

# Adult Health Practices in the United States and Canada 

The prevalence levels of 12 health practices in the United States and Canada are compared in this study: smoking: drinking status; average daily alcohol consumption; physical activity; eating breakfast; use of seatbelts and child safety restraints; ownership of smoke detectors; recency of blood pressure checks, breast examinations, and Pap tests; and practice of breast selfexamination. Data for two additional variables-drinking and driving and blood pressure awareness-are shown for the two countries, but the statistics cannot be strictly compared. Data are presented for four age groups by sex and for three levels of education. Trends in smoking and seatbelt use between 1979 and 1985 are also discussed.

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Symbols

-     -         - Data not available
. . . Category not applicable
- Quantity zero
0.0 Quantity more than zero but less than 0.5
Z Quantity more than zero but less than 500 where numbers are rounded to thousands
Figure does not meet standard of reliability or precision (more than 30 percent for United States or 33 percent for Canada relative standard error)
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# Adult Health Practices in the United States and Canada 

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## Introduction

## Objectives

This report compares the 1985 prevalence levels of several important health practices in the United States and Canada and trends in two practices between 1979 and 1985 in both countries. The comparison is mainly a descriptive one, although in many instances it is possible to suggest possible reasons underlying differences in prevalence rates. The objective for presenting these data is to provide a new perspective for those engaged in health promotion.

Systematic comparisons in health practices between two countries have not previously been available. Because there are important similarities in the data collection methods and in the populations under study in this report, the comparisons reported here should be little affected by systematic error. Thus it should be possible, at least at a general level, to compare the impact on health practices of policies and programs in the two countries (for example, a universal public health insurance system, seatbelt legislation, and high blood pressure education). Another advantage of intercountry comparison is that it allows examination of demographic trends, such as the relationship between education level and health practices, in two populations. (The relationship between level of education and health practices is not only confirmed, but shown to be much stronger in the United States.) Finally, these U.S.Canada comparisons of health practices should suggest important avenues for further research with practical application. For example, there is no ready explanation for the
higher Canadian consumption of alcohol and tobacco, suggesting that ethnocultural factors may deserve further examination.

## Scope of the report

The prevalence levels of 12 health practices are compared in this study: smoking; drinking status; average daily alcohol consumption; physical activity; eating breakfast; use of seatbelts and child safety restraints; ownership of smoke detectors; recency of blood pressure checks, breast examinations, and Pap tests; and practice of breast self-examination. These are all the practices for which comparable data exist for 1985, the date of the most recent comprehensive survey in each country. Data for two additional variables-drinking and driving and blood pressure awareness-are shown for the two countries, although the statistics cannot be strictly compared because the questions in the two surveys measured slightly different aspects of the behavior. By virtue of their relationship to morbidity and mortality, these are the most important health practices to study. For most practices, prevalence is presented for four age groups for each sex and for three levels of education.

Trend data for 1979 and 1985 are provided for smoking and seatbelt use. These practices are the only ones for which comparable data exist for the same two time points in the United States and Canada.

Highlights

- There were fewer smokers per capita in the United States than in Canada in 1985. Thirty percent of U.S. adults smoked cigarettes, compared with 35 percent in Canada. This difference was especially pronounced among the young (ages $18-24$ years) of both sexes. Between 1979 and 1985, most age-sex groups in both countries had reduced their levels of smoking.
- There was a higher proportion of drinkers in Canada ( 82 percent) than in the United States ( 65 percent); this difference was most marked among women ( 78 and 56 percent, respectively). Canadian drinkers were also more likely than Americans to have an average of two drinks or more (1 ounce or more of ethanol) daily.
- Participation in regular sports or exercise was claimed by 40 percent of adult Americans. This was 13 percentage points lower than the prevalence of regular activity in Canada.
- Regular use of seatbelts and car restraints in the United States in 1985 was less than half that of Canada. The largest international difference was among those with less than a high school education. Canadians in this category were three times more likely to use seatbelts than their U.S. counterparts. Both countries showed marked improvements between 1979 and 1985 in the proportion of the population usually wearing seatbelts, increasing by 16 and 18 percentage points in the United States and Canada, respectively.
- A smaller percent of Americans than Canadians owned smoke detectors in 1985: 69 compared with 77 percent.
- About three-quarters of adults in both countries had had a blood pressure check within the past 12 months. Both populations displayed fairly high levels of basic knowledge about hypertension.
- About 50 percent of women in the United States had had a breast examination by a doctor or nurse within the past 12 months; the corresponding figure for Canada was 69 percent.
- U.S. women were less likely than Canadian women (32 and 41 percent, respectively) to practice breast selfexamination on a monthly basis.
- The prevalence of Pap smear tests within the last 3 years was similar in both countries, at about three of every four women.
- Although prevalence rates often vary between the United States and Canada, relationships between health practices and level of education were similar in the two countries. Educational differences in health practices were particularly strong in the United States. Good health habits-not smoking; regular physical activity; use of seatbelts and car restraints; ownership of smoke detectors; and regularity of breast examination, Pap smear, and breast self-examination-were more common among better educated groups in both countries. Of good health habits, only blood pressure checks were unrelated to level of education. Current drinking was the only apparently unhealthy habit found to be associated with more education.
- Age-sex patterns also showed similarity between the United States and Canada. In both countries, women and older adults were likely to have somewhat better health habits than were men and younger adults. The exceptions, however, may be important, such as the lower rates of seatbelt use by older compared with middle-aged Americans and the similarity in drinking prevalence among young Canadian men and women.


## Methods

In this report, prevalence data from two 1985 health practice surveys are compared for the United States and Canada. Furthermore, these data and data from similar surveys conducted in 1979 are used to compare trends in both countries. The major concern when making the international comparisons was to ensure that there was sufficient similarity in the methods of the surveys to rule out any systematic bias. A brief description of the techniques employed in the four surveys is provided in this section, with additional details in appendix $I$. Definitions of terms used in this report are provided in appendix II. Question wording is described in the appropriate section of the results, and the instruments for the 1985 surveys are reproduced in appendix III.

## Sources of 1985 data

The principal sources of data for this study were two large population surveys carried out at approximately the same time, with similar methods and subject matter and nearly identical sample designs (NCHS, 1986a; Health and Welfare Canada, in press). The U.S. data are from the 1985 National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention (HPDP). NHIS is conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics, with field work carried out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. The Canadian data originate from Canada's Health Promotion Survey, carried out by Statistics Canada for Health and Welfare Canada. Both surveys were intended to monitor health practices in their respective populations and to provide data for planning health promotion activities; both are scheduled to be repeated in 1990.

A number of important similarities exist between the U.S. and Canadian surveys. These arose not so much from coordinated planning as from shared objectives and a common understanding about the best means to collect data on these topics. The most important area of similarity involves the target populations. In both cases these were the adult, national, civilian noninstitutionalized populations. One adult per family was selected in the U.S. survey, and one per household was selected in Canada. Response rates were high for both surveys- 90 percent in the United States and 82 percent in Canada.

In the United States, 33,630 persons age 18 years and over living in approximately 35,000 NHIS sample households participated. In Canada 11,181 persons age 15 years
and over living in 13,649 households were interviewed. Data presented in this report have been weighted to reflect the 1985 populations in the two countries, and these weights have been adjusted to take into account persons selected but not participating in the survey. The average weight (or number of persons represented by each sample person) is 5,085 for the U.S. survey and 1,752 for the Canadian survey.

The principal difference between the methods of these two surveys was in the data collection process. Although the survey respondent was interviewed at home in both cases, the interview was conducted in person in the United States and by telephone in Canada. This has two implications for the results, both of them probably minor in impact. First, some survey practitioners believe that greater candor and accuracy are obtained in telephone responses (Marcus and Crane, 1986). However, the survey subject matter was not found to be particularly sensitive for most people, and any advantages or disadvantages of telephone data collection are likely to be minor. Second, the telephone technique used in Canada naturally excluded households without telephones. This amounts to only 3 percent of households. The inhabitants of these households were disproportionately young, unemployed males (Health and Welfare Canada, 1985). Because the data in this report are presented by sex and age group and because sample weights are adjusted for these and other characteristics, the impact on the comparisons should be minimal.

All data presented in this report are from the public use microdata tapes available from the respective survey sponsors (Health and Welfare Canada, 1985; NCHS, unpublished). Where differences are described in the results section, these have been assessed by $t$-test and are significantly different with $p<.05$. Appendix I describes how the standard errors were calculated for this purpose.

## Sources of 1979 data

Health surveys had been carried out routinely in the United States prior to 1985 and at irregular intervals in Canada. Only a limited number of surveys have collected information consistently over time, and only in 1979 were there surveys in the United States and Canada that collected data on health behaviors similar to those found in the 1985 surveys. (In the United States, the 1977 and the 1983

National Health Interview Surveys also included questions on health practices.)

Wave I of the National Survey of Personal Health Practices and Consequences (NCHS, 1981, 1982) was a telephone survey of 3,025 persons who constituted a probability sample of U.S. adults ages 20-64 years living in households. Data collection was carried out by a research contractor in the spring of 1979, and the response rate was about 81 percent. The disproportionately high number of women in the responding sample does not present a problem for this report because the data are shown separately for each sex.

The Canadian data for 1979 are from the Canada Health Survey (Health and Welfare Canada and Statistics

Canada, 1981; Statistics Canada, unpublished). This was a multimethod survey, employing an in-person interview, self-completed questionnaire, physical measurements, and blood sampling, carried out in the home. The data reported here are from the self-completed questionnaire; questionnaires were completed by 23,791 persons ages 15 years and over ( 15,239 ages $20-64$ years). Data collection extended from July 1978 through March 1979, and the design consisted of a national probability sample of households in which all members within the appropriate age limits were selected for participation. The response for the questionnaire was 87 percent of those in interview households.

## Differences in the national populations

Although data in this report are presented by age, sex, and educational level, it is important to compare the composition of the U.S. and Canadian populations for characteristics that may affect the comparisons of health practices.

Table A shows the distribution of the two national populations by age-sex groups and educational levels. The education distributions of the two countries are quite different: Overall, Canadians were about 10 percentage points less likely to have a high school diploma. The proportion with college or university education, however, was very similar (about 37 percent) in the two countries. This applies equally to men and women, but not to all age groups. Young Americans (ages 18-24 years) are less likely than their Canadian age peers to be college educated, while the reverse holds for ages $35-64$ years-a fact to be remembered when making age-specific comparisons between the two countries.

When interpreting educational differences shown in this report, the age composition of each of the education
groups should be kept in mind (table B). Americans with less than a high school education are skewed toward the older age groups, relative to their Canadian counterparts, who have a higher proportion in the middle age groups. Among college graduates, the Canadians have somewhat higher proportions in the younger age groups than do American graduates.

In addition to these differences in age and education, there are other contrasts between these two countries that serve as a context for interpreting the results in this report. Some of these are shown in table C. The United States is the fourth most populous nation on earth, with a population almost 10 times that of Canada. Moreover, because the land mass of Canada is the second largest in the world, the difference in population density is vast-Canada's being one-fifteenth that of the United States.

Differences in ethnocultural characteristics between the United States and Canada are also apparent. Twelve percent of U.S. adults are black and 85 percent are white; in

Table A. Population comparison: percent distribution of adults by educational levels, according to sex and age: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sox and age |  |  | High school |  |  |  | College or universily |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total |  | Not completed |  | Completed |  |  |  |
|  | Unted States | Canada | United <br> States | Canada | United <br> states | Canada | Unted <br> States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 24.3 | 34.4 | 39.0 | 28.7 | 36.7 | 36.9 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 23.8 | 33.3 | 35.7 | 27.0 | 40.5 | 39.7 |
| 18-19 years | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.0 | 32.6 | 53.7 | 32.3 | 16.3 | 35.1 |
| 20-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 14.5 | 19.9 | 42.4 | 30.3 | 43.1 | 49.9 |
| 25-34 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 12.1 | 19.3 | 38.5 | 31.6 | 49.4 | 49.1 |
| 35-44 years | 100.0 | 100.0 | 14.0 | 26.0 | 34.3 | 33.5 | 51.6 | 40.5 |
| 45-54 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 26.9 | 40.5 | 32.2 | 20.4 | 40.9 | 39.2 |
| 55-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.5 | 53.1 | 33.4 | 19.1 | 32.2 | 27.8 |
| 65-74 years . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 45.1 | 59.4 | 31.0 | 17.1 | 23.9 | 23.4 |
| 75 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 64.7 | 66.3 | 17.2 | 16.3 | 18.2 | 17.4 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 24.7 | 35.5 | 42.0 | 30.2 | 33.3 | 34.2 |
| 18-19 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.2 | 14.7 | 54.8 | 46.4 | 15.0 | 38.9 |
| 20-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 14.6 | 17.2 | 43.6 | 31.4 | 41.8 | 51.4 |
| 25-34 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 13.4 | 18.3 | 42.6 | 35.9 | 44.1 | 45.8 |
| 35-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 15.5 | 31.5 | 43.4 | 31.5 | 41.1 | 37.0 |
| 45-54 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 25.3 | 49.2 | 45.4 | 28.3 | 29.3 | 22.6 |
| 55-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.7 | 53.8 | 43.9 | 28.4 | 24.4 | 17.8 |
| 65-74 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 42.7 | 60.7 | 37.1 | 18.5 | 20.2 | 20.8 19.4 |
| 75 years and over . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 57.8 | 66.0 | 23.9 | 14.5 | 18.3 | 19.4 |

Table B. Population comparison: percent distribution of adults by age, according to educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Age |  |  | High school |  |  |  | College or unversty |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total |  | Not completed |  | Completod |  |  |  |
|  | Unťed States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | Unitod <br> States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All person 18 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 18-19 yөars | 4.3 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 3.0 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 1.8 | 4.3 |
| 20-24 years | 11.8 | 13.0 | 7.1 | 7.0 | 13.0 | 13.9 | 13.6 | 17.8 |
| 25-34 years. | 23.8 | 24.2 | 12.5 | 13.2 | 24.8 | 28.5 | 30.3 | 31.2 |
| 35-44 years | 18.4 | 19.2 | 11.2 | 16.0 | 18.4 | 21.2 | 23.1 | 20.2 |
| 45-54 years. | 13.1 | 13.7 | 14.0 | 17.9 | 13.1 | 11.6 | 12.4 | 11.4 |
| 55-64 years. | 12.9 | 12.4 | 17.5 | 19.2 | 12.9 | 10.3 | 9.9 | 7.6 |
| 65-74 years. | 9.7 | 8.8 | 17.5 | 15.3 | 8.6 | 5.5 | 5.8 | 5.2 |
| 75 years and over | 6.0 | 4.3 | 14.9 | 8.3 | 3.3 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 2.2 |

Table C. Selected population characteristics: United States and Canada

| Charactentitos ${ }^{1}$ | United States | Canada |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total resident population. | 238,740,000 | 25,354,000 |
| Population density, persons per square <br> kilometer | 39.3 | 2.5 |
| Average annual population growth rate, percent, 1980-85-U.S.; |  |  |
| 1981-86-Canada. | 0.9 | 0.8 |
| Per capta income, U.S. dollars . | \$13,850 | \$11,579 |
| Life expectancy at birth: |  |  |
| Males | 71.2 | 71.3 |
| Females | 78.2 | 79.6 |
| Infant mortality, deaths per 1,000 live births. | 10.6 | 7.9 |
| Elderiy dependency ratio, 1981. | 14.3 | 17.3 |
| Percent of all deaths due to: |  |  |
| Heart disease | 37 | 26 |
| Cancer. | 22 | 26 |
| Traffic accidents | 2 | 3 |
| Physiclans per 10,000 population. . . . . . | 21.3 | 18.6 |
| Per capita health care expenditures, U.S. dollars: 1983-U.S.; 1981-Canada | \$1,504 | \$1,001 |

${ }^{1}$ Data are for 1985 unless otherwise indicated.
${ }^{2} 1986$.
Sources: Health and Welfare Canada, 1987; see reference list. National Center for Health Statistics, 1987; see reference list. Statistics Canada, 1987; Statistics Canada, Health Division, 1985 and 1987; see reference list. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987; see reference list.

Canada, the white population accounts for over 98 percent of the total. Although the majority of the white population in both countries derives from Europe, in Canada 25
percent speak French as their first language and the country is officially bilingual. Partly as a consequence of this large population of French background, a larger proportion of Canadians than Americans is Roman Catholic (47 and 33 percent, respectively) and a smaller proportion is Protestant (41 and 50 percent, respectively).

Despite these differences in population composition, both countries have been similarly exposed to demographic forces such as aging of their populations and increases in the elderly dependency ratios over the last 25 years (Statistics Canada, 1987). There are also similarities in the organization of the health care systems, based on a fee-for-service method of payment that is conducive to the use of highly technical and specialized services. A major difference, however, is the existence of a universal health insurance system in Canada that provides coverage for hospital and physician care. As a percent of gross national product, in 1985 Canada spent 8.8 percent on health care; the comparable figure for the United States was 10.7 percent.

Life expectancy at birth is the same for males in both countries, but is 1.4 years higher for females in Canada than in the United States (table C). The increase for both sexes over the past 5 years has been greater in Canada, where the infant mortality rate is also lower, by 2.7 per 1,000 live births (Statistics Canada, 1987). The major causes of death are heart disease and cancer in both countries; however, heart disease accounts for a higher proportion of all deaths in the United States and cancer is less common than in Canada.

## Prevalence of health practices, 1985

Consistency of definition was the overriding consideration in carrying out the analyses for this study. As a result, the findings for either survey in this report may be less detailed than those available elsewhere and represent just a fraction of the variables covered by each survey. However, it is possible to make comparisons on several important health practices.

