as Lee (1969) has suggested, canonical analysis is best regarded as an exploratory tool which will provide some idea of the complicated multivariate relationships in a data set.

From a more positive point of view, the problem of interpretive difficulty is not insurmountable and should not be overrated. With advanced computer technology and increasing availability of good programs, anyone with a basic knowledge of correlation and factor analysis should be able to conduct and interpret a canonical regression analysis. It is not necessary to understand the complex mathematical "innards" of the technique in order to understand its results.

The value of canonical regression analysis as an exploratory tool has been aptly demonstrated in the present study. In contrast to studies such as the Stirling County study where relevant environmental qualities were selected on the basis of theory, canonical analysis can provide empirically derived combinations of variables predictive of mental disorder. The identification of different dimensions bearing some relationship to the concept of sociocultural disintegration used by Leighton et. al., (1963) and established as predictive of mental hospitalization provided more promising research leads in a shorter period of time than could be possible in constructing community dimensions based only on theory.

A further advantage of canonical regression analysis is that it is possible to derive canonical scores. This was not done in the present study because of the temporal limitations of the study, a problem of particular relevance in view of the fact that no suitable program was readily available. If, however, the selection of school districts most strongly related to some of the canonical variates was desired in order to undertake cross-regional studies, the computation of canonical scores would readily identify these communities. Such a method of community selection has obvious advantages over the "key informant" method used in the Stirling County study in terms of greater objectivity and less time expended.

The Interpretability of Measures of Redundancy

Stewart and Love (1968), in proposing the use of a redundancy measure, suggest that it may not be used in interpretation of canonical results beyond deciding upon how many canonical components to retain for interpretation. In their example, using data from psychological tests, the first pair of canonical components accounted for almost all of the total redundant variance, despite the fact that

both the first two pairs of canonical variates were highly correlated. The single high redundancy indicated, according to Stewart and Love, that only the first pair of components should be retained for interpretation.

In the present study the criterion (diagnostic) set contained intercorrelations between rates and, because the cross products correlation technique had been used, the magnitudes of the rates were represented within the intercorrelations. It was known beforehand that the areas indexed in the first canonical component pair had higher rates than the rest of the province and it appeared that, in accounting for a third of the total redundant variance, the first diagnostic component was reflecting these higher rates. By extension of this interpretation, then, it would appear that the remaining diagnostic redundancy measures accounted for magnitudes of variability consistent with their respective numerical magnitudes. Thus, for example, similar overall excesses of hospital admissions would be involved in both the second and third component pairs.

Such interpretations would appear to be possible only because the cross products correlation technique was used. If product moment correlations had been used, the base rates of the various disorders would have had no influence on any of the calculations. Thus it can be seen that these interpretative properties would not apply to other than rate data, the only data with which cross product correlations would be appropriate.

Directions for Future Research

The results of the present study are only suggestive of the many complex interrelationships between persons and their environ-

ments which can culminate in mental hospital admission. For future studies, however, the development of reliable and comprehensive environmental predictors in the present study has laid the foundations for refining and clarifying the present set of relationships.

The weak point of this study lay in the relatively unreliable criterion measures used in the canonical prediction task. Psychiatric diagnosis, being of limited reliability at the best of times, is open to the effects of attenuation (see Nunnally, 1967) which lowers the observed correlations from their true values. If figures on the reliability of the psychiatric diagnoses used in this study were available, the correlations could be corrected for attenuation with the result that greater predictability and therefore higher redundancies between the criterion and predictor sets might be found. It is unlikely, however, that reliability figures will become available to allow correction for attenuation, and attention would be more profitably directed to obtaining more reliable measures.

Remaining with the diagnostic data, it could be informative to collapse the existing categories into the four most broad ones in Table 2.1, thereby increasing the reliability of the categories as discussed by Zigler and Phillips (1961). Alternatively, the categories could be reorganized within themselves such that, for example, all alcoholic diagnoses, those associated with acute and chronic brain damage as well as cases of simple alcoholism, could be grouped together. In this way, excessive heterogeneity within categories, a problem in using greatly collapsed categories, could be lessened.

Another means of avoiding excessive heterogeneity within categories would be to use only the diagnostic categories containing large numbers of cases. Reference to Table 5.1 indicates that chronic undifferentiated schizophrenia, paranoid schizophrenia, and neurotic depression would be the three best categories to use in pursuing this course. With large numbers of cases, these categories would be likely to have several cases in each school district and thus be less influenced by chance variation in the case of there being only one or two cases within a school district.

Despite the fact that these alternative arrangements of the diagnostic data could improve reliability of the criterion measures, the basic low reliability of diagnosis would prevent overall reliability from becoming high. Thus, it might be profitable to consider other measures available in the same set of data on Riverview patients from which the diagnostic data was taken. Possibilities within the data include those pertaining to the mental status examination, type of treatment, level of improvement, and numerous demographic items such as age, sex, religion, occupation, and others.

Methodologically, two particular improvements on the present methods of analysis are suggested. The first of these is multi-stage sequential prediction, based on decision theory, and described by Cronbach and Gleser (1965). By this technique, two categories, for example psychotic versus non-psychotic, could first be discriminated, and then further differentiation could proceed within each of those categories. As Cronbach and Gleser demonstrate, this method of prediction may be more efficient than single stage prediction.

The second alternative is multiple canonical regression

analysis (Horst, 1961; Carroll, 1968). This method, like multi-stage prediction, might improve prediction, but, more importantly, it would provide a broader description than a canonical regression which involved only two sets of measures. By this method, then, the variables mentioned above as alternative criterion measures, along with the diagnostic measures, could be entered in various combinations of two or more sets along with the environmental factors to provide a description of greater refinement than that found in the present analysis.

Following from these statistical studies, it might be desired to use the discovered relationships as a basis for selecting communities to study using survey methods. While the approach of Leighton et. al., (1963) provided a wealth of information, it would probably be worthwhile to expand on their method of community description by employing Barker's (1968) theory of behavior settings. It might be found that there are less social activities perceived to be important or worthwhile in the areas with higher mental disorder rates. Thus, in the suburbs it might be difficult to feel one was making a significant contribution to community life because of the great numbers of persons. In areas like those indexed on the second component pair it is likely that there are few major behavior settings beside the local beer parlour, which in areas such as were indicated on the sixth pair, few community activities might exist because of insufficient social organization.

An investigation of cross-regional rural differences with an emphasis on perceived social discrepancies could be of interest. Areas of consistent poverty could be compared to areas of poverty coexisting with areas of relative affluence such as were indexed

on the fourth component pair. Of relevance in this respect is Leighton's (1967) statement that poverty and sociocultural disintegration do not necessarily appear together.

Beyond these main indications there are numerous smaller leads which could be enlarged upon in further research. It might, for example, be worthwhile removing some of the variables from the factor analysis and adding others to see if the factor interpretations could be improved. Or, working with the same data, it might be profitable to attempt different groupings of the diagnostic categories in a similar attempt to improve interpretability of results. The wide variety of relationships extracted from the present set appear suitable to provide numerous leads for research of both practical and theoretical orientation.

Summary

As this study was the first ecological study to use canonical regression analysis or factor scores as predictors, the task of comparing its results to previous studies was somewhat complex. One long established relationship, that of higher rates in urban than rural areas appeared to be replicated as did the occurrence of higher rates of certain disorders in areas of sociocultural disintegration. However, several combinations of environmental attributes indicative of sociocultural disintegration were found with differing mental disorders having higher rates on each one.

Although no direct measures on the subjects were available, some similarities between environmental-diagnostic relationships and previously found demographic-diagnostic relationships were found for socioeconomic status and migration. Previous findings

regarding age were not replicated, but this was attributed to there being incomplete data on geriatric cases. A comparison with earlier findings regarding age was slightly suggestive of contradictory findings in the present case.

There was some indication that the mild coastal climate was predictive, as previous research suggests, of aggressive acts against the self and others. Similarly, the degree of urbanization of British Columbia's small cities was, as in previous studies, insufficient to produce the type of mental hospital admissions found in large urban areas.

A discussion of the methodology of the study focussed on the use of factor analysis, canonical regression analysis and measures of redundancy. The value of factor analysis was stated to be limited by the variables used in it and also by the type of research question. Canonical regression analysis was indicated to be useful as an exploratory tool, a use well demonstrated in the present study. It was suggested, in contradiction to Stewart and Love (1968), that some analytic value might accrue from measures of redundancy in the present study. This was felt to be possible because cross product correlations rather than product moment correlations were used on the diagnostic data.

Two major directions for future research based on the present set of findings were suggested. The first related to modifications in methodology, suggesting the use of either multi-stage sequential prediction or multiple canonical regression analysis. In the latter case, it would be possible to incorporate demographic data and presenting characteristics of mental disorder at the time of admission along with the environmental and diag-

nostic data used in the present study. The purpose of such research would be to refine and expand on the present results. A second direction suggested was community study as in the Stirling County study but incorporating Barker's (1968) theory of behavior settings. Social discrepancies within regions were indicated to be of interest to the question of sociocultural disintegration.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A - The School District Data

1. A map of the school districts
2. A listing of the school districts
3. The variables descriptive of the school districts
4. Sources from which the variables were obtained
5. Regression weights and constants derived for the least squares estimations of missing data

Appendix B - The Factor Analysis of School Districts

1. Intercorrelations of the variables descriptive of the school districts
2. Twenty-two unrotated Principle Axis factors
3. Eighteen Varimax rotated factors
4. Factor Scores of the seventy-eight school districts on the eighteen factors

Appendix C - The Canonical Regression Analysis of the School District Factors and the Mental Disorder Rates

1. Cross product correlations between diagnostic frequencies
2. Cross product-product moment correlations between diagnostic frequencies and environmental factor scores
3. Canonical component loadings and measures of redundancy

APPENDIX A

The School District Data

APPENDIX A-2

A LISTING OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

<u>Number</u>	<u>Name</u>
1	Fernie
2	Cranbrook
3	Kimberely
4	Windermere
7	Nelson
8	Slocan
9	Castlegar
10	Arrow Lakes
11	Trail
12	Grand Forks
13	Kettle Valley
14	South Okanagan
15	Penticton (includes S.D. 77, Summerland)
16	Keremeos
17	Princeton
18	Golden
19	Revelstoke
20	Salmon Arm
22	Vernon
23	Kelowna
24	Kamloops
25	Barriere
26	Birch Island
27	Williams Lake
28	Quesnel
29	Lillooet
30	South Cariboo
31	Merritt
32	Fraser Canyon
33	Chilliwack
34	Abbotsford
35	Langley
36	Surrey
37	Delta
38	Richmond
39	Vancouver
40	New Westminster
41	Burnaby
42	Maple Ridge
43	Coquitlam
44	North Vancouver
45	West Vancouver
46	Sechelt
47	Powell River
48	Howe Sound
49	Ocean Falls
50	Queen Charlotte

