Institut de la statistique Québec

# QUÉBEC LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT (QLSCD 1998-2002)

## FROM BIRTH TO 29 MONTHS

COLLECTION **Health and Wellness**

## Standard or Non-Standard Parental Work Schedules and Childcare Arrangements

Volume 2, Number 10

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# Foreword

The publication of this second volume of the QLSCD 1998-2002 series is the result of close collaboration among university researchers, the public health network and the *Direction Santé Québec*[1] (Health Québec Division) of the *Institut de la statistique du Québec* – ISQ (Québec Institute of Statistics), who have been working on this project since 1996.

Two years after the publication of Volume 1 in this series, an interdisciplinary group of more than 80 researchers contributed to producing this second volume, which presents the very first longitudinal results of our survey. These much-anticipated results describe the environment and development of the children based on the first three data collections conducted when they were 5, 17 and 29 months of age. To fully comprehend the importance of these data on early childhood, I would like to remind the reader of the primary goal of the Québec Longitudinal Study of Child Development 1998-2002 as stated in Volume 1 of this series. The QLSCD will help gain a better understanding of the PRECURSORS of social adjustment by first studying adjustment to school, identifying adjustment PATHS and PROCESSES, and examining the CONSEQUENCES of these later in life.

By analyzing data from the first three years of the survey, the ISQ is pleased to be associated with the development of a such powerful survey and research instrument, and particularly with the accomplishment of a study that will serve both as a preventive tool and an aid in the design of effective early interventions. As Director General, I cannot help but take great pride in the model of partnership which has produced such impressive results, many of which may indeed be harbingers of the future.

Yvon Fortin
Director General

1. Certain French appellation in italics in the text do not have official English translations. The first time one of these appears, the unofficial English translation is shown immediately after it. Following this, for ease in reading, only the official French name appears in the text in italics and it is suggested the reader refer to the Glossary for the English translation.

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This analytical paper is also available in French. Ce numéro est aussi disponible en version française sous le titre :

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**A Word of Caution, Symbols and Abbreviations can be found in Section "Review of Methodology and Caution"**

# Acknowledgements

Given that the QLSCD 1998-2002 has been in existence for more than six years, the task of thanking each person who has collaborated on the project seems daunting, and frankly, nearly impossible. Each year new colleagues join those who have been with us from the very beginning, and they in turn have faced innumerable logistical and methodological challenges, whether in terms of the contents of the survey or navigating their way through a world of knowledge which is in a state of constant progress.

Indeed, the network of university researchers associated with the QLSCD now stretches across Québec to include the rest of Canada and beyond our nation's borders. Hence the wealth of data from this survey is being disseminated through a variety of channels, whether in post-doctoral work being pursued by young researchers outside of Québec, or the multiplier effect of seasoned veterans constantly establishing new international working relationships in this era of the globalization of knowledge. This multiplication of partnerships is closely linked to the exceptional leadership shown by the scientific director of the QLSCD. In addition to contributing to the advance of knowledge, our "conglomerate" of research teams has resulted in the injection of significant funds devoted to analyzing the wealth of data being generated. Indeed, the pooling of research funds obtained through the excellence of the scholars involved has maximized the investment in the QLSCD 1998-2002 by the *ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux* (Minstry of Health and Social Services), sole sponsor of the project's 10 data collections, surveys and pretests.

New partners in our public health network are constantly joining this ever-expanding group of researchers. Increasing numbers of health professionals are becoming actively involved in the QLSCD, coming from the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance*, the education network, etc.

The increase in the number of external experts and growing complexity of this first provincial longitudinal study has led to more ISQ staff devoting their time, in whole or in part, to the QLSCD. New statisticians from the *Direction de la méthodologie, de la démographie et des enquêtes spéciales – DMDES* are now associated with the survey. Their tasks include addressing all questions related to the sample design, analyzing the results of the annual data collections in terms of response rates, and producing the weights required to infer the results to the population of children targeted by this large-scale survey. They also provided support to QLSCD researchers in conducting statistical analyses published in this report. With regards to the *Direction Santé Québec (DSQ)*, chief architect of the QLSCD, it was necessary to hire two people experienced in longitudinal analyses to consolidate the rather small team who have been overseeing the surveys year after year, with all the intense concentration of energy this implies. By coordinating the work of numerous partners, developing new tools and instruments to understand the real world of the growing child, closely collaborating with the survey firm collecting the data, and participating in the dissemination of knowledge by publishing original analyses, the seven members of the *Direction Santé Québec* QLSCD team have accomplished their mission with remarkable success.

Over the years, another partnership that continues to flourish is the one we have with the coordinators of the National Longitudinal Study of Children and Youth (NLSCY, Canada). The fact that these pioneers allowed the QLSCD to use certain instruments administered by the CAPI (Computer Assisted Personal Interview) has meant that our Québec longitudinal study is complementary and comparable to this large-scale Canadian study, and at a reasonable cost.

Québec hospitals, who continually face many challenges because of increasing demands for efficiency, are also important partners in our study, as are birthing centres. They manage to weather whatever storms they face by continuing each year to provide certain data from the medical records of the mothers and children. These data are sent to us with the strict proviso that the mothers have furnished prior written consent.

The *Bureau d'interviewers professionnels (BIP)*, the survey firm, continues to be an indispensable partner in arranging and conducting this first large-scale survey of a cohort of Québec children. BIP, masterfully managed with a hands-on approach by its president, is responsible for organizing and ensuring the smooth functioning of the annual data collections in both the pretests and surveys. Their data is of invariably high quality, and the data banks they produce biannually retain a high degree of reliability. BIP's team of interviewers[1] and recruiters, skilfully supervised by a seasoned veteran of field work, has become expert in winning and maintaining the loyalty of the some 2,000 families who annually participate.

Finally, we would like to single out the exceptional participation of Québec families. We truly believe that the success of the QLSCD comes first and foremost from the hours of precious time they grant us every year, during which we feel privileged to share moments in the lives of their little munchkins who, in 2000, were 2½ years of age.

Acknowledging how difficult it is to truly thank everyone who contributed to the day-to-day accomplishment of this Québec first, we would like to cite the words of Serge Bouchard:

> Progress is a totally collective process in both time and space. We owe so much to others… We desire a society of good people…, because there is a link between individual and collective excellence.[2]

A heartfelt thank-you!

Mireille Jetté
Coordinator
*Direction Santé Québec*,
*Institut de la statistique du Québec*

1. All the interviewers in this survey were women.

2. BOUCHARD, Serge (2001). "Je ne suis pas seul sur terre"*, Le Devoir Édition Internet*, 23 juillet. (Unofficial translation).

# Introduction to QLSCD 1998-2002

When this second report is published, the children in the QLSCD study will have begun their fifth year on this planet. Despite the use of extraordinary tools to closely monitor their development, it is obvious that, in early childhood, development is too fast for science to keep up with.

In our first report, we described our observations concerning the data collected five months after birth. Because of the cross-sectional nature of these observations, our study was limited to describing the characteristics of the children and their families. We mainly wanted to describe the situation of babies born in Québec in 1997 and 1998. Bursting with enthusiasm and eager to understand things, the researchers who, at the time, provided the broad strokes of analyses to explain the observed characteristics were fully aware those were just the first in a long series of analyses designed to provide a deeper understanding of children's development.

This second report, however, is based on the collective data gathered when the children were respectively 5, 17 and 29 months old. At last, we can now describe the changes that occur in the lives of children and their families from birth to the third year. This is the first time that such a large sample of Québec newborns has been studied as intensively during early childhood. As far as we know, this is the very first time since science began studying children's developmental that researchers have tried to understand the factors leading to academic success or failure by collecting data as frequently as this from such a large sample of such young children.

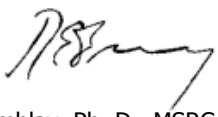
Researchers now have available more data than ever before about this stage of life. But this abundance of data has a perverse effect. If cross-sectional studies allow us to draw conclusions on the causes of problems observed, why shouldn't we go ahead and indulge in longitudinal data as well? When one has access to data available to no one else, it is easy to forget the limitations of such data. However, while the researchers involved in drafting this report tried to obtain the maximum benefit from prospective longitudinal data collected at three different stages during early childhood (at 12-month intervals), they also accepted to respect the limitations of this data.

This prospective longitudinal study allows us to describe the changes over time for each measured variable concerning each individual. The researchers thus recorded the changes during the first three years of the children's lives. Profiles of children, parents and families as well as some developmental trajectories were drawn based on the data collected during these three stages. These original results should facilitate discerning the beginning of the course taken by the children and their families. However, it is important to remember that these results only described the first three points of a curve that ideally should comprise fifteen points of time. Since in most cases, it is not very likely that behaviour is consolidated at 2½ years, we asked the authors to primarily limit themselves to describing the development of observable changes. It is obviously too early in the child's life for us to attempt causal analyses in order to identify determinants, especially since these would only be associations. Finally, whenever we approach a problem, our questions are generally much too simplistic. Longitudinal studies such as the QLSCD indicate that there are many ways to observe a problem and that it is dangerous to draw definitive conclusions after the first analyses, no matter how brilliant these appear to be.

It is important to remember that the main objective of the QLSCD is to understand the paths during early childhood that lead to success or failure once the child enters the school system. In order to successfully reach this objective, we must obviously wait for information collected once the child begins school. The QLSCD children will complete their first school year in the spring of 2005. At the time when this report will be published, they will be old enough to enter Junior Kindergarten, which some of them have done in September 2002. Data collection is also planned for the end of Junior Kindergarten year (spring 2003) and at the end of Senior Kindergarten (spring 2004). If, as desired, these significant data collections are funded, the information generated will allow us to check the level of preparation for school at the entry into the first cycle of elementary school.

Later during this longitudinal study, description of the developmental trajectories of these children is planned throughout their school years. If, following the example of many researchers in Québec, the Québec Government confirms its financial involvement in pursuing QLSCD throughout the children's elementary and secondary school, we can increase our understanding of the factors that lead to academic success and therefore be in the best possible position to improve support to the all-too-many children for whom school is an endless succession of failures.

Through recent discoveries about the development of the human brain, we have come to see the importance of investing early in children's development, just as it is important to invest early in our pension plans. Longitudinal studies on the development of children must obviously be based on the same principle. They must begin as soon as possible, and this is what the *ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux* did as early as 1997, by investing nearly $5 million in a study on Québec children aged 5 to 54 months old. And obviously, just like for a pension plan, in order for these investments to bear fruit and provide the best possible returns, they must be maintained and even increased.



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# Review of Methodology and Caution

The Québec Longitudinal Study of Child Development (QLSCD 1998-2002), launched in 1998, is being conducted on a cohort of nearly 2,000 children surveyed annually from the age of 5 months to approximately 4 years. This second volume covers longitudinal data from the first three rounds when the children were approximately 5, 17 and 29 months.

The longitudinal analyses of data collected in the 1998, 1999 and 2000 rounds allow inferences to be made to the population of children born in Québec in 1997 and 1998 (singleton births) who in 2000 were still living in Québec or who had only left the province temporarily. Therefore, in terms of the methodological approach, choosing not to sample children from those who arrived in Québec after birth limits inferences to this population.

Participation of families in the 1999 and 2000 rounds of QLSCD was excellent. Indeed, 94% of families who participated in the 1998 round continued to participate in the second and third rounds, for a 71%[1] longitudinal response rate for the two main questionnaires, the Interviewer Completed Computerized Questionnaire (ICCQ) and the Interviewer Completed Paper Questionnaire (ICPQ). Response rates for the Self-Administered Questionnaire for the Mother (SAQM) and Self-Administered Questionnaire for the Father (SAQF) remained stable from 1998 to 2000, namely 96% for the former and 90% for the latter, among annual respondents to the ICCQ. However, since respondent families were not necessarily the same from one round to the next, the weighted proportion of families who participated in all the rounds was lower, namely 92% for the SAQM and 83% for the SAQF, among respondents to the ICCQ in all three rounds (n = 1,985). The longitudinal response rates of these instruments, obtained by multiplying the weighted proportion of longitudinal respondents to the SAQM or SAQF by the longitudinal response rate of the ICCQ, were 65% and 59% respectively.

It was decided to minimize potential biases induced by non-response by adjusting the weights based on characteristics differentiating respondents from non-respondents for the five major instruments of QLSCD – the ICCQ, ICPQ, SAQM, SAQF and the IST (Imitation Sorting Task testing cognitive development). Since only respondents to the 1998 round were eligible for longitudinal study, longitudinal weights were based on the cross-sectional weights of the ICCQ calculated in 1998. In addition, for longitudinal analyses involving data from the SAQM, SAQF or IST, an additional adjustment to the weights was required to compensate for overall longitudinal non-response in each of these instruments. Unfortunately, in the third round as in the first, even though the response rates of non-resident fathers improved, it was impossible to weight their data since response rates to the SAQFABS were still too low.