A common format has been adopted for the presentation of results. For most of the health practices, a figure compares the prevalence of the principal category of interest for four age groups for men and women in the United States and Canada. A detailed table provides the data for additional categories and for three levels of education. In a few cases, text tables are used where a figure is not appropriate for displaying the data, and there is no corresponding detailed table. Where differences are noted and discussed in the text, these have been found statistically significant (probability of the differences being due to sampling error is no greater than 5 percent, and is usually no larger than 1 percent). The method for testing the difference between proportions is explained in appendix $I$.

All data are, of course, cross-sectional in nature. Thus the frequently observed associations between health practices and chronological age may be due to maturation processes, generational effects, selective survival, or a combination of these and other factors. The current data are not adequate for distinguishing among these possible explanations.

## Smoking

Of all the health practices one might consider studying in a population, cigarette smoking is undoubtedly the most important. Although substantial declines have been reported in recent years (Collishaw, 1987; NCHS, 1986b), smoking remains the number one cause of preventable death and disease (Richmond, 1979). A comparison of rates in the United States and Canada may shed some light on the relative success of policies employed to limit smoking in these two countries.

Current smokers were more prevalent in Canada ( 35 percent) than in the United States ( 30 percent). The United States had a smaller proportion of smokers in most age groups for both sexes and at all three levels of education (table 1). The most pronounced differences were among women and those $18-24$ years of age (figure 1). Young men and young women were more likely to be current smokers


SOURCES: Canada: Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1985; United Statos: National Health interviow Survey, 1985.

Figure 1. Percent of the adult population who were current cigarette amokers, by age: United States and Canada, 1985
in Canada than in the United States, by about 10 percentage points.

Despite these systematic differences between the populations of the two countries, the relationships between smoking, age, and sex were similar in both countries. Overall, men were more likely than women to be smokers, except at 18-24 years of age; in this group women were more likely to smoke than men in the United States and in Canada. Also seen in both countries was a drop in the proportion of smokers with increasing amounts of education, although in Canada the drop was observed only in the college-educated group. The highest rate of smoking by
men was at ages 25-44 years in both countries, after which there was a steady decline. Among women, however, there was a noteworthy difference. Although female smokers were about equally prevalent in all age groups up through age 64 years in the United States, in Canada they were more prevalent at ages $18-24$ years, and progressively less prevalent in older age groups. In fact, young Canadian women had the highest proportion of smokers ( 41 percent) of any age-sex group in the two countries.

Discussion-For both surveys virtually identical questions were used, with the exception that more detail was collected on nonsmokers in the United States. The questions are well established, having been used with minor variations in both countries for many years. The more favorable rates in the United States may be attributable to more antismoking public education, the profile given this issue by the U.S. Surgeon General, and more extensive restrictions on smoking in public places such as restaurants and airplanes. In both countries similar prohibitions exist on advertising tobacco products in the mass media. The fact that more women than men smoke only at ages 18-24 years suggests that the recent targeting of young women by cigarette manufacturers (Ernster, 1985) is experiencing some success in both countries.

## Alcohol use

The use of alcohol may be second only to smoking in the attention it receives from regulators and health educators. As with smoking, a comparison of the prevalence of alcohol consumption in the United States and Canada may reveal something about the effectiveness of each country's control measures.

For this purpose, individuals were classified as current drinkers, lifetime abstainers, and former drinkers (see appendix II for definitions of terms). As table 2 shows, current drinkers were substantially more common in Canada ( 82 percent) than in the United States ( 65 percent), a difference that was found in every age-sex group.

Female drinkers contributed disproportionately to this intercountry difference because they were more prevalent in Canada by 23 percentage points. In contrast, the prevalence of male drinkers in Canada was 10 percentage points higher than in the United States. Young women (ages 1824 years) accounted for the largest difference between countries; they were 27 percent more likely to be current drinkers in Canada than in the United States ( 91 versus 64 percent) (figure 2).

In the United States and Canada, drinking was more likely among persons under age 45 years, males, and the well educated (table 2). Both sex differences and educational differences in drinking prevalence were greater in the United States than in Canada.

Most Americans who were not current drinkers described themselves as lifetime abstainers ( 27 percent), rather than former drinkers (8 percent) (table 2). In Canada, the lifetime abstainers accounted for a much smaller proportion of the population than in the United States and


Flgure 2. Percent of the achult popuiation who were current drinkere, by age: Untied States and Canada, 1985
were actually outnumbered by the former drinkers. Men in the two countries were about equally likely to be former drinkers ( 9 percent), whereas Canadian women were about twice as likely as their U.S. counterparts to have given up drinking ( 12 and 6 percent, respectively).

Canada not only had a higher proportion of current drinkers, but Canadian drinkers were slightly more likely to be heavier drinkers ( 14 percent), averaging two drinks or more daily, than their U.S. counterparts ( 12 percent) (table 3). In the United States, the largest proportion of heavier drinkers was among those with less than a high school education; in Canada, high school graduates consumed the


Figure 3. Percent of adult drinkers who on the average consumed 1.0 ounce or more daily of absolute alcohol (2 drinks or more), by age: United States and Canada, 1985
highest average daily amount of alcohol (table 3). However, in neither country was heavier consumption typical; 86-88 percent of drinkers average less than two drinks daily. (See also figure 3.)

Drinking and driving is a problem that has received a vast amount of publicity in the United States and Canada in recent years, yet adequate population statistics on the extent of this practice have not been readily available. Although health surveys are now starting to collect this information, it is not yet in a consistent form that permits ready comparison. Questions in the two 1985 surveys, though different, shed some light on the prevalence of drinking and driving in the two countries.

Seventeen percent of U.S. adults admitted in 1985 to driving within the past year after "they perhaps had too much to drink" (table 4). In Canada, 25 percent reported they had driven in the past month "within two hours of drinking any amount of alcohol." Strict comparisons of prevalence rates are ruled out by the different wording of the questions. However, in both countries, drinking and driving was more prevalent among men than women and among younger adults than older persons. The only exception to this age pattern was among Canadian men; for this group, drinking and driving was most prevalent among those ages 25-44 years (figure 4). In both countries, driving


NOTE: See definitions of drinking in appendix.

Figure 4. Percent of adult drinkers who drove after drinking, by age: United States and Canada, 1985
after drinking was least likely to be reported by those with less than a high school education.

Discussion-Question wording on type of drinker varied in the two surveys, producing a stricter definition of lifetime abstainer in Canada (no drinks ever) than in the United States (never had 12 or more drinks in any one year). This undoubtedly explains some, but probably not all, of the 20 percentage point greater prevalence of lifetime abstainers in the United States. More important, the definitions of current drinker are comparable in the two surveys (at least one drink in the past 12 months). There are no obvious differences in policies or programs to explain the 17 percentage point higher prevalence of current drinkers in Canada. However, the higher drinking prevalence in Canada parallels the findings for smoking-the young have among the highest prevalence levels. This is not surprising, considering the consistent associations between smoking and drinking reported elsewhere (Berkman and Breslow, 1983; Stephens, 1986).

Estimates of average daily consumption are based on reports for the last 14 days in the United States compared with the last 7 days in Canada and are limited to current drinkers in both cases. Other things being equal, this should mean that the proportion of drinkers in the "none" category should be lower in the United States. As shown in table 3, the proportion of drinkers in the "no ounces" category was 16 percentage points lower in the United States than in Canada. Distribution across the lighter, moderate, and heavier categories is less likely to be affected by this difference in the reporting period. The 14-day
reference period probably means the U.S. data are more stable, but the impact on aggregate statistics should be minor.

In the case of drinking and driving, the prevalence rates cannot be compared because the questions were markedly different. The U.S. definition was stricter because it referred to impaired driving, which the Canadian one did not. Further, the reporting period in the U.S. question was one year, compared with the last month in Canada. Although these differences would affect prevalence levels, a comparison of the demographic patterns was reasonable because the behavior under examination was similar in both surveys.

## Physical activity

Leisure-time exercise is a practice with a wide variety of possible health benefits (Powell and Paffenbarger, 1985) and one that has apparently been taken up with enthusiasm in both the United States and Canada (Stephens, 1987). In the United States, the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports was initiated in 1956 to promote physical fitness of all Americans (President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, 1987). In Canada, the PARTICIPaction organization has been promoting exercise since 1971 (Contemporary Research Centre, Ltd., 1982).

Although detailed statistics on the prevalence of rigorously defined activity have recently been published for the United States and Canada (Schoenborn, 1986; Stephens, Craig, and Ferris, 1986a), they are not available for both countries for the same year. As a result, figure 5 and table 5 show summary indicators for 1985 that are reasonably comparable.

In the United States, 40 percent of adults claimed that they exercised or played sports regularly, compared with 53 percent in Canada who reported vigorous activity for at least 15 minutes three times or more per week (table 5). This tendency of Canadians to be more active was true of most age-sex groups, especially for those 45 years of age and over (figure 5).

In Canada, there was only a small difference between the sexes in the reported prevalence of activity at ages 18-24 years, while in the United States, men were much more likely than women to be active at this age. In Canada, women were more likely than men to be active at ages 45-64 years. Both populations are characterized by a decline in physical activity with increasing age, with the notable exception of an increase for Canadian men at age 65 years and over.

In both countries, leisure-time activity increased with higher levels of education (table 5). This was especially the case in the United States, where there was a two-fold difference in the prevalence of activity between the lowest and the highest educational levels. In Canada, this gradient was much less steep.

Discussion-The physical activity questions are worded differently in the two surveys. Although the Canadian question appears to be stricter, it is not certain that this is the case. A more rigorous definition of physical activity


Figure 5. Percent of the aduit population who were regularty active in hisure time, by age: United States and Camada, 1985
based on caloric expenditure was calculated from a detailed inventory of activities (Stephens, Jacobs, and White, 1985). By this approach, 27 percent of U.S. adults qualified as active in 1985-expending 3 kilocalories or more per kilogram of body weight daily (Schoenborn, 1986). The comparable figure in Canada in 1981 was 25 percent (Stephens, Craig and Ferris, 1986a), and this is likely to have increased during the period 1981-85, judging by trends documented elsewhere (Stephens, 1987). Moreover, 27 percent of Canadians age 15 years and over expended 4.5 kilocalories or more daily on physical activity in 1985, according to the nationwide General Social Survey (Statistics Canada, 1987). All of this suggests that the general conclusion, if not the precise quantities, of figure 5 is correct, even though physical activity tends to be higher in June, when the Canadian data were collected.

## Daily breakfast

Although eating a good breakfast on a regular basis is a health practice that receives little attention from health


Figure 8. Percent of the adult population who rarely ate breakfast, by age: Unifed States and Cmnada, 1985
promoters, it is nevertheless associated with better health including lower levels of mortality (Berkman and Breslow, 1983). Whether this is due to the salutary effects of breakfast alone, or whether a regular breakfast is indicative of generally good nutritional habits is not clear, but it is associated with good health independent of other practices such as smoking, drinking, and exercise.

Collecting detailed data on dietary habits is complex and difficult, and the approaches adopted to assess breakfast consumption in the United States and Canada in 1985 were slightly different. The U.S. survey asked about the frequency of breakfast, and the Canadian study obtained the weekly frequency of five broad classes of breakfast foods. This allowed a breakfast consisting of only coffee to be eliminated from consideration, a qualification not routinely possible with the U.S. data. (In the U.S. survey, a coffec-only breakfast was disregarded only when the interviewer was specifically asked whether or not coffee alone should be considered breakfast.) Because of this difference in the definition of breakfast, as well as in the frequency categories provided to respondents, figure 6 concentrates
on those who generally missed breakfast-the category that can be most readily compared.

Americans were less likely than Canadians to skip breakfast ( 24 percent versus 29 percent, respectively). This difference was found across most age-sex groups, although some were not statistically significant. U.S.-Canadian differences were most pronounced for men ages 45-64 years and women age 65 years and over.

In both countries, younger people (ages $18-44$ years) were more likely to miss breakfast than were middle-aged or senior adults. In the United States, there was virtually no male-female difference in the prevalence of this practice at any age. In Canada, men and women differed somewhat in their breakfast habits, and these sex differences varied with age. In the youngest and oldest age groups, women were more likely than men to skip breakfast. Among Canadians ages $45-64$ years, skipping breakfast was more prevalent among men, but no sex difference was found for persons ages 25-44 years. The relationship between skipping breakfast and level of education found in Canada did not occur in the United States (table 6).

Discussion-The Canadian definition specifically eliminates a breakfast consisting of coffee only. This may account for the 4 -percentage-point difference between the United States and Canada in missed breakfasts.

## Seatbelts and child restraints

Motor vehicle accidents are the fourth leading cause of death in the United States (NCHS, 1985a) and the seventhranked cause in Canada (Statistics Canada, 1985). These stark facts have led to the heavy promotion of seatbelt and child restraint use through public education and, more recently, through legislation.

Regular seatbelt use in the United States in 1985 was less than half that of Canada. Slightly more than one-third of American adults reported wearing their seatbelts "usually," compared with more than three-quarters of Canadians (table 7). Large differences were found for all age groups, both sexes, and all educational levels. The largest contrast is for those who have not completed high school: For these, the prevalence of regular seatbelt use in Canada was three times that of the United States.

United States-Canada comparisons of adults who reported never wearing seatbelts mirrored those for regular users. About one-third of U.S. adults, compared with 13 percent in Canada, reported in 1985 that they never wore a seatbelt.

Despite these large differences, there were similar demographic patterns in the two countries (figure 7). Women were more likely than men in all age groups to be regular seatbelt users, a discrepancy that diminished steadily with increasing age in the United States, but not Canada. In both countries, the young (18-24 years of age) were least likely to wear seatbelts, although the steady increase in prevalence of seatbelt use with age in Canada was not seen in the United States.


Figure 7. Percent of the actult population who usually wore seatbelts, by aga: United States and Canada, 1985

Like the findings for seatbelts, the use of child restraints (table D) was higher in Canada than in the United States. Almost all Canadian parents ( 91 percent) claimed to
usually insist upon their children being buckled up, compared with half ( 52 percent) of U.S. parents. There was a sharp increase in the use of child restraints with increasing education in the United States, which did not hold in Canada.

Discussion-The survey questions asking about the use of seatbelts were nearly identical. Response categories differed only slightly and are unlikely to have affected the results (see appendix II for definitions). A much more important explanation for the two-fold difference in prevalence is the existence of seatbelt legislation in Canada and its absence in the United States in 1985. Approximately 90 percent of the Canadian population was subject to such legislation at the time of the survey, and it was routinely enforced with substantial fines for noncompliance. The first such legislation was introduced in the United States in 1985, and it was not initially enforced. It is possible that the Canadian prevalence levels might be inflated because of reluctance to admit breaking the law. Observational studies of seatbelt use suggest that the prevalence is somewhat lower than self-reported (Arora, 1981).

## Smoke detector ownership

The smoke alarm offers an effective and inexpensive measure of protection against residential fires, which account for thousands of injuries and deaths annually, as well as millions of dollars' worth of property damage. The U.S. and Canadian surveys asked similar questions about ownership of smoke detectors, obtaining the information from a responsible adult member of the household. Because the Canadian survey did not identify the number of smoke detectors nor their working status, the findings are presented simply to show ownership of one or more devices. Although smoke detector ownership is a household rather than a personal characteristic, these data are presented by respondent characteristics because of lack of comparable household data for the two surveys.

Smoke detector ownership in the United States was lower ( 69 percent) than in Canada ( 77 percent) (table 8), a difference found at all age levels and most pronounced for ages 18-24 years (figure 8). In both countries, the highest rate of ownership was for ages 25-44 years.

There was a definite increase in the prevalence of ownership with higher levels of education in the United

Table D. Safety restraints: percent distribution of children by frequency of restraint use, according to parents' educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Educational level | Total |  | Usually |  | Somelimes |  | Nover |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unted States | Canada | United <br> States | Canada | UnHed States | Canada | UnMed <br> States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All educational levels. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 52.1 | 91.3 | 28.9 | 3.4 | 19.0 | 5.3 |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.9 | 89.6 | 30.2 | 3.1 | 35.0 | 7.3 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 46.6 | 92.2 | 30.4 | 2.4 | 23.0 | 5.4 |
| College or university | 100.0 | 100.0 | 61.3 | 91.8 | 27.3 | 4.4 | 11.4 | 3.8 |



Foure 8. Percent of the achult population who owned 1 smoke detector or more, by aga: United Stetes and Cernde, 1985

States; this was inconsistent in Canada, although the lowest levels of ownership were among those with less than a high school education.

Discussion-Although the U.S. survey collected more detail about smoke detector ownership, the basic question was very similar to the Canadian version. The comparison shown here is for the number of smoke detectors owned, regardless of their state of repair. Comparison of these data with previously published data for the United States suggest that approximately 9 percent of installed detectors are not working (NCHS, 1986a). This proportion is probably similar in Canada, although the information was not obtained there. If there is a difference that requires explaining, it is the 13 -percentage-point higher level of ownership by Canadian men ages 18-24 years. This may result from the installation of smoke detectors in college dormitories or the fairly widespread requirement for the devices in apartment buildings. The lack of a uniform national standard for smoke detector installation in either country leaves such attempts at explanation in the realm of speculation. This difference may also result from the fact that, at this age, more Canadians than Americans were college educated (table A), a factor that is positively associated with ownership.

## Most recent blood pressure check

Hypertension is a condition affecting 31 percent of Americans ages 18-74 years (Subcommittee on Definition and Prevalence of the Joint National Committee on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure, 1985) and 23 percent of Canadians ages 20-69 years (Stephens, Craig, and Ferris, 1986b). Because hypertension is only detected with a blood pressure check, public educa-
tion and medical practice have urged regular measurement for several years.