<u>Number</u>	<u>Name</u>
51	Portland Canal
52	Prince Rupert
53	Terrace
54	Smithers
55	Burns Lake
56	Vanderhoof
57	Prince George
58	McBride
59	Peace River South
60	Peace River North
61	Victoria
62	Sooke
63	Saanich
64	Gulf Islands
65	Cowichan
66	Lake Cowichan
67	Ladysmith
68	Nanaimo
69	Qualicum
70	Alberni
71	Courtenay
72	Campbell River
75	Mission
76	Agassiz
78	Enderby (includes S.D. 21, Armstrong-Spallumchean)
79	Ucluelet-Tofino
80	Kitimat
82	Chilcotin
84	Vancouver Island West
85	Vancouver Island North
86	Creston-Kaslo

School Districts Excluded from the Analysis

81	Fort Nelson
83	Portage Mountain
87	Stikine

APPENDIX A-3

THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Variables	Derivation	Sources**
I. <u>Community Organization</u>		
1. Age of main community	Number of years to 1966 that main town or municipality has been organized.	8
2. Number of hamlets	Number of unorganized communities with populations over 100 in 1961 census	8
3. Towns with populations 2500 or less.	Number of communities of organized status in 1966 with 2500 or less residents	7
4. Towns with populations 2500-4999.	Number of communities of organized status in 1966 with between 2500 and 4999 residents	7
5. Towns with populations 5000-9999.	Number of communities of organized status in 1966 with between 5000 and 9999 residents	7
6. Towns with populations over 10,000.	Number of communities of organized status in 1966 with 10,000 or more residents.	7
*7. % of population in organized area in 1961.	$(\text{Organized population}) / (\text{Total population}) \times 100$	8
*8. % of population in hamlets in 1961.	$(\text{Hamlet population}) / (\text{Total population}) \times 100$. Includes hamlets within municipalities where relevant.	8
9. % of population rural, 1961.	Rural population defined as persons living neither in hamlets or organized areas. % derived as for variables 7 and 8.	8
10. Town population density, 1966.	$(\text{Population of organized area}) / (\text{Area in acres of organized area})$	7,9
11. Non-town population density, 1966.	$(\text{Population of unincorporated area of the district}) / (\text{Area in square miles of the unincorporated area.})$	7,8,9
*12. Population growth, 1956-61	Available in Regional Index.	8

Variables	Derivation	Sources
*13. Population growth, 1961-66	(Difference between 1966 and 1961 populations)/(1961 population) x 100	7,8
*14. Town growth, 1961-1966	(Difference between 1966 and 1961 populations in organized areas)/(1961 population in organized area) x 100	7,8
*15. Natural population	(Excess of births over deaths, 1966)/(Total deaths, 1966) x 100	6
II. Economics		
16. Increase in liquor sales, 1959-63.	Available in Regional Index.	8
17. Per capita liquor sales, 1963	(Total liquor sales, 1963)/(Number of persons 15 years old or older, 1966)	7,8
18. Per capita retail trade, 1961	(Total retail sales for communities reporting in Regional Index)/(Populations of those communities, 1961)	8
19. General Mill Rate for municipal purposes, 1963	Available in Regional Index	8
20. Mill Rate for School purposes, 1963.	Available in Regional Index	8
21. Municipal debt, 1963	Available in Regional Index	8
22. Non-town property, 1961	(Total assessed value of property outside organized area, 1961)/(Area of unincorporated area in square miles)	8,9
23. Town property value, 1961	(Assessed value of property in organized area, 1961)/(Area of organized area in acres)	8,9
24. Mean male wage, 1961.	Available in Regional Index	8

Variables	Derivation	Sources
25. Female wage level, 1961	(Mean female wage, 1961)/ (Mean male wage,)1961 x 100.	8
26. % of wage earners in working force, 1961	(Total wage earners)/ (Number of persons between 15 and 65 years) x 100	7,8
27. % of wage earners who were female, 1961	(Number of female wage earners)/(Total number of wage earners) x 100	8
III. <u>Education</u>		
28. Mean class size, 1966.	(Total pupils in school district)/(Number of class divisions)	4
29. Excess of teachers over classes, 1966.	((Total pupils)/(Total teachers)) - Mean class size.	4
30. Per pupil expendi- ture, 1966.	(Total school expendi- ture)/(Total pupils)	4
31. Visual Education Circulation, 1966.	(Total number of movies and film strips circu- lated by the Division of Visual Education, Victoria)/(Total pupils)	4
32. High school attend- ance, 1966	(Total pupils in grades 10-12)/(Total popula- tion aged 15-19) x 100	4,7
IV. <u>Health</u>		
*33. Death rate, 1966	(Total deaths)/(Total population) x 1000	6,7
*34. Infant death rate, 1966.	(Total infant deaths)/ (Total deaths) x 100	6
*35. Hospital death rate, 1966.	(Total hospital deaths)/ (Total deaths) x 100	6
36. Per capita motor vehicle deaths, 1965-68	(Total motor vehicle deaths, 1965-68)/ (Total 1966 population) x 10,000.	11,7
37. Hospital beds per capita, 1961	(Total hospital beds, 1961)/(Total popula- tion, 1961) x 10,000.	8

Variables	Derivation	Sources
V. <u>Isolation</u>		
38. Distance from Riverview Hospital.	The distance from an arbitrarily chosen central point in each school district, usually the largest town, to Riverview. One sea mile is weighted as equal to two land miles.	8
39. Accessibility by air.	A composite score in which each commercial airline serving the area contributes 5 points, each charter service available 2 points, and each non-commercial airstrip 1 point.	8
40. Impediments to land travel.	A composite score in which the state of the roads in the district is rated 1-5, 5 being the worst condition, 3 points being added to this rating if ferry travel is necessary to reach the lower mainland, and another 3 points if any stretch of gravel road must be traversed when going to the lower mainland by car.	
41. Per capita phones, 1961.	(Number of telephones, 1961)/ (Total population)	8
VI. <u>Physical Geography</u>		
42. Elevation.	Mean elevation of weather stations situated in that school district.	3
43. Ruggedness of terrain.	Rating on 1-5 scale, 5 being the most rugged.	
44. Mean winter temperature.	Mean temperature over all weather stations in a school district for the months Dec., Jan., and Feb.	3
45. Mean annual temperature range.	(Mean temperature over all weather stations in a school district for June, July, and August) - Mean winter temperature.	3

Variables	Derivation	Sources
46. Mean winter precipitation.	Mean level of precipitation over all weather stations in a school district for the months Dec., Jan., and Feb.	3
47. Mean summer-winter difference in precipitation.	(Mean level of precipitation over all weather stations in a school district for June, July, and Aug.) - Mean winter precipitation.	3
48. Mean annual number of frost-free days.	Available in Regional Index.	8
VII. <u>Political Behavior</u>		
49. % of registered voters voting in Provincial election, 1966.	$(\text{Number voting}) / (\text{Number of registered voters}) \times 100$	2
50. % spoiled ballots	$(\text{Number of spoiled ballots}) / (\text{Total votes cast}) \times 100$	2
51. % Social Credit vote	$(\text{Total S. C. votes}) / (\text{Number of registered voters}) \times 100$	2
52. % Liberal vote	$(\text{Total Liberal votes}) / (\text{Number of registered voters}) \times 100$	2
53. % N.D.P. vote	$(\text{Total N.D.P. votes}) / (\text{Number of registered voters}) \times 100$	2
VIII. <u>Population figures, general</u>		
54. Total population, 1966.	White population plus Indian population, 1966	7
55. % of population 15 years old and older.	$(\text{Whites plus Indians, 15+ years old}) / (\text{Total population, 1966}) \times 100$	7
56. % of males, 1966	$(\text{White plus Indian males}) / (\text{Total population}) \times 100$	7
57. % of population 65 years and older, 1966.	$(\text{White plus Indian 65+ year olds}) / (\text{Total population}) \times 100.$	7
58. % of Indians, 1966	$(\text{Number of Indians on reservations}) / (\text{Total population}) \times 100.$	7
59. Median age, 1966	Median age of white plus Indian population, estimated from class interval breakdown.	7

Variables	Derivation	Sources
*60. Fertility rate, 1966.	(Total number of live births)/(Number of females 15-30 years) x 100.	6,7
*61. Marriage rate, 1966.	(Number of marriages)/(Number of females 15-30 years) x 100	6,7
IX. <u>Recreation</u>		
62. Extent of natural recreation facilities	Rating on a 0-10 scale on availability of ski facilities, amount of district in wilderness park, availability of camping facilities.	8
63. Per capita acres in public parks and playgrounds, 1966.	(Total acres in park and playground)/(Total population) x 1000.	7,9
64. Per capita government grants to recreation commissions, 1966.	(Total grant in dollars)/(Total population) x 1000	4,7
65. Hotel and motel units per capita, 1961.	(Number of hotel and motel units, 1961)/(Total population, 1961) x 1000	8
XI. <u>Social Health</u>		
66. Availability of mental health services in the community.	Rating on a 1-10 scale taking the number of months between Jan. 1964 and Dec. 1967 that the facility in question was in operation, the number of days a month the facility is available, and the hours of travelling time necessary to reach the nearest facility, into account.	5
67. Per capita referrals to community mental health facilities.	(Total referrals Apr. 1965-March 1966 and Apr. 1967-March 1968)/(Total population, 1966) x 10,000.	5,7
68. Per capita admissions to public geriatric facilities.	(Total geriatric admissions for same period as variable 67)/(Number of persons 65+ years old, 1966) x 10,000.	5,7

Variables	Derivation	Sources
69. Per capita admissions to Woodlands school.	(Admissions to Woodlands school for retarded children during same period as in variable 67)/(Number of persons 0-15 years of age, 1966) x 10,000.	5,7
70. Delinquency rate, 1965-67.	(Number of admissions to training schools 1965-67)/(Number of persons 10-19 years of age, 1966) x 10,000.	7,10
71. Rate of welfare reciprocity.	(Mean number of welfare recipients in March taken over 1965, 66, and 67)/(Total population, 1966) x 1000.	7,10
72. Welfare expenditure per recipient.	(Expenditure for March 1966 and March 1967)/(Number of recipients in March 1966 and 1967)	10
*73. Illegitimacy rate, 1966.	(Number of illegitimate births)/(Total live births) x 100.	6
74. Per capita membership in Alcoholics Anonymous, 1966.	(Estimated number of members of A.A., 1966)/(Persons 15 years and older, 1966) x 10,000.	1,7
75. Per capita Alcoholics Anonymous groups, 1966.	(Number of A. A. groups)/(Population 15 years and older, 1966) x 10,000.	1,7

* Figures not available for Indians on reserves.