Moreover, given QLSCD's complex sample design, it was important that the variance associated with the estimates was correctly identified. This required using a software program that could take into account the complex sample design, otherwise the variance would tend to be underestimated, thereby resulting in a threshold of statistical significance that would be too low. SUDAAN (Survey Data Analysis; Shah *et al.*, 1997) was therefore used for prevalence estimates, chi-square tests, repeated measures analyses of variance, linear regressions, logistic regressions and Cox regressions. The threshold of significance for these statistical tests was set at 0.05. With regards to other tests not supported by SUDAAN such as the McNemar, the threshold was lowered to 0.01 to prevent identifying results as significant that might not be, given the complex sample design.

All the data presented that have a coefficient of variation (CV) higher than 15% are accompanied by one or two asterisks to clearly indicate their variability.

N.B. For further information on the survey's methodology, please read Number 1 of both Volume 1 and Volume 2. For more detailed information on the sources and justifications of questions used in the first three rounds of QLSCD as well as the components of the scales and indexes, please read Number 12 of both Volume 1 and Volume 2.

1. The unweighted number of families who responded to QLSCD went from 2,120 in 1998 to 2,045 in 1999, to 1,997 in 2000. The number of families who participated in the three rounds of the survey was 1,985 (namely 94% of the 2,120 families in the first round).

## Caution

Unless indicated otherwise, "n" in the tables represents the sum of the individual weights reset to the size of the initial sample. This quantity is used to estimate the prevalences, and is slightly different from the real sample, namely the number of children in a given sub-group. In the body of the text, the number presented to describe the sample size also represents the sum of the individual weights reset to the size of the initial sample. This occurs when an analysis concerns a particular sub-group. The weighted frequency in these cases serves only as a link with the tables. The real sample size, and coefficient of variation remain the quantity to interpret as far as the precision of the estimates is concerned.

Because the data were rounded off, totals do not necessarily correspond to the sum of the parts.

Unless explicitly stated otherwise, all the differences presented in this report are statistically significant to a confidence level of 95%.

To facilitate readability, proportions higher that 5% were rounded off to the nearest whole unit in the text, and to the nearest decimal in the tables and figures.

## Symbols

.. Data not available
… Not applicable (N/A)
- Nil or zero
p < Refers to the threshold of significance

## Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| CV | Coefficient of variation |
| Not signif. | Not significant |

# Standard and Non-Standard Parental Work Schedules and Childcare Arrangements

# Introduction

In recent decades, a great many economic changes have taken place, especially in the labour market. In particular, there has been a marked growth in non-standard employment, that is, those jobs that, in one way or another, differ from regular full-time employment with its standard daytime, Monday-through-Friday work schedules.

Today such non-standard jobs may be found in virtually all sectors of the economy, despite an apparent tendency for them to be more common in the vast and ever-growing service sector. Moreover, this upsurge in non-standard jobs seem to be affecting all types of employment and all categories of worker.

Parents with young children are not spared the realities of non-standard employment, despite the inevitable strains it places on the balance between professional and family responsibilities. How do these parents manage their childcare arrangements, given that childcare services are generally organized for users with standard work schedules?

This is the question we will attempt to answer in this analysis of data from the *Québec Longitudinal Study of Child Development* (*QLSCD*).

The first section will look at aspects of these issues relevant to the present analysis, mainly those concerned with non-standard employment and its effects on the use of childcare services. Based on information presented in the studies consulted, questions will be formulated and their results presented. The final section of the document will consider the results in the light of relevant public policy.

# 1. The increase in non-standard employment and its effects on childcare

## 1.1 The increase in non-standard employment[1]

In recent decades the economy and the labour market have witnessed significant changes, the effects of which we are beginning to better understand. One of the most important of these changes has been the gradual transformation of employment from a standard model to an increasingly non-standard one.

What are the reasons behind these changes? How should non-standard jobs be defined? What are their main characteristics? What work schedules accompany these jobs? Lastly, how have parents with young children been affected by these changes? These are the questions we will consider in this section.

### *1.1.1 Evolution of the labour market in recent decades: some observations*[2]

The starting point for these economic changes is often considered to be the greater openness of national economies to foreign economies, and the increased competition that results. This opening of national markets has been promoted by various political and economic agreements and accords, but it also results from extensive changes in information technology and communications.

From a historical perspective, economic globalization, information technology and the "dematerialization" of work are gradually undermining the unity of time, space and action that characterized the industrial era (Goldfinger, 1998). According to Goldfinger, the world of work has taken on new rhythms, what is considered a normal day and a normal week is gradually being transformed both in length and in intensity, jobs are leaving the familiar workplaces of office or factory, telework is gaining ground and, lastly, immediacy reigns supreme, because of "constant information profusion". The increasingly widespread use of computers, the Internet, fax machines and cell phones provides tangible proof of this.

Aside from these changes, we are seeing the transition from an economy based fundamentally on manufacturing to one based on services. In Canada between 1971 and 1996, 88% of all new jobs created are estimated to have been in the service sector (Drouin, 2001). The changes we associate with the new economy have been strongly influenced by the dizzying rise of the third sector, which is based on the knowledge of individuals more than on raw materials.

Another important change in recent decades has been the arrival on the labour market of new categories of workers, such as young people who work and study at the same time, retirees who are willing to work on an irregular basis, and young mothers.

All these changes have come together in a labour market in which the rules and jobs differ increasingly from former norms.

The effect of these underlying trends is that organizations often must recognize a new survival imperative: flexibility. To survive and prosper in the new economy, organizations must innovate, adapting quickly to the new needs of their clients, or to new clients altogether. As explained by Tremblay (1994, quoted in Desrochers, 2000), organizations seek various forms of flexibility: flexibility in labour costs (lowest possible salaries and reduced fringe benefits); technical and organizational flexibility (flexible use of productive equipment and versatility on the part of employees); flexibility in employment status (e.g., increased use of sub-contracting); and flexibility in working hours (adjustment of working hours to the specific level of demand).

1. This first section summarizes several parts of an analysis recently prepared by the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance* (2003).

2. Several elements of analysis presented in this section come from Desrochers (2000) and Drouin (2001).

The latter two types of flexibility are examples of numerical flexibility, a range of practices that enable employers to increase or decrease their labour force according to variations in the needs of production (Drouin, 2001). This flexibility involves anything that can be categorized as "non-standard" employment, in other words, any type of work that differs from full-time, permanent work, and includes the diversification of working hours and schedules (OECD, 1998).

In other words, we are fully engaged in an economy characterized by the disappearance of lifelong employment, by subcontracting, by non-standard jobs, by increased specialization—but also, for a large proportion of the workforce, by an increase in unemployment and insecurity, especially in the area of social benefits that have become inaccessible or are unsuited to these new realities.[3]

### *1.1.2 Non-standard jobs and schedules: implications and characteristics*

There is no clear and precise definition of non-standard labour or employment, which is sometimes known as "atypical" or "irregular" employment. Most often a non-standard job is defined in opposition to a standard or typical job, particularly its legal status, and the applicability of statutory social benefits and working conditions. Using this approach, Desrochers (2000) has proposed a typology of non-standard employment, whose fundamental characteristic is its divergence from standard employment. A job is considered standard if has the following characteristics:

- the job is full-time, all year round, generally with a weekly duration of between 35 and 45 hours;
- the work takes place in a location determined by the employer, generally in the employer's place of business;
- the employment contract is open-ended;
- standard social benefits are applicable;
- the job is done by one individual in return for a salary;
- the employee has only one job.

Based on these characteristics, we can identify the following main types of non-standard employment:

- part-time work;
- self-employment;
- contract work;
- home-based work and telework[4]

Within each of these types of non-standard employment, conditions may vary greatly from one job to another, or from one employer to another, and, as a result, involve a greater or lesser level of job insecurity. For example, a part-time job may provide the whole range of benefits available to full-time workers or it may provide none at all. As a result, the greater or lesser degree of social benefits associated with such jobs, along with the working conditions they involve, are often another way of identifying non-standard employment (Bernier *et al.*, 2001).

#### *Significant growth in Québec*

The rapid growth of non-standard employment is seen as one of the key aspects of recent labour-market changes. What is significant is the increasing proportion of non-standard jobs among all newly created jobs (Matte *et al.*, 1998). It is estimated that in Québec in 1995, non-standard employment made up between 29% and 36% of all jobs, affecting 925,000 to 1,150,000 people (Matte *et al.*, 1998). Self-employment and part-time work are the two types of non-standard employment whose development has been particularly rapid. In fact, it is estimated that three-quarters of all new jobs created in Québec between 1975 and 1995 fell into these categories (Matte *et al.*, 1998).

3. Statistics Canada's most recent *Survey of Work Arrangements* (1995) confirms that in the case of temporary and part-time work, access to benefits such as a pension plan, a health plan, paid sick days or paid vacations is very low compared to full-time and permanent jobs; the same is true of the average hourly wage, which is clearly lower for part-time and temporary work (Lipsett and Reesor, 1997). Note that in this area, an expert committee under the *ministère du Travail* (Ministry of Labour) is currently considering "the need for protection for people in a non-traditional work situation". For details, see www.travail.gouv.qc.ca/quoi_de_neuf/actualite/fs_atypique.html

4. Home-based work and telework are not necessarily clearly defined types of work or employment status, but they can be seen as specific modes of work organization, similar to sub-contracting or the use of employment agencies.

***Increasingly varied work schedules***

Since these types of employment have arisen to a great extent out of the drive by businesses to increase their flexibility, they are often also characterized by work schedules that do not match the 9-to-5, Monday-to-Friday norm. In order to meet the needs of increasingly demanding customers and clients, and to respond to them in the shortest possible time, businesses have been implementing more varied work schedules. The use of non-standard employment thus also takes the form of increasingly diverse work schedules, both in the days worked in the week and in the hours worked in the day. These trends can be observed in most developed economies (Fondation européenne, 2002).

Prévost and Messing (1995) have eloquently reported on the existence of this phenomenon in Québec within a large Canadian telecommunications company. By fixing work schedules as late as possible before they take effect, this employer strives to reduce waiting times for customers as much as possible while at the same time avoiding overstaffing relative to the volume of calls.

Among other changes, recent years have witnessed an increasing polarization in the number of hours worked each week, with major portions of the workforce working either very long or very short hours (Shields, 2000). These two extremes may be observed in traditional employment, but they are also prevalent in non-standard employment. Finally, non-standard employment also implies sporadic employment, with successive periods of employment and unemployment (Lipsett and Reesor, 1997).

In Canada, *The Survey of Work Arrangements* conducted by Statistics Canada in 1991 and 1995 (and not repeated since), showed that the proportion of workers on day schedules dropped by two percentage points between the two years. The same period saw an increase in shift work, night work, evening work and irregular schedules, as well as split shifts.[5] These increases varied from a few tenths of a percent to a full percentage point in the case of shift work. The statistics show that in Canada in 1995:

- 13% of the workforce worked days other than Monday to Friday; and
- 32% of the workforce worked shifts other than regular day shifts (Lipsett and Reesor, 1997).

More specifically, among workers with other than daytime work schedules:

- women tended to work more irregular shifts than men, who tended to work shifts with scheduled rotations;
- mothers with children younger than 6 years old nevertheless had fewer irregular shifts than those with older children (Johnson, 1997).

### *1.1.3 Characteristics of non-standard employment and its workforce*

Presser observes that in the United States in 1991, non-standard employment was present in all employment categories, but that the service sector was the most affected, in particular personal services and the restaurant sector. Despite a sexual division of labour that is still pronounced, the move to an economy based on services, available 24 hours a day, seven days a week, is affecting the daily and weekly schedules of both men and women in the same way (Presser, 2000).

Using the same data, Presser and Cox (1997) have also remarked that the lower a person's educational level, the more likely the person is to work non-standard schedules. It would also appear that, for many mothers with little education, non-standard employment is seen not as a personal choice, but as a requirement of the labour market.

The situation is the same in Canada. In 1995, temporary work (contract, on call, or seasonal) made up 72.2% of employment in the service sector, whereas this sector represented only 66.7% of total employment (Lipsett and Reesor, 1997).

Comparable figures are not available for Québec, but given the similarity in their economies, there is no reason to assume that the situation is very different here from those seen in Canada and the United States.

5. Dion (1986) defines a split shift as follows: "a work schedule divided into two or more periods, separated by relatively lengthy periods of time."

At the same time, studies show that non-standard employment affects women more than men. Townson estimates that, in Canada, 40% of paid work by women and 27% of paid work by men fall into the category of non-standard employment (Townson, 2000). As well, the workforce in these jobs is predominantly women, especially women from visible minorities or with a low socioeconomic status. This observation applies to North America as well as to Europe and Australia (Zeytinoglu and Muteshi, 2000).

In Québec, a recent study by the *Conseil du statut de la femme* (Council for Women Status) reached essentially the same conclusions, although noting that men are also increasingly present in this type of work (Desrochers, 2000). The author says, in fact :

> …the disadvantages of non-standard work have always affected women more than men, and this situation continues. […] However, the transformation of the labour market and the negative effects this transformation has had on the male workforce means that men are increasingly competing with women for these lower-quality jobs.