Both U.S. and Canadian surveys asked similar questions concerning the respondent's most recent blood pressure check. Overall, the prevalence of blood pressure checks within the past 12 months was slightly lower in the United States ( 74 percent) than in Canada ( 76 percent) (table 9). However, this difference was only statistically significant for women, and was not equal across age groups (figure 9). Young U.S. men were 11 percentage points more likely than their Canadian counterparts to have had a check within the past year. For older groups, it was the Canadians who were more likely to have had a recent check; this was particularly true of women. In both countries, the likelihood of a recent blood pressure check increased with age. An exception was U.S. women ages 25-44 years who were less likely than women of other ages to have had a blood pressure checkup within the past year.

Approximately three-fourths of individuals in the United States and in Canada at all three educational levels had had a blood pressure check within the past 12 months.

Discussion-The questions on time since last blood pressure check were nearly identical in the two surveys. Because there is no Canadian equivalent to the U.S. National High Blood Pressure Education Program, the nearequality in prevalence rates is surprising. It may be that the existence of universal health insurance in Canada compensates for the absence of a national high blood pressure education program in that country. Additionally, because


Figure 9. Percent of the sdult population with a blood pressure test within the past 12 montins, by age: United States and Canada, 1985
virtually all Canadians have U.S. television programming available, and U.S. magazines are widely distributed in Canada, some of the impact of the U.S. education program may also be felt north of the border.

## Blood pressure awareness

Knowledge of the importance of hypertension and of the need for regular checks is seen as important in the United States and Canada because monitoring and control depend heavily on individual initiative. Each country gained important insights into the level of public knowledge through their 1985 surveys, although the questions measured different aspects of awareness.

More than two-thirds of U.S. adults were aware that high blood pressure definitely increases the chances of heart disease (table E). This high prevalence of knowledge was true for men and women, and for all age groups under 65 years. Among U.S. men and women ages 65 years and over, a somewhat lower but still substantial proportion ( $58-59$ percent) was aware of the heart disease risk associated with high blood pressure. U.S. adults with a college education were 20 percentage points more likely to appreciate the hazards of hypertension than those with less than a high school diploma.

An important feature of hypertension is the lack of overt symptoms. Thus Canadian adults were asked to consider the statement, "You only need to have your blood pressure checked if you think you have a problem." Over 80

Table E. Blood pressure awareness: percent of adults in the United States who were aware that hypertension increases the chances of heart disease and percent of adults in Canada who were aware of the need for blood pressure testing in absence of symptoms, by sex, age, and educational levels: 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Blood pressure awareness |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | increased chances of heart disease in UnMed States | Testing in absence of symptoms in Canada |
|  | Percent |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. . | 68.4 | 80.7 |
| Men |  |  |
| All ages. | 68.0 | 78.2 |
| 18-24 years | 65.3 | 75.5 |
| 25-44 years | 71.9 | 81.8 |
| 45-64 years | 68.1 | 77.4 |
| 65 years and over | 58.6 | 70.8 |
| Women |  |  |
| All ages. | 68.9 | 83.2 |
| 18-24 years | 67.2 | 87.0 |
| 25-44 years | 72.9 | 85.8 |
| 45-64 years | 70.9 | 79.8 |
| 65 years and over | 58.0 | 77.3 |
| Educationai level |  |  |
| High school: . |  |  |
| Not completed. | 56.6 | 75.8 |
| Completed . . | 68.8 | 81.2 |
| College or university. | 76.2 | 85.3 |

percent were aware of the need for blood pressure testing in the absence of symptoms (table E). Women were more likely than men ( 83 and 78 percent, respectively) to have the correct view on this item. Differences among the age groups were not large, although the oldest men were least likely to see the need for a check in the absence of any complaint ( 71 percent). As is true of the blood pressure knowledge question on the U.S. survey, correct answers were directly related to level of education, although the difference between the lowest and highest educational levels was only 10 percentage points in Canada, in contrast to the 20 -percentage-point difference in the United States.

## Breast examination

At the time these surveys were conducted, breast cancer was the leading form of cancer among women in the United States (NCHS, 1985a) and Canada (Statistics Canada, 1987), accounting for about one-quarter of all female cancer. Periodic breast examination by a physician or nurse is widely recommended as an effective technique for early detection. Both surveys asked women to report on their most recent breast examination by a "doctor or other health professional" (United States) or by a "doctor or nurse" (Canada). The U.S. survey identified the interval since the most recent examination, and the Canadian survey simply determined whether the examination was within the past 12 months.

The prevalence of breast examination within 12 months was lower in the United States ( 50 percent) than in Canada ( 69 percent) (table 10). A substantial difference between the two countries was characteristic of all age groups. Furthermore, there was a similar decrease in the probability of a recent test with increasing age in both countries (figure 10). There was a tendency in both countries for the prevalence of a recent breast examination to increase with higher levels of education. In the United States and in Canada, college-educated women were about 15 percentage points more likely than those with less than a high school education to have had a breast examination within the past 12 months.

Discussion-Although the questions on breast examination were similar, the U.S. survey collected more detail and the response categories were worded slightly differently. However, the shortest interval was similarly described-"less than 1 year" in the U.S. survey and "within the past 12 months" in the Canadian questionnaire. Recall and other errors are likely to have been similar in both surveys, suggesting that a substantial difference existed in prevalence of recent breast examination in the two countries.

Despite controversy about its efficacy, breast self-examination (BSE) is widely promoted in the United States and Canada (Baines, Wall, Risch, et al., 1986). Both surveys asked women to report how often they perform BSE. Monthly BSE was less common among U.S. women ( 32 percent) than their Canadian counterparts ( 41 percent)


Figure 10. Percent of the adult fomale population with a breast exemination within the past year, by age: United States and Canada, 1985
(table F). This was true at all age levels, especially ages 18-24 years where the prevalence of breast self-examination was 38 percent in Canada compared with 24 percent in the United States. In both countries, a positive relationship
existed between prevalence of this practice and amount of education; but in each case, the difference between the least and most educated women was only 5 percentage points. The prevalence of women who never perform BSE or only do it less often than every 3 months mirrored the results reported above. The proportion of both groups was higher in the United States.

Discussion-The line of questioning on BSE was slightly different in the two surveys. In the United States, women were first asked if they knew how to perform BSE. Frequency was determined only for those professing knowledge. In the Canadian survey, all women were asked about the frequency with which they performed BSE regardless of knowledge. Thus, the U.S. data in table F combine "don't know how" with "never." This treatment of the data is unlikely to affect the proportions reporting monthly BSE, suggesting that BSE has been more successfully promoted in Canada.

## Most recent Pap smear

Although less frequent than cancer of the breast, cancer of the cervix is a significant cause of morbidity and mortality. Early detection by regular Papanicolaou (Pap) smears is the commonly advocated protective measure, although there is no consensus about the optimal frequency (American Cancer Society, 1980; American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 1980; Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination, 1979). Both surveys asked women to report the interval since their most recent Pap smear.

Annual cytologic screening is recommended by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (1980). For this interval, the prevalence of testing was slightly higher in the United States ( 63 percent) than in Canada ( 61 percent) (table 11). In both countries, women ages 25-44 years were most likely to have had a Pap smear within the past year. Women who had never had a test were more prevalent in Canada, but the proportions were small in both countries.

Table F. Breast examination: percent distribution of women by frequency of breast self-examination, according to age and educational levals: Unlted States and Canada, 1985

| Age and educatonal level | Total |  | Monthly |  | At least once every 3 months |  | Less often |  | Never |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | United <br> States | Canada | UnHed <br> States | Canada | Uniled <br> States | Canada | UntHod States | Canada | UnHed States ${ }^{1}$ | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.1 | 40.5 | 18.9 | 19.8 | 21.5 | 17.8 | 27.4 | 22.0 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 23.9 | 38.1 | 17.2 | 11.6 | 22.1 | 21.6 | 36.8 | 28.6 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 33.5 | 39.6 | 21.3 | 23.7 | 24.7 | 17.0 | 20.4 | 19.8 |
| $45-64$ years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.9 | 45.6 | 19.1 | 22.3 | 19.2 | 15.8 | 24.8 | 16.3 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 29.1 | 36.7 | 14.4 | 13.2 | 16.3 | 19.0 | 40.2 | 31.0 |
| Educatonal level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 29.3 | 38.1 | 13.6 | 20.0 | 18.4 | 17.0 | 38.9 | 24.9 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.0 | 40.3 | 19.3 | 18.0 | 23.5 | 18.4 | 25.3 | 23.3 |
| College or university | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.3 | 43.7 | 22.3 | 21.0 | 21.4 | 17.7 | 21.9 | 17.6 |

[^1]

Figure 11. Percent of the adult female population with a Pap ameer within the past 3 yours, by age: United States and Canada, 1985

In both countries, better educated women were more likely to have had a Pap smear within the past year than women with fewer years of schooling. This gradient with education was steeper in the United States (21-percentagepoint difference between the least and most educated groups) than in Canada ( 16 -percentage-point difference).

Figure 11 shows the prevalence of Pap smears within the past 3 years, the interval recommended for most women by the American Cancer Society (1980) and the Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination (1979). As was true of the 1 -year interval, there is a slightly greater tendency of American women in each age group to have had a Pap smear within 3 years compared with Canadian women the same age.

Discussion-The questionnaire items on Pap smears were similar in the two surveys, as were those about breast examination, but the response options differed between the United States and Canada. For U.S. women, the category "within 12 months" in table 11 includes women who answered "1 year" ( 17 percent) and "in the last year" (46 percent). Canadian women who had been recently tested had to choose between reporting "within the past year" and "last $2-3$ years." For this reason, the more reliable comparison is for the cumulative total of women tested within the past 3 years, as shown in figure 11. The differences revealed here, although statistically significant, are minor in real terms, and suggest that women in both countries have been equally sensitized to the need for regular screening, particularly in the age group 25-44 years.

## Trends in selected health practices, 1979-85

Although the previous section of this report provided comparable data on many important health practices, some limitations were encountered because of lack of comparable data. This problem is much more severe when the desire is for international comparisons at more than a single time point. Nevertheless, data are available for both countries for 1979 to describe smoking and seatbelt use. Although limited in scope, such comparisons are useful for making inferences not only about changing situations but also about the possible reasons for such changes. Unfortu-
nately, the education variable for the Canadian survey in 1979 does not provide the same categories as for the U.S. survey, and the data for the United States for 1979 are available only for persons 20-64 years of age.

## Smoking

Figure 12 shows the changing prevalence of current smokers in three age groups similar to those shown in earlier tables. Most groups show a decrease from 1979 to


Figure 12. Changes in percent of the adult population who were current smokers, by age and sex: United States and Canada, 1979 and 1985

1985; overall, this change is greater in Canada ( 9 percentage points) than in the United States ( 2 percentage points) (table 12). However, initial prevalence was much higher in Canada ( 46 percent) than in the United States ( 35 percent). In 1979, substantially higher levels of smoking were found among Canadians than among Americans in all age-sex groups.

The largest decrease between 1979 and 1985 in the prevalence of smoking was among the youngest group of Canadians ( 14 percentage points for men and 10 percentage points for women). U.S. men and women of the same
age did not change their smoking. In the United States, the greatest reductions in smoking prevalence were among those $25-44$ years of age.

Discussion-The 1979 data on smoking are based on survey questions similar to those used in 1985, thus question wording and response categories should not be a source of bias in these trends. Survey administration techniques differed, as noted earlier-telephone interviewing for the 1979 U.S. and 1985 Canadian surveys, self-administration for the 1979 Canadian data, and in-person interviewing for the 1985 U.S. questions on


Figure 13. Changes in percent of the adut population who usually wore seatbelts, by age and sex: United States and Canada, 1979 and 1985
smoking. There is no reason to suspect that these variations would have a systematic impact on the results. The prevalence for smoking in Canada in 1979 ( 46 percent of adults) is higher than other Canadian smoking statistics for the period, but these other statistics evidently were biased downward by proxy reporting (Health and Welfare Canada and Statistics Canada, 1981, p. 48). The decline in smoking between 1979 and 1985 reported here is entirely consistent with longer term trends reported elsewhere and trends based on more data points (Collishaw, 1987; NCHS, 1986b). It is apparent that the antismoking campaigns in the United States and Canada have had an impact. The appearance of greater impact in Canada may be a statistical artifact resulting from the higher initial prevalence.

## Seatbelt use

There were sharp increases in the use of seatbelts in the United States and Canada between 1979 and 1985 (table 13). The prevalence of those reporting "usual" use almost doubled ( 20 to 36 percent) in the United States; in Canada, the rate of increase was more modest but the absolute gain was also impressive ( 61 to 79 percent).

Figure 13 shows that all age-sex groups increased their frequency of seatbelt use. In both countries, the largest gains were registered by women, especially those ages

25-44 years in the United States and ages 20-24 years in Canada.

In the United States and Canada, there were large reductions over this period in the proportions reporting that they never wore seatbelts (table 13). In the United States, increases were found in occasional use and usual use between 1979 and 1985. In Canada, the proportion of people who were occasional users grew relatively little, which may suggest that most people who started to wear seatbelts did so on a regular basis.

Discussion-There are no meaningful differences between 1979 and 1985 in the wording of questions on seatbelt use in either the United States or Canada; methods of administration varied as explained for smoking trends. Thus, the increases in reported seatbelt use in both countries cannot readily be attributed to methodological sources. As is true of the 1985 data for Canada, reported use may be inflated because of respondents' hesitation to admit breaking the law. The reason why this reluctance should have been greater in one year than the other is not obvious. The increase in seatbelt use from 1979 to 1985 is more readily explained by extensive public education efforts in the United States and by new provincial legislation covering an additional 10 percent of the Canadian population. Canadian data for the use of child restraints in 1978 (Verreault, Stulginskas, Keyl, et al., 1982) suggest increases in use paralleling that for seatbelts.

## Discussion of results

## General methodological issues

One difference in survey methods has been noted in the earlier discussion of specific results. As described in the methods section, the U.S. National Health Interview Survey of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention was conducted by personal interview in the respondent's home; Canada's Health Promotion Survey was conducted by interview over the telephone. Some might claim that the comparative anonymity of the telephone interview is more conducive to candid answers (Marcus and Crane, 1986). However, because the subject matter of the surveys was not particularly sensitive, with the possible exception of questions on alcohol use, this difference in data collection techniques should not have had a systematic impact on the results.

Nor is there any indication that either 1985 survey suffered in any significant manner from bias in the sample design or response to request to participate in the survey. Both surveys covered the civilian noninstitutionalized household populations of their respective countries, and the response rates were high in both instances- 90 percent in the United States and 82 percent in Canada.

The survey's sponsor was clearly identified to participants as the national health department in both surveys, and assurances of confidentiality were provided. In short, while the usual nonsampling errors related to recall and social desirability might have affected some responses to some questions in both surveys, this is not likely to have occurred in a fashion that would systematically influence the comparisons.

There are some differences, noted earlier, in the population structure of the United States and Canada. One of these is racial and ethnocultural composition, and the other is a slightly higher level of education in the United States. Because most good health practices become more common with increasing amounts of education, the difference between the educational levels of the two populations may contribute to the higher prevalence of some good practices in the United States compared with Canada. This effect is probably minor, considering the small magnitude of the differences in education and the imperfect associations between health practices and education level. It is more difficult to assess the importance of the higher proportion of black persons in the United States or of Roman Catholics in Canada. Because the health practices described in
this report constitute part of a "lifestyle," it is likely that these are influenced by cultural factors and not merely level of education. The nature of this influence requires further study.

Notwithstanding these differences in population composition and in the techniques used to collect data, there appear to be differences in the prevalence of several health practices that cannot be dismissed as statistical artifacts. There are also consistent patterns of relationships between health practices, education, and age that appear to be valid.

## Summary of U.S.-Canada differences

Table G summarizes the prevalence of 12 health practices among U.S. and Canadian adults of all ages. The figures that are italicized indicate in which country good health practices were more common. Treating differences of less than 5 percent as equal for all practical purposes, reveals that three good practices (not smoking, not drinking alcohol, and not skipping breakfast) were more common in the United States, six were more frequent in Canada (regular physical activity, using seatbelts and child restraints, owning smoke detectors, having a breast examination within the past year, and performing breast self-examination at least monthly), and three were equal (having a recent blood pressure checkup, having a recent Pap smear, and being a heavier alcohol drinker).

Table G. Summary of health practices in the United States and Canada, 1985

| Practice | Unitod States | Canada |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Percent |  |
| Regularly smoke | 30 | 35 |
| Currently drink. | 65 | 82 |
| 2 drinks or more dally average. | 12 | 14 |
| Regularly active physically | 40 | 53 |
| Rarely eat breakfast | 24 | 29 |
| Usually wear seatbelts. | 36 | 79 |
| Children usually wear restraints | 52 | 91 |
| Own 1 smoke detector or more | 69 | 77 |
| Blood pressure checked within 1 year | 74 | 76 |
| Breast examination whin 1 year | 50 | 69 |
| Pap smear whhin 3 years. | 78 | 76 |
| Perform breast self-examination at least monthly | 32 | 41 |

Such a summary gives equal weight to all the practices, an approach that is not very meaningful because there are wide variations in the contributions the practices make to averting disability and premature death. In this regard, the data reveal that each country was relatively exposed to a different significant hazard-a higher proportion of smokers in Canada and less frequent use of seatbelts and child restraints in the United States. It is notable that both countries have made important moves in these areas since 1985. In Canada, legislation has been introduced to sharply curtail tobacco advertising; in the United States, there has been rapid expansion of seatbelt legislation since the first law was introduced in 1985, and it appears to be having the desired effect on seatbelt use (Pace, Thailer, and Kwiatkowski, 1986).