** See Appendix A-4 for bibliography of secondary data sources.

APPENDIX A-4

SOURCES FROM WHICH THE VARIABLES WERE OBTAINED

1. Alcoholics Anonymous World Services, Inc. World Directory, Spring 1966.
2. British Columbia. Chief Electoral Office. Summary of Votes, Statement of Results of the General Election. Victoria, 1966.
3. British Columbia. Department of Agriculture. Climate of British Columbia. Victoria. 1964.
4. British Columbia. Department of Education. Annual Report of the Public Schools of the Province of British Columbia. Victoria. 96th Annual Report, 1966/67.
5. British Columbia. Department of Health and Welfare. Mental Health Services Branch. Report. Victoria. 1965/66, 1967/68.
6. British Columbia. Department of Health Services and Hospital Insurance. Vital Statistics of the Province of British Columbia. Victoria. 1966.
7. British Columbia. Department of Industrial Development, Trade and Commerce. Economics and Statistics Branch. Age Group Distribution of British Columbia's population by School Districts. Victoria. 1961, 1966.
8. British Columbia. Department of Industrial Development, Trade and Commerce. Economics and Statistics Branch. Regional Index of British Columbia, 1966.
9. British Columbia. Department of Municipal Affairs. Municipal Statistics. Victoria. 1964.
10. British Columbia. Department of Social Welfare. Branch of Social Welfare. Annual Report. Victoria. 1966, 1967.
11. British Columbia. Department of the Attorney-General. Motor Vehicle Branch. Report. Victoria. 1965, 1967.

REGRESSION WEIGHTS AND CONSTANTS DERIVED FOR THE LEAST SQUARES

ESTIMATIONS OF MISSING DATA

Variable Number	Variable Name	Multiple R	R ²	Constant	Regression Weights	Predictor Number
16	Increase in liquor sales, 1959-63	.67	.44	9.46	-.07 .38 -.06 .26 .01 -1.56 .43 -3.22	1 13 23 37 48 61 74 75
17	Liquor sales, 1963	.69	.48	58.72	-.16 -.08 5.79 .41 14.08 1.57 -.03	5 7 10 36 50 60 66
18	Retail sales, 1961	.76	.57	-4682.86	83.31 140.67 31.42 1015.60 55.18	2 9 13 61 71
19	General Mill rate, 1963	.58	.34	-41.21	.01 .31 .46 .08 -.06 .16 1.02 .07	1 6 10 12 41 42 56 67

Variable Number	Variable Name	Multiple R	R ²	Constant	Regression Weights	Predictor Number
20	School Mill rate, 1963	.64	.41	17.53	.67 -.19 .58 .28 .74 .15 -.12	9 33 36 38 42 44 48
21	Municipal debt, 1963	.71	.51	3.61	.01 -.12 -.87 .01 .10 -.09 .07	1 4 10 15 23 35 67
22	Non-town property value, 1961	.92	.85	-5.65	29.44	11
24	Mean male wage, 1961	.94	.89	35.52	.09 .25 -.72 -.16 -.62	40 41 57 58 75
25	Female wage level, 1961	.85	.73	79.87	.01 .12 .47 -.33 -.80 -.49 .79 .14 .10 .07	1 15 31 32 40 56 57 61 68 73

Variable Number	Variable Name	Multiple R	R ²	Constant	Regression Weights	Predictor Number
26	% of workers earning wages, 1961	.94	.88	34.50	-.10 .14 -.39 .97 -.74	2 23 32 37 58
27	% of wage earners who were female, 1961	.90	.80	116.35	.01 -.41 -1.45 .85 -.59 .29	15 32 56 57 60 61
63	Acreege in public parks and play-grounds, 1966	.64	.41	-28.87	.11 -2.64 .67 .22 1.85 .80 1.81 -.08	7 10 11 14 38 53 61 70

APPENDIX B

The Factor Analysis of School Districts

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29	338	-168	-161	093	003	385	396	-427	-226
30	-585	047	250	-134	-268	-475	-619	561	374
31	-348	129	163	-054	-109	-382	-445	387	352
32	360	100	-262	322	167	275	382	-217	-391
33	-002	-204	104	057	-140	-137	-015	-065	109
34	-315	-023	205	-206	075	-244	-325	044	463
35	386	-033	-023	-045	055	362	336	-257	-273
36	-195	-078	194	072	-165	-268	-158	-012	257
37	-028	-100	188	-039	-026	-079	025	-167	091
38	-394	-105	290	-127	030	-340	-279	030	367
39	-153	164	119	-083	030	-021	-045	-118	170
40	-522	-019	184	-134	-122	-326	-444	314	345
41	505	-052	-322	-010	056	494	534	-334	-518
42	-174	118	203	020	-059	-289	-326	057	431
43	-269	074	228	031	-046	-388	-326	212	312
44	255	-048	-266	057	006	297	316	-017	-457
45	-209	054	255	018	-004	-283	-306	051	401
46	064	-131	-087	-103	022	134	235	-003	-341
47	108	-138	-123	-045	020	154	261	-029	-359
48	171	-078	-247	022	-031	411	324	-047	-464
49	457	-097	-249	106	025	377	411	-235	-413
50	-033	089	144	-001	-044	-042	-018	-028	052
51	098	168	077	021	-068	146	-029	028	063
52	226	-185	-298	164	-025	436	315	-271	-255
53	193	-016	-102	067	034	-103	121	025	-237
54	390	-167	-219	-123	000	484	382	-296	-330
55	247	-003	-088	061	-147	231	176	-025	-243

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
56	-497	-017	299	-127	-100	-422	-440	348	341
57	296	071	-101	104	-023	216	155	-040	-171
58	-347	-197	104	-123	-119	-250	-237	109	263
59	161	-032	-080	084	-094	181	153	-073	-173
60	-438	-181	237	-095	-117	-337	-356	115	445
61	466	-047	-122	095	109	325	422	-423	-242
62	-259	156	-022	-036	-025	-224	-305	155	352
63	071	081	029	183	221	-110	090	-006	-153
64	-394	067	270	018	-166	-430	-464	327	399
65	-252	-154	063	034	-137	-174	-083	-027	156
66	550	015	-303	073	000	544	420	-206	-442
67	213	249	043	145	096	059	091	-142	-017
68	248	-028	018	-053	-083	043	134	-138	-059
69	260	-082	001	057	125	-000	186	-215	-046
70	-056	-115	122	-084	-115	-075	-202	044	270
71	150	076	143	-082	051	-056	-044	-026	173
72	202	-133	-207	078	116	433	372	-217	-362
73	-280	-039	059	-095	-204	-185	-315	219	279
74	-048	-134	089	029	-075	-058	098	-143	-021
75	-217	-120	134	004	-075	-199	-072	-008	108

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
11									
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36									
37									
-058									
-073		-054							
-155		-117	248						
-085		-112	013	057					
-129		-288	245	296	079				
-216		-033	210	285	061				
324		-191	004	-000	-005	071			
013		157	039	023	039	263	055		
292		-111	230	039	077	-019	-123	176	
011		-049	062	040	-084	024	-067	-036	
483		167	-086	-102	-173	124	112	-018	
012		920	-096	-116	-101	-047	-201	-053	
900		-001	-061	-138	-120	-222	-006	-140	
281		033	-180	-045	055	-172	-170	220	014
026		029	-336	000	-023	077	005	242	176
531		-179	-287	-301	-000	-065	-024	217	330
099		220	-372	-222	-184	077	-088	351	-144
253		135	292	-008	-362	-296	-180	-007	313
251		-026	190	054	-182	-174	-124	-222	013
-107		-140	-182	035	-182	-042	-045	051	028
-315		-162	-136	054	266	249	036	328	-021
128		275	132	-429	144	081	174	191	096
-083		091	-386	187	-152	-308	-105	-290	092
-155		-193	127	350	030	-517	-071	026	-018
231		030	-061	-421	072	613	-097	199	121
134		-155	-047	-172	-065	-224	-179	-264	-094
150		-067	-290	016	003	011	-071	391	066
					028	275	029	279	130

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE
OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS
(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
38	-054	-269	-149	275	-020	479	039	234	024
39	-062	-048	188	233	-055	439	071	118	056
40	-248	096	-285	270	183	279	203	183	-129
41	364	089	115	-037	-236	-263	019	-036	048
42	208	-302	052	082	093	185	-190	213	203
43	089	-356	-151	091	129	283	-102	114	041
44	-075	348	-174	-193	-002	-412	201	-226	-223
45	132	-276	134	041	070	273	-245	180	209
46	-126	026	-112	046	228	-009	261	-097	-250
47	-102	123	-123	-015	225	-106	219	-138	-248
48	-032	207	-057	-119	038	-295	250	-059	-218
49	444	219	-031	-424	-264	-437	-080	-133	-034
50	048	-062	157	-263	064	193	-076	234	167
51	-137	201	070	-298	-287	-000	-036	-130	172
52	169	010	046	014	-103	-205	053	-216	-180
53	123	129	-236	-261	033	-328	-035	019	-094
54	584	-068	069	-063	-107	-191	-024	-033	-084
55	241	278	-290	-414	043	-544	-069	-107	-037
56	-194	-249	-098	280	392	489	225	169	-114
57	049	413	-184	-394	-181	-688	-175	-244	089
58	-228	-135	-200	584	008	093	138	184	-085
59	089	349	-203	-356	-105	-554	045	-133	-060
60	-223	-087	-002	469	112	355	026	340	044
61	355	215	-029	-323	-219	-164	-270	134	373
62	028	-119	-088	052	150	119	024	180	167
63	-188	289	-190	-158	246	-067	-181	-204	136
64	-155	-005	-230	-098	318	-060	097	169	087

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
65	066	-047	-233	003	-082	-051	080	276	010
66	195	223	154	-258	-162	-559	-023	-379	-148
67	192	025	-040	-085	-032	-186	-041	-173	208
68	-029	-212	013	-164	-134	-189	-005	019	098
69	-000	126	-109	-138	-113	-128	050	-043	-010
70	-024	-118	054	253	-160	253	002	166	037
71	078	-153	093	006	042	185	-016	226	341
72	023	291	023	-150	-067	-311	030	-277	-239
73	-002	-103	-077	204	-094	157	-044	483	194
74	-015	-032	-012	-008	-055	116	308	251	008
75	-062	-088	-073	-061	082	293	185	289	001
	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
20	-037								
21	266	-175	241						
22	-028	-119	594	048					
23	193	-064	165	077	263				
24	220	-058	-066	002	020	537			
25	001	145	401	-119	580	350	178		
26	178	-040	105	169	154	453	732	157	
27	-017	020	404	093	360	112	-295	004	073
28	170	-232	350	-029	350	162	-181	141	-026
29	054	-218							