Matte *et al.* (1998), from their analysis of the development of the main forms of non-standard employment in Québec from 1976 to 1995, also observed a reversal of the existing situation, with an increasing number of men in non-standard jobs. For example, although women were twice as likely as men to have part-time jobs, during the period studied more men than women were moving into such positions. In the case of self-employment, however, the opposite situation obtains, since the traditional male dominance in this area has been somewhat reduced.

#### *1.1.4 The substantial impact of non-standard employment on parents of young children*

Two sources of data have recently confirmed that non-standard employment, particularly as it concerns work schedules, is affecting a significant proportion of parents of young children, a phenomenon that had already been noted at the start of the 1990s (Lero *et al.*, 1992).

Firstly, data from the first two rounds of the *National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth* (NLSCY), analyzed for Québec by Marcil-Gratton and Le Bourdais (2000), showed that only 44% of two-parent families were made up of parents working regular hours. Excluding the 4% of families where both parents were unemployed, in 52% of families at least one parent worked a non-standard schedule (evenings, nights, or weekends). This situation affected young families, where the mother was under 30, in particular. The data showed, however, that the greater the number of children (3 or more) and the lower their ages (0 to 11 years), the less parents (probably the mother) tended to work non-standard hours. Lastly, another important conclusion was that two-parent middle-income families were more likely to work non-standard schedules than two-parent higher-income families.

Furthermore, a recent study by the ISQ (2001) for the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance* concerning childcare use and the preferences of parents with children under 5 showed that in families where the single parent or both parents worked or studied:

- in 66.4% of families both parents, or the single parent, had regular hours;[6]
- in 25.6% of families, one parent had regular hours, whereas the other had non-standard hours; and
- in 8.0% of families both parents, or the single parent, had non-standard hours.

If we combine the latter two categories, we see that in one-third of Québec families the single parent or at least one of the parents studied or worked non-standard hours.

6. For the purposes of this study, regular working hours are considered to be during the day on weekdays; consequently, working or studying evenings or nights, on the weekend, or on a rotating schedule is considered non-standard employment.

## 1.2 Non-standard employment and childcare

If there is one single question that must be resolved by working parents with young children, it is clearly that of childcare. No matter what schedules the parents work, the need to balance family and work often requires a complicated juggling of various childcare arrangements. Although this may be complicated, it can also increase the parents' confidence, since if one childcare arrangement fails, another can be used (Vanpée *et al.*, 2000; Capizzano and Adams, 2000). If the parents occupy non-standard jobs, however, their work schedules may be determined at the last minute, or a relatively short time before they must begin working. The situation is even worse for parents who work on call, who may be required to be available at virtually any moment, or for self-employed parents, for whom a contract may depend on how quickly they are able to deliver the product. Such situations complicate the organization of childcare considerably (Fagnani, 1999; Prévost and Messing, 1995).

In general, four basic effects of non-standard employment have emerged from the literature:

1. in general, childcare services do not meet the specific needs of parents with non-standard schedules;
2. these parents are obliged to make use of various types of childcare;
3. these often include the extended family and various informal childcare resources; and
4. fathers who work in non-standard jobs, or whose spouses do, take a greater role in caring for their children.

Each of these aspects will be considered briefly in the following pages.

### *1.2.1 Childcare services that do not meet parents' needs*

Various studies show that parents with non-standard schedules or jobs must deal with childcare services that do not correspond to their particular needs (Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, 1998; Jagadeesh Branch *et al.*, 2001; Coombe, 1999; Fagnani, 1999).

A study by VandenHeuvel (1996), however, shows that among mothers with non-standard jobs who do not use formal childcare services, very few cite the lack of places or high costs. One explanation put forward by the author is that women who have greater access to informal childcare arrangements are the ones who tend to take on non-standard employment. The author admits, though, that further studies are required to determine the extent to which a mother's childcare options determine how she participates in the paid labour force, especially as far as schedules are concerned.

In Canada, Foster and Broad (1998) organized group discussions with Saskatchewan and Manitoba parents who had non-standard jobs or schedules. These parents' comments on their childcare arrangements showed that they used a broad gamut of possible "solutions", some of which were often little more than stop-gaps. Specifically, parents mentioned that they had:

- passed up jobs or promotions in order to work in areas where childcare was available;
- rearranged the two spouses' work schedules so they could "off-shift", that is, not both work at the same time;
- used more than one childcare service, a practice that is more expensive because all the services used are not necessarily subsidized, and despite the fact that they know that an important factor in quality childcare is regularity and continuity of care in the same environment;
- left children alone without a caregiver;
- organized their work schedules according to the availability of childcare;
- in the case of families with two working parents, changed their work schedules regularly to ensure that one parent was always at home.

Given their difficulties in arranging childcare, it is hardly surprising that absenteeism is sometimes the only solution open to them (Coombe, 1999; Fagnani, 1999).

### *1.2.2 Use of various types of childcare*

Another consequence for parents obliged to find care for their children on a non-standard schedule is the necessity to use several types of childcare, generally because formal childcare services are simply not available 24 hours a day, seven days a week.

In the United States, Fox Folk and Yi (1994) have noted that parents who must work a non-standard schedule every week (possibly including evenings and weekends) are twice as likely to make use of multiple types of childcare.

Furthermore, an Australian study shows that certain groups of mothers are more likely than others to combine various childcare arrangements, both formal and informal. This is the case, for example, for mothers whose youngest child is of school age and who must regularly work overtime (VandenHeuvel, 1996). In the qualitative study by Coombe (1999), Australian nurses often indicated that they must have their children taken care of by several different services, sometimes as many as four in a single week. A Finnish qualitative study (Kröger, 2001) looked at 25 single-parent families, of which 10 had non-standard schedules. Of the latter, only 2 of 10 could count on formal childcare services to meet their needs. The author concluded that formal childcare services are indeed designed for families whose parents work regular hours.

In Canada and Québec, along with the study by Prévost and Messing (1995), this reality has been confirmed by Brockman (1994), who studied rural contexts, and by Tremblay (2001).

In general, studies on this subject have shown that parents with non-standard schedules do make use of a combination of formal and informal childcare services, but that it is clearly more likely that informal services will be used. (Washington State Childcare Resource and Referral Network, 2000; VandenHeuvel, 1996).

### *1.2.3 Increased reliance on the extended family[7] and informal childcare resources*

Parents with non-standard schedules or jobs often call on family members for childcare, as well as using other informal childcare services. This situation is even more typical of one-parent families and has been reported in a whole series of studies (Fagnani, 1999; Jagadeesh *et al.*, 2001; Presser, 2000; Presser and Cox, 1997; Prévost and Messing, 1995; Tremblay, 2001; Washington State Childcare Resource and Referral Network, 2000). Among the grandparents, childcare most often falls upon the grandmother (Washington State Childcare Resource and Referral Network, 2000).

### *1.2.4 Greater role of fathers in caring for children*

Although young fathers in general are increasingly involved in caring for their children, several studies of the effects of parental employment on childcare point out that this is particularly true in families where the parents have non-standard schedules (Brayfield, 1995; Fagnani, 1999; Presser, 2000; Preston *et al.*, 1999; Tremblay, 2001; Washington State Childcare Resource and Referral Network, 2000).

Brayfield (1995), for example, studied this phenomenon using data from the 1990 *National Childcare Survey*. He concluded that fathers are more likely to care for their children when their working hours differ from those of their spouses, although the mother's schedule plays a greater role here than that of the father. Since non-standard employment is not likely to disappear, and since women are more likely to have non-standard employment then men, Brayfield concludes that men will be increasingly called upon to participate in domestic tasks and childcare. This tendency may also be strengthened by the fact that men, too, are increasingly working in non-standard jobs, as noted for Québec by Matte *et al.* (1998).

7. In an interesting article on aging and the family, Pitrou (1997) points out that the availability of the extended family is necessarily related to geographical proximity, something that "…the necessity of mobility as dictated by economic forces…" does not always permit. Reliance on the extended family for occasional or more regular childcare therefore depends on its physical presence within an easily accessible distance.

## 1.3 Synthesis and objectives

The major growth in non-standard employment is a phenomenon that can be seen not only in Québec but also in most developed economies. Among the characteristics of these jobs is the fact that their work schedules often differ from the standard 9-to-5, Monday-to-Friday routine.

A recent study has clarified what proportion of parents with young children are affected by non-standard employment. According to a study conducted by ISQ for the MFE in 2000, in one-third of Québec families that required some form of childcare, a single parent or at least one of two parents had an irregular, or non-standard, work or study schedule.

In some families, the parents' non-standard employment is in some sense a "solution" for balancing work and family life, since the parents have organized their work schedules such that one of them is always able to take care of the children. Nonetheless, the studies show that non-standard employment results in numerous difficulties, especially when it comes to organizing childcare. On this question, it would seem that the mother's schedule had the greatest impact on the way childcare was organized.

Parents' non-standard employment has many consequences for the organization of childcare and the studies consulted tend to reach the same conclusions. First and foremost, it is obvious that the childcare needs of many parents are not being met by the services generally available, since these are still largely available only during the day, from Monday to Friday. Non-standard employment also makes it necessary to resort to different types of childcare, and often these must be reorganized each week. Frequently a combination of formal and informal childcare services is used, and grandparents, grandmothers in particular, are especially in demand.

More specifically, what is the situation in Québec? To what extent do parents' work schedules, especially the mother's, play a determining role in childcare choices? This is the main question we will attempt to answer using data from the third round (2000) of the *Québec Longitudinal Study of Child Development*, carried out when the children were approximately 29 months old.

More precisely, after making a brief presentation of the population being studied, we will present a descriptive portrait of the families by the type of work of the parents and of the mother. We will thus attempt to see how these families differ by sociodemographic status, certain employment factors, and the use of childcare services. Next we will try to determine the influence of family work schedules, and of the mother's schedule in particular, on the types of childcare used, after taking into account other factors that may be involved, such as family income, the number of children, and the residential environment of the family. For the purposes of our analysis, the following types of childcare will be examined successively: 1) care provided by a relative, 2) home-based childcare, 3) the status of the childcare used (i.e., whether regulated or unregulated), and 4) the number of types of childcare used.

# 2. Methodology

As mentioned in report issue 1 of this volume, the sample population covered by the first three rounds of *QLSCD* is made up of children who were born in Québec in 1998 and who had not left the province permanently in 2000.

Except for a short preliminary section giving longitudinal data, our analyses concern data collected during the third round of the study in 2000, when the children were about 29 months old (n = 1,997). This decision was made because, among other reasons, during the first round the proportion of families using childcare services was too low to justify separate analysis. As well, when the third round of *QLSCD* was carried out, all the children were eligible for subsidized educational services, even if all the services required were not necessarily available. Moreover, the third round included a question about the parents' childcare preferences for the first time.

The data collected in each round described the sociodemographic characteristics of the parents, in particular their situation in the paid labour force, as well as the types of childcare used for the child in question. This information is contained in the *Interviewer Computerized Completed Questionnaire* (ICCQ), as collected from the person who best knows the child (Person Most Knowledgeable, PMK)—the biological mother in most cases—in a face-to-face interview.

## 2.1 The population sample

For the purposes of this study, the sample to be analyzed comprised children about 29 months old with a single parent or two parents who stated they were employed when the third round of *QLSCD* was carried out and who, therefore, might require childcare services.[8] This sample was then studied by taking into account the type of employment of the parents. This employment was categorized as either "standard" or "non-standard" on the basis of the regular work schedules declared for all jobs held during the 12 months preceding the survey. In this study, a parent who worked full-time or part-time, during the day exclusively and from Monday to Friday, was considered to have standard employment. On the other hand, employment was considered non-standard if the parent indicated having worked during other than normal daytime hours or on weekends.

The analyses presented here were made first by considering the type of work of the family, and then by considering the type of work of the mother alone. A family is considered to have non-standard employment if one of the two parents (or the one parent in single-parent families) has a non-standard job.

The main goal of this analysis is, of course, to determine whether the type of employment had an impact on the childcare chosen for young children in Québec. We should point out, however, that the survey collected information about the childcare in use at the time the survey was done, and therefore the type of childcare reported could conceivably have been in use for a relatively short period of time. Whether or not a family had standard or non-standard employment was determined from work schedules for the preceding 12 months. This difference in time framework may have had some slight effect on the results.

8. The type of childcare can take various forms, from home-based childcare provided by a relative (paid or not) to some form of regulated childcare such as a subsidized childcare centre or a private childcare centre. These various types of childcare are detailed in Annex 1.

## 2.2 Methods of analysis

Various bivariate analyses (chi-square test) were done to compare children on the basis of the standard or non-standard employment of their parents or of their mother considered separately, according to sociodemographic characteristics, participation in the paid labour force (in the case of the mother), and the types of childcare used.