The summary in table $G$ suggests the following conclusions about health practices in the United States and Canada in 1985:

1. Practices related to consumption are healthier in the United States, whether the consumption is noxious (tobacco and alcohol) or beneficial (breakfast).
2. Safety-related practices (seatbelt use, car restraint use, and smoke detector ownership) are more common in Canada.
3. Self-care practices (physical activity and breast selfexamination) are followed by a higher proportion of the population in Canada.
4. Two out of three disease-prevention practices that require the participation of a health care professional (blood pressure check and Pap smear) are about equally common in the United States and Canada.
This last finding is perhaps the most surprising of all because there is no cost disincentive to these practices in Canada because of its universal health care insurance. In the United States in 1985, the proportion of population enrolled in health maintenance organizations (the closest equivalent to the Canadian system) was less than 10 percent of the total (NCHS, 1986c). This suggests that free care is not the only effective means to encourage the regular use of preventive services, a conclusion also reached in the Rand Health Insurance Experiment (Lurie, Manning, Peterson, et al., 1987).

In a more general sense, these U.S.-Canada comparisons suggest that universal health insurance may be unrelated to personal health behaviors. It has been argued that such insurance, being equitable by definition, may be less likely to promote good health habits than a system with differential premiums based on actual behavior, such as not smoking (Fielding, 1977). Whatever the impact of health insurance on health practices, it is apparent from several examples in this report (the reduction in smoking and increase in seatbelt use over a period of time in both countries, the relatively high rate of regular physical activity in Canada, and the large proportion of both populations with a recent blood pressure check) that the health practices in a population can be favorably affected by deliberate health promotion efforts.

## Demographic patterns in health practices

Although prevalence levels vary between the United States and Canada on a number of health behaviors, the relationships between sociodemographic characteristics and good health practices are generally similar in the two countries. Most striking in this regard is the association between level of education and good health practices, which exists for most of the practices examined in this report, including smoking; type of drinker; level of physical activity; use of seatbelts and child restraints; ownership of smoke detectors; and regularity of breast examination, Pap smear, and breast self-examination. The prevalence of recent blood pressure checks is equal across all educational levels in both countries. Typically, good health practices are most characteristic of the college-educated group and least frequent among those adults who have not completed high school; an important exception to this was alcohol consumption.

This persistent association may reflect inequality of access to health information or services; barriers to acting upon health knowledge; a sense of helplessness or lack of control (Bandura, 1986); a lack of social support (Berkman and Breslow, 1983); or other factors of an economic, social, or psychological nature. All of these have been implicated in other studies of health behavior, but none can be examined here because comparable data are lacking. However, it is apparent that this association between health behavior and educational level is generally stronger in the United States than in Canada. Moreover, if age were taken into account in comparing education groups, this would further steepen the education gradient in the United States compared with Canada.

There is also striking consistency in the age-sex relationships across a number of health behaviors in the United States and Canada. For example, even though prevalence levels of smoking and drinking are higher in Canada, in both countries young women are more likely to smoke than young men, and men of all ages are more likely than women to drink, especially to drink more heavily. Similarly, although physical activity is more common in Canada than in the United States, in both countries women are more likely than men to be active at ages $45-64$ years, and the proportion of men who are active increases at ages 65 years and over, reversing a steady decline from younger years. Although a smaller proportion of Americans in every age group own smoke detectors, the highest rate of ownership in both countries is for ages 25-44 years. The stability of these patterns is undoubtedly due to similar cultural influences in the two countries, especially the role of the mass media and their treatment of health issues. This is accentuated by the fact, noted earlier, that most Canadians have access to U.S. television programming, read U.S. magazines, and are familiar with U.S. popular culture.

Because patterns of health behavior are so consistent from one practice to the next and from one country to the other, the rare exceptions are instructive. These exceptions
suggest that extraordinary factors may be at work and that these may deserve the attention of health promotion professionals. For example, a fair generalization is that the practices of women are more healthful than those of men of the same age, and this is about equally true in both countries. One exception, particularly in the United States, was the tendency for women to be less physically active than men. A more striking exception is the higher prevalence of smoking among young women compared with men, as noted earlier, and the fact that young Canadian women were as likely as men of the same age to be current drinkers. The potential role of advertising in changing the smoking habits of young women has already been noted.

A second generalization is that good health practices are positively associated with age. This is true of the prevalence of smokers and current drinkers, driving after drinking, regular breakfast, and blood pressure tests. These associations may be a result of generational differences, maturation over time, selective survival, or some combination of these and other factors. With the cross-sectional data available for this study, a definitive explanation is not possible. However, the use of seatbelts is less common among older Americans than younger ones, and the ownership of smoke detectors declines with age in both countries. This implies that health promotion efforts related to safety should not be restricted to the young.

## The value of

comparative studies of national populations

In addition to what it may reveal about the health practices of Americans and Canadians, this study demonstrates the value of comparisons between populations. These benefits would be realized in any comparative study based on data from reasonably similar populations collected by reasonably similar means.

In the present case, it is possible to identify six distinct outcomes of this comparative analysis:

1. Identification of important issues-A theme of this report has been the consistency of patterns in the relationship of health practices to age, sex, and education. Because of these strong patterns, which transcend national borders and which are found despite differences in overall prevalence levels, exceptions deserve further attention. Exceptions to well-established patterns suggest extraordinary forces at work, often to the detriment of a specific group. Cases in point are smoking by young women, drinking by young Canadian women, and safety-related practices by those ages 65 years and over. Each of these is an area deserving attention by those responsible for health promotion policy and programs.
2. Identification of probable cause-For some of the practices studied here, there appear to be clear explanations for different prevalence levels because they correspond in plausible ways to known differences between the two countries. The best example is the large difference in the prevalence of seatbelt and child restraint use, corresponding to the differences in legislation that prevailed in 1985. Unfortunately, practices that differed markedly and for which there were clear explanations were relatively few in number. Nevertheless, where clear explanations were found, they provide important guidance for health promotion planning.
3. Identification of uncertain cause-Some other practices studied here were found to be different in the United States and Canada, with no obvious reason. Examples include smoking, alcohol consumption, and ownership of smoke detectors. These differences do not appear to result from methodological factors, yet there are no apparent policy or program differences to explain these findings. Further study of U.S. and Canadian regulations potentially having an impact on these behaviors is needed. With regard to alcohol and tobacco consumption, factors that should be investigated include aspects of availability such as legal age, pricing, bar and store
hours, marketing practices including advertising, and government's role in retailing. To explain the differences in the ownership of smoke detectors, a study of municipal, State, and provincial regulations would be invaluable.
4. Need to examine impact of ethnocultural differencesDespite basic similarities in the populations of the U.S. and Canada, there are distinct differences in racial, ethnic, and religious composition. A full examination of these differences and their possible relationship to health practices is beyond the scope of this report. However, it is apparent that this would be a complex topic. For example, one might be tempted to attribute the higher overall prevalence of smoking in Canada to the fact that the French-speaking population is more likely to smoke than English Canadians (Health and Welfare Canada, in press). Because there is a high correlation between smoking and drinking (Stephens, 1986), the fact that about one-fourth of the Canadian population is French-speaking (Statistics Canada, 1987c) should also account for the higher overall prevalence of current drinkers in Canada. Unfortunately for this theory, there is a lower, not a higher than average, proportion of current drinkers among FrenchCanadians (Health and Welfare Canada, in press). Further examination of this issue of ethnocultural differences may lead to important insights into the best strategies for health promotion in different populations.
5. Need to reduce operational inconsistencies-In a number of areas in this report, U.S.-Canada comparisons were made difficult by minor inconsistencies in operational definitions of key terms. Sometimes this resulted from the wording of questions, such as for driving after drinking; at other times, it resulted from using different response categories for the same question, such as the time intervals to report most recent Pap smear and breast examination. Other minor variations can inhibit comparisons, such as the different definitions for lifetime abstainer or the different reporting period for calculating average alcohol consumption. Interviewers in both countries (or in different States, provinces, or municipalities) would do well to minimize these differences before conducting further surveys. Greater uniformity of approach would ensure that any future report on trends over time would not be restricted to examining just two practices, as this report was.
6. Identification of needed operational refinements-The comparisons in this study have been informative in another way. For some practices, refinements are possible that would produce more unambiguous findings. This would be an important feature of any future survey, regardless of any wish to compare practices in different populations. Two questions for which im-
provements are possible are the Canadian question on smoke detectors and the U.S. question on breakfast. Judging from the results presented earlier, it is important to be able to qualify smoke detectors as in working order and breakfast as consisting of more than just coffee, and to be able to do this on a routine basis.

## Conclusion

This comparative study of health practices among the U.S. and Canadian adult populations has revealed some important differences in prevalence levels. Inconsistences in survey methods and differences in population composition may qualify, but almost certainly do not vitiate, these conclusions. This suggests that specialists may profit from
examining program and policy developments in both countries. The challenge for health promotion implied by this study is to find methods for encouraging healthy behavior in populations despite strongly entrenched patterns associated with age, sex, and education.

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Table 1. Cigarette smoking: percent distribution of adults by smoking status, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Current smoker |  | Nonsmoker ${ }^{2}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.1 | 34.6 | 69.9 | 65.4 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.6 | 36.3 | 67.4 | 63.7 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 28.0 | 38.3 | 72.0 | 61.7 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 38.0 | 40.1 | 62.0 | 59.9 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 33.4 | 35.9 | 66.6 | 64.1 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 19.6 | 19.7 | 80.4 | 80.3 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.9 | 32.9 | 72.1 | 67.1 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.4 | 41.1 | 69.6 | 58.9 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.8 | 36.5 | 68.2 | 63.5 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 29.9 | 30.1 | 70.1 | 69.9 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 13.5 | 18.0 | 86.5 | 82.0 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 35.4 33.5 | 38.7 38.7 | 64.6 66.5 | 61.3 61.3 |
| Completed. . | 100.0 100.0 | 100.0 100.0 | 33.5 23.1 | 38.7 27.9 | 66.5 76.9 | 61.3 72.1 |

${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.
${ }^{2}$ Although the U.S. survey made distinctions between former smokers and life-long nonsmokers, this detail was not obtained in the Canadian survey.

Table 2. Alcohol use: percent distribution of adults by type of drinker, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Lifetime abstainer ${ }^{2}$ |  | Former drinker |  | Current drinker |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.2 | 7.3 | 7.6 | 10.4 | 65.2 | 82.3 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 14.6 | 4.3 | 9.3 | 9.2 | 76.1 | 86.5 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 18.6 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 5.4 | 79.2 | 92.5 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 10.9 | 2.7 | 5.8 | 5.5 | 83.3 | 91.7 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 14.4 | 5.9 | 13.8 | 14.6 | 71.8 | 79.5 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 22.0 | 10.2 | 20.3 | 16.6 | 57.6 | 73.1 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 38.4 | 10.1 | 6.1 | 11.6 | 55.5 | 78.3 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 33.7 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 5.7 | 64.1 | 91.2 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.9 | 6.6 | 4.9 | 7.9 | 63.2 | 85.5 |
| 45-64 years. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 39.4 | 12.8 | 8.0 | 13.9 | 52.5 | 73.3 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 56.2 | 23.4 | 9.7 | 24.4 | 34.1 | 52.2 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 40.5 | 12.7 | 12.7 6.9 | 15.9 8.8 | 66.1 | 86.2 |
| Completed. . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 100.0 | 27.0 18.5 | 5.1 4.0 | 6.9 5.0 | 8.8 6.5 | 66.1 76.5 | 86.2 89.5 |
| Coilege or universily . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 18.5 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 6.5 | 76.5 | 89.5 |

[^2]Table 3. Alcohol use: percent distribution of current drinkers by average amount of absolute alcohol consumed daily, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | None |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Lighter } \\ \text { (.01-.21 oz) } \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Moderate } \\ (.22 .59 \mathrm{oz} .) \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Hoavior } \\ & (1.0+o z) \end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unhed States | Canada | Unhed <br> States | Canada | Unted <br> States | Canada | Unted States | Canada | Unted <br> States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 21.6 | 37.4 | 37.1 | 17.2 | 29.5 | 31.1 | 11.8 | 14.3 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 17.9 | 29.0 | 30.9 | 14.6 | 34.0 | 33.9 | 17.2 | 22.5 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 15.4 | 34.7 | 28.2 | 11.5 | 38.1 | 29.6 | 18.3 | 24.2 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 15.9 | 25.3 | 31.9 | 14.9 | 36.2 | 37.0 | 16.0 | 22.9 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 21.0 | 25.7 | 31.3 | 15.2 | 29.6 | 36.1 | 18.1 | 23.0 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 24.4 | 44.0 | 29.5 | 17.3 | 27.8 | 22.5 | 18.4 | 16.2 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 26.1 | 46.3 | 44.7 | 20.0 | 24.0 | 28.1 | 5.3 | 5.6 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 23.3 | 39.1 | 41.6 | 23.0 | 30.2 | 29.4 | 5.0 | 8.5 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 25.3 | 44.5 | 47.5 | 20.5 | 23.3 | 30.5 | 3.8 | 4.4 |
| 45-64 years. . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.3 | 54.0 | 43.9 | 15.7 | 21.6 | 23.7 | 7.2 | 6.7 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.1 | 49.5 | 39.3 | 22.0 | 21.7 | 25.4 | 7.9 | * |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 26.9 | 43.1 | 33.7 | 15.5 | 24.9 | 28.7 | 14.5 | 12.7 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 23.9 | 36.9 | 36.6 | 16.0 | 27.8 | 31.1 | 11.7 | 16.0 |
| College or universtly . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 17.3 | 33.5 | 38.9 | 18.9 | 32.9 | 33.2 | 10.8 | 14.4 |

${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.
NOTE: Daily consumption is averaged over the last 2 weeks in the United States and 7 days in Canada.

Table 4. Alcohol use: percent distribution of adult drinkers by frequency of driving after drinking, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | No occasions ${ }^{2}$ |  | 1 or more occastons |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unted States | Canada | United States | Canada | UnHed States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 83.1 | 74.9 | 16.9 | 25.1 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 77.6 | 65.1 | 22.4 | 34.9 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.5 | 62.6 | 37.5 | 37.4 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 73.1 | 57.8 | 26.9 | 42.2 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 89.0 | 72.8 | 11.0 | 27.1 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 97.5 | 87.8 | 2.5 | 12.2 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 90.1 | 86.9 | 9.9 | 13.1 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 80.7 | 82.6 | 19.3 | 17.4 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 88.2 | 85.8 | 11.8 | 14.2 |
| 45-64 years. . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 97.5 | 90.7 | 2.5 | 9.3 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 99.6 | 93.1 | 0.4 | 6.9 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 86.7 | 80.2 | 13.3 | 19.8 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 82.9 | 75.1 | 17.1 | 24.9 |
| College or university . . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 82.0 | 71.4 | 18.0 | 28.6 |

[^3]${ }^{2}$ United States: driving "when you perhaps had too much to drink" in the past year; Canada: driving in the past month, "within 2 hours of drinking any amount of alcohol."

Table 5. Physical activity: percent distribution of adults by participation in regular physical activity, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Regularly active ${ }^{2}$ |  | Not regularly active |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unked States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 40.0 | 53.3 | 60.0 | 46.7 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 42.7 | 54.6 | 57.3 | 45.4 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.1 | 63.8 | 37.9 | 36.2 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 46.3 | 55.0 | 53.7 | 45.0 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.4 | 45.9 | 69.6 | 54.1 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.9 | 58.6 | 68.1 | 41.4 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All agos. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 37.6 | 52.0 | 62.4 | 48.0 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 47.3 | 60.4 | 52.7 | 39.6 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 41.9 | 51.0 | 58.1 | 49.0 |
| 45-64 yaars. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.8 | 51.1 | 68.2 | 48.9 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.6 | 47.2 | 72.4 | 52.8 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 24.4 | 45.3 | 75.6 | 54.7 |
| Completed. . . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 37.7 | 55.4 | 62.3 | 44.6 |
| College or unlversity . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 52.8 | 58.8 | 47.2 | 41.2 |

'Total excludes unknowns.
${ }^{2}$ Unled States: answered yes to "Do you exercise or play sports regularly?"; Canada: reported vigorous activity of at least 15 minutes duration 3 times or more weekly.