APPENDIX B-1
 INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE
 OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS
 (DECIMALS OMITTED)

	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
30	-269	125	-234	-047	-148	029	265	054	-081
31	-149	178	-342	-153	-365	-032	387	-032	074
32	007	-174	234	251	145	096	-349	-105	021
33	-164	-107	-212	047	-060	-144	322	-104	244
34	045	207	-040	-170	-169	042	181	-005	-093
35	149	016	108	032	264	092	-144	262	071
36	-065	326	-222	-157	-019	-036	002	059	-049
37	-013	099	185	-033	126	086	230	417	133
38	106	318	-083	-229	-175	071	212	191	-027
39	138	152	064	010	-060	-150	-236	-003	-259
40	-210	044	-222	142	-239	-028	214	061	-127
41	059	-314	478	100	533	185	-216	155	075
42	210	355	-063	-276	-013	124	175	086	029
43	087	258	-065	-294	-103	144	163	110	-106
44	-209	-353	079	329	106	-133	-173	-018	-014
45	144	239	-007	-269	-040	131	133	044	023
46	024	-262	-009	044	002	073	-053	119	-120
47	-033	-301	013	127	041	044	-091	091	-125
48	-169	-377	082	238	138	-018	-164	-002	002
49	029	-143	255	182	543	-013	-112	190	219
50	-050	057	070	-038	-024	060	088	045	072
51	-048	131	012	138	-069	-051	038	-036	211
52	119	-016	109	036	159	075	-090	015	165
53	-067	-195	-003	143	065	-081	-138	-022	-171
54	134	-118	400	-065	758	082	-000	335	229
55	-103	-197	278	293	329	030	072	312	251
56	060	217	-263	-198	-274	018	119	138	-312

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
57	-223	-144	066	355	124	-094	164	-109	446
58	-161	044	-240	-112	-222	-176	263	-167	-021
59	-204	-162	123	349	172	-058	084	065	295
60	-146	102	-245	-067	-257	-106	265	-106	-080
61	111	-060	396	148	439	188	086	302	370
62	040	324	-177	-104	-045	173	086	064	047
63	-147	-149	-011	214	-137	069	013	-080	143
64	-019	290	-216	007	-228	-034	158	048	-021
65	-121	059	-148	-052	-003	047	118	-003	103
66	059	-206	326	186	296	-067	-225	-006	177
67	272	031	317	007	114	190	015	115	163
68	244	005	-065	-198	-055	-090	083	026	173
69	025	-144	084	078	049	059	-022	057	146
70	143	246	013	-080	-039	011	239	-029	044
71	163	165	-024	-200	-005	062	223	110	209
72	-064	-173	091	264	133	-023	-128	027	230
73	-080	108	-158	-088	-007	016	327	-008	112
74	-093	015	-024	-026	007	029	-040	162	-110
75	-143	055	-122	-083	-085	020	-026	193	-146

APPENDIX B-1
 INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE
 OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS
 (DECIMALS OMITTED)

	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
56	-626	-428	420	467	-678	-117	474	-234	061
57	258	163	-172	-145	496	342	-514	294	-100
58	-449	-357	289	355	-748	556	397	-513	007
59	181	289	-012	-157	465	234	-476	277	-124
60	-350	-079	385	217	-523	477	494	-375	154
61	574	430	-432	-344	381	-008	-177	272	028
62	-154	-020	117	119	-024	-186	095	-057	446
63	-048	-082	071	-158	158	141	-072	-002	-055
64	-535	-265	426	311	-190	119	045	-100	271
65	-138	006	-017	015	-048	173	-119	-103	267
66	544	345	-443	-389	603	005	-626	312	-111
67	270	228	-263	-118	338	-023	-106	042	016
68	141	063	-235	100	068	074	-153	133	024
69	046	028	-100	000	-023	086	-042	-110	-026
70	-058	-078	093	130	-364	054	545	-125	-028
71	-127	-137	-056	063	-089	-046	061	-030	020
72	411	175	-293	-399	308	066	-322	274	-275
73	-287	-165	343	151	-426	244	265	-231	139
74	-056	208	174	-107	-019	020	016	001	088
75	-214	095	282	-021	-115	-058	197	-018	201

APPENDIX B-1
 INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE
 OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS
 (DECIMALS OMITTED)

	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
60	-053	-082	-278	-417	044	-168	-253	-108	-219
61	-049	-018	087	412	113	196	167	-002	311
62	-171	-216	-365	-160	-010	143	-032	-157	-230
63	070	108	017	066	-006	-127	-072	309	-041
64	-100	-106	-231	-155	-050	101	-189	020	-310
65	-038	-070	-046	009	-082	095	-059	019	-130
66	-075	017	314	537	013	189	353	106	375
67	-325	-332	-303	093	-005	094	154	-022	-012
68	-165	-205	-138	054	-039	121	097	009	-105
69	086	107	087	173	-050	070	-071	203	043
70	-103	-165	-216	-244	157	016	-170	-190	-027
71	-258	-323	-375	-026	-022	242	-190	-173	-064
72	276	344	465	417	019	073	478	-082	375
73	-191	-208	-109	-231	129	-076	-300	008	-023
74	289	251	077	003	-061	090	-104	052	-052
75	279	237	-054	-116	091	057	-237	077	-140
	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
56	-328								
57	709	-626							
58	-379	417	-326						
59	822	-466	853	-345					
60	-307	254	-191	570	-164				
61	332	-529	357	-382	273	-115			
62	-129	162	-184	-113	-154	010	-097		

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE

OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
63	115	-129	144	-120	121	-012	159	-078	061
64	-035	222	001	017	073	228	-239	360	-047
65	060	064	071	184	158	078	054	285	042
66	496	-686	553	-501	478	-487	269	-226	-006
67	134	-239	104	-252	056	-218	235	118	-095
68	057	-177	128	-032	023	-182	163	104	038
69	040	-157	012	-056	043	-134	055	-074	-213
70	-300	216	-222	420	-308	398	008	-062	-163
71	-151	062	-035	-029	-141	114	102	156	146
72	376	-372	391	-240	393	-263	179	-259	-105
73	-215	200	-085	476	-225	504	019	-020	047
74	011	054	-112	016	213	181	007	084	093
75	-081	266	-222	027	048	224	-101	220	
	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72
65	112	-174	222	258	159	-069	035	-272	-186
66	-288	018	042	-041	111	157	-231	223	
67	010	101	149	-128	219	019	384		
68	-096	-116	-325	-006	-206	-169			
69	-090	-027	-133	-126	-090				
70	-157	091	493	-198					
71	130	-175	-319						
72	-197	082							
73	108								

APPENDIX B-1

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTIVE
OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS
(DECIMALS OMITTED)

	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72
74	132	178	-140	-089	-126	175	-114	074	-055
75	138	231	-293	-149	-193	139	-032	073	-145
		73	74						
74	-080								
75	008		857						

APPENDIX B-2
22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS
(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	894	684	224	221	013	171	066	081	295	027	129
2	822	067	152	332	141	000	514	251	164	074	145
3	717	369	085	087	165	119	033	078	181	169	131
4	801	134	031	237	158	004	193	239	113	145	369
5	771	137	056	123	175	118	417	004	231	011	252
6	782	638	074	378	022	133	108	091	165	179	126
7	938	697	032	444	030	056	049	117	379	091	096
8	876	422	220	458	130	128	057	315	308	104	171
9	872	667	164	271	057	073	035	142	263	009	018
10	895	298	397	178	565	165	092	228	108	312	012
11	918	307	206	424	057	229	525	167	137	160	113
12	822	053	194	387	485	016	010	202	259	129	188
13	879	354	124	411	161	382	139	146	257	046	388
14	831	250	192	105	054	319	069	334	027	087	213
15	864	546	086	502	065	205	294	146	227	018	049
16	872	078	327	133	097	135	108	248	100	261	107
17	852	345	103	074	529	146	070	280	105	299	129
18	846	091	344	223	129	199	442	203	015	075	060
19	799	082	336	342	043	006	127	307	105	124	050
20	816	368	269	121	009	048	024	081	180	201	158
21	794	412	249	252	339	032	266	182	083	160	065
22	905	277	224	359	008	169	489	106	173	180	151
23	942	445	267	228	601	098	068	197	202	272	026
24	846	036	211	004	405	089	370	153	105	035	380
25	918	271	077	352	534	343	134	123	099	222	089

APPENDIX B-2

22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26	823	092	157	-202	705	338	015	-230	-027	105	-012
27	914	191	199	392	446	-402	192	-062	025	273	077
28	936	757	283	-354	-129	-139	087	212	074	-013	087
29	874	496	250	-246	081	136	-102	345	258	-027	255
30	851	-568	-212	275	214	235	-116	-088	305	-145	033
31	788	-555	-186	237	062	-084	-049	-166	-070	225	-157
32	889	714	287	212	-289	237	137	155	013	-073	080
33	920	-056	-270	323	295	-510	-408	075	-289	-092	227
34	836	-625	038	-358	079	-139	245	059	186	-025	-001
35	757	490	122	-020	056	261	071	-137	039	287	-190
36	849	-268	238	203	124	297	-255	245	-218	-294	-131
37	840	-268	-076	-237	571	-062	254	071	-250	190	-053
38	887	-670	186	-236	180	-186	093	-069	-140	243	116
39	747	-285	-043	-442	-081	-085	320	054	102	138	-187
40	912	-538	-641	-035	259	-054	186	-020	075	127	052
41	797	724	069	-183	195	057	-024	155	191	-059	072
42	890	-461	732	116	-025	090	-165	-081	-004	-043	223
43	825	-547	364	036	017	279	-102	-205	-007	045	254
44	951	572	-744	057	067	030	065	-022	018	002	-140
45	938	-445	785	088	-079	037	-084	-021	-065	-083	124
46	928	196	-757	-282	154	225	120	-094	-039	151	085
47	931	291	-775	-208	131	218	113	-088	-040	066	077
48	919	529	-676	-076	089	035	004	-035	127	-003	-127
49	840	732	147	181	197	067	-129	020	028	-057	-164