Multivariate analyses (logistical regression) were then done to determine the role of different variables, including the mother's type of employment, in the choice of types of childcare used.

# 3. Results

## 3.1 Changes in parental participation in the paid labour force when the child was 5, 17 and 29 months old

Before describing the population being studied, let us consider the proportion of children of the third round of *QLSCD* whose single parent, or two parents, were working when the children were 5, 17, and 29 months old, respectively.

An examination of the data in Table 3.1 shows that, at the age of 5 months, only 16% of children lived in a family where both parents or the single parent (almost exclusively the mother) worked. This proportion had grown considerably by the 1999 round, and remained more or less stable the following year. This can no doubt be explained by the large proportion of mothers entering or returning to the paid labour force, as shown by the data in Table 3.2. The proportion of children whose mothers worked was 17% in 1998, rising to about 60% in each of the two following years.[9]

Finally, it can be seen that, for all three rounds, the percentage of children whose single parent or two parents were working when the survey was taken is slightly different from the percentage of children with mothers in the paid labour force: for example, the percentages were 58% and 61% respectively for the third round. This small discrepancy can be explained by the extremely low proportion of two-parent families where only the mother had paid employment.

Table 3.1
**Proportion of children whose single parent or two parents were working when the children were about 5, 17 and 29 months old, Québec, 1998, 1999 and 2000**

| | 1998 (5 months) | 1999 (17 months) | 2000 (29 months |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | % | |
| Proportion of children whose single parent or two parents worked | 16.0 | 56.1 | 57.7 |
| n | 1,966 | 1,985 | 1,995 |

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998- 2002.*

Table 3.2
**Proportion of children whose mother[1] was working when the children were about 5, 17 and 29 months, Québec, 1998, 1999 and 2000**

| | 1998 (5 months) | 1999 (17 months) | 2000 (29 months) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | % | |
| Proportion of children whose mother worked | 17.3 | 59.1 | 60.8 |
| n | 1,966 | 1,983 | 1,989 |

1. Biological mother or spouse of the father living in the household.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

From the data given in the first table above, we can estimate at not quite 60% the proportion of children whose single parent or two parents had paid employment when the third survey was carried out and, therefore, might have required childcare services.

## 3.2 Participation in the paid labour force of parents of children 29 months old

Table 3.3 shows that the great majority of these children come from a two-parent family. We can see that slightly more than half of the children (52%) came from a two-parent family where both parents worked, whereas 6% came from a single-parent

9. In the first round, in at least 80% of cases the mother was returning to the paid labour force after the birth of her child, having worked during her pregnancy (data not shown).

family where the single parent worked. It should be noted that, among children born in Québec and about 29 months old in 2000, slightly more than 1 in 10 came from a family where no parent was working.

The data in Table 3.4 show in addition that, compared to the other children (42%), the children selected (58%) for the purposes of the following analyses were more often first-born children or only children in the family (35% as opposed to 26%). They were also more likely to belong to two-parent families and, up to a point, more likely to belong to households in the upper income bracket (income equal to or greater than $50,000: 63% as opposed to 30%). This last result is hardly surprising since the population in question is largely made up of families with two incomes.

Table 3.3
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by family type and parental employment status at time of survey, Québec, 2000**

| | % | n[1] |
|---|---|---|
| Two-parent families | | |
| No parent employed | 4.9 | 80 |
| One parent employed | 30.8 | 610 |
| Two parents employed | 51.5 | 1,073 |
| Single-parent families | | |
| Parent is employed | 6.2 | 117 |
| Parent is not employed | 6.6 | 114 |
| **Total** | **100.0** | **1,994** |

1. Unweighted data that cannot be used to calculate the proportions in the table directly.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table 3.4
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by parental employment status at time of survey and certain sociodemographic characteristics, Québec, 2000**

| | The single parent or the two parents were employed | The single parent or at least one of the two parents are not employed | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | % | | |
| Family type | | | p < 0.01 |
| Two-parent family | 89.3 | 84.3 | |
| Single-parent family | 10.7 | 15.7 | |
| Number of children | | | p < 0.001 |
| One | 35.0 | 25.9 | |
| Two | 47.6 | 46.8 | |
| Three or more | 17.4 | 27.4 | |
| Household income | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than $20,000 | 5.3* | 24.7 | |
| $20,000 to $29,999 | 8.1 | 15.3 | |
| $30,000 to $ 49,999 | 23.9 | 29.8 | |
| $50,000 or higher | 62.7 | 30.2 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

## 3.3 Type of employment of the family and the mother

The children selected for the purposes of analysis (58% of all the children) were divided into two groups according to whether the parents with whom they lived had standard or non-standard employment.[10] Let us recall here that family employment is considered standard if the single parent or both parents work only daytime hours, from Monday to Friday, whether full-time or part-time. Employment is considered non-standard if at least one parent routinely works on weekends or during other than regular daytime hours on weekdays.[11] Thus, a two-parent family is considered to have non-standard employment even if only one of the parents has a non-standard schedule. In this section we will compare these two groups of families by sociodemographic characteristics and the use of childcare services. These same analyses, along with those concerning participation in the paid labour force, will then be repeated taking into account the type of employment of the mother only.[12]

Let us first briefly consider the distribution of these children by type of family and type of employment of the parents. As Table 3.5 shows, about 4 out of 10 children (39%) belonged to a two-parent family where only one of the two parents had a non-standard job, whereas 17% lived in families where both parents had non-standard jobs. These situations applied to a majority of two-parent families, whereas in single-parent families almost as many families had non-standard employment as had standard employment (5% in each case). As we can see in Table 3.6, on the whole 6 out of 10 children in the population being studied lived in families where at least one parent had non-standard employment.

Table 3.5
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by type of family and type of parental employment, Québec, 2000**

| | % | n[1] |
|---|---|---|
| Two-parent families | | |
| Non-standard father and standard mother | 24.8 | 299 |
| Non-standard mother and standard father | 14.3 | 170 |
| Non-standard mother and father | 16.8 | 202 |
| Standard mother and father | 33.4 | 400 |
| Single-parent families[2] | | |
| Non-standard parent | 5.3 | 54 |
| Standard parent | 5.4 | 63 |
| **Total** | **100.0** | **1,188** |

1. Unweighted data that cannot be used to calculate the proportions in the table directly.
2. Of the children in single-parent families in this sample, only five lived with a father who, in most cases, had a non-standard schedule.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

If we consider each parent separately, we can see that a little more than one-third of the children (36%) had a mother with non-standard employment, whereas almost half (47%) had a father in the same situation (Table 3.6). To summarize, a majority of children in the population being studied lived in a family considered non-standard in its working arrangements, a situation more often due to the father's employment than to the mother's.

Table 3.6
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by the employment situation of the family and of the parents, Québec, 2000**

| | % | n[1] |
|---|---|---|
| Family employment situation | | |
| Standard | 38.7 | 463 |
| Non-standard | 61.3 | 725 |
| Mother's employment situation | | |
| Standard | 63.8 | 761 |
| Non-standard | 36.2 | 422 |
| Father's employment situation | | |
| Standard | 53,3 | 571 |
| Non-standard | 46,7 | 505 |

1. Unweighted data that cannot be used to calculate the proportions in the table directly.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

10. Note that the family employment situation takes into account only those parents, biological or not, with whom the children about 29 months old were living during the third round of *QLSCD* (2000), since we do not have the necessary information concerning non-resident biological parents.
11. Whether or not they also work during the day on weekdays.
12. Analyses were also done by the employment situation of fathers (biological fathers or spouses) who, in the year 2000 round, belonged to two-parent families almost exclusively. Few significant correlations were noted, and only some are mentioned. The data analyzed by employment situation of the father can be seen in Tables A.1 to A.4 in Annex 2.

A non-standard employment situation is defined on the basis of various combinations of daily or weekly schedules. Table 3.7 shows how children whose mother had a non-standard job situation and those whose father had such a situation are distributed by the various combinations of parental schedules.[13]

Non-standard working hours imply non-daytime work schedules, both for mothers and fathers. For example, among children whose mothers had a non-standard employment situation, more than half (53%) had mothers who worked only non-daytime schedules. Furthermore, almost 30% of these children had mothers who only worked regular daytime hours but, if we hold to our definition, some of this work necessarily took place on weekends.[14] In fact, no matter which schedules were worked, the great majority of these children (78%) had mothers who regularly worked on the weekend.

This distribution of children by the schedules worked by the parent is essentially similar if we consider fathers who had a non-standard work situation: the largest proportion of the fathers (45%) worked only non-daytime schedules, whereas a third worked daytime schedules and slightly more than 70% worked regularly on weekends.

Table 3.7
**Distribution of children about 29 months old whose mother or father had non-standard employment by shifts usually worked by the parents[1], Québec, 2000**

| | Mothers | Fathers |
|---|---|---|
| | % | |
| Day only | 28.5 | 33.5 |
| Day and other shifts[2] | 18.3 | 21.3 |
| Other shifts only | 53.2 | 45.2 |
| Weekend work[3] | 77.6 | 71.6 |

1. Usual work schedules are derived from all employment in the preceding 12 months.
2. Other shifts here mean evening or night shifts or rotating day, evening, and night shifts. They also include split shifts, on-call work, and work on an irregular schedule that may include various shifts.
3. Weekend work includes work on **either** Saturday or Sunday, as well as work on **both** Saturday and Sunday.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

The differences between these mothers and fathers can be better understood by considering the length of the work week. As Table 3.8 shows, almost 40% of children had mothers who worked part-time, whereas 85% had fathers who worked 40 hours or more per week. One can therefore presume that weekend work made up a greater proportion of the work week for mothers than for fathers with non-standard work schedules since, proportionally, almost as many fathers worked weekends as mothers. Moreover, if we consider the reasons mothers gave for working part-time, more than two-thirds (68%) said that they wanted to spend more time with their families (see Table 3.12). These results underscore the impact that the mother's employment situation had on the organization of childcare.

13. These two groups of children are not mutually exclusive since children from two-parent families where both parents had non-standard employment appear in both groups.

14. *QLSCD* data do not, however, permit us to estimate this proportion.

Table 3.8
**Distribution of children about 29 months old whose mother or father had non-standard employment by number of hours usually worked per week by the parents, Québec, 2000**

| | Mothers | Fathers |
|---|---|---|
| | % | |
| Less than 30 hours | 39.4 | 2.4** |
| 30 to 39 hours | 32.5 | 13.0 |
| 40 hours or more | 28.1 | 84.6 |

** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Despite these differences between mothers and fathers, it is nonetheless useful to consider the combined employment situation of the parents. On the one hand, the great majority of children whose parents had a non-standard employment situation lived in a two-parent family (93%); on the other hand, it is possible that work schedules or the number of hours worked by one or other parent may have been adjusted or coordinated by the parents to reduce the hours of childcare required.

### *3.3.1 Employment situations of the family and the mother by sociodemographic characteristics*

As far as sociodemographic characteristics are concerned, it should first be noted that children from families with a non-standard work situation were more likely than other children to live in two-parent families (91% as opposed to 86%) or in families that included siblings (Table 3.9). In addition, they were less likely to come from families in the highest income bracket. Specifically, 55% of these children came from families with an annual gross income of $50,000 or more, whereas this was the case for three-quarters of children from families where the single parent or the two parents had standard employment situations.

If we then consider only the mother's employment situation (Table 3.10), we see that children whose mother had non-standard employment were more likely to come from single-parent families than other children (14% as opposed to 8%). This is no doubt due to the fact that, as we have seen, in two-parent families, non-standard employment situations were more likely to be due to the employment of the father than the mother. The data also show that mothers with non-standard jobs tended to be younger and less well educated and had lower family incomes than mothers with standard employment.[15] These results generally confirm those reported in the literature and show that, in general, families with so-called "non-standard" parental work situations tend to be less well-off than others.

15. These observations also hold for fathers with non-standard employment compared to fathers with standard employment; see Table A.1 in Annex 2.

