



First Nations Regional Health Survey Phase 3 (2015–17): Fraser Salish Region

Published by: First Nations Health Authority 501 - 100 Park Royal South Coast Salish Territory West Vancouver, BC Canada V7T 1A2 www.fnha.ca | info@fnha.ca

Printed August 2019

The Regional Health Survey Thunderbird artwork was designed by Andrew (Enpaauk) Dexel, Nlaka'pamux Nation. ©2019. First Nations Health Authority. Content may be reproduced without written permission provided the source is fully acknowledged.

FIRST NATIONS
REGIONAL
HEALTH
SURVEY

PHASE 3 (2015–17)

Fraser Salish Region

Contents

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

SUMMARY OF INTEREST AREAS	1
Interest Area 1: Traditional Wellness	3
Interest Area 2: Mental Health and Wellness	4
Interest Area 3: Primary Health Care	6
Interest Area 4: Alcohol and Substance Use	7
INTRODUCTION	9
First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness	10
Everything is Connected: Social Determinants of First Nations Health	11
Self-Determination and Health	11
Impact of Colonialism and Discrimination	13
First Nations Regional Health Survey: Background	14
DEMOGRAPHICS	17
Regional Sampling and Response Rate	18
Fraser Salish Region Participation	19
Survey Participation by Age	19
Regional Representation by Age	19
Survey Participation by Gender	19
HEALTH DETERMINANTS	21
Community Wellness	22
What Makes You Healthy?	23
Traditional Wellness	25
Cultural Activities and Learning	25
Traditional Languages	27
Traditional Foods	27
Harvesting	29
Traditional Medicines	30
Healthy Living	30
Healthy Eating	31
Physical Activity	32
Screen Time	34
Body Mass Index	34

FIGURE 1	First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness	10
FIGURE 2	Social determinants of First Nations health. Figure adapted from First Nations Health Council	11
FIGURE 3	First Nations health governance structure	12
TABLE 1	Age groups	15
FIGURE 4	Number and percentage of survey participants by region	18
FIGURE 5	Number and percentage of survey participants by age group	19
FIGURE 6	The social determinants of health and how they affect First Nations health	22
FIGURE 7	Percentage of adults reporting a strong sense of belonging in their community	23
FIGURE 8	Things that adults identified as helping to make them healthy by age group	24
FIGURE 9	Things that youth identified as helping to make them healthy	24
FIGURE 10	How often children and youth participated in traditional activities outside of school hours	25
FIGURE 11	Individuals identified as helping children and youth understand their culture	26
FIGURE 12	Percentage of participants who ate at least one traditional food often in the past year by age group	28
FIGURE 13	Percentage of adults who harvested traditional foods in the past three months	29
FIGURE 14	Percentage of adults who used traditional medicine in the past year	31
FIGURE 15	Percentage of participants who said they eat from all four recommended food groups daily by age group	32
FIGURE 16	Percentage of participants who said they eat foods that are high in sugar or fast food daily by age group	33
FIGURE 17	Percentage of adults getting recommended amount of physical activity per week	35
FIGURE 18	Percentage of children aged 5 to 11 years meeting the recommended amount of physical activity	35
FIGURE 19	Average daily screen time (hours per day) by age group	36
FIGURE 20	Percentage of adults who have completed a high school diploma	
	by males and females and age group	37
FIGURE 21	Percentage of children who have attended an AHSOR program	38
FIGURE 22	Percentage of adults who are currently working at a job or business for pay	
	by males and females and age group	38
FIGURE 23	Percentage of children with parents working for pay	39
FIGURE 24	Common reasons reported for moving away from their community	
	among adults who had ever lived outside of their community by males and females	40
FIGURE 25	Percentage of adults who said they had struggled to meet their basic needs in the past year	41
	Level of household food insecurity reported by adults	
FIGURE 27	Percentage of adults who experienced racism in the past year	45
	Adults who reported experiencing, seeking and receiving help for aggression or cyberbullying	
FIGURE 29	Percentage of children and youth reported to having been bullied in the past year	47
	Self-reported health for children, youth and adults	
FIGURE 31	Self-reported mental health for youth and adults	51
FIGURE 32	Percentage of adults that feel they are in balance most of the time for each of the four aspects of	
	their life by males and females	52
FIGURE 33	Percentage adults reporting that they have been told by a health care professional that they have	_
	an anxiety or mood disorder	53