APPENDIX B-2
22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS
 (DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
50	839	-078	149	-012	063	129	154	062	-027	-326	-326	-326
51	831	179	312	295	-107	068	195	326	188	387	387	387
52	867	460	137	-071	-067	-019	-260	-077	323	305	305	432
53	884	157	-298	167	076	084	-014	-087	-589	-480	-480	-143
54	849	538	057	-264	388	-076	-191	-191	250	-147	-147	-056
55	846	590	-108	421	317	126	-104	-110	163	159	159	049
56	839	-720	-321	-217	072	226	110	-233	020	145	145	-006
57	931	608	-010	635	099	-232	-127	096	088	120	120	-104
58	931	-566	-401	-170	186	-513	-247	041	-090	-054	-054	128
59	909	585	-183	513	217	066	-141	186	192	218	218	049
60	848	-574	-154	-027	175	-288	-156	349	135	-176	-176	119
61	817	520	314	-032	389	-163	251	243	-061	-055	-055	-082
62	776	-309	337	195	009	375	-007	125	049	103	103	183
63	729	120	-167	256	-027	000	323	001	-293	-210	-210	275
64	757	-402	-017	479	058	315	-081	-020	009	078	078	066
65	778	-129	018	174	268	080	-202	378	-108	131	131	099
66	852	792	134	165	-178	-032	-183	-089	048	-070	-070	-055
67	776	161	509	113	-020	-013	123	-106	-161	085	085	294
68	816	069	304	018	006	-174	-150	-001	-375	401	401	-186
69	836	158	-063	-001	102	-023	110	120	-381	063	063	-047
70	796	-354	078	-268	162	-425	028	081	173	017	017	-210
71	794	-207	404	007	161	-063	080	135	-157	225	225	-220
72	788	600	-248	037	-075	-080	-043	-045	240	071	071	118
73	773	-400	-028	031	312	-361	-124	143	189	-293	-293	-251

APPENDIX B-2

22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
74	895	-024	-223	-093	280	434	042	594	-085	128	098
75	909	-222	-215	-072	276	532	104	524	-101	053	049
% COMMON VARIANCE	100.000	22.727	11.111	8.141	7.002	5.379	4.588	4.306	4.162	3.663	3.527
% TOTAL VARIANCE	85.045	19.328	9.449	6.924	5.955	4.574	3.902	3.662	3.540	3.115	3.000

VARIABLE	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	112	082	288	118	071	-029	-070	069	207	-042	-081	019
2	159	281	192	003	-168	-016	-169	-157	101	126	-182	047
3	-174	-365	257	251	-082	-037	157	-068	-282	158	-022	-061
4	022	206	-260	165	077	-046	197	371	301	-066	-134	-034
5	106	-190	-070	-230	159	146	011	-222	-195	-164	253	-261
6	118	-021	060	055	012	067	-042	-041	-013	153	-224	100
7	041	-122	-087	-004	020	027	057	019	017	-009	141	-154
8	145	144	-003	-251	-106	-065	-116	136	050	090	-002	086
9	-132	050	173	257	096	033	-008	-184	-082	-107	174	137
10	-167	213	001	067	119	066	-020	005	006	-017	006	055

APPENDIX B-2
22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS
(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	FACTORS																						
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
11	-279	114	-024	146	204	-038	037	064	-110	-060	-048	071											
12	176	085	212	067	097	051	301	020	-073	058	190	030											
13	061	238	226	001	031	076	-089	-092	-019	036	-046	-014											
14	187	-058	355	199	-137	274	327	004	-047	-052	084	170											
15	-006	-177	-109	-190	-049	008	098	028	012	-000	-024	070											
16	153	416	-021	021	256	-078	320	020	021	276	231	-220											
17	193	192	-134	-081	-124	005	208	121	-129	-167	-012	-008											
18	318	172	248	074	-170	170	029	-128	282	-070	-035	-097											
19	063	194	259	284	095	026	014	384	-238	074	-068	084											
20	-140	080	-097	366	321	206	-118	-154	299	137	141	-072											
21	-273	029	165	014	-069	-285	-016	-159	-070	066	-105	-095											
22	-344	126	-086	139	180	-124	074	157	-184	-068	-052	069											
23	-152	177	054	-004	117	059	-047	-079	023	-049	068	017											
24	404	033	-198	-100	076	-044	-062	143	-203	115	105	-035											
25	401	-080	-039	-041	092	-046	-041	024	-044	150	059	-029											
26	-134	-072	-091	-051	027	-071	098	057	-070	-054	005	-111											
27	315	-137	-151	-080	148	030	-022	-121	-022	067	-054	093											
28	068	-020	-067	097	-079	-011	-139	-015	-072	-045	041	-049											
29	120	-085	137	080	-268	-242	-107	014	-033	-147	063	-062											
30	-003	-168	122	-195	-060	-178	079	073	190	-037	069	021											
31	217	176	-085	057	-035	-233	135	-153	083	-174	042	-210											
32	-020	-013	-085	-045	-142	018	020	089	011	090	101	-001											
33	-034	-054	212	147	001	015	-027	-007	-021	014	-067	-024											
34	013	-308	083	115	020	-119	-127	-050	064	-113	154	044											
35	-090	-246	-028	167	-031	192	-233	267	083	-066	090	-080											

APPENDIX B-2

22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	FACTORS											
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
36	145	032	-260	382	068	004	-017	-204	-076	-073	-069	-023
37	-203	064	-128	021	-112	000	204	-111	223	086	-104	097
38	-305	004	-170	-117	-022	102	120	036	062	077	062	-028
39	-348	221	-014	092	-175	109	112	-113	010	-162	-091	-059
40	-255	067	-010	-032	-058	026	-022	000	017	059	037	042
41	047	148	111	-188	-198	012	-042	-057	036	-009	072	-032
42	-043	-034	092	003	084	002	017	070	059	018	-029	073
43	038	-090	-047	062	085	-190	-153	022	150	-154	-192	-173
44	038	075	007	077	-015	-025	-076	016	025	-059	008	-113
45	-065	-051	-022	-124	-054	-029	152	-036	-089	068	-010	103
46	238	010	057	154	-016	056	-115	009	-048	-035	023	055
47	208	-021	050	190	006	050	-116	011	-042	-062	018	046
48	164	145	-142	068	-123	-035	161	-107	-048	-034	-070	-005
49	-144	037	-016	-158	245	141	033	048	086	009	140	-022
50	330	-311	-259	346	-020	-187	237	-116	023	206	-051	076
51	-096	-067	020	-112	089	-049	-113	071	-141	034	-111	-081
52	013	-051	-184	128	-020	-003	164	030	222	-111	-074	149
53	-074	159	013	-018	056	036	-160	112	014	140	173	-027
54	004	004	093	-095	243	174	058	-141	128	041	146	-024
55	-127	-021	087	064	-200	-100	153	-001	035	-097	027	049
56	-028	087	-021	077	028	062	016	071	-035	004	-001	-031
57	-058	-101	086	-005	-085	042	032	-001	-014	-022	056	-033
58	-023	094	-013	031	-012	-027	-068	-055	019	065	-094	034
59	-142	-047	138	-002	-110	-053	113	-022	-012	-008	088	-010
60	015	-253	239	101	-040	023	-001	131	-082	-047	-009	-000

APPENDIX B-2
22 UNROTATED PRINCIPAL AXES FACTORS
 (DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	FACTORS																							
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
61	042	-091	-054	154	-203	158	050	013	052	-133	058	-068	042	-091	-054	154	-203	158	050	013	052	-133	058	-068
62	173	234	-108	122	078	185	-310	-143	-081	-179	-001	140	173	234	-108	122	078	185	-310	-143	-081	-179	-001	140
63	-046	-335	088	-098	-114	276	057	-019	224	076	126	120	-046	-335	088	-098	-114	276	057	-019	224	076	126	120
64	-046	032	198	147	109	130	025	079	-075	-135	-073	-343	-046	032	198	147	109	130	025	079	-075	-135	-073	-343
65	-093	254	-244	-037	-231	266	-125	-086	-302	130	-013	201	-093	254	-244	-037	-231	266	-125	-086	-302	130	-013	201
66	046	025	083	025	117	-142	078	-086	-059	164	-069	059	046	025	083	025	117	-142	078	-086	-059	164	-069	059
67	-084	192	095	156	-220	-219	-016	-081	-020	324	108	-187	-084	192	095	156	-220	-219	-016	-081	-020	324	108	-187
68	092	227	-019	069	-270	-112	049	158	026	-144	284	223	092	227	-019	069	-270	-112	049	158	026	-144	284	223
69	064	055	177	-153	438	-416	043	-118	-022	-321	055	262	064	055	177	-153	438	-416	043	-118	-022	-321	055	262
70	-003	-105	-072	222	047	-183	-176	288	076	075	259	099	-003	-105	-072	222	047	-183	-176	288	076	075	259	099
71	182	096	302	-253	186	239	204	130	-051	-118	-209	025	182	096	302	-253	186	239	204	130	-051	-118	-209	025
72	023	-298	-144	101	258	171	138	-040	-046	050	-159	080	023	-298	-144	101	258	171	138	-040	-046	050	-159	080
73	158	-015	-029	-065	-058	144	-019	265	-021	020	-109	-160	158	-015	-029	-065	-058	144	-019	265	-021	020	-109	-160
74	000	004	280	-085	115	-104	-071	018	120	212	-080	-001	000	004	280	-085	115	-104	-071	018	120	212	-080	-001
75	015	-121	167	-070	097	-061	-131	013	121	181	-053	140	015	-121	167	-070	097	-061	-131	013	121	181	-053	140
% COMMON VARIANCE	3.163	2.949	2.606	2.425	2.339	2.067	1.929	1.768	1.707	1.605	1.436	1.401	3.163	2.949	2.606	2.425	2.339	2.067	1.929	1.768	1.707	1.605	1.436	1.401
% TOTAL VARIANCE	2.690	2.508	2.216	2.062	1.989	1.758	1.640	1.503	1.452	1.365	1.221	1.191	2.690	2.508	2.216	2.062	1.989	1.758	1.640	1.503	1.452	1.365	1.221	1.191