Table 3.9
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by family employment situation and certain sociodemographic characteristics, Québec, 2000**

| | Family employment situation | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Family type | | | p < 0.05 |
| Two-parent family | 86.2 | 91.3 | |
| Single-parent family | 13.8 | 8.7 | |
| Number of children | | | p < 0.05 |
| One | 40.1 | 32.1 | |
| Two | 44.3 | 49.4 | |
| Three or more | 15.6 | 18.5 | |
| Household income | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than $20,000 | 3.0** | 6.8* | |
| $20,000 to $29,999 | 6.0* | 9.4 | |
| $30,000 to $49,999 | 16.9 | 28.5 | |
| $50,000 or higher | 74.2 | 55.4 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table 3.10
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by mother's employment situation and certain sociodemographic characteristics, Québec, 2000**

| | Mother's employment situation | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Family type | | | p < 0.05 |
| Two-parent family | 91.7 | 86.3 | |
| Single-parent family | 8.3 | 13.8 | |
| Number of children | | | Not signif. |
| One | 36.5 | 32.7 | |
| Two | 47.7 | 47.2 | |
| Three or more | 15.8 | 20.1 | |
| Mother's age group | | | p < 0.001 |
| Under 30 | 28.1 | 41.5 | |
| 30 and over | 71.9 | 58.5 | |
| Highest educational level of mother[1] | | | p < 0.001 |
| Primary or secondary school | 15.4 | 27.3 | |
| Post-secondary (not university) | 39.0 | 49.2 | |
| University | 45.6 | 23.6 | |
| Household income | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than $20,000 | 2.5* | 10.0* | |
| $20,000 to $29,000 | 6.8* | 10.4* | |
| $30,000 to $49,999 | 20.7 | 29.5 | |
| $50,000 or higher | 70.1 | 50.2 | |

1. The highest year of education completed, not the diploma or degree obtained; course work may therefore be incomplete.
* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

### *3.3.2 The type of work of the mother relative to certain characteristics of her participation in the paid labour force*

In keeping with other research findings (Marshall, 1999), the data in Table 3.11 show that mothers with non-standard employment entered or returned more rapidly to the paid labour force after the birth of a child than did others. For example, although the majority of mothers in the two groups began working (again) when the child was between 4 and 12 months old, a third of the mothers whose work situation was non-standard did so when the child was 4 months old or less, whereas this was the case for less than a quarter of the other mothers.

Table 3.11
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by their age when their mothers entered or returned to the paid labour force and by the type of work of the mother[1], Québec, 1998, 1999 and 2000[2]**

| | Type of work of the mother | |
|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard |
| | % | |
| 0 to 4 months | 22.6 | 33.1 |
| Between 4 and 12 months | 62.7 | 51.0 |
| More than 12 months | 14.7 | 15.9 |

1. It should be noted that the mother's type of work has been determined from data from the third round of the *QLSCD* (2000), which was carried out when the children were about 2½ years old. Thus it may differ from the one being carried out when mothers entered or returned to the paid labour force.
2. $p < 0.001$.

Source : *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

If we take a closer look at the nature of this work, we note that compared to mothers with standard work, mothers whose work was non-standard worked fewer weeks during the year preceding the third round of the *QLSCD*, and they worked fewer hours each week. For example, 10% of the former worked less than twenty-seven weeks during the year compared with 16% of the latter. Likewise, nearly 40% of mothers whose work was non-standard worked part-time (fewer than 30 hours a week), whereas this was the situation for only 19% of the other mothers. When we examine this figure while taking into account the father's work situation, we find instead the opposite situation, that is, fathers whose work was non-standard were more likely to work 40 hours or more per week than were the others (85% as opposed to 70%) (see Table A.2 in Annex 2). These last points reinforce the idea that the nature of non-standard work varies with the sex of the parent.

Beside being more likely to be self-employed workers, mothers whose employment was non-standard were more likely to hold office or service jobs (53% as opposed to 38% among those with standard work).[16] Finally, mothers whose work was standard cited the same reasons as those with non-standard employment to explain the fact that they were working part-time; in both cases, a majority did so to be able to spend more time with their families. Nor did the two groups differ significantly according to whether they had or had not held another job during the preceding twelve months.

16. For fathers whose work was non-standard, because of gender-based divisions of labour, we found instead that they were more heavily represented in the work category "foreman or skilled worker" (36% as opposed to 25% among fathers with standard employment); see Table A.2 in the annex.

Table 3.12

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by mother's type of work and certain characteristics relating to her participation in the paid labour force, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of the mother | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Number of weeks worked during the preceding 12 months | | | p < 0.05 |
| Less than 27 weeks | 10.0 | 15.9 | |
| 27 to 51 weeks | 14.1 | 15.5 | |
| 52 weeks | 75.9 | 68.6 | |
| Number of hours usually worked per week | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than 30 hours | 18.5 | 39.4 | |
| 30 to 39 hours | 48.8 | 32.5 | |
| 40 hours or more | 32.7 | 28.1 | |
| Reason for holding part-time job[1] | | | |
| Full-time work not available | 12.5* | 19.2* | Not signif. |
| Spend more time with family | 72.6 | 68.4 | Not signif. |
| Return to school | 4.5** | 2.4** | Not signif. |
| Do not desire full-time work | 7.3** | 9.5* | Not signif. |
| Professional category | | | p < 0.001 |
| Professional, executive | 26.3 | 8.8 | |
| Middle management, technician | 24.9 | 21.9 | |
| Office or service worker | 38.1 | 52.5 | |
| Forewoman, skilled worker | 7.5* | 9.8* | |
| Unskilled worker | 3.2* | 6.9* | |
| Status of main job | | | p < 0.001 |
| Salaried employee/wage-earner | 89.9 | 82.3 | |
| Self-employed | 10.1 | 17.7 | |
| Held other job during preceding 12 months | | | Not signif. |
| Yes | 15.6 | 20.0 | |
| No | 84.4 | 80.0 | |

1. Part-time work here refers to a work week of less than 30 hours. Respondents could cite more than one reason.
* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

### *3.3.3 The type of work of families and mothers and patterns of childcare use*

It should be noted from the outset that the family policy adopted in 1997 has had a significant impact on the childcare scene in Québec. Since that time, subsidized educational childcare ($5 per day) has been set up in childcare centres (CC), which offer both large-group (facility-based) childcare and home childcare.[17] Pre-school children in Québec have become eligible for subsidized educational childcare services at successively younger ages, as shown in the timetable below:

- in September 1997, children aged 4 years;
- in September 1998, children aged 3 years;
- in September 1999, children aged 2 years;
- in September 2000, children younger than 2 years.

Thus, when the first year of *QLSCD* data were collected in 1998, children who were then 5 months old were not yet eligible for subsidized spaces. Moreover, the number of regulated childcare services[18] that could take babies were then limited to 14.7% of all home-based spaces and 9.7% of those in childcare centres and facilities. In 2000, however, when the third *QLSCD* sampling took place, all pre-school children in Québec were eligible for subsidized educational childcare services. Despite a large increase in the number of available spaces since this family policy measure took effect, it is clear that demand on the part of parents is still higher than the supply of services; the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance* estimates that all parental childcare needs will be met by 2005-2006, when the childcare network will have a total of 200,000 spaces.

One *QLSCD* indicator was intended to determine parental preferences for regular childcare as a function of particular sets of childcare arrangements. Preference measures assumed that childcare arrangements were convenient and that space was available. Data did not reveal significant differences according to type of family work; the majority of parents (around 60%) expressed a preference for subsidized childcare, whether home-based or in childcare centres (Table 3.13).

Concerning the use of childcare, we did observe a significant difference by family work profile. Although a majority of children in the two family groups received regular childcare, those with parents having standard work were more likely to do so. Conversely, a larger proportion of children of non-standard families received childcare only occasionally. Finally, in both family groups, despite the fact that either the single parent or both parents were in the paid labour force, a significant percentage of children did not receive childcare; this was the case for 9% of children with parents having standard work and for 16% of children from the second group (Table 3.13).

Various reasons might explain why parents in the paid labour force did not declare what their childcare arrangements were. For instance, parents who had access to childcare through a relative, like the grandmother of a child, may not have considered this form of care as childcare "arrangements" in the same way that childcare might be performed by a home childcare provider or offered in a childcare facility. In other respects, it could also be that, in the case of two-parent families, both parents manage to organize their work schedules so that the child is constantly cared for by one or the other. According to some studies already mentioned, these situations are apparently quite common in families where both parents do non-standard work. Finally, still considering two-parent families, but in which one parent does standard work and the other non-standard work, it could also be possible that childcare is simply not needed. This kind of situation could, for example, prevail in a family where the mother works on the weekend while the father works during the week.

17. These services are offered for a maximum of ten hours a day, 261 days a year.

18. Regulated child care services are those having a permit from the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance*.

Table 3.13
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by type of family work, childcare arrangements preferred by the parents, and use of childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of family work | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Preferred childcare arrangements (assuming that they are convenient) | | | Not signif. |
| In the child's home | 19.2 | 20.7 | |
| Elsewhere in a family | 8.8 | 10.1 | |
| Coordinated home-based childcare ($5 space) | 26.6 | 28.3 | |
| Childcare centre ($5 space) | 35.5 | 31.9 | |
| Kindergarten | 8.2 | 6.2 | |
| Other | 1.8 | 2.9 | |
| Current use of childcare | | | $p < 0.001$ |
| Yes, regularly | 89.5 | 79.2 | |
| Yes, occasionally | 1.5** | 5.1* | |
| No | 9.0 | 15.8 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Tables 3.14 and 3.16 deal with regular childcare. Several kinds of regularly used childcare arrangements could be declared when the survey was done. The one used most frequently (in number of hours) was then considered to be the primary type of childcare. For the purposes of this study, three primary types of childcare out of all those declared have been studied more closely: childcare by a relative, childcare at the home of the child under study, and unregulated childcare (see Annex 1 for a detailed description of these modes).[19]

As can be seen in Table 3.14, only one significant difference was observed between families with parents having standard work and those with non-standard work, in this case concerning the duration of childcare required each week for the child. Indeed, it stands out clearly that children who had a single parent or at least one parent of two with non-standard work received fewer hours of childcare each week. For example, 30% of the children living in these families received childcare between one hour and 25 hours per week because of the work or study obligations of their parents, whereas this was the case for only 11% of other children. Conversely, 18% of these latter received childcare between 46 and 50 hours a week whereas this proportion is only about 5% for the former. This situation may be explained in part by the fact that about 40% of mothers whose work was non-standard worked part-time, as was seen earlier (Table 3.12).

By contrast, no significant difference was observed between the two groups of children with regard to the other indicators studied, be it the number of types of childcare declared during the survey, the primary type of childcare used, the number of changes in the primary type of childcare during the twelve months preceding the survey, or the reasons for change(s), if changes occurred (Table 3.14). For instance, whatever the type of family work, about 9 children out of 10 regularly received a single kind of childcare, and the most often declared type of care (in more than 4 out of 10 cases) was childcare at the home of an unrelated person. It should be emphasized, moreover, that about 3 children out of 10 reportedly had experienced at least one change in childcare during the year before the survey. The reasons justifying such changes had to do with, in the majority of cases, the childcare itself or the childcare provider, even though the jobs of the parents might have been expected to be more commonly cited reasons when the type of family work was non-standard.

19. Note that the *QLSCD* data do not permit identifying childcare arrangements used only occasionally.

Table 3.14

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by type of family work and certain characteristics of regular childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of family work | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Number of hours of childcare per week | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than 26 hours | 11.1 | 30.0 | |
| 26 to 35 hours | 18.3 | 24.4 | |
| 36 to 40 hours | 28.2 | 25.7 | |
| 41 to 45 hours | 20.5 | 11.9 | |
| 46 to 50 hours | 17.5 | 4.8* | |
| 51 hours and more | 4.4** | 3.2* | |
| Number of types of childcare declared during the survey | | | Not signif. |
| One | 92.1 | 88.0 | |
| Two or more | 8.0* | 12.0 | |
| Primary type of childcare used[1] | | | Not signif. |
| At the house of an unrelated person | 44.7 | 47.5 | |
| At the child's home, by an unrelated person | 6.4* | 6.9* | |
| At a childcare centre | 30.0 | 24.9 | |
| At the home of a relative | 13.3 | 13.3 | |
| At the home of the child, by a relative | 5.6* | 7.4* | |
| Primary type of childcare by a relative | 18.9 | 20.7 | Not signif. |
| Primary type of childcare at the child's home | 12.0 | 14.3 | Not signif. |
| Primary type of childcare unregulated | 52.3 | 57.4 | Not signif. |
| Change in primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months | | | Not signif. |
| No change | 68.9 | 69.1 | |
| One change | 23.9 | 23.4 | |
| More than one change | 7.3* | 7.5* | |
| Reasons for changing primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months[2] | | | |
| Reasons related to childcare service or to caregiver[3] | 46.2 | 51.1 | Not signif. |
| Reasons related to family or to child[4] | 30.8 | 27.5 | Not signif. |
| Employment situation of parents has changed | 3.1** | 4.2** | Not signif. |
| Preferred childcare arrangements became available | 17.3* | 20.4* | Not signif. |
| Other | 6.6** | 3.4** | Not signif. |

1. The primary type of childcare is defined as being the type used for the most hours.
2. More than one reason could be given.
3. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the service or the caregiver was no longer available; the hours of operation or the cost became unacceptable; or the service was no longer considered satisfactory by the parent.
4. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the family or the child moved; the legal guardian of the child changed; the child's needs changed; the service was not close enough to home or work.

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.

** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

The analyses of selected types of childcare were repeated, this time considering the type of work of the mother alone. As can be seen in Table 3.15, the use of regular childcare for children 29 months of age was less frequent when the mother had non-standard employment, but proportionally speaking these children were considerably more likely not to receive childcare when compared with mothers with standard employment (20% as opposed to 9%). We can cite here the same reasons mentioned earlier for family work. Similarly, no significant difference was observed in preferences for one type of childcare over another as a function of the type of work of the mother: in both groups about 6 families out of 10 expressed preferences for subsidized childcare, whether in homes or childcare centres.