Table 6. Eating breakfast: percent distribution of adults by regularity of eating breakfast, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and oducational loval | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Dally in Unted States | 5-7 per weok in Canada | $\begin{gathered} \text { Sometimes } \\ \text { in } \\ \text { Unted States } \end{gathered}$ | 2-4 per week in Canada | Rarely in United States | $0-1$ per week in Canada |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unhed States | Canada |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 55.4 | 30.2 | 20.2 | 41.3 | 24.3 | 28.5 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 54.4 | 29.0 | 20.4 | 42.1 | 25.2 | 28.9 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 43.1 | 30.6 | 27.0 | 41.3 | 29.8 | 28.1 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 43.7 | 23.2 | 25.0 | 43.7 | 31.4 | 33.1 |
| $45-64$ yoars. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.3 | 29.4 | 16.3 | 40.4 | 21.4 | 30.2 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 86.7 | 47.2 | 6.0 | 41.0 | 7.4 | 11.7 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 56.4 | 31.5 | 20.0 | 40.5 | 23.6 | 28.1 |
| $18-24$ years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 39.4 | 23.9 | 30.5 | 43.9 | 30.1 | 32.2 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 46.0 | 26.8 | 24.6 | 40.5 | 29.4 | 32.7 |
| $45-64$ yoars. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.5 | 35.7 | 16.2 | 41.7 | 21.4 | 22.6 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 86.4 | 46.3 | 6.0 | 34.2 | 7.6 | 19.5 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 59.2 | 27.8 | 18.1 | 39.1 | 22.6 | 33.1 |
| Complated. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 51.7 | 29.5 | 21.8 | 39.8 | 26.5 | 30.7 |
| College or university | 100.0 | 100.0 | 56.8 | 33.2 | 19.9 | 44.4 | 23.3 | 22.4 |

[^4]Table 7. Seatbelt use: percent distribution of adults by regularity of seatbelt use, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canadia, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Usually |  | Somelimes |  | Never |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | Unted States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 35.8 | 78.9 | 32.1 | 8.4 | 32.2 | 12.7 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 33.8 | 74.9 | 32.5 | 9.3 | 33.7 | 15.8 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 26.6 | 66.7 | 36.0 | 11.4 | 37.4 | 21.9 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.2 | 75.6 | 32.5 | 9.2 | 31.3 | 15.1 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 35.1 | 74.5 | 32.0 | 9.8 | 33.0 | 15.7 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.6 | 85.3 | 29.2 | 5.1 | 38.2 | 9.6 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 37.5 | 82.8 | 31.7 | 7.6 | 30.8 | 9.6 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.4 | 76.1 | 37.1 | 12.5 | 30.5 | 11.4 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 41.2 | 83.3 | 31.2 | 7.4 | 27.6 | 9.3 |
| 45-64 years. . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.7 | 83.6 | 31.4 | 7.6 | 31.9 | 8.8 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.5 | 87.6 | 28.5 | 2.3 | 37.0 | 10.1 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 24.8 | 75.0 | 28.9 | 9.3 | 46.2 | 15.7 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.9 | 78.4 | 34.3 | 8.2 | 34.9 | 13.4 |
| College or university | 100.0 | 100.0 | 48.1 | 83.2 | 31.8 | 7.8 | 20.1 | 9.0 |

'Total excludes unknowns.

Table 8. Smoke detectors: percent distribution of adults by ownership of smoke detectors, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Own none |  | Own 1 or more |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unted States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.4 | 22.8 | 68.6 | 77.2 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.2 | 22.4 | 68.8 | 77.6 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.7 | 22.1 | 65.3 | 77.9 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.7 | 19.5 | 72.3 | 80.5 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.3 | 24.1 | 67.7 | 75.9 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.4 | 30.1 | 63.6 | 69.9 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.6 | 23.1 | 68.4 | 76.9 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.2 | 27.2 | 63.8 | 72.8 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 27.2 | 19.4 | 72.8 | 80.6 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 33.5 | 24.8 | 66.5 | 75.2 |
| 65 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.9 | 26.5 | 65.1 | 73.5 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 43.1 | 28.4 | 56.9 | 71.6 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.3 | 19.0 | 68.7 | 81.0 |
| College or university . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 23.7 | 20.4 | 76.3 | 79.6 |

[^5]Table 9. Blood pressure: percent distribution of adults by time since last test, according to sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sex, age, and educallonal level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Less than 12 months |  | 1-2 years |  | Over 2 years |  | Never |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | UnHed States | Canada | United States | Canada | Unted States | Canada | UnHed States | Canada | Untied States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons 18 years and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 73.8 | 76.4 | 19.2 | 11.0 | 6.6 | 9.5 | 0.3 | 3.1 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 68.4 | 69.4 | 22.5 | 12.5 | 8.7 | 13.3 | 0.5 | 4.8 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.2 | 51.4 | 25.8 | 17.9 | 10.6 | 19.9 | * | 10.8 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 63.4 | 67.7 | 26.4 | 14.0 | 9.9 | 14.6 | * | 3.7 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 73.2 | 77.4 | 19.5 | 8.7 | 7.1 | 10.3 | * | * |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 82.2 | 85.6 | 12.1 | 7.5 | 5.7 | 4.8 | * | * |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 78.7 | 83.2 | 16.4 | 9.5 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 0.2 | 1.5 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 79.4 | 78.0 | 17.5 | 12.5 | 2.6 | 5.4 | * | * |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 75.8 | 81.2 | 19.2 | 11.7 | 4.8 | 6.1 | * | 1.0 |
| 45-64 years. . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 78.1 | 84.6 | 15.8 | 7.7 | 6.1 | 6.9 | * | * |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 85.7 | 91.7 | 9.5 | 3.2 | 4.7 | 3.8 | * | * |
| Educationai level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 74.0 | 77.8 | 17.1 | 9.1 | 8.4 | 9.0 | * | 4.2 |
| Completed. . . . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 73.0 | 76.9 | 19.9 | 10.6 | 6.7 | 9.9 | * | 2.7 |
| College or university . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 74.6 | 74.4 | 19.9 | 13.4 | 5.3 | 9.7 | * | 2.4 |

${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.

Table 10. Breast examination: percent distribution of women by time since last breast examination, according to age and educational levela: United States and Canada, 1985

| Age and educalional level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Wihin 12 months |  | 1 year ago |  | 2 years or more |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unted States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada | United States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 50.3 | 68.6 | 17.8 | $\cdots$ | 31.9 | 31.4 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 57.5 | 73.9 | 15.2 | . | 27.3 | 26.1 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 55.5 | 72.9 | 20.3 | ... | 24.2 | 27.1 |
| $45-64$ years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 45.2 | 65.2 | 17.8 | ... | 37.0 | 34.8 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 39.0 | 55.9 | 14.1 | ... | 46.9 | 44.1 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nol completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 41.7 | 60.7 | 15.2 | -•• | 43.1 | 39.3 |
| Completed. . . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 50.0 | 70.1 | 18.8 | ... | 31.1 | 29.9 |
| College or university . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 57.0 | 75.2 | 18.3 | ... | 24.6 | 24.8 |

[^6]Table 11. Pap smear: percent distribution of women by time since last Pap test, according to age and educational levels: United States: and Canada, 1985

| Age and educational level | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Within 12 months |  | 2-3 years ago |  | 4 or more years ago |  | Never |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Untred <br> States | Canada | Unted States | Canada | Unted <br> States | Canada | UnHed <br> States | Canada | UnHed States | Canada |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 62.9 | 60.5 | 15.4 | 15.8 | 14.2 | 11.2 | 7.3 | 12.5 |
| 18-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 71.2 | 67.3 | 6.5 | 7.5 | 1.3 | * | 21.0 | 23.2 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 74.9 | 71.8 | 14.9 | 15.8 | 8.8 | 6.8 | 1.5 | 5.6 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 55.0 | 53.1 | 19.6 | 20.1 | 21.7 | 18.8 | 3.7 | 8.0 |
| 65 years and over. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 38.2 | 32.7 | 18.6 | 17.8 | 28.5 | 21.3 | 14.7 | 28.2 |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Not completed | 100.0 | 100.0 | 49.8 | 51.2 | 18.5 | 17.1 | 19.6 | 16.5 | 12.1 | 15.1 |
| Completed. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 64.1 | 62.8 | 15.0 | 14.9 | 14.8 | 9.7 | 6.2 | 12.6 |
| College or university | 100.0 | 100.0 | 71.1 | 67.5 | 13.8 | 15.7 | 9.7 | 7.1 | 5.4 | 9.7 |

'Total excludes unknowns.

Table 12. Trends in smoking: percent distribution of aduits ages 20-64 years by type of smoker, according to sex and age: United States and Canada, 1979 and 1985

| Sex and age |  |  | Current smoker |  |  |  | Nonsmoker |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Unitod States |  | Canada |  | Unted States |  | Canada |  |
|  | United States | Canada | 1979 | 1985 | 1979 | 1985 | 1979 | 1985 | 1979 | 1985 |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons ages 20-64. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 35.4 | 33.3 | 46.1 | 37.0 | 64.6 | 66.7 | 53.9 | 63.0 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 39.0 | 35.5 | 49.9 | 38.8 | 61.0 | 64.5 | 50.1 | 61.2 |
| 20-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 30.9 | 31.0 | 54.4 | 40.0 | 69.1 | 69.0 | 45.6 | 60.0 |
| 25.44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 43.3 | 38.0 | 50.0 | 40.1 | 56.7 | 62.0 | 50.0 | 59.9 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 36.2 | 33.4 | 47.2 | 35.9 | 63.8 | 66.6 | 52.8 | 64.1 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 32.9 | 31.3 | 42.4 | 35.2 | 67.1 | 68.7 | 57.6 | 64.8 |
| 20-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 3193 | 32.5 | 51.0 | 41.5 | 68.7 | 67.5 | 49.0 | 58.5 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 34.6 | 31.8 | 43.0 | 36.5 | 65.4 | 68.2 | 57.0 | 63.5 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 31.4 | 29.9 | 37.2 | 30.1 | 68.6 | 70.1 | 62.8 | 69.8 |

${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.

Table 13. Trends in seatbelt use: percent distribution of adults ages 20-64 years by regularity of seatbelt use, according to sex and age: United States and Canada, 1979 and 1985

| Sox and age |  |  | Usually |  |  |  | Sometimes |  |  |  | Never |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  | Unhed States |  | Canada |  | United States |  | Canada |  | United States |  | Canada |  |
|  | Unïod States | Canada | 1979 | 1985 | 1979 | 1985 | 1979 | $1985{ }^{2}$ | 1979 | 1985 | $1979{ }^{3}$ | 1985 | 1979 | 1985 |
|  | Percent distribution |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All persons agas 20-64 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 19.6 | 35.8 | 61.0 | 78.9 | 14.6 | 32.1 | 4.1 | 8.4 | 65.7 | 32.2 | 34.9 | 12.7 |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages . | 100.0 | 100.0 | 19.8 | 34.7 | 59.3 | 73.4 | 13.6 | 32.8 | 4.5 | 9.9 | 66.6 | 32.4 | 36.2 | 16.7 |
| 20-24 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 18.3 | 28.2 | 47.2 | 63.8 | 13.7 | 36.4 | 7.2 | 12.1 | 68.0 | 35.4 | 45.7 | 24.1 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 18.9 | 36.2 | 60.0 | 75.6 | 15.4 | 32.5 | 4.5 | 9.2 | 65.7 | 31.3 | 35.8 | 15.1 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 22.0 | 35.1 | 65.8 | 74.5 | 10.7 | 32.0 | 2.8 | 9.8 | 67.3 | 33.0 | 31.4 | 15.7 |
| Women |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| All ages. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 19.5 | 38.7 | 62.6 | 82.8 | 15.3 | 32.0 | 3.7 | 7.8 | 65.2 | 29.3 | 33.7 | 9.4 |
| $20-24$ years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 17.6 | 34.6 | 50.1 | 78.9 | 13.9 | 36.0 | 5.4 | 9.7 | 68.5 | 29.4 | 44.5 | 11.3 |
| 25-44 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 17.7 | 41.2 | 63.6 | 83.3 | 14.8 | 31.2 | 4.0 | 7.4 | 67.5 | 27.6 | 32.5 | 9.3 |
| 45-64 years. | 100.0 | 100.0 | 22.8 | 36.7 | 68.0 | 83.6 | 16.5 | 31.4 | 2.3 | 7.6 | 60.7 | 31.9 | 29.7 | 8.8 |

iTotal excludes unknowns.
2Combines "sometimes" and "occasionally."
${ }^{3}$ includes "seldom."

## Appendixes

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# Appendix I Technical notes on methods 

## National Health Interview Survey

## Background

This report is one of a series of statistical reports published by the staff of the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS). It is based on information collected in a continuing nationwide sample of households included in the National Health Interview Survey (NHIS). Data are obtained on the personal, sociodemographic, and health characteristics of the family members and unrelated individuals living in these households.

Field operations for the survey are conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census under specifications established by NCHS. The U.S. Bureau of the Census participates in the survey planning, selects the sample, and conducts the interviews. The data are then transmitted to NCHS for preparation, processing, and analysis.

Summary reports and reports on special topics for each year's data are prepared by the staff of the Division of Health Interview Statistics for publication in Series 10 publications of NCHS. Data are also tabulated for other reports published by NCHS staff and for use by other organizations and by researchers within and outside the government. Since 1969, public use tapes have been prepared for each year of data collection.

It should be noted that the health characteristics described by NHIS estimates pertain only to the resident, civilian noninstitutionalized population of the United States living at the time of interview. The sample does not include persons residing in nursing homes, members of the armed forces, institutionalized persons, or U.S. nationals living abroad.

## Statistical design of NHIS

## General design

Data from NHIS have been collected continuously since 1957. The sample design of the survey has undergone changes following each decennial census. This periodic redesign of the NHIS sample allows the incorporation of the latest population information and statistical methodology into the survey design. The data presented in this report are from an NHIS sample design first used in 1985. It is anticipated that this design will be used until 1995.

The sample design plan of the NHIS follows a multistage probability design that permits a continuous sampling of the civilian noninstitutionalized population residing in the United States. The survey is designed in such a way that the sample scheduled for each week is representative of the target population and the weekly samples are additive over time. This design permits estimates for high-frequency measures or for large population groups to be produced from a short period of data collection. Estimates for lowfrequency measures or for smaller population subgroups can be obtained from a longer period of data collection. The annual sample is designed so that tabulations can be provided for each of the four major geographic regions and for selected 1980 metropolitan statistical areas in the United States. Because interviewing is done throughout the year, there is no seasonal bias for annual estimates.

The continuous data collection also has administrative and operational advantages because fieldwork can be handled on a continuing basis with an experienced, stable staff.

## Sample selection

The target population for NHIS is the civilian noninstitutionalized population residing in the United States. For the first stage of the sample design, the United States is considered to be a universe composed of approximately 1,900 geographically defined primary sampling units (PSU's). A PSU consists of a county, a small group of contiguous counties, or a metropolitan statistical area. The PSU's collectively cover the 50 States and the District of Columbia. The 52 largest PSU's are selected into the sample with certainty and are referred to as self-representing PSU's. The other PSU's in the universe are referred to as non-self-representing PSU's. These PSU's are clustered into 73 strata, and 2 sample PSU's are chosen from each stratum with probability proportional to size. This gives a total of 198 PSU's selected in the first stage.

Within a PSU, two types of second stage units, referred to as segments, are used. The first type, area segments, are defined geographically and contain an expected eight households. The second type, permit area segments, cover geographical areas containing housing units built after the 1980 census. The permit area segments are defined using updated lists of building permits issued in the PSU since 1980 and contain an expected four households.

Within each segment all occupied households are targeted for interview. On occasion, a sample segment may contain a large number of households. In this situation the households are subsampled to provide a manageable interviewer workload.

The sample was designed so that a typical NHIS sample for the data collection years 1985 to 1995 will consist of approximately 7,500 segments containing about 59,000 assigned households. Of these households, an expected 10,000 will be vacant, demolished, or occupied by persons not in the target population of the survey. The expected sample of 49,000 occupied households will yield a probability sample of about 127,000 persons.

## New features of NHIS sample redesign

Starting in 1985, the NHIS design incorporated several new design features. The major changes include the following:

1. The use of an all-area frame. The NHIS sample is now designed so that it can serve as a sample frame for other NCHS population-based surveys. In previous NHIS designs about two-thirds of the sample was obtained from lists of addresses compiled at the time of the decennial census; that is, a list frame. Due to U.S. Bureau of the Census confidentiality restrictions, these sample addresses could be used for only those surveys being conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. The methodology used to obtain addresses in the 1985 NHIS area frame does not use the census address lists. The sample addresses thus obtained can be used as a sampling frame for other NCHS surveys.
2. The NHIS as four panels. Four national subdesigns, or panels, constitute the full NHIS. Each panel contains a representative sample of the U.S. civilian noninstitutionalized population. Each of the four panels has the same sampling properties, and any combination of panels defines a national design. Panels were constructed to facilitate the linkage of NHIS to other surveys, and also to efficiently make large reductions in the size of the sample by eliminating panels from the survey.

Budgetary considerations required the NHIS sample to be reduced by 25 percent for the 1985 data collection year. This was accomplished by dropping one panel from the NHIS design. For 1985 the sample consisted of 5,588 segments containing 44,000 assigned households. Of the 36,300 households eligible for interview, 34,844 households were actually interviewed, resulting in a sample of 91,531 interviewed persons.
3. The oversampling of black persons. One of the goals in designing the current NHIS was to improve the precision of estimates for black persons. This was accomplished by the use of differential sampling rates in PSU's with between about 5 and 50 percent black population. Sampling rates for selection of segments were increased in areas known to have the highest concentrations of black persons. Segment sampling
rates were decreased in other areas within the PSU to ensure that the total sample in each PSU was the same as it would have been without oversampling black persons.
4. The reduction of the number of sampled PSU's. Interviewer travel to sample PSU's constitutes a large component of the total field costs for the NHIS. The previous NHIS design included 376 PSU's. Research showed that reducing the number of sample PSU's while increasing the sample size within PSU's would reduce travel costs and also maintain the reliability of health estimates (Moore, 1985). The design now contains 198 PSU's.
5. The selection of two PSU's per non-self-representing stratum. In the previous design, one PSU was selected from each non-self-representing stratum. This feature necessitated the use of less efficient variance estimation procedures; the selection of two PSU's allows more efficient variance estimation methodology (Moore, 1985). In both designs, the self-representing strata are collapsed to form pseudo-PSU's for variance estimation.

## Collection and processing of data

The NHIS questionnaire contains two major parts: The first consists of topics that remain relatively the same from year to year. Among these topics are the incidence of acute conditions, the prevalence of chronic conditions, persons limited in activity due to chronic conditions, restriction in activity due to impairment or health problems, and utilization of health care services involving physician care and short-stay hospitalization. The second part consists of special topics added as supplements to each year's questionnaire.