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS																	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10								
1	842	687	108	215	210	-117	-115	-062	008	-065	-197								
2	761	-246	-035	-023	-023	-248	-095	-187	105	127	-036								
3	608	-186	-209	050	081	081	415	175	-047	-178	009								
4	687	123	-096	040	-176	-068	-144	020	095	648	-062								
5	574	370	-029	-232	-146	-168	017	-025	247	133	-088								
6	698	536	295	148	274	-119	-130	-162	-011	-214	253								
7	894	819	221	087	110	-141	031	051	009	-072	-083								
8	858	-820	042	-031	-152	-105	-208	-171	069	-007	-053								
9	805	-444	-368	-088	-085	325	130	095	-037	080	161								
10	891	128	-149	052	893	-069	002	-030	046	011	-089								
11	895	024	186	255	-027	-017	005	-031	038	827	-057								
12	777	256	-096	-242	-057	-069	-276	-038	-420	-021	323								
13	875	048	-019	-423	-045	601	-143	-031	-114	-026	278								
14	790	-308	081	-064	-051	-010	003	-005	-049	-076	040								
15	858	-170	-154	-713	-039	-086	202	216	-097	-061	336								
16	694	-068	243	-065	-133	.010	018	193	-060	069	142								
17	808	-259	-133	-161	333	204	137	252	096	-041	004								
18	751	124	-226	024	-037	079	045	059	252	109	015								
19	725	266	-126	-230	232	-092	004	-087	056	008	007								
20	682	-142	-256	-104	-016	-005	078	-013	-010	017	105								
21	765	273	-020	057	605	-080	181	012	-013	126	068								
22	859	-052	187	205	050	-033	041	-035	014	853	-025								
23	935	189	029	121	934	-042	-004	-009	054	-021	-015								
24	780	003	-037	-207	265	-164	-070	086	721	159	118								
25	889	-257	-080	112	010	275	131	-037	809	-044	056								

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26	803	-050	-003	010	613	-210	385	205	258	-155	005
27	898	124	-056	351	049	054	107	-131	806	044	045
28	925	797	104	085	184	-160	-255	-042	-051	102	243
29	844	431	-004	173	240	002	-289	334	-060	-026	445
30	808	-804	-093	-029	031	182	005	216	050	-069	107
31	705	-499	007	-046	-303	140	262	-130	204	-210	-089
32	870	404	-064	384	013	-528	-326	019	-115	278	083
33	915	-001	028	420	-092	753	053	-036	146	-001	-302
34	794	-173	-127	-595	-073	331	188	151	069	-062	258
35	731	251	193	209	121	-456	-050	041	038	-048	111
36	832	-081	-256	-000	019	053	-087	149	-049	-095	-264
37	763	013	050	-181	165	124	777	160	170	-011	-073
38	873	-161	-403	-441	-069	175	599	-067	110	-043	040
39	709	-31	059	-426	002	-004	502	-084	-356	065	205
40	905	-522	372	-263	-102	310	474	134	009	120	-011
41	790	429	227	302	437	-141	-176	124	-044	-021	195
42	880	-148	-859	-140	069	025	-093	014	089	-093	056
43	712	-345	-495	-310	-009	-040	-066	107	183	-159	027
44	934	061	875	314	030	-056	-066	021	-067	139	-131
45	915	-082	-916	-146	007	-051	041	-061	030	-104	058
46	921	013	870	-143	-007	-002	028	209	090	-087	-013
47	923	034	893	-059	011	-006	-034	185	056	-012	-054
48	911	075	846	243	091	-069	005	-102	-062	039	057
49	812	302	067	539	429	-294	-161	-009	010	104	-139
50	787	020	-015	-127	-007	-080	000	-033	063	-005	015

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY		FACTORS									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
51	049	-180	319	-180	-403	017	208	016	067	184		
52	294	019	275	110	-110	-162	-185	122	050	535		
53	006	221	072	074	027	-075	017	-141	124	-825		
54	286	207	187	707	030	-117	-121	069	-144	084		
55	-036	234	765	257	-171	061	015	086	093	148		
56	-531	134	-554	-103	062	311	067	-007	-126	-000		
57	117	093	887	-025	-026	-108	-104	118	152	022		
58	-215	111	-275	-144	780	232	-108	050	-103	-123		
59	005	232	853	079	-082	-012	182	037	156	177		
60	-243	-134	-166	-152	739	037	261	-020	024	149		
61	559	011	264	290	-042	163	050	186	159	087		
62	-156	-302	-158	-015	-183	-201	220	182	-081	006		
63	096	052	098	-171	-020	045	069	113	265	-211		
64	-506	-195	156	-120	-002	-012	221	029	040	-092		
65	-022	-077	148	-026	100	186	193	038	-052	-058		
66	381	089	555	182	-239	-372	-189	-091	043	-011		
67	241	-408	156	074	-134	058	-068	077	097	025		
68	260	-207	210	-223	-071	243	-132	072	-257	-110		
69	180	023	092	-008	-029	064	312	170	029	-390		
70	-037	-060	-329	-015	423	118	-073	096	041	155		
71	079	-407	-012	-001	-045	164	179	199	-198	-080		
72	290	398	311	067	-110	-202	-162	097	191	248		
73	-277	-069	-131	088	511	-013	-074	111	-017	-017		

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY	FACTORS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
74	829	012	152	021	021	026	064	880	-040	001	-008
75	839	-137	110	-139	-025	-026	083	865	-009	-029	-053
% COMMON VARIANCE	100.000	12.544	11.810	11.279	7.455	7.224	5.307	4.812	4.788	4.521	4.341
% TOTAL VARIANCE	79.816	10.012	9.426	9.003	5.950	5.766	4.236	3.841	3.822	3.608	3.465

VARIABLE	FACTORS																	
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1	172	-076	-065	-013	-273	-020	010	283										
2	730	-052	056	022	-076	-074	-114	021										
3	-014	187	196	244	-243	-252	-043	111										
4	-112	104	-130	125	220	199	-040	163										
5	077	-137	-078	160	-153	-039	-004	-406										
6	-021	-095	-007	-122	-138	001	070	107										
7	-260	-018	-219	011	-045	015	-023	024										
8	214	-068	-088	-045	031	-033	078	011										
9	252	088	467	015	015	021	-017	-040										
10	-025	072	037	019	096	-032	-035	132										
11	211	-072	106	-068	-123	-043	-007	-146										
12	173	136	-004	048	-220	298	295	043										

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	FACTORS							
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
37	019	075	-025	-019	111	044	010	013
38	-148	-185	066	-017	110	002	052	018
39	223	-116	101	-100	038	049	048	026
40	-038	-213	050	014	070	-020	-011	-077
41	147	-132	-313	-096	126	025	-011	-051
42	-026	013	146	140	036	-019	-073	133
43	-151	055	149	094	001	-040	-315	132
44	-025	-053	-091	-038	-052	003	-013	-019
45	046	111	-015	068	063	007	-032	-013
46	-088	-079	-025	223	-012	033	-106	081
47	-102	-035	-022	227	-033	-006	-114	050
48	-023	109	-190	000	042	205	-009	-082
49	-127	-073	024	-123	-012	-014	238	-073
50	066	853	013	012	-135	-072	040	-040
51	204	-032	222	-442	-076	-110	264	053
52	-353	-131	-011	096	089	143	-208	062
53	-015	082	-143	091	072	-100	-010	021
54	-102	-075	026	000	-131	045	184	-133
55	-032	-013	-116	086	014	-073	-145	075
56	-078	-065	162	185	026	072	-011	146
57	081	-039	003	-100	005	-154	101	-058
58	-109	-113	010	-092	092	126	-032	-045
59	-029	-085	-039	-011	051	-025	-030	-048
60	-032	092	014	046	004	-140	179	-015

APPENDIX B-3

18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

VARIABLE	FACTORS																	
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
61	230	235	-088	-045	151	-247	139	053										
62	157	009	405	069	428	074	-178	023										
63	049	-050	-179	444	-005	-354	032	-312										
64	010	-010	320	304	091	001	017	118										
65	-006	-047	096	-083	696	052	-005	-065										
66	-021	027	-065	-058	-224	109	-084	-025										
67	236	-056	-070	080	026	018	-462	207										
68	092	-013	-092	-159	133	125	-031	468										
69	-013	-012	-032	-172	-435	323	-083	-061										
70	-024	136	100	-406	-127	-171	134	321										
71	235	-115	072	063	-078	176	526	149										
72	-322	-007	116	107	-161	-041	110	-230										
73	090	186	-079	-185	164	-119	466	084										
74	-021	-039	003	-001	072	129	027	-017										
75	-050	079	048	030	106	-015	030	-070										
% COMMON VARIANCE	3.877	3.411	3.373	3.340	3.288	3.005	2.847	2.778										
% TOTAL VARIANCE	3.094	2.722	2.693	2.666	2.625	2.399	2.272	2.217										

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	45.8574	37.3762	55.8717	55.1188	46.6183	51.1082	45.1550
2	57.5041	36.2110	46.3689	59.7025	47.3684	49.4831	51.7650
3	48.2470	32.8050	47.1574	60.6083	42.6565	54.4246	52.5894
4	38.1193	36.1960	52.1470	45.7632	40.7173	50.6703	45.4489
7	50.8524	41.8520	58.3059	57.0702	46.5640	57.5490	51.3482
8	41.0430	40.8380	63.3989	46.4219	52.2382	54.1467	49.4674
9	43.7246	43.4335	45.9704	50.5053	38.3466	47.0118	43.7703
10	36.3557	45.0831	51.8877	47.1060	38.4866	51.4228	39.1702
11	52.5012	40.2323	51.9360	62.4604	42.8767	54.8246	59.0434
12	52.3017	36.8783	60.6613	46.1055	51.0066	54.3023	55.3119
13	36.7566	37.4191	60.3613	45.8937	42.6243	50.3162	47.6916
14	51.8280	40.8502	67.4825	48.4686	47.9172	56.3964	57.2028
15	57.9061	45.2320	63.6525	44.6789	46.1573	54.4769	52.0615
16	40.6336	43.7370	60.7943	45.0084	48.8836	42.2738	39.0041
17	48.5696	43.8531	57.3095	53.8238	46.3182	47.0094	65.7887
18	49.9545	37.1969	42.5566	48.1188	47.2993	44.5954	59.2767
19	50.5682	44.0801	39.6989	61.9618	45.4642	40.1234	48.4363
20	57.2338	42.8622	57.2645	40.4172	53.9948	51.7340	47.2522
22	61.9800	39.2701	67.7044	41.5386	52.6035	58.4715	46.1073
23	52.6978	44.0808	63.1847	51.1023	46.9513	54.1285	45.0082
24	54.6016	46.9403	45.4221	65.8280	46.8908	43.8605	44.4933
25	27.7332	41.4725	46.2614	47.8724	38.0615	33.1115	43.5382
26	29.5685	41.5882	41.0006	51.6850	43.1236	29.8031	62.1567
27	44.9005	41.0549	41.1832	50.5386	48.9810	48.6795	43.2328
28	52.5645	40.8717	39.0960	50.9318	44.6438	49.4659	47.4567
29	27.7217	48.3056	43.6835	56.7428	54.9625	42.6699	47.7378
30	49.2622	46.9903	51.6951	53.5415	66.0350	55.0058	40.6132