Table 3.15
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by mother's type of work, preferred childcare arrangements, and use of childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of mother | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Preferred childcare arrangements (assuming that they are convenient) | | | Not signif. |
| In the child's home | 17.9 | 23.8 | |
| Elsewhere in the family | 9.5 | 9.6 | |
| Coordinated home-based childcare ($5 space) | 29.1 | 24.8 | |
| Childcare centre ($5 space) | 34.1 | 32.2 | |
| Kindergarten | 7.3* | 6.4* | |
| Other | 2.1** | 3.1** | |
| Current use of childcare | | | $p < 0.001$ |
| Yes, regularly | 88.7 | 73.5 | |
| Yes, occasionally | 2.2* | 6.3* | |
| No | 9.1 | 20.3 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

In addition to the difference already noted concerning the number of hours of childcare per week by the type of family work,[20] we find that the children of mothers with non-standard employment were more likely to have more than one type of childcare regularly. Indeed, 14% of the children with mothers whose work was non-standard regularly received more than one type of childcare, whereas only 8% of children whose mothers worked exclusively during the day from Monday through Friday knew this situation. In the case of the former, childcare was more often provided by a relative (24% as opposed to 18%) or at the child's home (17% as opposed to 12%). These observations correspond in part with what has been reported in the literature about certain kinds of childcare arrangements and confirm that the type of work of the mother has a significant impact in this regard.

20. Comparable tendencies can also be found among fathers with non-standard work when compared with fathers with standard employment. This is the only difference observed between the fathers in these two groups concerning the childcare arrangements analyzed; see Table A.4 in the annex.

Table 3.16

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by mother's type of work and certain characteristics of regular childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of mother | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Number of hours of childcare per week | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than 26 hours | 13.9 | 39.7 | |
| 26 to 35 hours | 21.9 | 21.9 | |
| 36 to 40 hours | 28.7 | 22.7 | |
| 41 to 45 hours | 19.4 | 6.8* | |
| 46 to 50 hours | 12.8 | 4.0** | |
| 51 hours and more | 3.2* | 4.8** | |
| Number of types of childcare declared during the survey | | | p < 0.01 |
| One | 91.7 | 85.6 | |
| Two or more | 8.3 | 14.4 | |
| Primary type of childcare used[1] | | | Not signif. |
| At the house of an unrelated person | 47.6 | 43.3 | |
| At the child's home, by an unrelated person | 5.9* | 8.7* | |
| At a childcare centre | 28.9 | 23.6 | |
| At the home of a relative | 11.8 | 16.4 | |
| At the home of the child, by a relative | 5.9* | 8.0* | |
| Primary type of childcare by a relative | 17.7 | 24.3 | p < 0.05 |
| Primary type of childcare at the child's home | 11.8 | 17.0 | p < 0.05 |
| Primary type of childcare unregulated | 52.9 | 59.5 | Not signif. |
| Change in primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months | | | Not signif. |
| No change | 69.6 | 67.6 | |
| One change | 23.1 | 24.7 | |
| More than one change | 7.3* | 7.8* | |
| Reasons for changing primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months[2] | | | |
| Reasons related to childcare service or to caregiver[3] | 44.6 | 57.1 | Not signif. |
| Reasons related to family or to child[4] | 32.1 | 22.9* | Not signif. |
| Employment situation of parents has changed | 3.6** | 4.2** | Not signif. |
| Preferred childcare arrangements became available | 20.1* | 17.3* | Not signif. |
| Other | 5.6** | 3.1** | Not signif. |

1. The primary type of childcare is defined as being the type used for the most hours.
2. More than one reason could be given.
3. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the service or the caregiver was no longer available; the hours of operation or the cost became unacceptable; or the service was no longer considered satisfactory by the parent.
4. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the family or the child moved; the legal guardian of the child changed; the child's needs changed; the service was not close enough to home or work.

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.

** Coefficient of variation greater than 25%; estimate provided for reference purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

## 3.4 Net effect of the type of work of the mother on selected kinds of childcare arrangements for children around 29 months old

The bivariate analyses presented in the preceding section suggest that the type of family work exerted little effect on regular childcare arrangements. In fact, only lower use of regular childcare, expressed in number of hours per week, seemed to set families off from each other when taking the type of parental work into account. This finding is hardly surprising, as we have seen, given the higher incidence of part-time work among mothers with non-standard employment.

By contrast, when considered solely in light of the type of work of the mother, the data seem more convincing, particularly concerning regularly used primary types of childcare as well as the number of types of childcare that families regularly use for their children. This is why the analyses below were based on the mother's type of work.

### *3.4.1 Description of the approach used*

Multivariate analysis permits taking several causal variables into account at the same time and measuring the net effect that each of them has on childcare arrangements. The non-exclusive childcare arrangements at issue here, as we may recall, are: 1) childcare provided by an unrelated person; 2) childcare provided at the home of the child; 3) the status (regulated or non-regulated) of the childcare used; and 4) the number of types of childcare used. Here, then, we are attempting to identify to what extent the type of work of the mother contributes to each of the aspects of childcare dealt with in the third round of the *QLSCD* (children born in Québec who were about 2½ years old in 2000). To realize this objective, logistical regression analyses were performed that took into account, in addition to the type of work of the mother, a set of variables that were also likely to be associated with patterns of use of childcare services, namely:

- the type of family (two-parent or single-parent);
- household income;
- the number of children in the family;
- the presence of a younger sibling;
- the presence of an older sibling;
- the setting in which the family resides (rural or urban);[21]
- the presence of an adult other than the parents under the same roof.

Indeed, these variables are mentioned in various studies as potentially affecting, to varying degrees, the way childcare is organized. For example, some studies indicate that having more than one child sometimes leads parents to opt for childcare at home, a tendency that may be even more pronounced if the children are infants (BSQ, 1999). Furthermore, we know that when children are very young, parents use home-based childcare more, but that at around 2½ years of age children often move to facility-based childcare. It could also be that the choice of childcare arrangements is influenced by the fact that childcare services give preference to children from the same family. The presence of older or younger siblings can also be a factor in the way childcare is organized.

Furthermore, in Québec as elsewhere, childcare services are in general more available in urban settings than in rural ones. Finally, other work, as we have seen, shows that grandparents, especially grandmothers, are often called upon to look after the children of parents with non-standard work schedules, although it is not known whether they live under the same roof. The *QLSCD* data make it possible to estimate that 5% of the households studied include at least one adult other than the parents of the child. This adult is very frequently related to the child (88% of the time) and, more specifically, a grandparent (52% of the time) (data not shown).

21. The setting is considered rural if the population of the municipality of family residence is more than 50% rural.

The results of the analyses dealing with the four types of childcare selected for study are presented in the following sections. Note that bivariate analyses were performed beforehand between the causal variables chosen for study and each of the indicators, and that only those variables significant at the 0.10 level were used in subsequent analyses.[22] The final model is made up of causal variables that were significant at the 0.05 level.

In the same way, we have tried to see whether, in addition to the variables chosen for study, certain characteristics associated with the type of work of the mother, whether her educational level, her primary employment status (self-employed or wage-earning), or her holding a part-time job or not, could have an impact on her childcare arrangements. With the exception of the model dealing with unregulated childcare, the data from these analyses are not shown but are discussed in the text.

Logistical regression models measure the net effet of different variables or characteristics on the phenomenon under study. The direction and extent of this effect is evaluated using estimated odds ratios. When an odds ratio of less than 1 is statistically significant for a given subpopulation, it indicates a lower probability that either a given type of childcare or more than one type of childcare were regularly used compared with the reference population. Conversely, a statistically significant odds ratio greater than 1 indicates a higher probability that such arrangements were regularly used.[23]

Finally, it should be remembered that the analyses below focus on children regularly receiving childcare, since information on types of childcare when childcare use is occasional is not available. The children selected for study thus represent 83% of the population under study, that is, those either with a single parent or with two parents who were working at the time of the third round of the *QLSCD*.[24]

### *3.4.2 Childcare by a relative*

First of all, bivariate analyses revealed that in addition to the type of work of the mother, three other variables were associated at the designated level of significance ($p < 0.10$) with having childcare provided by a relative, whether at the person's home or not: household income and, as might be expected, the presence of another adult in the household, as well as the presence of a sibling younger than the child (Table A.5 in Annex 2).

Taking these variables into account simultaneously shows that children of mothers with non-standard employment were more likely to receive childcare by a relative, whether at their home or not, although the significance level is slightly higher than the 5% threshold (Table 3.17; $p = 0.0508$). Among the other variables considered, we find that the presence of an adult other than the parents in a household, and a family income level between $30,000 and $49,999 rather than a higher income, are also associated with a greater propensity among families to use this type of childcare for their children. Conversely, the presence of siblings younger than the child is associated with a lower probability that the child will receive care from such a person. Some parents may think that caring for two very young children constitutes too much of a burden for a relative. In addition, the policy of certain childcare centres to accord priority to children from the same family may be cited here.

Furthermore, when we add to the model variables related to the type of work of the mother, such as her educational level, her primary employment status, or her holding a part-time job or not, only educational level shows a relationship to the probability that the child will receive childcare from a relative. Mothers who did not attend university were more inclined to opt for this type of childcare than others, and the less education they had, the more the tendency was pronounced (model not shown).

22. Table A.5 in the annex summarizes these analyses for the four indicators relating to childcare.

23. It should be noted that in this analysis, in which the event under study (childcare arrangements) is not rare, the odds ratio does not constitute an estimate of relative probabilities. For example, an odds ratio of 2 may not be interpreted as meaning that a given subpopulation is twice as likely to use a particular type of childcare as the reference population.

24. Those very rare families that declared home-based childcare given by a sibling as their primary type of childcare have been excluded from analysis.

Table 3.17
**Odds ratios for factors associated with childcare by a relative, Québec, 2000**

| | Category of variable[1] | Odds ratios[2] |
|---|---|---|
| Type of work of the mother (standard schedule) | Non-standard schedule | 1.44 ‡ |
| Household income ($50,000 and over) | Less than $20,000 | 1.09 |
| | $20,000 to $29,999 | 0.70 |
| | $30,000 to $49,999 | 1.95 †† |
| Presence of a younger sibling (no) | Yes | 0.51 † |
| Presence of another adult in the household (no) | Yes | 2.21 † |

1. The reference category is indicated in parentheses.
2. Ratios significant at the level of: ‡ 0.10; †: 0.05; ††: 0.01.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

### *3.4.3. Home-based childcare*

First of all, bivariate analyses revealed that three variables were linked in statistically significant ways with providing childcare at home: the type of work of the mother, the number of children in the family, and the presence of another adult in the household (Table A.5 in Annex 2).

The results of the multivariate analysis presented in Table 3.18 show that children of mothers with non-standard work schedules, those living in a household in which an adult other than the parents is present, or those having at least two siblings had greater chances of receiving childcare at home.

These data support findings reported in other studies: mothers with non-standard work use informal childcare arrangements more often, home-based childcare being one such arrangement. Here again, the presence of another adult under the same roof with the family, a grandparent in the majority of cases, obviously increased the chances that a child would receive childcare at home. Some studies have also shown, moreover, that the more children there are in a family, the higher the chances that they will receive childcare at home; making childcare arrangements is thus simplified, as therefore is the employment of the parents, who may spend less time going back and forth or making additional trips.

A separate analysis of the characteristics associated with the type of work of the mother enables us to understand better what aspects of the work of the mother come into play here. This analysis reveals that children with mothers who work part-time or are self-employed have greater chances of receiving childcare at home when the work schedule of the mother is no longer a factor, once these other variables are taken into account (data not shown). These results may have to do with the fact that many childcare services in Québec are accessible only on a full-time basis, or the fact that self-employment allows mothers to work at home and care for a child at the same time.

Table 3.18
**Odds ratios for factors associated with childcare at home, Québec, 2000**

| | Category of variable[1] | Odds ratio[2] |
|---|---|---|
| Type of work of the mother (standard schedule) | Non-standard schedule | 1.55 † |
| Number of siblings (none) | 1 | 1.30 |
| | 2 or more | 2.53 †† |
| Presence of another adult in the household (no) | Yes | 3.70 ††† |

1. The reference category is indicated in parentheses.
2. Ratios significant at the level of: †: 0.05; ††: 0.01; †††: 0.001.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

### *3.4.4 Unregulated childcare*

The bivariate analyses presented in Annex 2 show that using unregulated childcare services is linked to only two of the variables studied: the type of work of the mother and household income (Table A.5).[25]

Multivariate analysis nevertheless shows that the type of work of the mother was not per se associated with this childcare characteristic. By contrast, some other facets of her work situation were (Table 3.19). For example, children whose mothers held part-time jobs or who were self-employed, as well as those whose mothers had not attended university, were more likely to receive childcare outside the regulated childcare framework. Here again, this situation may be explained in part by the fact that in Québec, regulated childcare services are most often accessible on a full-time basis. Moreover, being self-employed may entail periods without work or the option of combining childcare with the home-based work of the mother—in other words, various reasons for not using regulated childcare, whether by choice or by obligation. In sum, it is not because of their non-standard work schedules that mothers did not use a regulated service, but rather because of other characteristics relating to the job they held or their socioeconomic status.