Careful procedures are followed to assure the quality of data collected in the interview. Most households in the sample are contacted by mail before the interviewer arrives. Potential respondents are informed of the importance of the survey and assured that all information obtained in the interview will be held in strict confidence. Interviewers make repeated trips to a household when a respondent is not immediately found. The success of these procedures is indicated by the response rate for the survey, which has been between 96 and 98 percent over the years for the basic health and demographic component.

When contact is made, the interviewer attempts to have all family members of the household 19 years of age and over present during the interview. When this is not possible, proxy responses for absent adult family members are accepted. In most situations, proxy respondents are used for persons under 19 years of age. Persons 17 and 18 years of age may respond for themselves, however.

Interviewers undergo extensive training and retraining. The quality of their work is checked by means of periodic

NOTE: A list of references follows the text.
observation and by reinterview. Their work is also evaluated by statistical studies of the data they obtain in their interviews. A field edit is performed on all completed interviews so that if there are any problems with the information on the questionnaire, respondents may be recontacted to solve the problem.

Completed questionnaires are sent from the U.S. Bureau of the Census field offices to NCHS for coding and editing. To ensure the accuracy of coding, a 5 -percent sample of all questionnaires is recoded and keyed by other coders. A 100 -percent verification procedure is used if certain error tolerances are exceeded. Staff of the Division of Health Interview Statistics then edit the files to remove impossible and inconsistent codes.

The interview, field work, and data processing procedures summarized above are described in detail in Series 1, No. 18 (NCHS, 1985b).

## Health promotion and disease prevention

One adult per family, 18 years of age or older, was randomly selected from the total NHIS sample to participate in the 1985 special section on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention (HPDP). Self-response was required for this portion of the survey and callbacks were made as necessary. A total of 33,630 interviews were completed for the HPDP, representing an estimated response rate of 90 percent. The HPDP questionnaire covered a wide range of health promotion topics including general health habits, injury control, high blood pressure, stress, exercise, smoking, alcohol use, dental care, and occupational safety and health.

In addition to data collected from HPDP sample persons, data related to smoking in pregnancy were collected for all women, aged 18-44 years, residing in NHIS sample households, who were currently pregnant or had had a child in the past 5 years. Data on breast feeding and child safety were collected for all children of appropriate ages residing in the household.

## Estimation procedures

Because the design of NHIS is a complex multistage probability sample, it is necessary to reflect these complex procedures in the derivation of estimates. The estimates presented in this report are based upon 1985 sample person counts weighted to produce national estimates. The weight for each sample person is the product of five component weights:

1. Probability of selection. The basic weight for each person is obtained by multiplying the reciprocals of the probabilities of selection at each step in the design: PSU, segment, and household.

NOTE: A list of references follows the text.

Table 1. The 40 poststratification age-sex-race cells in the National Health Interview Survey of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention

| Age | Black |  | All other |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Male | Female | Mato | Female |
| 18-19 years. | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ |
| 20-24 years. | x | $x$ | X | $x$ |
| 25-29 years. | X | X | X | $x$ |
| 30-34 years. | X | X | X | $x$ |
| 35-44 years. | X | X | $x$ | $x$ |
| 45-49 years. | X | X | X | X |
| 50-54 years. | $\times$ | x | x | X |
| 55-64 years. | X | $x$ | X | X |
| 65-74 years. | X | X | X | $x$ |
| 75 years and over. | X | X | $x$ | X |

2. Household nonresponse adjustment within segment. In NHIS, interviews are completed in about 96 percent of all eligible households. Because of household nonresponse, a weighting adjustment is required. The nonresponse adjustment weight is a ratio with the number of households in a sample segment as the numerator and the number of households actually interviewed in that segment as the denominator. This adjustment reduces bias in an estimate to the extent that persons in the noninterviewed households have the same characteristics as the persons in the interviewed households in the same segment.
3. First-stage ratio adjustment. The weight for persons in the non-self-representing PSU's is ratio adjusted to the 1980 population within four race-residence classes of the non-self-representing strata within each geographic region.
4. Adjustment for probability of selection within household. The weight for each NHIS HPDP sample person is multiplied by the inverse of the person's probability of selection within the family. For example, in a family of four adults, the sample person had a 1 in 4 probability of selection. That person's weight was then multiplied by 4 .
5. Poststratification by age-sex-race. Within each of 40 age-sex-race cells (table I), a weight is constructed each quarter to ratio adjust the first-stage population estimate based on the NHIS to an independent estimate of the population of each cell. These independent estimates are prepared by the U.S. Bureau of the Census and are updated quarterly.
The main effect of the ratio-estimating process is to make the sample more closely representative of the target population by age, sex, race, and residence. The poststratification adjustment helps to reduce the component of bias resulting from sampling frame undercoverage; furthermore, this adjustment frequently reduces sampling variance.

## Reliability of estimates

Because NHIS estimates are based on a sample, they may differ somewhat from the figures that would have been
obtained if a complete census had been taken using the same survey and processing procedures. There are two types of errors possible in an estimate based on a sample survey: Sampling and nonsampling errors. To the extent possible, these types of errors are kept to a minimum by methods built into the survey procedures (NCHS, 1973). Although it is very difficult to measure the extent of bias in NHIS, a number of studies have been conducted to examine this problem. The results have been published in several reports (NCHS, 1965a, 1965b, 1967, 1968).

## Nonsampling errors

Inteniewing process-Information, such as the number of days of restricted activity caused by the condition, can be obtained more accurately from household members than from any other source because only the persons concerned are in a position to report this information. However, there are limitations to the accuracy of diagnostic and other information collected in household interviews. For example, for diagnostic information, the household respondent can usually pass on to the interviewer only the information the physician has given to the family. For conditions not medically attended, diagnostic information is often no more than a description of symptoms. Further, a respondent may not answer a question in the intended manner because he or she has not properly understood the question, has forgotten the event, does not know, or does not wish to divulge the answer. Regardless of the type of measure, all NHIS data are estimates of known reported morbidity, disability, and so forth.

Population estimates-The appendix tables include population figures for specified categories. Except for overall totals for the 40 age, sex, and race groups, which are adjusted to independent estimates, these figures are based on the sample of households in NHIS. They are given to provide denominators for computation of percents and for this purpose they are more appropriate for use with the accompanying measures of health characteristics than other population data that may be available. With the exception of the overall totals by age, sex, and race mentioned above, the population figures differ from figures (which are derived from different sources) published in reports of the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Official population estimates are presented in U.S. Bureau of the Census reports in Series P-20, P-25, and P-60.

Rounding of numbers-In published tables, the figures are rounded to the nearest thousand, although they are not necessarily accurate to that detail. Derived statistics, such as rates and percent distributions, are computed after the estimates on which these are based have been rounded to the nearest thousand.

NOTE: A list of references follows the text.

Table II. Estimated standard error parameters for the 1985 National Health interview Survey of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention

| Parameter set | Characteristic | Estimated paramsters |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | a | b |
| 1 | Population estimates for demographic, socloeconomic, and health characteristics | 0.000004 | 6752.95 |
| II | Age-sex-race population based upon combining the postratification cells |  |  |
|  | of table I . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . |  | 0.0 |

Table III. Estimated adult population by sex, age, and educational levels: United States and Canada, 1985

| Sox, age, and educational level | UnHed States | Canada |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Number in thousands |  |
| Total | 170,971 | 18,254 |
| Men |  |  |
| 18-24 years | 13,360 | 1,592 |
| 25-44 years | 35,100 | 3,972 |
| 45-64 years | 21,215 | 2,344 |
| 65 years and over | 11,105 | 1,043 |
| Women |  |  |
| 18-24 years | 14,052 | 1,571 |
| 25-44 years | 36,904 | 3,960 |
| 45-64 years . . . | 23,297 | 2,426 |
| 65 years and over | 15,939 | 1,349 |
| Educational level |  |  |
| High school: |  |  |
| Not completed | 41,430 | 6,284 |
| Completed. . . | 66,476 | 5,232 |
| College or university. | 62,536 | 6,738 |

## Sampling errors

The standard error is primarily a measure of sampling error, that is, the variations that might occur by chance because only a sample of the population is surveyed. The chances are about 68 out of 100 that an estimate from the sample would differ from a complete census by less than the standard error. The chances are about 95 out of 100 that the difference would be less than twice the standard error and about 99 out of 100 that it would be less than $21 / 2$ times as large.

Individual standard errors were not computed for each estimate in this report. Instead, standard errors were computed for a broad spectrum of estimates. Regression techniques were then applied to produce equations from which a standard error for any estimate can be approximated. The regression equations, represented by parameters $a$ and $b$, are presented in table II. Rules explaining their use are presented in the section "General rules for determining standard errors." Population table III provides the denominators.

The reader is cautioned that this procedure will give an approximate standard error of an estimate rather than the precise standard error. The reader is further cautioned that particular care should be exercised when the denominator is small.

## General rules for determining standard errors

To produce approximate standard errors of NHIS HPDP estimates, the reader must first determine the type of characteristic to be estimated, that is, the parameter set in table II to be used. The reader must then determine the type of estimate for which the standard error is needed. The type of estimate corresponds to one of four general rules for determining standard errors. Examples of their use are available (NCHS, 1986d).

Rule 1. Percents when the denominator is not generated by the poststratification age-sex-race classes (table I)-If $p$ represents an estimated percent, $b$ is the parameter from table II associated with the numerator characteristic, and $y$ is the number of persons in the denominator upon which $p$ is based, then the standard error of $p$ may be approximated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{SE}(p)=\sqrt{\frac{b p(100-p)}{y}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rule 2. Percents when the denominator is generated by the poststratification age-sex-race classes (table I)-In this case, the denominator has no sampling error. If percent $p$ is the ratio of two estimated numbers, $p=x / Y$ (where $p$ may be inflated by 100 for percents), with $Y$ having no sampling error, then the approximate standard error of $p$ is given by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{SE}(p)=p \sqrt{a+\frac{b}{x}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this report, the value of the denominator $Y$ is always provided, but the numerator value $x$ is not published. For these cases the value of $x$ may be computed by the formula

$$
x=\frac{p Y}{100}
$$

Rule 3. Estimated number of people or events-For the estimated number of people that can be derived from the percents shown in this report, there are two cases to consider. For the first case, if the estimated number is any combination of the poststratification age-sex-race cells in table I, then its value has been adjusted to official U.S. Bureau of the Census figures and its standard error is assumed to be 0.0 . This corresponds to parameter set II in table II. As an example, this would be the case for the number of persons in the U.S. target population or the number of black persons in the 18-44 year age group. Although the race class "white" is not specifically adjusted to U.S. Bureau of the Census figures, it dominates the poststratification "all other" race class, and, consequently, age-sex-"all other" race combinations of table I can be treated as age-sex-white combinations for the purpose of approximating standard errors.

For the second case, the standard errors for all other estimates of numbers of people such as the number of people who eat breakfast daily are approximated by using the parameter provided in table II and formula 3 below.

If the aggregate $x$ for a characteristic has associated parameters $a$ and $b$, then the approximate standard error for $x, \mathrm{SE}(x)$ can be computed by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{SE}(x)=\sqrt{a x^{2}+b x} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rule 4. Difference between two statistics (total and percent)-If $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are two estimates, then the standard error of the difference ( $x_{1}-x_{2}$ ) can be computed as follows:
$\operatorname{SE}\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{SE}\left(x_{1}\right)^{2}+\operatorname{SE}\left(x_{2}\right)^{2}-2 r \operatorname{SE}\left(x_{1}\right) \operatorname{SE}\left(x_{2}\right)}$
where $\operatorname{SE}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\operatorname{SE}\left(x_{2}\right)$ are computed using rules 1-3 as appropriate and $r$ is the correlation coefficient between $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$.

Assuming $r=0.0$ will result in an accurate standard error if the two estimates are actually uncorrelated and will result in an overestimate of the standard error if the correlation is positive or an underestimate if the correlation is negative.

## Relative standard errors

Prior to 1985, relative standard error (RSE) curves were presented in Series 10 reports for approximating relative standard errors. For readers who wish to continue using them, the following provides guidance. The relative standard error (RSE) of an estimate is obtained by dividing the standard error (SE) of the estimate by the estimate $x$ itself. This quantity is expressed as a percent of the estimate:

$$
\operatorname{RSE}=100 \frac{\operatorname{SE}(x)}{x}
$$

## Canada's Health Promotion Survey ${ }^{1}$

## Background

Canada's Health Promotion Survey (CHPS) was one of several surveys on health-related topics conducted for Health and Welfare Canada by Statistics Canada over the past two decades (Health and Welfare Canada, in press). With the exception of a regular series on smoking practices, these surveys tend to be carried out at irregular intervals. Consistency in question wording and sample design is relied upon to provide data comparability.

[^7]With the exception of the Canada Health Survey (Health and Welfare Canada and Statistics Canada, 1981), which was a joint venture of the two Federal departments, most of these surveys are conducted by Statistics Canada under contract, according to specifications established by Health and Welfare Canada. CHPS followed this pattern: As the survey sponsor, Health and Welfare Canada established objectives, took major responsibility for questionnaire design, carried out data analysis, published the survey findings (Health and Welfare Canada, in press), and prepared a data tape for public use (Health and Welfare Canada, 1985). Statistics Canada participated actively in the survey design, selected the sample, collected the data, and carried out initial data processing.

As is true of the NHIS, the data from the CHPS pertain to the resident, civilian noninstitutionalized population of Canada alive at the time of the interview (June 1985). The sample does not include residents of nursing homes, hospitals, other institutions, the Armed Forces, or Canadians living abroad. The data in the present report also exclude residents of the Northwest Territories, who were surveyed at a later date by means of a personal interview. These various exclusions account for about 3 percent of the total Canadian population.

## Statistical design of CHPS

The target population for the Health Promotion Survey was all persons 15 years of age and over living in Canada with the exceptions noted above. Because the sampling methodology used for the Health Promotion Survey was random digit dialing, households (and thus persons living in households) that do not have telephones were obviously excluded from the surveyed population. This accounts for less than 3 percent of the total population. However, the survey estimates have been adjusted (weighted) to include persons without telephones.

The Health Promotion Survey employed two random-digit-dialing sampling techniques. For the 10 provinces, the Waksberg method was used (Waksberg, 1978). For the Yukon, the method used was elimination of non-working banks.

The Waksberg method is a random-digit-dialing sampling technique that significantly reduces the cost of a survey compared with dialing telephone numbers completely at random. The method employs a two-stage sample design that increases the likelihood of contacting households. The following describes the procedure for the 10 provinces.

First, a list of all telephone area code and existing prefix number combinations was obtained for the survey area. An up-to-date listing of all possible area code prefix combinations was obtained; to these, all possible combinations of the next two digits were added (that is, all possible banks of 100 consecutive numbers within existing area code

NOTE: A list of references follows the text.
prefix combinations). This resulted in a list of all the possible first 8 digits of 10 -digit telephone numbers in the survey area. These eight-digit numbers formed the primary sampling units.

A random selection was made of one of these eightdigit numbers and then the final two digits were generated at random. This number (called a primary number) was called to determine whether it reached a household. If it did not reach a household (that is, the number was not assigned for use or was a business or institution), the number was dropped from further consideration. If it did reach a household, additional numbers (referred to as a secondary number) were generated within the same bank. These numbers were also called to determine whether they reached a household. Secondary numbers were generated on a continuing basis until (a) five additional households were reached in each retained bank, (b) the bank was exhausted, or (c) the survey period ended.

Primary numbers were generated continuously throughout the survey period to yield the required sample size within each province. An attempt was made to conduct an interview with all primary and secondary households reached.

This method is more efficient than "pure" random digit dialing because there is a higher probability of reaching a household if the telephone number for that household is within a bank of numbers that contains at least one other household. For the Health Promotion Survey, about 50 percent of secondary numbers called reached a household, compared with only 16 percent of primary numbers called.

For the Yukon Territory, a list of all banks that contained at least one household (that is, all working banks) was drawn up by the telephone company. The final two digits of telephone numbers were generated at random within these working banks. An attempt was made to conduct an interview for each telephone number that reached a household. Approximately 17 percent of the telephone numbers called reached a household.

Two considerations governed the sample design. On the one hand, good national estimates of the distribution of various characteristics are needed for use by the Federal government and national associations. On the other hand, because much of the policy and program activity in health is at the provincial and territorial level, better quality data are required at this level than are typically available from a national household survey. The sample was, therefore, allocated equally to the 10 provinces and the Yukon (1,000 each). One exception was Alberta, which had a target sample of 3,300 . The additional sample of 2,300 was located in Edmonton, and the cost of this supplement was borne by that city's board of health.

## Collection and processing of data

After a household was successfully contacted, all members were listed and one who was at least 15 years of age was selected at random. The interview was then conducted with this selected person by telephone. If this person was

Table IV. Households contacted and individual response rate, by area

| Area | Total <br> number called | Froportion kdentffed as eliglble households |  | Individual response rate |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Percent | Number | Percent | Number |
| All areas | 40,357 | 33.8 | 13,649 | 81.9 | 11,181 |
| Newfoundland. | 4,926 | 21.2 | 1,043 | 81.4 | 849 |
| Prince Edward Island | 3,121 | 35.4 | 1,105 | 84.0 | 928 |
| Nova Scotia | 3,036 | 35.2 | 1,069 | 86.1 | 920 |
| New Brunswick | 2,720 | 40.9 | 1,113 | 86.0 | 956 |
| Quebec | 1,874 | 53.9 | 1,010 | 83.8 | 846 |
| Ontario | 2,223 | 47.1 | 1,046 | 72.3 | 756 |
| Manltoba | 3,674 | 27.4 | 1,008 | 82.3 | 830 |
| Saskatchewan. | 4,510 | 21.0 | 948 | 81.6 | 774 |
| Alberta | 7.128 | 47.1 | 3,359 | 81.4 | 2,733 |
| British Columbla | 2,188 | 49.9 | 1,091 | 82.4 | 899 |
| Yukon. | 4,957 | 17.3 | 857 | 80.5 | 690 |

not available to be interviewed immediately, an appointment was made for a later time. No proxy reporting was accepted. The interview protocol will be found in appendix III.