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	52.2695	42.5460	41.6169	50.1904	56.8297	43.0279	47.4253
32	45.6853	55.5911	47.3010	52.3049	50.6032	41.3092	50.2842
33	60.0205	54.0685	52.2764	40.8633	44.1187	47.1038	51.1333
34	62.0285	55.9183	52.2528	41.3125	44.0415	47.7582	47.1524
35	58.6115	58.5355	55.9949	39.2706	49.1060	43.4795	46.9268
36	66.3938	56.8723	45.1303	42.3222	49.0436	34.0026	45.3961
37	63.4166	53.6056	50.4975	42.1809	47.4307	38.3382	49.4367
38	62.7735	56.1497	49.1732	48.8545	45.2328	54.7492	43.2451
39	52.9833	56.1530	64.7660	111.1679	58.2009	46.7306	46.3889
40	62.0302	58.5375	62.2849	66.0032	54.4194	61.8223	54.2161
41	57.7632	60.7178	52.4786	59.2896	47.9450	43.3794	47.1331
42	56.2630	59.2912	54.6639	41.6597	43.2245	41.3157	51.5455
43	66.4253	60.7082	39.9449	46.8421	47.1484	32.2399	47.1761
44	62.9132	62.5857	47.5397	49.0122	46.5570	39.3210	42.1370
45	59.3458	58.2862	58.1047	49.0832	51.4245	34.6837	47.0002
46	32.3129	63.3479	58.4590	43.9883	41.0000	48.5389	43.4641
47	46.3595	60.5546	49.0146	49.7225	38.1470	58.1175	45.8138
48	44.7203	59.4312	41.8965	44.2179	55.3082	33.4636	50.6781
49	31.9712	65.5606	38.5370	46.6734	48.7666	64.2567	50.4203
50	33.9051	64.0613	39.4884	46.9367	54.4777	72.7564	32.8229
51	57.0316	50.4341	46.2347	42.4979	82.5316	79.1688	33.4622
52	59.8683	61.0204	38.4460	52.4145	53.5549	65.3792	47.6232
53	62.4050	46.3905	38.2749	45.0259	49.4998	60.4421	50.6721
54	60.3274	34.0497	40.2275	43.9818	47.7278	61.5940	69.1590
55	48.9262	40.6751	42.8532	49.0906	53.0510	51.0838	44.9507
56	53.5258	40.7324	37.2416	41.0074	59.8089	49.2318	58.6146

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	57.6874	41.1119	35.8663	59.7935	49.2944	51.8799	46.6232
58	39.2500	39.7697	43.2495	48.3907	40.8229	57.1285	58.9210
59	58.9068	35.3668	39.8358	51.1527	42.9772	61.8559	48.1528
60	55.7073	32.8882	36.1499	50.7450	49.7353	60.0922	46.5487
61	64.0418	62.5869	67.1376	60.5118	51.1901	49.0297	42.5013
62	42.9244	62.7316	54.8831	44.4014	52.6931	39.3492	41.7373
63	58.2550	54.4616	56.3136	37.5860	47.7554	52.8316	40.0537
64	28.2126	56.4405	82.4285	45.2778	52.8094	58.8053	46.9240
65	57.8784	56.6640	46.1872	45.0942	50.4549	48.0400	53.3593
66	39.0576	61.5893	42.6535	51.0610	44.4110	41.2489	52.6428
67	48.2480	55.3759	52.6366	47.4505	57.5877	42.3564	62.7585
68	51.5172	57.7030	49.1109	74.3629	52.9750	54.3040	50.0018
69	48.8610	53.7148	70.2606	44.2458	61.1529	49.2705	58.7717
70	51.5056	64.0520	38.7020	61.9643	40.6156	46.4917	55.5720
71	50.5927	56.8000	44.9334	52.8663	48.5646	43.5795	52.8923
72	49.1714	59.2795	43.3522	44.8849	48.8612	51.5106	49.5167
75	59.6037	57.3522	51.6677	35.2054	42.9815	42.2827	52.9452
76	52.2231	57.7315	52.3918	41.4708	52.9192	42.5217	45.6117
78	51.4380	41.7562	66.8361	37.3027	61.0044	58.1540	48.4827
79	46.2310	64.1848	55.5716	47.7274	57.5002	56.7810	117.3360
80	56.5986	54.7728	26.2252	46.8322	43.4191	68.1223	55.1107
82	40.8424	38.3689	38.4115	48.2161	113.9387	26.6065	50.0596
84	28.3249	72.6954	41.7359	49.0608	53.7987	61.5770	50.2743
85	37.1096	66.7806	41.1062	51.1884	51.3039	73.6425	50.2093
86	44.5479	43.2866	55.5980	48.2793	44.2433	42.1792	48.5880

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS										
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14				
1	53.3682	55.1015	42.6022	30.9457	43.6382	53.9247	60.7235				
2	49.8676	49.4482	50.0945	48.8137	45.2171	51.2264	58.8768				
3	51.5868	54.0678	45.7726	36.7328	45.9083	37.6740	57.4127				
4	55.3393	39.3339	56.0403	53.0724	56.4297	56.6917	51.6779				
7	55.2631	46.2397	51.6157	59.5480	55.4341	50.2977	54.1306				
8	43.9846	47.4711	31.3168	46.2602	45.1652	52.2730	90.6816				
9	44.5427	66.4956	58.2319	40.0154	49.0652	40.7386	50.2962				
10	48.2419	47.7804	43.2451	43.5536	46.2080	51.7785	58.1050				
11	49.0880	60.9422	52.4874	41.1619	44.8726	45.4940	46.3971				
12	48.2868	52.9114	44.2701	48.9957	55.4135	43.3702	44.9006				
13	60.8597	40.1434	26.7826	41.9415	44.2528	54.7886	46.4409				
14	45.5596	48.2062	48.9496	55.3737	47.1812	53.3616	41.8451				
15	50.7133	48.8938	58.2104	47.9539	43.4135	37.1996	47.2680				
16	39.8625	45.8542	42.5864	42.9825	49.0677	51.9571	39.7482				
17	49.2874	40.6899	33.0563	41.2986	58.1494	60.9735	51.0543				
18	51.4135	50.9101	60.0222	41.6759	55.1699	64.2874	50.6112				
19	50.2943	51.5199	45.0296	45.5312	44.8881	54.3248	51.0752				
20	55.3124	52.3597	47.0263	70.1547	59.8375	47.5170	51.2008				
22	51.6880	48.0017	63.1583	53.3858	50.1105	37.4866	52.5887				
23	46.6077	50.6646	58.2079	63.7658	41.9873	54.5968	43.9392				
24	48.6740	46.5032	54.8839	62.7312	42.9076	55.6950	43.9103				
25	47.8566	45.9434	57.9284	46.1461	36.4940	32.8575	39.5045				
26	53.2668	46.8926	52.8233	49.1699	46.7886	52.9594	38.8154				
27	53.7513	51.1016	54.9061	78.4779	55.8001	49.7930	65.2942				
28	57.0191	45.8751	46.4907	63.9609	43.1939	59.1334	44.4246				
29	50.8485	46.7650	35.1958	50.5670	61.2891	17.4850	47.0614				
30	46.1334	43.9483	45.2207	49.1842	104.3342	62.6723	54.3046				

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS										
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14				
31	43.4333	57.6387	44.7213	46.0820	72.1043	35.8986	44.5521				
32	52.0542	48.5979	30.6480	51.0449	82.2270	50.1165	45.2891				
33	62.3085	41.4012	46.0763	61.2873	46.0462	44.1981	43.0992				
34	58.5238	48.9026	42.9439	49.8457	47.4486	54.2663	48.2373				
35	58.3394	45.8851	47.6819	68.5226	52.4376	48.6202	48.7062				
36	57.2014	41.9166	37.6227	46.5303	44.9160	51.7470	49.4884				
37	1.0759	42.3038	45.4118	44.8711	47.4582	49.0956	47.8474				
38	-7.2938	44.4282	48.6044	48.0514	47.5882	50.2234	45.8794				
39	56.3071	41.4299	49.6280	42.0387	45.2061	51.2021	51.7940				
40	58.4200	39.7638	47.5351	56.5510	64.2720	33.1828	46.5476				
41	50.3066	45.6563	48.4721	40.8853	50.2024	45.2812	52.8475				
42	56.8042	35.1550	42.9253	54.4397	46.7610	54.5891	46.1617				
43	50.5579	42.8518	48.1258	45.9425	49.3768	50.3325	55.5198				
44	59.9447	42.1835	66.3882	34.8073	54.6787	52.6627	59.1868				
45	58.4288	44.2705	77.7561	34.3222	52.5299	44.9935	37.3734				
46	48.3900	41.8773	53.1840	64.5275	50.0191	44.3723	39.5822				
47	46.0746	44.4697	54.0017	55.8878	53.3216	40.9838	65.3545				
48	57.9161	52.8643	56.9769	39.7546	52.4498	54.3268	31.0529				
49	54.6009	45.1773	53.5676	48.8460	48.9116	42.6210	31.5243				
50	53.2159	51.9256	52.5797	39.2965	51.8862	59.9278	45.5026				
51	56.6300	39.8653	18.6514	38.5929	24.5987	48.2840	47.8603				
52	52.2327	51.8635	55.3319	45.6360	48.9134	40.5612	46.8141				
53	53.3860	48.0144	42.7286	45.2931	37.0755	68.4398	41.9769				
54	54.2333	55.5544	53.4741	41.7265	55.5542	45.5585	50.4021				
55	53.9928	48.5610	45.0620	57.1998	48.3075	77.5827	34.5448				
56	50.0445	49.7050	55.1680	44.4292	66.2255	71.3628	52.6284				
57	44.5555	50.4671	60.5017	74.8537	42.1196	52.2595					

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS			
	15	16	17	18
1	52.1995	46.3079	56.4148	72.9709
2	59.4105	46.8252	46.3108	49.1614
3	41.3002	48.8490	27.2087	47.0187
4	60.0845	57.2674	41.5144	57.5449
7	37.8673	43.3355	41.9723	40.5203
8	46.4780	21.3017	55.9961	45.8266
9	50.6292	72.3789	42.9097	49.1544
10	51.5814	51.9313	54.8355	38.6688
11	37.7812	47.2163	34.5787	64.9672
12	42.0162	63.5550	39.2847	54.4547
13	19.5158	64.5157	51.4192	61.9874
14	51.5937	53.9475	48.5623	39.4584
15	65.2578	47.9548	58.6377	54.0306
16	59.1602	44.5229	55.8543	40.8679
17	72.4714	37.2709	48.2661	45.8118
18	68.7673	64.7967	35.7806	41.6450
19	72.9627	48.3522	28.6516	63.4575
20	51.2860	51.3161	44.8721	57.3624
22	56.5651	55.7817	37.7987	70.2145
23	46.3159	49.3010	46.5683	41.8993
24	56.3365	54.8661	47.9425	50.2716
25	47.4958	50.8998	61.2475	43.7073
26	42.5075	62.0198	51.7736	43.6992
27	56.9794	57.5508	53.9148	53.9486
28	53.8703	51.1775	50.5086	34.8643
29	46.6794	40.4240	64.2568	48.8462
30	57.2122	50.1984	49.7493	40.2306