In this connection, the results show that children living in families in which income was between $20,000 and $29,999 were less likely to find themselves in unregulated childcare services than were children living in families in which annual gross income is $50,000 or more. This situation could be attributable to the fact that, as a result of Québec family policies, families with low employment income levels[26] became eligible for additional daily fee reductions from regulated childcare services, an obvious incentive to use such services.

25. A little more than 5% of the families that had not answered either question relating to model variables have been excluded from it. This non-response mainly related to the questions defining the type of childcare (regulated or non-regulated). No significant difference, however, was observed for sociodemographic characteristics between families included in the model for non-regulated childcare and those having been excluded from it for non-responses (data not shown).

26. In reality, these families are eligible for the *Parental Employment Income Assistance Program* (Programme d'aide aux parents pour leurs revenus de travail, APPORT).

Table 3.19
**Odds ratios for factors associated with the use of unregulated childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Category of variable[1] | Odds ratio[2] |
|---|---|---|
| Usual employment status of mother (full-time) | Part-time | 1.49 † |
| Primary employment status of mother (wage earner) | Self-employed worker | 1.79 † |
| Highest educational level of mother (university studies) | Primary or secondary education | 1.71 † |
| | Post-secondary studies (except university)[3] | 1.50 † |
| Household income ($50,000 and over) | Less than $20,000 | 0.78 |
| | $20,000 to $29,999 | 0.42 †† |
| | $30,000 to $49,999 | 1.09 |

1. The reference category is indicated in parentheses.
2. Ratios significant at the level of: †: 0.05; ††: 0.01.
3. Includes mothers who have attended vocational or business schools, or colleges.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

### *3.4.5 Use of more than one mode of childcare*

Bivariate analyses show that several reasons, when considered individually, may explain why families use more than one type of childcare. In addition to the type of work of the mother, the type of family, number of children in the family, presence of a sibling older than the child, and finally the setting in which the family resides may also explain such patterns of use. Household income (at a level of significance below 0.10) has also been incorporated into the model (see Table A.5 in Annex 2).

Multivariate analyses show that children of mothers with non-standard employment and those living in rural areas have a higher probability of receiving more than one type of childcare. Conversely, having an older sibling, or coming from a two-parent family, are associated with a lower probability of having such an arrangement (Table 3.20).

On the whole, these results confirm expected tendencies. For example, the non-standard work of the mother makes it necessary to use several types of childcare, given that the services offered are generally accessible only during regular working hours, which is to say during the day from Monday through Friday. This situation may, however, be somewhat different in two-parent families, since families in which at least one of the two parents has non-standard work sometimes managed to stagger their work schedules in ways that ensured that the child received care from one of them. Moreover, the use of non-standard employment in rural areas, particularly at harvest time, can lead parents to use several different types of childcare as a way of meeting their childcare needs when the work day is longer than usual.

The deterrent that the presence of an older sibling seems to represent for using several types of childcare might more specifically be the result of the policies of some childcare services that accords priority to children from the same family; this could thus favour early admission of a child to a childcare facility. Giving childcare at home to older siblings might also encourage parents to do the same for children aged 2½ years.

Finally, it should be emphasized that once these variables have been considered, neither the educational level of the mother nor her employment status (i.e., whether or not she is self-employed or whether she works full- or part-time) comes into play here (model not shown).

Table 3.20

**Odds ratios for factors associated with the use of more than one type of childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Category of variable[1] | Odds ratio[2] |
|---|---|---|
| Type of work of the mother (standard schedule) | Non-standard schedule | 1.70 † |
| Type of family (single-parent) | Two-parent | 0.51 † |
| Presence of an older sibling (no) | Yes | 0.57 †† |
| Area of residence (urban) | Rural | 1.88 † |

1. The reference category is indicated in parentheses.
2. Ratios significant at the level of: †: 0.05; ††: 0.01.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

# 4. Interpretation of results

This last section will present, first, some limitations of the analyses performed. Next, the results will be summarized and discussed, and then they will be situated relative to certain public policies.

## 4.1 Limitations of the analysis

Some explanatory variables that might well have been considered were not considered because they were not colligated in the *QLSCD*. Consider, for example, the cost of childcare—information that was not explicitly collected in the part of the ICCQ concerning childcare. We do know, however, that high costs for childcare can lead parents to reduce or withdraw their participation in the paid labour force or to use various kinds of free or unregulated childcare arrangements. In 2000, when the children were about 29 months old, all children in Québec were eligible for subsidized places in childcare centres, although this does not mean that all the places needed were available. The cost of childcare may thus have played a role that could not be taken into consideration.

Note should also be taken of two situations in which additional information would have been relevant to our analysis. On the one hand, no question was designed to identify the reason(s) that some parents, although working, indicated that they did not use any childcare arrangements. On the other hand, there was no provision for declaring childcare arrangements used only occasionally by families that engaged in such practices. Since this situation is more often than not the case with families in which at least one of the parents has non-standard work or in which the work of the mother was non-standard, the absence of this kind of information constitutes a shortcoming.

## 4.2 Summary of the analyses

Compared with other children about 29 months old, those whose parents were in the paid labour force were more likely not to have siblings and to belong to a two-parent family or to a family that was financially well-off. Children from this population were more likely to live with fathers whose work was non-standard than with mothers having such work. Even if fathers tended to have a variety of different work schedule combinations, their non-standard work situations are easily distinguishable from those of the mothers by the higher number of hours they work in a week; nearly 85% of them worked 40 hours or more per week. Conversely, 40% of mothers with non-standard employment worked part-time and more than two-thirds of them did so in order to spend more time with their families. Apart from this distinction, the data do not allow us to ascertain whether in families in which at least one of the two parents had non-standard employment there was in fact a tendency to stagger work schedules.

With regard to sociodemographic characteristics, the analyses show that compared with other children whose mothers worked, children with mothers whose work was non-standard were more likely to live in single-parent families and to have mothers who were younger, less educated, and less well-off financially.

As for participation in the paid labour force, apart from the fact that mothers with non-standard work in 2000 were more likely to have rejoined the labour market when their child was between 0 and 4 months old, they also worked fewer hours each week than did mothers with standard employment. In addition, compared with others, a larger proportion of mothers with non-standard employment were self-employed.

Whether examined according to the work situation of the family or the mother, non-standard employment can be seen to discourage the use of childcare or to reduce the regularity with which childcare is used. Only in the case of regular childcare did non-standard employment lead to fewer childcare hours per week. In addition, it was the type of work of the mother, and not that of the family overall, and even less that of the father, that seemed to have an impact on the characteristics of childcare figuring in these analyses.

Analyses that took into consideration a set of variables capable of influencing these characteristics have made it possible to identify certain distinct effects of the type of work of the mother on childcare arrangements for children about 29 months old.

More specifically, the non-standard work of the mother increased the likelihood that the child would receive childcare at home and that more than one regularly used type of childcare would be required for him or her. A similar tendency was also noted concerning childcare given by a relative ($p = 0.05$). When the mother worked part-time, when she was self-employed, or when she had not attended university, the probability was also greater that the family would use unregulated childcare. These observations correspond with what has been reported in other studies. They confirm, on the one hand, that the way mothers participate in the paid labour force plays a large role in childcare organization and, on the other hand, that non-standard work schedules or other characteristics of non-standard employment will more often result in childcare arrangements made outside regular or regulated services or in the use of more than one type of childcare.

Last, the results of these analyses also show that in those cases where an adult other than the parents—a grandparent in most cases—lives under the same roof as the family, the chances are greater that children about 29 months old will receive childcare by a relative or at home.

## 4.3 Discussion and implications of the results for public policy

In general, the results of this analysis show that parents with non-standard work have fewer socioeconomic advantages as well as more problems finding childcare for children about 2½ years old. Indeed, even if they are as likely to prefer low-cost regulated child care as those with standard work (about 60% in both cases), parents with non-standard work more often use care provided by a relative or at their home for children about 2½ years old. Still, these results do not reflect the variety of situations, some of which are extremely complex, that parents with non-standard work must live with in dealing with childcare arrangements. Other studies and research that focus specifically on this issue are necessary. Data from later rounds of the *QLSCD* should allow confirming whether situations observed when children were around 29 months old are continuing or are changing as time goes on. In the meantime, though, these results are worth considering in the broader context of the need to balance work and family, as well as in their potential implications for public policy in Québec.

First of all, it is important to emphasize that the non-standard employment of parents who have young children will surely have implications for the policies, measures, and legislative proposals on access to, integration into, and participation in the paid labour force. A number of inadequacies and inconsistencies in minimum labour standards and labour management relations can be seen to exist now because the laws pertaining to this field were conceived and worked out at a time when wage-earning was the dominant kind of work. The considerable growth in non-standard employment in recent decades, as has been the case in most developed economies, has prompted the province to review the contents of its labour laws with an eye to these new circumstances. For example, the Québec Labour Standards Act has recently been modified in order to give recourse to hourly workers whose employers attempted to change their status to self-employed in order to avoid being subject to this law and paying the associated costs. Other modifications have also been made to this law to allow for the fact that parents with young children sometimes have to take time off work. In addition, a committee of experts has recently made public a report on the need for social benefits by people holding non-traditional jobs.

It could well be that a certain part of the workforce with non-standard jobs or work schedules has adjusted well to its less traditional working environment. For example, under certain conditions, self-employment can work well with childcare arrangements for young children. For others, the contrary holds: non-standard employment usually results from an absence of alternatives and is seen as precarious. In this sense, the complexity of childcare arrangements is only one aspect of non-standard work conditions. As we have seen above, families and mothers with non-standard work are less well-off financially when compared to parents with standard work. But apart from recognizing the negative consequences of non-standard work on employees and their families, as well as the inadequate legal protections that go with them, we must also ask ourselves how far the push for a flexible workforce

will go. The scope of the difficulties encountered by parents attempting to maintain the delicate balance between work and family while holding non-standard employment or working non-standard schedules is certainly not adequately understood. Higher levels of worker satisfaction and productivity gains are, however, some of the perceived results reported by employers that offer greater support to parents in the workplace. We must therefore continue to make employers more aware of the dynamics of balancing work and family and support those who want to forge ahead.

The results of this study remind us, moreover, that as far as childcare services are concerned, the new family policy in Québec has made available quality childcare services at reduced rates that are also designed to meet a host of parental needs. Even if the operating hours for these services sometimes extend beyond normal hours, from very early in the morning until the end of the day, they are still offered mainly during the day, from Monday to Friday. Working with about ten childcare centres, the *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance* tested "childcare during off hours". One test took place for a year beginning in September 2000, during which childcare services were offered in the evening, at night, and on the weekend. Following a positive evaluation of these projects, it was agreed that those childcare services that found sufficient demand among their clientele would be encouraged to modify their services along these lines. Again, however, such changes in service cannot occur unless employers offer more support to parents of young children in the workplace; otherwise, they will serve only to create yet other workers with non-standard jobs.

Based on data from the *QLSCD*, we find that the mothers of children about 29 months old who had non-standard work could be found in families where the typical practice was to keep the child at home and where care was very often given by a relative. This distinctive characteristic of the work of the mother very often also meant using more than one type of childcare. The *QLSCD* data do not, however, tell us what reasons motivated these choices. This kind of arrangement could, of course, result from the fact that the services generally offered in CCs did not meet these particular needs, not only because of the fairly standard hours of these services, but also because they were intended for full-time users. Without minimizing the significance of this first hypothesis, it is also possible that the greater likelihood that these mothers, when compared with mothers having standard employment, were self-employed facilitated the concentration of their professional and family obligations at home. Furthermore, one could also argue that the lack of places at the time of the third round of the *QLSCD* worked to keep mothers away from regulated childcare services if those mothers either worked part-time or were self-employed.

Finally, this whole set of issues is also linked to future population policy. Quite obviously, the living conditions of future parents and young parents, struggling with non-standard work schedules and jobs that can be highly unpredictable, have not been ideal for proceeding with plans to have a first child, or a second or even a third. Instead, when trying to make childcare arrangements, such parents have been forced to cope with complicated strategies and have often had to start over, or to wait until improvements in their working conditions warranted following through on the desire to have children. Given that pulling together the resources necessary to have children entails a series of actions that draw on both the economic and social realms, it is arguable that population policy should explicitly incorporate these issues into its deliberations and action plans.

In short, the willingness to provide more support to parents attempting to strike a balance between work and family, expressed by both the provincial government and recognized associations of employers and unions, must take into account the range of situations in which this balancing occurs, especially those that affect families and mothers with non-standard work schedules.