EMOTIONAL TRIGGER WARNING

This report discusses culturally unsafe experiences in health care, traumatic experiences and health and wellness topics that may trigger memories of personal experiences or the experiences of friends and family. While the report's intent is to create knowledge to begin addressing these negative experiences, the content may trigger difficult feelings or thoughts. First Nations and other Indigenous peoples who require emotional support can contact the 24-hour KUU-US Crisis Line at 1-800-588-8717.



We acknowledge that this report was developed and published in Coast Salish territories – x*ma@k*ay*am (Musqueam), Skwxwú7mesh (Squamish), salilwata?4 (Tsleil-Waututh) – and data collection was possible with permission from Nations for First Nations Health Authority (FNHA) staff to conduct the survey in communities across British Columbia (BC).

Survey Participants

We thank the 122 First Nations communities in BC for granting permission for FNHA staff to conduct the survey and the 5,739 on-reserve First Nations individuals in BC who participated in Phase 3 of the First Nations Regional Health Survey (RHS). We acknowledge and thank the participating First Nations and regional team members for welcoming us to work in collaboration on their lands and working together on this journey to create meaningful health information for First Nations in BC. We acknowledge and thank those Health Directors and Community Engagement Coordinators who championed the RHS in their communities.

FNHA Team

Current RHS Team

Kathryn Berry-Einarson, Manager, Surveys and Data Secretariat, Community Health and Wellness Services
Ashley Henry, Data Analyst, Community Health and Wellness Services
Ersin Asliturk, Statistical Analyst, Community Health and Wellness Services
Jennifer May-Hadford, Regional Epidemiologist, Interior Region, Public Health Agency of Canada

Former RHS Team

Anya Smith, Manager, Surveys and Data Secretariat, Community Health and Wellness Services Barbara Gauthier, Senior Coordinator, Data Collection and Analysis

Candy-Lea Chickite, Field Supervisor, Vancouver Island and Fraser Salish Region

Geraldine Manossa, Senior Coordinator, Data Collection and Analysis, Interior Region

Hertha Holland, Senior Coordinator, Data Initiatives

Jasmine Thomas, Field Supervisor, Northern Region

Jessica Guss, Survey Coordinator

Katrina Wallace, Field Supervisor, Fraser Salish and Vancouver Coastal Regions

Marshal German, Senior Survey Coordinator

Meghann Brinoni, Manager, RHS

Reginald Sam, Field Supervisor, Interior Region

Vi Nguyen, Data Analyst, Community Health and Wellness Services

Thanks to the many dedicated data collectors and field coordinators across the province.

Innovation and Information Management Services Team

Communications and Public Relations Team

Amelia Nezil, Senior Communications Officer, Publications and Health Promotion Brenna Latimer, Manager, Communications Services Joely Fulcher, Administrative Assistant John Pantherbone, Website and Social Media Specialist Michael Bell, Officer, Graphic Design Stephanie Slater, Communications Specialist

Regional Advisors

Brandi Trudell-Davis, Regional Planner, Northern Region Brennan MacDonald, Executive Director, Vancouver Island Region Cody Caruso, Senior Coordinator, Vancouver Island Region Delaram Farshad, Regional Planner, Vancouver Coastal Region Eunice Joe, Regional Manager, Vancouver Island Region James George, Regional Health Liaison, Fraser Salish Region Jodie Millward, Regional Manager, Mental Health and Wellness, Fraser Salish Region Lisa Montgomery Reid, Executive Director, Interior Region Naomi Williams, Regional Director, Vancouver Coastal Region Nicole Cross, Executive Director, Northern Region Trish Osterberg, Director, Learning and Development

Interior Region Technical Table

Connie Jasper, Tsilhqot'in Nation Jamie Tanis, Dakelh Dené Nation Jennifer Lewis, Syilx Nation Jim Adams, Nlaka'pamux Nation Lisa Montgomery Reid, Executive Director Melanie Gould, Ktunaxa Nation Shirley Anderson, Secwepemc Nation Sue Wilson Cheechoo, St'át'imc Nation