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS					
	15	16	17	18	18	18
31	50.5961	63.2905	63.7471	61.3564		
32	52.4914	67.8506	39.9022	47.6293		
33	37.0914	53.4215	51.0759	43.6481		
34	36.0433	50.1031	55.6107	41.9030		
35	43.3017	52.9471	57.8827	60.8762		
36	37.4483	53.3021	61.4636	42.8758		
37	44.7048	48.4945	51.1611	47.8747		
38	46.2547	51.4883	50.2891	47.2577		
39	45.2371	51.5657	65.7306	35.6618		
40	49.8274	44.9635	48.0542	56.1548		
41	46.0494	63.1910	49.7549	54.8662		
42	41.9526	53.8346	49.2121	51.4039		
43	43.3303	48.8925	48.6263	51.8737		
44	46.2816	51.4759	44.1306	57.0035		
45	51.3097	54.0429	41.0470	43.2559		
46	45.5639	48.7733	36.7797	51.4541		
47	54.8944	51.1357	42.1892	46.8015		
48	51.2086	47.2925	37.6784	50.9938		
49	66.9365	44.8623	51.8450	50.9235		
50	55.1031	59.5439	66.4212	54.4946		
51	56.2035	72.9132	34.6232	36.8619		
52	60.6446	41.8603	61.7479	76.3099		
53	56.8769	50.5026	56.1369	56.2984		
54	45.1221	49.2962	81.0078	58.5620		
55	55.8360	41.2167	60.7945	49.7347		
56	27.5502	25.3678	46.5777	63.2105		
57	47.7381	50.8386	40.9525	56.4785		

APPENDIX B-4

FACTOR SCORES IN T - SCORE FORM FOR 18 VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS

SCHOOL DISTRICT	FACTORS			
	15	16	17	18
58	40.2943	35.2644	49.6921	45.9200
59	49.9223	45.9954	67.0545	45.6487
60	46.9470	64.6569	73.4746	34.3594
61	47.4242	46.4871	60.2861	46.5683
62	39.6131	47.6066	52.1611	40.4269
63	46.3262	58.8340	50.5542	36.0883
64	53.7620	43.5832	60.5018	46.4977
65	46.4839	44.2565	54.7337	31.0894
66	49.1985	37.5786	42.9610	60.3081
67	55.7205	40.7657	51.0669	48.8360
68	38.4949	51.2036	44.7931	64.1834
69	62.9559	38.7426	44.8791	40.5029
70	57.9168	35.6899	49.4001	56.2199
71	58.5534	49.6585	47.0997	57.2864
72	59.1437	57.0948	39.5050	38.8226
75	56.3396	41.9712	58.5047	58.9571
76	79.6363	46.2064	59.8807	54.1749
78	40.8786	40.4637	39.0766	62.5964
79	52.2146	73.6884	55.7576	44.4253
80	44.3944	24.6659	32.9616	17.8233
82	43.1545	43.7942	47.8177	50.0152
84	38.4272	66.1571	56.8290	65.3271
85	34.4392	41.7467	36.0114	52.8119
86	57.8362	47.5579	53.7258	52.7558

APPENDIX C

**The Canonical Regression Analysis of the School
District Factors and the Mental Disorder Rates**

APPENDIX C-1

CROSS PRODUCT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIAGNOSTIC FREQUENCIES

(LOWER TRIANGLE, DECIMALS OMITTED)

DIAGNOSIS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	572								
3	688	612							
4	676	601	633						
5	713	652	793	758					
6	749	597	661	571	690				
7	830	742	766	692	790	763			
8	681	625	652	637	734	656	844		
9	510	684	679	590	769	619	674	605	648
10	688	613	649	481	683	693	715	570	762
11	663	621	765	572	752	723	752	645	525
12	513	643	499	426	554	541	638	525	562
13	757	733	779	717	849	740	793	647	746
	10	11	12						
11	873								
12	535	584							
13	710	756	652						

APPENDIX C-2

CROSS PRODUCT-PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIAGNOSTIC
FREQUENCIES AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR SCORES (DECIMALS OMITTED)

DIAGNOSIS	ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	-053	038	-064	049	229	100	026	055	-078
2	085	231	126	060	-097	-055	068	012	-178
3	-075	135	-096	020	-046	-117	-004	034	-104
4	057	224	-081	-038	019	151	-149	-051	-146
5	070	103	-098	112	-018	063	-025	019	-136
6	092	097	-028	162	029	-013	-125	044	-111
7	130	136	-038	040	-001	-031	-038	061	-200
8	235	128	-065	055	079	-008	-122	051	-219
9	133	187	015	144	-038	-088	-112	001	-031
10	071	113	-087	112	025	010	090	003	-137
11	080	195	-127	110	-064	-007	-127	068	-081
12	080	124	081	001	-029	-015	-058	-047	-099
13	-000	-001	000	-000	000	000	000	-000	001

APPENDIX C-2

CROSS PRODUCT-PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIAGNOSTIC
 FREQUENCIES AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR SCORES (DECIMALS OMITTED)

DIAGNOSIS	ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS																	
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18									
1	-159	031	120	-085	051	-002	-003	037	012									
2	-036	-039	047	050	-036	-018	072	045	-034									
3	-134	005	025	-130	-123	018	-060	017	-020									
4	-095	026	-126	032	107	-041	003	-073	-100									
5	-082	006	-080	044	-071	087	-003	037	022									
6	-138	081	268	-018	163	-065	-043	064	066									
7	-181	012	072	-086	-010	-057	095	044	-098									
8	-222	-057	157	-052	-059	061	174	-126	-158									
9	000	007	051	-085	-100	051	003	090	-088									
10	-035	019	239	003	-151	012	038	141	049									
11	-041	072	161	-043	-099	033	-027	145	-029									
12	062	-015	179	193	-157	016	-004	086	012									
13	001	-000	-001	000	000	-000	-000	-000	000									

APPENDIX C-3

CANONICAL COMPONENT LOADINGS AND MEASURES OF REDUNDANCY
(DECIMALS OMITTED)

Diagnosis	Canonical Component Pairs							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	040	186	-106	300	029	411	-178	-137
2	254	099	310	-115	-112	-045	-215	-104
3	127	085	069	-040	-359	311	068	-229
4	342	-161	-053	-107	290	312	-049	-318
5	162	-022	222	-016	070	359	045	148
6	355	085	004	476	-071	-005	-243	008
7	379	192	026	-042	-126	229	-187	010
8	488	456	-027	-072	139	251	011	069
9	298	081	130	032	-235	029	276	108
10	135	272	351	228	-146	144	-020	003
11	339	042	204	217	-221	170	254	011
12	148	126	394	093	068	-247	168	-188
13	000	000	-001	-000	001	-003	000	001
Contribution to Redundancy	.0506	.0184	.0199	.0162	.0117	.0162	.0073	.0038
% Contribution to Redundancy	33.35	12.13	13.12	10.68	7.71	10.68	4.81	2.50
Environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	438	185	073	-106	216	-196	017	469
2	446	-116	285	-002	-121	191	084	-481
3	-083	058	026	-055	-048	-425	-200	-037
4	118	024	193	344	-115	147	-041	449
5	-223	369	-261	317	276	309	039	-147
6	-032	-174	038	154	544	305	-000	-007
7	-472	222	273	-175	-149	120	-478	037
8	067	-034	-099	082	-175	170	-002	304
9	-316	-142	-336	137	-073	-252	381	128
10	-221	-193	151	-015	075	-400	303	022
11	093	-232	-042	203	-083	042	-004	027
12	160	541	078	571	-083	-353	019	-214
13	-041	-148	463	044	528	-244	-022	-047
14	168	-340	-428	258	186	-143	-510	047
15	-122	135	141	038	131	231	389	231
16	118	319	-040	-287	151	-050	-140	255
17	006	-232	287	256	-347	067	006	196
18	-263	-127	277	319	024	-008	-228	074
Contribution to Redundancy	.0374	.0295	.0287	.0256	.0210	.0162	.0148	.0101
% Contribution to Redundancy	18.65	14.71	14.31	12.77	10.47	8.08	7.38	5.04
Canonical Correlations	.822	.750	.720	.681	.617	.543	.522	.440

APPENDIX C-3

CANONICAL COMPONENT LOADINGS AND MEASURES OF REDUNDANCY

(DECIMALS OMITTED)

Diagnosis	Canonical Component Pairs					
	9	10	11	12	13	
1	-101	-144	-115	-149	758	
2	-331	179	-237	081	734	
3	232	149	038	-047	780	
4	-119	024	156	039	717	
5	050	127	136	-075	850	
6	128	066	072	-051	741	
7	-034	-152	-089	-224	794	
8	065	107	-118	-107	648	
9	-309	127	272	010	746	
10	022	-350	069	242	711	
11	071	-198	-086	166	757	
12	-081	-083	-167	-449	652	Total
13	001	-001	001	002	1.000	Redundant Variance
Contribution to Redundancy	.0032	.0026	.0009	.0009	.0000	.1517
% Contribution to Redundancy	2.11	1.71	.59	.59	.00	
Environment	9	10	11	12	13	
1	-092	-132	263	-022	324	
2	-393	165	-065	323	-009	
3	-544	330	-221	-341	-039	
4	-186	347	306	147	-177	
5	-379	-059	153	-313	121	
6	-167	-304	-153	214	052	
7	-142	-116	-008	365	018	
8	046	028	-747	-018	356	
9	-149	000	-017	238	-304	
10	-241	-179	074	331	384	
11	061	-215	000	-022	-407	
12	190	-153	-181	206	-005	
13	134	073	-207	-244	-246	
14	-084	151	-040	230	039	
15	-015	415	-209	125	-087	
16	-140	-229	-192	202	-467	
17	-280	-481	-048	-321	-065	Total
18	264	174	116	022	143	Redundant Variance
Contribution to Redundancy	.0070	.0059	.0026	.0017	.0000	.2005
% Contribution to Redundancy	3.49	2.94	1.30	.89	.00	
Canonical Correlations	.366	.329	.216	.177	.000	