Interviews were conducted from Statistics Canada's eight regional offices plus an additional office set up specifically for the Yukon component in Whitehorse, from June 3-21, 1985. In some offices, the deadline was extended so that more of the outstanding calls could be completed. All interviews were conducted between 8:30 a.m. and 9:30 p.m. local time during weekdays and during the day on Saturdays. Interviewers were experienced Statistics Canada regular staff, and generally were female. In addition to their experience and training in the general conduct of interviews, they were specifically trained in telephone techniques and in the subject matter of the CHPS. Supervisors monitored the interviewers on a daily basis to ensure that procedures followed the specifications.

Table IV shows the results of the various stages of contact with survey respondents. The overall response rate was 82 percent; that is, out of the 13,649 households contacted, 11,181 adult Canadians participated in the survey. As is generally true in household surveys, nonrespondents were disproportionately male and young (age 15-24 years).

Nonresponse because of language difficulties, illness, or absence of the selected person are some of the problems inherent in a survey that does not allow proxy reporting. Once a respondent was selected, if he or she could not complete the interview, no replacement was made. In some cases, the selected person could not communicate in either English or French, even though another household member was able to respond.

The "No contact" type of nonresponse is a particular problem for telephone surveys. There is no way of knowing whether these telephone numbers have reached a residence, which is eligible for the survey or a business or institution, which is not. Every effort was made to call these numbers many times. Statistics Canada also checked with telephone companies concerning their status; however, a residual 2 to 3 percent could not be determined.

Data capture was conducted in each of the regional offices and transmitted to Ottawa. The data capture operators entered the data directly from the questionnaires into a minicomputer. The data capture program allowed for a valid range of codes to be entered for each question and followed the flow pattern of the questionnaire based on each entry. No editing was done to check for consistency between questions at the data entry stage. It was possible for operators to enter invalid data or to enter data that violated the skip patterns of the questionnaire, but only through the use of a specific override function after they had been alerted that the entry was incorrect.

Following data capture, all survey records were subjected to an exhaustive computer edit. Partial nonresponse, flow-pattern errors, and abnormally high or low responses were identified. Records with missing or incorrect data were assigned nonresponse codes or, in some cases, were imputed from other parts of the same questionnaire. The one exception to this was the selected person's age and sex. In some cases, these variables were imputed from another record on the Health Promotion Survey file.

## Estimation procedures

A self-weighting sample design is one for which the weights for each unit in the sample are the same. For a two-stage sample design, this happens if the first stage units (that is, the Primary Sampling Units, PSU) are selected using probability proportional to size sampling and a fixed number of units are selected within each selected PSU with equal probability.

For the CHPS, the households within each province were selected using this sampling scheme and, thus, the sampled households within each province have identical weights. The first stage sampling units were banks of telephone numbers, and the second stage units were actual telephone numbers corresponding to households within those banks. Household weights differ from province to province because a different sampling rate was used for each province. This is because of the wide range in provincial population sizes combined with the desire of the survey sponsor for equal sample sizes in all 10 provinces.

The following paragraphs outline the steps used in weighting the Health Promotion Survey records.

1. In the first stage of weighting, all households selected into the sample within a given province were assigned an identical weight.
2. The weights for households with more than one private telephone number were adjusted downward to account for the fact that such households have a higher probability of being selected.
3. The weights for responding households (that is, the records on the file) were adjusted upward to account for nonresponding households. This adjustment was done independently within Census Metropolitan area/non-Census Metropolitan area geographical classifications within each province. Weights were also adjusted when fewer than the required number of
telephone numbers were generated within an area because of reaching the end of the survey period. This adjustment is based on the assumption that the households that were interviewed represent the characteristics of those that should have been interviewed. To the extent that this is not true, the estimates produced will be somewhat biased.
4. A person weight was calculated for each person who responded to the survey by multiplying the household weight for that person by the number of persons in the household who were eligible to be selected for the survey.
5. In the last stage of weighting, the person weights were ratio adjusted to agree with age-sex distributions projected from the Census of Canada. Census-projected population counts were obtained for males and females within each province and the Yukon for the following age groups: 15-19, 20-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and 65 years and over. Inmates of institutions were excluded from the census projections because this group was not surveyed. For each of the resulting 154 classifications ( $11 \times 2 \times 7$ ), the person weights for records within the classification were adjusted by multiplying by the ratio of the projected census population count to the sum of the person weights of records in the province-age-sex-group.

## Reliability of estimates

The estimates derived from this survey are based on a sample of households. Somewhat different figures might have been obtained if a complete census had been taken using the same questionnaire, interviewers, supervisors, processing methods, and so forth, as those actually used. The difference between the estimates obtained from the sample and the results from a complete count taken under similar conditions is called the sampling error of the estimate.

Although the exact sampling error of the estimate, as defined above, cannot be measured from sample results alone (otherwise a survey would be unnecessary), it is possible to estimate a statistical measure of sampling error, the standard error, from the sample data. Using the standard error, confidence intervals for estimates (ignoring the effects of nonsampling error) may be obtained under the assumption that the estimates are normally distributed about the true population value. The chances are about 68 out of 100 that the difference between a sample estimate and the true population value would be less than one standard error, about 95 out of 100 that the difference would be less than two standard errors, and virtually certain that the difference would be less than three standard errors.

Because of the large variety of estimates that can be produced from a survey, the standard deviation is usually expressed relative to the estimate to which it pertains. The resulting measure, known as the RSE of an estimate is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself and is expressed as a percent of the estimate.

Derivation of sampling variabilities for each of the estimates that could be generated from the Health Promotion Survey would be an extremely costly procedure and, for most users, an unnecessary one. Consequently, crude measures of sampling variability have been developed for use (table V). This table has been produced using the RSE formula based on a simple random sample. Because the Health Promotion Survey estimates were made from a two-stage cluster design, a factor called the design effect was introduced into the formula. This factor accounts for the increase in variance that results from using a two-stage cluster design over a simple random sample.

The following rules should enable the reader to determine approximate RSE's for aggregates (totals), percents, ratios, differences between totals or percents, and differences between ratios.

Rule 1. Estimates of aggregates (totals)-The RSE for a total depends only on the size of the estimated total itself. On table V, locate the estimated total (in thousands) in the left column of the table (headed "Numerator of percentage") and follow the X's across to the first figure encountered. This is the RSE.

Rule 2. Estimates of percents-The RSE of an estimated percent depends on the size of the percent and the size of the group upon which the percent is based. Estimated percents are relatively more reliable than the corresponding estimates of the numerators of the percents, particularly if the percents are 50 percent or greater. To estimate the RSE of a percent, reference should be made to the percent (across the top of table V ) and to the numerator of the percent, in thousands (down the left side of the table). The intersection of the appropriate row and column gives the proper RSE.

Rule 3. Ratios-In the case where the numerator is a subset of the denominator, the ratio should be converted to a percent and rule 2 applied. In the case where the numerator is not a subset of the denominator, the RSE of the ratio of the two estimates is approximately equal to the square root of the sum of squares of each RSE considered separately; that is, the RSE of a ratio:

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & =\frac{x}{y} \quad \text { is } \\
\operatorname{RSE}(r) & =\sqrt{\operatorname{RSE}(x)^{2}+\operatorname{RSE}(y)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

This formula will tend to overstate the error if $x$ and $y$ are positively correlated and understate the error if $x$ and $y$ are negatively correlated.

Rule 4. Differences between totals or percents-The standard deviation of a difference between two estimates is approximately equal to the square root of the sum of the squares of each standard deviation considered separately. That is, the standard deviation of a difference:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d & =x-y \text { is equal to } \\
\mathrm{SD}(d) & =\sqrt{[x \operatorname{RSE}(x)]^{2}+[y \operatorname{RSE}(y)]^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Table V. Crude sampling variabilities for the Canadian Health Promotion Survey

| Numerator of percentage <br> in thousands | Estimated percent |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0.1 | 1.0 | 20 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 15.0 | 20.0 | 25.0 | 30.0 | 35.0 | 40.0 | E0.0 | 70.0 | 90.0 |
| 1. | 155.7 | 155.0 | 154.2 | 151.8 | 147.8 | 143.6 | 139.3 | 134.9 | 130.3 | 125.6 | 120.7 | 110.2 | 85.3 | 49.3 |
| 2. | 110.1 | 109.6 | 109.0 | 107.4 | 104.5 | 101.6 | 98.5 | 95.4 | 92.2 | 88.8 | 85.3 | 77.9 | 60.3 | 34,8 |
| 3. | 89.9 | 89.5 | 89.0 | 87.7 | 85.3 | 82.9 | 80.4 | 77.9 | 75.2 | 72.5 | 69.7 | 63.6 | 49.3 | 28.4 |
| 4. | 77.9 | 77.5 | 77.1 | 75.9 | 73.9 | 71.8 | 69.7 | 67.5 | 65.2 | 62.8 | 60.3 | 55.1 | 42.7 | 24.6 |
| 5. | 69.6 | 69.3 | 69.0 | 67.9 | 66.1 | 84.2 | 62.3 | 60.3 | 58.3 | 56.2 | 54.0 | 49.3 | 33.2 | 220 |
| 6. | 63.6 | 63.3 | 63.0 | 62.0 | 60.3 | 58.6 | 56.9 | 55.1 | 53.2 | 51.3 | 49.3 | 45.0 | 34.8 | 20.1 |
| 7. | 58.8 | 58.6 | 58.3 | 57.4 | 55.9 | 54.3 | 52.7 | 51.0 | 49.3 | 47.5 | 45.6 | 41.6 | 32.2 | 18.6 |
| 8. | 55.0 | 54.8 | 54.5 | 53.7 | 52.2 | 50.8 | 49.3 | 47.7 | 46.1 | 44.4 | 42.7 | 38.9 | 30.2 | 17.4 |
| 9. | 51.9 | 51.7 | 51.4 | 50.6 | 49.3 | 47.9 | 46.4 | 45.0 | 43.4 | 41.9 | 40.2 | 36.7 | 28.4 | 16.4 |
| 10. | 49.2 | 49.0 | 48.8 | 48.0 | 46.7 | 45.4 | 44.1 | 427 | 41.2 | 39.7 | 38.2 | 34.8 | 27.0 | 15.6 |
| 11. | 46.9 | 46.7 | 46.5 | 45.8 | 44.6 | 43.3 | 42.0 | 40.7 | 39.3 | 37.9 | 36.4 | 33.2 | 25.7 | 14.9 |
| 12. | 44.9 | 44.7 | 44.5 | 43.8 | 42.7 | 41.5 | 40.2 | 38.9 | 37.6 | 36.3 | 34.8 | 31.8 | 24.6 | 14.2 |
| 13. | 43.2 | 43.0 | 428 | 421 | 41.0 | 39.8 | 38.6 | 37.4 | 36.1 | 34.8 | 33.5 | 30.6 | 23.7 | 13.7 |
| 14. | 41.6 | 41.4 | 41.2 | 40.6 | 39.5 | 38.4 | 37.2 | 36.1 | 34.8 | 33.6 | 32.2 | 29.4 | 228 | 13.2 |
| 15. | 40.2 | 40.0 | 39.8 | 39.2 | 38.2 | 37.1 | 36.0 | 34.8 | 33.7 | 32.4 | 31.2 | 28.4 | 22.0 | 12.7 |
| 16. | 38.9 | 38.7 | 38.6 | 38.0 | 36.9 | 35.9 | 34.8 | 33.7 | 32.6 | 31.4 | 30.2 | 27.5 | 21.3 | 12.3 |
| 17. | 37.8 | 37.6 | 37.4 | 36.8 | 35.8 | 34.8 | 33.8 | 32.7 | 31.6 | 30.5 | 29.3 | 26.7 | 20.7 | 11.9 |
| 18. | 36.7 | 36.5 | 36.3 | 35.8 | 34.8 | 33.9 | 328 | 31.8 | 30.7 | 29.6 | 28.4 | 26.0 | 20.1 | 11.6 |
| 19. | 35.7 | 35.6 | 35.4 | 34.8 | 33.9 | 32.9 | 32.0 | 31.0 | 29.9 | 28.8 | 27.7 | 25.3 | 19.6 | 11.3 |
| 20. | X | 34.7 | 34.5 | 34.0 | 33.0 | 32.1 | 31.2 | 30.2 | 29.1 | 28.1 | 27.0 | 24.6 | 19.1 | 11.0 |
| 21. | X | 33.8 | 33.7 | 33.1 | 32.2 | 31.3 | 30.4 | 29.4 | 28.4 | 27.4 | 26.3 | 24.0 | 18.6 | 10.7 |
| 22. | $x$ | 33.0 | 32.9 | 32.4 | 31.5 | 30.6 | 29.7 | 28.8 | 27.8 | 26.8 | 25.7 | 23.5 | 18.2 | 10.5 |
| 23. | $x$ | 323 | 32.2 | 31.7 | 30.8 | 29.9 | 29.1 | 28.1 | 27.2 | 26.2 | 25.2 | 23.0 | 17.8 | 10.3 |
| 24. | X | 31.6 | 31.5 | 31.0 | 30.2 | 29.3 | 28.4 | 27.5 | 26.6 | 25.6 | 24.6 | 22.5 | 17.4 | 10.1 |
| 25. | X | 31.0 | 30.8 | 30.4 | 29.6 | 28.7 | 27.9 | 27.0 | 26.1 | 25.1 | 24.1 | 22.0 | 17.1 | 9.9 |
| 30. | X | 28.3 | 28.2 | 27.7 | 27.0 | 26.2 | 25.4 | 24.6 | 23.8 | 22.9 | 220 | 20.1 | 15.6 | 9.0 |
| 35. | X | 26.2 | 26.1 | 25.7 | 25.0 | 24.3 | 23.6 | 22.8 | 22.0 | 21.2 | 20.4 | 18.6 | 14.4 | 8.3 |
| 40. | X | 24.5 | 24.4 | 24.0 | 23.4 | 22.7 | 22.0 | 21.3 | 20.6 | 19.9 | 19.1 | 17.4 | 13.5 | 7.8 |
| 45. | X | 23.1 | 23.0 | 22.6 | 22.0 | 21.4 | 20.8 | 20.1 | 19.4 | 18.7 | 18.0 | 16.4 | 12.7 | 7.3 |
| 50. | x | 21.9 | 21.8 | 21.5 | 20.9 | 20.3 | 19.7 | 19.1 | 18.4 | 17.8 | 17.1 | 15.6 | 121 | 7.0 |
| 55. | X | 20.9 | 20.8 | 20.5 | 19.9 | 18.4 | 18.8 | 18.2 | 17.6 | 16.9 | 16.3 | 14.9 | 11.5 | 6.6 |
| 60. | X | 20.0 | 19.9 | 19.6 | 19.1 | 18.5 | 18.0 | 17.4 | 16.8 | 16.2 | 15.6 | 14.2 | 11.0 | 6.4 |
| 65. | X | 18.2 | 19.1 | 18.8 | 18.3 | 17.8 | 17.3 | 16.7 | 16.2 | 15.6 | 15.0 | 13.7 | 10.6 | 6.1 |
| 70. | X | 18.5 | 18.4 | 18.1 | 17.7 | 17.2 | 16.7 | 16.1 | 15.6 | 15.0 | 14.4 | 13.2 | 10.2 | 5.9 |
| 75. | X | 17.9 | 17.8 | 17.5 | 17.1 | 16.6 | 16.1 | 15.6 | 15.0 | 14.5 | 13.9 | 12.7 | 9.9 | 5.7 |
| 80. | X | 17.3 | 17.2 | 17.0 | 16.5 | 16.1 | 15.6 | 15.1 | 14.6 | 14.0 | 13.5 | 123 | 9.5 | 5.5 |
| 85. | X | 16.8 | 16.7 | 16.5 | 16.0 | 15.6 | 15.1 | 14.6 | 14.1 | 13.6 | 13.1 | 11.9 | 9.3 | 5.3 |
| 90. | $x$ | 16.3 | 16.3 | 16.0 | 15.6 | 15.1 | 14.7 | 14.2 | 13.7 | 13.2 | 12.7 | 11.6 | 9.0 | 5.2 |
| 95. | X | 15.9 | 15.8 | 15.6 | 15.2 | 14.7 | 14.3 | 13.8 | 13.4 | 12.9 | 12.4 | 11.3 | 8.6 | 5.1 |
| 100. | X | 15.5 | 15.4 | 15.2 | 14.8 | 14.4 | 13.9 | 13.5 | 13.0 | 126 | 12.1 | 11.0 | 8.5 | 4.9 |
| 125 | $x$ | 13.9 | 13.8 | 13.6 | 13.2 | 12.8 | 125 | 121 | 11.7 | 11.2 | 10.8 | 9.9 | 7.6 | 4.4 |
| 150 | X | 127 | 12.6 | 12.4 | 121 | 11.7 | 11.4 | 11.0 | 10.6 | 10.3 | 9.9 | 9.0 | 7.0 | 4.0 |
| 200 | X | $x$ | 10.9 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 10.2 | 9.9 | 9.5 | 9.2 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 7.8 | 6.0 | 3.5 |
| 250 | X | X | 9.8 | 9.6 | 9.3 | 9.1 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 8.2 | 7.9 | 7.6 | 7.0 | 5.4 | 3.1 |
| 300 | X | X | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.3 | 7.0 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 2.8 |
| 350. | $x$ | X | 8.2 | 8.1 | 7.9 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 6.4 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 2.6 |
| 400. | $x$ | $\underline{x}$ | $\mathbf{x}$ | 7.6 | 7.4 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 6.5 | 6.3 | 6.0 | 5.5 | 4.3 | 2.5 |
| 150. | ${ }^{x}$ | X | X | 7.2 | 7.0 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 6.4 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 5.7 | 5.2 | 4.0 | 2.3 |
| 500 | $x$ | $\underline{x}$ | X | 6.8 | 6.6 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 6.0 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 4.8 3.8 | 2.2 |
| 750. | $x$ | X | X | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 3.1 | 1.8 |
| 1,000. | X | X | X | X | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 3.5 | 2.7 | 1.6 |
| 1,500. | $x$ | X | X | X | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 22 | 1.3 |
| 2,000. | $x$ | x | X | x | X | 3.2 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 29 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 1.1 |
| 3,000. | x | X | X | X | X | X | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 0.9 |
| 4,000. | x | X | X | X | $x$ | X | X | 2.1 | 21 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 0.8 |
| 5,000. | X | X | X | X | X | X | x | $x$ | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.2 | 0.7 |
| 8,000. | x | X | $\underset{X}{x}$ | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.6 |
| 7,000. | X | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | X | $x$ | X | X | X | X | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.6 |
| $8,000$. | x | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | x | $x$ | $\underline{x}$ | $x$ | x | $\times$ | x | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.6 |
| 9,000.. | x | $x$ | $x$ | X | X | $x$ | X | $x$ | x | X | X | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.5 |
| 10,000 | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | X | x | x | x | x | X | X | x | 0.9 | 0.5 |
| 12,500 | x | X | X | x | X | $\times$ | x | x | - | X | X | x | 0.8 | 0.4 |
| 15,000. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0.4 |