# Conclusion

The rapid growth in non-standard employment these past few years is a phenomenon that can be seen not only in Québec but also in most developed economies. Among the characteristics of these jobs is the fact that their work schedules very often differ from the standard 9-to-5, Monday-to-Friday routine. These jobs include, for example, self-employed work, involuntary part-time work, and on-call work, for which the work schedules can vary from evenings to nights to split shifts to schedules fixed at the last minute.

Non-standard employment is a fact of life experienced by many parents of young children. In some families, it constitutes to some extent a "solution" for balancing work and family life, since the parents have organized their work schedules to ensure that one of them is always with the children. Nonetheless, the literature generally reports numerous difficulties that result from non-standard employment, especially when the time comes for organizing childcare.

Parents' non-standard employment has many consequences for the organization of childcare and the studies consulted tend to reach the same conclusions. First and foremost, it is obvious that the childcare needs of many parents are not being met by the services generally available, since these are still largely available only during the day, from Monday to Friday. Non-standard employment also makes it necessary to resort to various types of childcare, and often these must be reorganized each week. Frequently a combination of formal and informal childcare services is used, and grandparents, grandmothers in particular, are especially in demand.

The analyses performed for this study, based on data from the *QLSCD*, showed that among children about 29 months old that possibly required childcare because their parents were working, a little more than a third had a mother with a non-standard work schedule, whereas about 6 children out of 10 were affected by this circumstance because of the situation of one parent or the other. Furthermore, the analysis of the data linking non-standard work with certain aspects of childcare arrangements shows that, among families in which the single parent or both parents worked, the non-standard work of the mother prompted more frequent use of home-based childcare and the use of more than one type of childcare; it also seemed to favour using childcare given by a relative. The use of unregulated childcare was more associated with other characteristics of the non-standard work of the mother, like the fact that she worked part-time or was self-employed.

The analysis of data from the next rounds of the *QLSCD* should allow us to confirm whether the tendencies observed here have continued with time. At the same time, more specific surveys will tell us more about what large number of parents have experienced.

# Annexes

# Annex 1
## Description of indicators relating to modes of childcare

The third round of the *QLSCD* allows colligating all modes of childcare used regularly by parents for children about 29 months old, in 2000, when these parents were working or in school.

These modes of childcare are described as follows:

1. Childcare at another person's home by someone not related (home-based childcare)
2. Childcare at another person's home by someone related
3. Childcare at the child's home by a relative (except siblings)
4. Childcare at the child's home by an unrelated person
5. Childcare in a childcare centre (including those in the workplace)

The extent of use for each of these modes of childcare, expressed in the number of hours per week, has also been colligated in order to permit identifying the primary mode of childcare for the child in question. In addition, a question referring to each of the first two modes of childcare was asked of the respondent to find out whether the specified childcare service belonged to a childcare centre holding a permit from the government of Québec (a "regulated" service) or not (an "unregulated" service). Both modes of home-based childcare were considered as being "unregulated" services, whereas care provided in a childcare centre (whether for-profit or not) is by definition a service "regulated" by the government.

The indicators relating to the selected modes of childcare are defined as follows:

**Childcare by a relative**:

This type of childcare takes in all families having declared either mode **2** or mode **3** as the primary mode of childcare used for their child about 29 months old.

**Home-based childcare**:

This type of childcare takes in all families having declared either mode **3** or mode **4** as the primary mode of childcare used for their child about 29 months old.

**Unregulated childcare**:

This type of childcare takes in all families having declared **home-based childcare** as well as those having declared either mode **1** or mode **2** as the primary mode of childcare used for their child about 29 months old, given a negative response to the question about having a permit from the government of Québec.

**Use of more than one mode of childcare**:

This indicator takes in all families having declared regularly using at least two of the five modes of childcare described above for the childcare of their child about 29 months old.

# Annex 2
## Supplementary tables

Table A.1
**Distribution of children about 29 months old by father's employment situation and certain sociodemographic characteristics, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of the father | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Type of family | | | Not signif. |
| Two-parent family | 99.9 | 99.1 | |
| Single-parent family | 0.1** | 0.9** | |
| Number of children in the family | | | Not signif. |
| One | 35.0 | 30.5 | |
| Two | 46.9 | 51.0 | |
| Three or more | 18.1 | 18.6 | |
| Father's age group | | | $p < 0.001$ |
| Under 30 | 13.4 | 24.5 | |
| 30 and over | 86.6 | 75.5 | |
| Highest educational level of father[1] | | | $p < 0.001$ |
| Primary or secondary school | 22.7 | 28.8 | |
| Post-secondary (not university) | 36.8 | 46.7 | |
| University | 40.5 | 24.6 | |
| Household income | | | $p < 0.001$ |
| Less than $20,000 | 1.3** | 3.1** | |
| $20,000 to $29,999 | 3.5** | 9.0* | |
| $30,000 to $49,999 | 19.1 | 30.4 | |
| $50,000 or higher | 76.1 | 57.5 | |

1. The highest year of education completed, not the diploma or degree obtained; course work may therefore be incomplete.
* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation higher than 25%; imprecise estimate for descriptive purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table A.2

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by father's type of work and certain characteristics relating to his participation in the paid labour force, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of the father | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Number of weeks worked during the preceding 12 months | | | Non signif. |
| Less than 27 weeks | 2.3** | 3.7* | |
| 27 to 51 weeks | 9.0 | 10.2* | |
| 52 weeks | 88.7 | 86.1 | |
| Number of hours usually worked per week | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than 30 hours | 1.6** | 2.4** | |
| 30 to 39 hours | 28.2 | 13.0 | |
| 40 hours or more | 70.3 | 84.6 | |
| Professional category | | | p < 0.001 |
| Professional, executive | 20.7 | 8.7 | |
| Middle management, technician | 32.4 | 20.7 | |
| Office or service worker | 14.2 | 15.2 | |
| Foreman, skilled worker | 25.1 | 34.6 | |
| Unskilled worker | 7.5* | 20.8 | |
| Status of main job | | | p < 0.001 |
| Salaried employee/wage-earner | 87.9 | 77.0 | |
| Self-employed | 12.1 | 23.0 | |
| Held other job during preceding 12 months | | | p < 0.05 |
| Yes | 15.4 | 21.4 | |
| No | 84.6 | 78.6 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation higher than 25%; imprecise estimate for descriptive purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table A.3

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by father's type of work, childcare arrangements preferred by the parents, and use of childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of the father | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Preferred childcare arrangements (assuming that they are convenient) | | | Not signif. |
| In the child's home | 20.3 | 19.3 | |
| Elsewhere in a family | 10.4 | 9.7 | |
| Coordinated home-based childcare ($5 space) | 26.2 | 29.6 | |
| Childcare centre ($5 space0 | 32.2 | 33.0 | |
| Kindergarten | 8.5 | 6.0* | |
| Other | 2.4** | 2.5** | |
| Current use of childcare | | | Not signif. |
| Yes, regularly | 85.9 | 80.9 | |
| Yes, occasionally | 3.1** | 5.1* | |
| No | 11.1 | 14.1 | |

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.
** Coefficient of variation higher than 25%; imprecise estimate for descriptive purposes only.

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table A.4

**Distribution of children about 29 months old by father's type of work and certain characteristics of regular childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Type of work of the father | | $\chi^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Standard | Non-standard | |
| | % | | |
| Number of hours of childcare per week | | | p < 0.001 |
| Less than 26 hours | 19.6 | 27.9 | |
| 26 to 35 hours | 19.2 | 26.4 | |
| 36 to 40 hours | 26.7 | 26.1 | |
| 41 to 45 hours | 17.2 | 13.1 | |
| 46 to 50 hours | 13.1 | 5.1* | |
| 51 hours and more | 4.2* | 1.4** | |
| Number of types of childcare declared during the survey | | | Not signif. |
| One | 92.0 | 88.7 | |
| Two or more | 8.0* | 11.3 | |
| Primary type of childcare used[1] | | | Not signif. |
| At the house of an unrelated person | 44.7 | 49.4 | |
| At the child's home, by an unrelated person | 7.1* | 6.6* | |
| At a childcare centre | 27.3 | 24.5 | |
| At the home of a relative | 15.7 | 11.9 | |
| At the home of the child, by a relative | 5.2* | 7.6* | |
| Primary type of childcare by a relative | 20.9 | 19.5 | Not signif. |
| Primary type of childcare at the child's home | 12.3 | 14.2 | Not signif. |
| Primary type of childcare unregulated | 55.0 | 57.5 | Not signif. |
| Change in primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months | | | Not signif. |
| No change | 69.9 | 70.4 | |
| One change | 23.6 | 22.0 | |
| More than one change | 6,5* | 7.6* | |
| Reasons for changing primary type of childcare during preceding 12 months[2] | | | |
| Reasons related to childcare service or to caregiver[3] | 50.4 | 48.0 | Not signif. |
| Reasons related to family or to child[4] | 28.9 | 29.0* | Not signif. |
| Employment situation of parents has changed | 2.0** | 5.3** | Not signif. |
| Preferred childcare arrangements became available | 18.4* | 20.8* | Not signif. |
| Other | 5.8** | 3.7** | Not signif. |

1. The primary mode of childcare is defined as being the mode used for the most hours.
2. More than one reason could be given.
3. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the service or the caregiver was no longer available; the hours of operation or the cost became unacceptable; or the service was no longer considered satisfactory by the parent.
4. These reasons may include the following circumstances: the family or the child moved; the legal guardian of the child changed; the child's needs changed; the service was not close enough to home or work.

* Coefficient of variation between 15% and 25%; interpret with caution.

** Coefficient of variation higher than 25%; imprecise estimate for descriptive purposes only.

Source: Institut de la statistique du Québec, *QLSCD 1998-2002.*

Table A.5
**Levels of significance for bivariate analyses (Chi-square test) among explanatory variables and selected types of childcare, Québec, 2000**

| | Primarily use of childcare by a relative | Primarily use home-based childcare | Primarily use unregulated childcare | Use more than one mode of childcare |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | p | | |
| Type of family (single- or two-parent) | 0.47 | 0.43 | 0.21 | 0.01 |
| Household income Under than $20,000 $20,000 to $29,999; $30,000 to $49,999; $50,000 or more | 0.01 | 0.92 | 0.05 | 0.06 |
| Number of children in the family (1; 2; 3 or more) | 0.82 | 0.01 | 0.82 | 0.04 |
| Presence of siblings younger than the target child (yes, no) | 0.09 | 0.22 | 0.77 | 0.46 |
| Presence of siblings older than the target child (yes, no) | 0.57 | 0.13 | 0.91 | 0.01 |
| Presence of another adult in the household (yes, no) | 0.04 | 0.00 | 0.16 | 0.35 |
| Area of family residence (rural or urban) | 0.66 | 0.21 | 0.67 | 0.01 |
| Type of work of the mother (standard or non-standard) | 0.03 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.00 |

Source: *Institut de la statistique du Québec, QLSCD 1998-2002.*

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# Glossary

| | |
|---|---|
| *Conseil du statut de la femme* | Council for Women Status |
| *Direction de la méthodologie, de la démographie et des enquêtes spéciales, ISQ* | Methodology, Demography and Special Surveys Division, ISQ |
| *Direction Santé Québec, ISQ* | Health Québec Division, ISQ |
| *Institut de la statistique du Québec* | Québec Institute of Statistics |
| *ministère de la Famille et de l'Enfance* | Ministry of Family and Child Welfare |
| *ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux (MSSS)* | Ministry of Health and Social Services |
| *Personne qui connaît le mieux l'enfant (PCM)* | Person Most Knowledgeable (PMK) |

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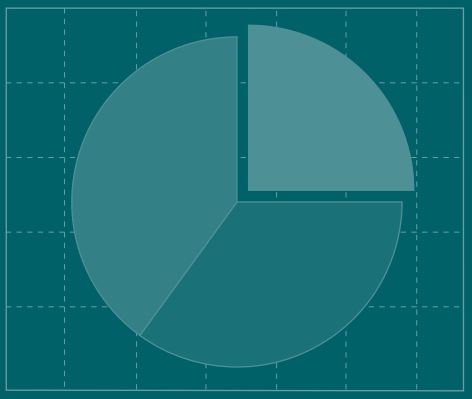

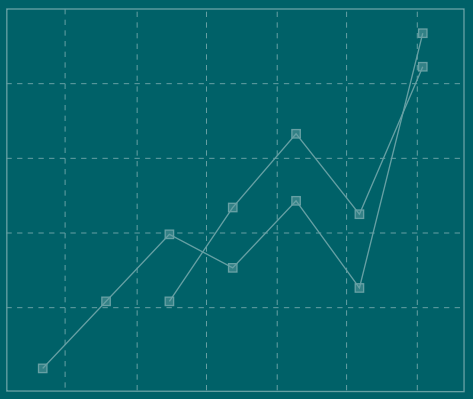

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