NOTES: Sampling variabilites (relative standard errors) are in percents. To determine sampling variabilities for estimates of totals, locate the row closest to the estimated total. The left column gives the sampling variability. To determine sampling variabilities for estimates of percents, use the row closest to the numerator of the percent and the column closest to the percent. Sampling variabilities in this table are crude indicators and in general are higher than those that would be obtained using more exact techniques. Under no circumstances are they official.
Relative standard errors (RSE's) above the first cut-off line are unacceptably high; RSE's below the first cut-off line and above the second cut-off line may be used with caution; RSE's below the second cut-off line are acceptable.
The RSE's shown in this table can be oblained with the following formula:
RSE $=\sqrt{(2423.3702) \times(1-\text { proportion }) / \text { numerator }}$
The formula may be partcularly helpful in cases where use of the table requires interpolation.

The RSE of $d$ is approximately

$$
\operatorname{RSE}(d)=\frac{\mathrm{SD}(d)}{d}
$$

This formula is accurate for the difference between separate and uncorrelated characteristics but is only approximate otherwise.

Rule 5. Differences between ratios-In this case, rules 3 and 4 are combined. The RSE's for the two ratios are first determined using rule 3 , and then the RSE of their difference is found using rule 4 .

## The 1979 surveys

Detailed discussions of the sample design and estimation procedures for the 1979 National Survey of Personal Health Practices and Consequences and the 1979 Canada Health Survey have been previously published (Health and Welfare Canada and Statistics Canada, 1981; NCHS, 1981). Readers desiring to carry out further analyses of the trend data shown in this report are referred to these earlier publications.

[^8]
## Appendix II Definition of terms

## Terms related to health practices

Amount of absolute alcohol-This is calculated from the number of drinks reportedly consumed during a given time period, assuming each to contain 0.5 ounce of absolute alcohol (ethanol). Heavier drinkers consumed an average of 1.0 ounces of ethanol ( 2 drinks or more) daily. Moderate drinkers consumed an average of 0.22-0.99 ounces of ethanol daily ( $4-13$ drinks per week). Lighter drinkers consumed an average of 0.01-0.21 ounces of ethanol daily ( 3 or fewer drinks per week). This classification scheme was developed by Johnson et al. (1977) and has been used in numerous other analyses (Clark and Midanik, 1982; Malin, Wilson and Williams, 1985; Schoenborn, 1986; Schoenborn, 1987).

Breakfast-U.S. survey respondents were simply asked, "How often do you eat breakfast?" The Canadian survey asked for the weekly frequency of several categories of brcakfast food; "just coffee or tea" was included in the same category as "nothing."

Breast examination-The U.S. survey refers to examination by a doctor or other health professional; the Canadian one specifies a doctor or nurse.

Current drinker-A person who has had at least one drink of an alcoholic beverage in the past 12 months.

Drinking and driving-In the United States, the question asked was, "During the past year, how many times did you drive when you had perhaps had too much to drink?" The Canadian survey included the question, "During the past month how many times have you driven within 2 hours of drinking any amount of alcohol?"

Former drinker-In the United States, a person who has had at least 12 drinks in any one year, but none in the past year. In Canada, this refers to a person who has had at least one drink in his or her lifetime, but none in the past year.

Life-long abstainer-In the United States, a person who has not had at least 12 drinks in any one year. In Canada, this refers to a person who has never had any alcoholic beverages.

NOTE: A list of references follows the text.

Regularly active person-In the U.S. survey, a person answering positively to the question, "Do you exercise or play sports regularly?" In Canada, persons were defined as regularly active if they reported vigorous exercise (for example, calisthenics, jogging, racquet sports, brisk walking) of at least 15 minutes' duration at least 3-4 times weekly.

Seatbelt use-"Usually" includes "all or most of the time" (United States) and "always" or "most of the time" (Canada). "Sometimes" refers to "some of the time" and "once in a while" (United States) and "sometimes" (Canada). "Never" is "never" in the U.S. survey and "rarely or never" in Canada.

Smoking-This refers only to cigarettes. Current smokers include regular and occasional smokers; nonsmokers may be either life-long abstainers or former smokers.

## Demographic terms

Age-The age at last birthday.
Education-The number of years of schooling was determined in the United States; a separate question specified if the highest year was completed. In the Canadian survey, respondents were asked to check the category describing the highest level completed. The table category which may not be strictly comparable for the two countries is "completed high school." This is because the number of years to complete high school varies in Canada from 11 years (about 25 percent of the population) to 13 years (about 35 percent), the balance requiring 12 years as in the United States.

Parent's education-For the United States, this term refers to the highest level of education achieved by the person designated "responsible adult in the household." This person is usually the father or mother but may be unrelated to the child. For Canada, parent's education refers to that of the survey respondent. See questionnaire (appendix III) for question on children's use of seatbelts.

## Appendix III Questionnaires

ORTE No GOS7-062?: Approval Excires Marth 31, 1986







FOOTNOTES




[^9]







## HEALTH PROMOTION SURVEY <br> $\square$ <br> 

First I would like to ask you a few questions about your health.

1. In general, compared to other persons your age would you say your health is ...
${ }^{1} O$ Excellent
${ }^{2} \mathrm{O}$ Very good
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Good
${ }^{4} O$ Fair
${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ Poor
2. Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Compared to most people my age I make more of an effort to improve my health.
${ }^{6}$ O Agree
${ }^{7}$ O Disagree
${ }^{8} \mathrm{O}$ No opinion
3. Do you think there is anything you personally should do to improve your physical health?
${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ Yes $\quad{ }^{2} \mathrm{O}$ No $\longrightarrow$ Goto 6
4. What is the most important thing you personally should do?
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Exercise more
${ }^{4}$ O Improve eating habits
${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ Lose weight
${ }^{6} \mathrm{O}$ Stop smoking
7 R Reduce drug use/medications
${ }^{8} \bigcirc$ Cut down on drinking
${ }^{9} \mathrm{O}$ Other (apecify)
B. Is thore anything stopping you from making this improvement? (Mark all that apply)
01 O No
${ }^{09}$ O Problem not serious, no urgency
${ }^{03}$ O Lack of time
${ }^{04}$ O Lack of self discipline, energy
${ }^{05} \mathrm{O}$ Toodepressed
${ }^{06} \mathrm{O}$ Don't know how to get started, lack knowledge
${ }^{07}$ O Peerpressure
${ }^{08}$ O Lack of aupport from family or friends
${ }^{09} \mathrm{O}$ Don't want to change current habits
${ }^{10} \mathrm{O}$ Toodifficult
${ }^{11} \mathrm{O}$ Too costly
${ }^{12} \mathrm{O}$ Other (specify)
5. Do you think there is anything you personally should do to improve the way you cope with stress?

6. What is the most important thing you think you should do? (Mark only most important)
${ }^{1} O$ Exercise more
${ }^{2}$ O Learn to relax, worry less
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Get out more often, make new friends, socialize
${ }^{4}$ O Change jobs, move, leave home, change situation
${ }^{5}$ O Reduce drug use/medications
${ }^{6}$ O Reduce alcohol use
${ }^{7}$ O Spend more time with family and close friends
${ }^{8} \mathrm{O}$ Other (specify) $\qquad$
7. Is there anything stopping you from making this improvement?
01 O No
02 Oroblem not serious, no urgency
${ }^{09} \mathrm{O}$ Lack of time
${ }^{04} \mathrm{O}$ Lack of self discipline, energy
${ }^{05} \mathrm{O}$ Toodepressed
${ }^{06} \mathrm{O}$ Don't know how to get started, lack knowledge
${ }^{07}$ O Peerpressure
${ }^{08} \mathrm{O}$ Lack of support from family or friends
${ }^{09}$ O Don't want to change current habits
${ }^{10} \mathrm{O}$ Too difficult
${ }^{11}$ O Too costly
${ }^{12}$ O Other (specify)
8. In general would you say you're...
${ }^{1} O$ Very happy
${ }^{2} O$ Pretty happy
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Not too happy
9. Would you describe your life as...
${ }^{4}$ O Very stressful
${ }^{5}$ O Fairly stressful
${ }^{6} \mathrm{O}$ Not very stressful
${ }^{7}$ O Notatall stressful


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28. Do you think that getting more exercise would improve your health...
${ }^{5}$ O Agreat deal
${ }^{6} \bigcirc$ A moderate amount
7 A little
${ }^{8} \mathrm{O}$ Notatall
${ }^{9}$ O Don't know

The next few questions are about smoking.
27. At the present time do you smoke cigarettes?
${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ Yes $\quad{ }^{2} \mathrm{O}$ No $\longrightarrow$ Goto 31
28. Do you smoke cigarettes regularly, that is usually everyday or occasionally, not every day?
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Regularly $\quad{ }^{4} \mathrm{O}$ Occasionally
29. In the past year has anyone asked you to not smoke around them?
${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ Yes $\quad{ }^{6} \mathrm{O}$ No $\longrightarrow \mathrm{Co}$ to 31
30. Where has this happened? Anywhere else? (Mark all that apply)
${ }^{1} \bigcirc$ At school
${ }^{2}$ O At work
${ }^{3}$ O Inacar
${ }^{4}$ O Restaurant
${ }^{5}$ O In your own home
${ }^{6} O$ In a house other than your own
${ }^{7}$ O Other (specify)
31. Now I'd like your opinion on some statements about smoking. Tell me whether you agree or disagree with each of the following?

Dis- No
Agree agree opinion
Children are more likely to start smoking if their parents smoke
People are too concerned about the effect on their health of other people smoking

32. Do you think that a person who quits after ten years of heavy smoking reduces the risk of getting a disease related to smoking. . .
${ }^{1} O$ A great deal
${ }^{2}$ O A moderate amount
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Alittle bit
4 O Not at all
${ }^{5}$ O Don't know
33. Do you ever feel unpleasant effects from the cigarette smoke of others?
34. Have you ever asked someone not to smoke?

$$
{ }^{8} \mathrm{O} \text { Yes } \quad{ }^{9} \mathrm{O} \text { No } \longrightarrow \text { Goto } 36
$$

35. Where was that? Anywhere else? (Mark all that apply)
${ }^{1} O$ In restaurant
${ }^{2} \bigcirc$ At work
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Atschool
${ }^{4}$ O In acar
${ }^{5}$ O Public transportation (bus, airplane)
${ }^{6}$ O In your own home
${ }^{7}$ O In a house other than your own
${ }^{8} \bigcirc$ Other (specify)
Now I would like to ask some questions about alcohol consumption.
36. In the next questions when we use the word drink it means:

One bottle of beer or glass of draft One small glass of wine One shot or mixed drink with hard liquor

Have you ever taken a drink of beer, wine, liquor or other alcoholic beverage?

$$
\text { Yes } \quad{ }^{2} \mathrm{O} \text { No } \longrightarrow \mathrm{Go} \text { to } 44
$$

37. In the past 12 months, have you taken a drink of beer, wine, liquor or other alcoholic beverage?

$$
{ }^{3} \mathrm{O} \text { Yes } \quad{ }^{4} \mathrm{O} \text { No } \longrightarrow \text { Go to } 44
$$

38. During the past 12 months, how often, on average, did you drink alcoholic beverages? Wasit...
${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ Every day
${ }^{2}$ O 4 -6 times a week
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O} \cdot 2.3$ times a week
${ }^{4} 0$ Once a week
${ }^{5}$ O Once or twice a month
${ }^{6}$ O Less often than once a month


[^10]The next few questions are about social relationships.
66. About how many people, including relatives, do
you consider to be your friends, that is, people
you see eocially on e resular basio? you see nocially on a regular basis?
67. Of the people you see socislly how many smoke
cigarettes? (Read responses)

| ${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ None |
| :--- |
| ${ }^{2} \mathrm{O}$ A few |
| ${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ About half |
| ${ }^{4} \mathrm{O}$ Most or all |
| ${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ Don't know |

68. How many would you say drink too much? (Read responses)
${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ None
${ }^{2} \mathrm{O}$ A few
${ }^{3} \bigcirc$ About half
${ }^{4}$ O Most or all
${ }^{5}$ O Don't know
69. How many of your friends use marijuana regularly? (Read responses)
${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ None
${ }^{2} 0$ A few
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ About half
${ }^{4}$ O Most or all
${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ Don't know
70. How many of your friends exercise regularly? (Read responses)
${ }^{1} O$ None
${ }^{2} O$ Afow
${ }^{3} O$ About half
${ }^{4} O$ Most or all
${ }^{5} O$ Don't know
71. How many do you consider to be your close friends, that is, people you could talk to if you needed help or had a problem? (Read responses)

72. What is your current marital status?
${ }^{1}$ O Married (including common-law)
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\left.\begin{array}{l}2 \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array}\right) & \text { Single/never married } \\ { }^{4} O & \text { Separated } \\ { }^{5} O & \text { Divorced }\end{array}\right\}$ Widowed $\quad$ Go to 74
73. Does your spouse do any of the following?

|  | Yes | No |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Exercise regularly | ${ }^{01} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{02} \mathrm{O}$ |
| Smoke cigarettes | ${ }^{03} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{04} \mathrm{O}$ |
| Drink too much | ${ }^{05} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{06} \mathrm{O}$ |
| Overeat | ${ }^{07} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{08} \mathrm{O}$ |
| Use tranquilizers such as valium | ${ }^{09} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{10} \mathrm{O}$ |
| Smoke marijuana | ${ }^{11} \mathrm{O}$ | ${ }^{12} \mathrm{O}$ |

The next questions are about nutrition.
74. In the last week on how many days did you have the following for breakfast?

| Nothing or just coffee or tea |  |
| :--- | ---: |
| Eggs, bacon, ham or other meat | $\square$ |
| Breads, pastries, pancakes or cereals | $\square$ |
| Fruit or juice | $\square$ |
| Cheese, milk or other dairy products | $\square$ |

75. Are there any foods which you think you should limit or avoid, for the sake of your health?

$$
{ }^{1} \mathrm{O} \text { Yes } \quad{ }^{2} \mathrm{O} \text { No } \longrightarrow \text { Go to } 77
$$

76. Of the following types of food, which one do you feel is the most important to limit or avoid for the sake of your health? Food that is...
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ High in cholesterol
${ }^{4} \mathrm{O}$ High in fat
${ }^{5} \mathrm{O}$ High in sugar
${ }^{6} O$ High in salt
${ }^{7}$ O Don't know
77. Are there any foods which you think you should eat more often for the sake of your health?
${ }^{8} \mathrm{O}$ Yes $\quad{ }^{9} \mathrm{O}$ No $\longrightarrow$ Goto 79
78. Of the following types of food, which one do you feel is the most important to eat more often for the sake of your health? Foods such as ...
${ }^{1} O$ Fruits and vegetables
${ }^{2}$ O Whole grain cereals
${ }^{3} \mathrm{O}$ Milk and milk products
${ }^{4}$ O Meat/fish/poultry
${ }^{5}$ O Don't know
griamilan t



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[^0]:    Cooperation of the U.S. Bureau of Census
    Under the legislation establishing the National Health Interview Survey, the Public Health Service is authorized to use, insofar as possible, the services or facilities of other Federal, State, or private agencies.
    'In accordance with specifications established by the Division of Health Interview Statistics, the U.S. Bureau of the Census, under a contractual arrangement, participated in planning the National Health Interview Survey and collecting the data.

[^1]:    'includes "don't know."

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.
    In the United States, never had 12 drinks or more in any year. In Canada, no drinks ever in a lifetime.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Total excludes unknowns.

[^4]:    1 Total excludes unknowns.

[^5]:    1Total excludes unknowns.

[^6]:    'Total excludes unknowns.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Adapted from Health and Welfare Canada (1985).

[^8]:    NOTE: A list of references follows the text.

[^9]:    FOOTNOTES

[^10]:    8-5400-140.1