Consultants

Anthony da Ros, Statistical Consultant Dale McMurchy, Writing Consultant Erica Westwood, Writing Consultant Kate Jongbloed, Writing Consultant Lynn Sully, Copy Editor Robert Palmer, Statistics and Writing Consultant Vince Lee, Graphic Design

In Memoriam

Reginald Sam

The FNHA Wolf Clan would like to pause and acknowledge the work contributions by former RHS Field Supervisor Reginald (Reg) Sam. Caring and trustworthy, Reg created meaningful relationships throughout the province with BC First Nations and various health system partners. Reg is Nuu-chah-nulth from the Tseshaht Nation [ċišaaʔatḥ], and his traditional name is Chimaook, which translates to, "The one who cuts and distributes whale on the beach." In honour of Reg's footprints in the work, the FNHA offers continued wishes for health, healing and wellness to Reg's loved ones.

Bernadette Joyce Jacob

The FNHA Wolf Clan would like to honour the work contributions of Bernadette Jacob, Field Coordinator and Data Collector in the Interior Region. Bernadette is from Ts'kw'aylaxw, St`at`imc Territory, and was raised for many years in Bonaparte. She cared deeply about her traditional values, youth-driven projects, and loved to hunt, fish and gather on the land. Known for being "like a ray of sunshine when she walked into the room," she touched the lives of many. The FNHA extends wishes for continued healing to her family and loved ones, including parents, siblings, and nieces and nephews.

Letter from the FNHA Chief Medical Officer



First Nations communities across BC continue to improve in their health and well-being, and the 2015-2017 RHS reports provide concrete data to support these improvements.

This survey marks a milestone as the first RHS to incorporate a unique community engagement process that acknowledges self-determination as fundamental to health. The FNHA engaged the regions to determine what aspects of health and wellness to report on, and accordingly, to differentiate the findings regionally as well as provincially.

Communities have long asked that their health statistics be reflected back to them in meaningful ways. Part of the FNHA's commitment as a partner to First Nations is that communities should tell their own stories, that it is important for "us to report on us."

Data collection is sometimes thought of as mining: individuals are mined for information that is valuable, but those individuals may not see it again or benefit from it. With this in mind, we are committed to upholding the principles of OCAP® throughout the entire survey process, from engagement to how we share the data, ensuring that we are never simply "mining."

In order to transform the data collection system, the FNHA worked with communities to ask meaningful questions, which helped us gather meaningful data that can be shared back for planning. This community-delivered data gives concrete evidence about health and wellness topics that are relevant within each region.

At the same time, it is important to have variables that are comparable across the province. All five regions were clear about their need for data to better understand three provincial interest areas: mental health and wellness, traditional wellness, and primary health care services. As a public health physician, I am excited and hopeful about these three choices, as they reflect the themes I have come to recognize in my broader work across the province.

Another aim of the RHS was to focus on wellness indicators, not illness. Community members tell us that focusing on illness is a reductionist and negative colonial view of people's health, and is actually stigmatizing and insufficient. We should ask instead, what are the protective factors? What are the good things that we should be sharing with each other and celebrating?

The RHS shares stories about us and gives us a picture of where we are at. While some of the data tells us where we still need to improve, much of it represents the strength and resilience of our communities.

These reports are an example of what makes us unique within the BC health care system and beyond. Very few Indigenous jurisdictions in the world can gather, report on and control their data in this way, and we are honoured to be able to do this work.

As an organization, we raise our hands to everyone who worked hard to bring this RHS into being—communities, participants, data collectors, field staff and supervisors, and FNHA teams. Thank you for supporting us along this journey.

In Wellness,

Dr. Evan Adams FNHA CMO

The Story Behind the RHS Reports

The acknowledgments section of this report gives thanks to all those who worked on Phase 3 of the RHS. Here, we shine a light on the dedicated RHS Data Collectors whose commitment to building relationships by going above and beyond brought the RHS to First Nations communities across BC in a good way.

Jessica Guss is from Old Massett, Haida Gwaii, and worked as a Field Supervisor during the implementation of the RHS, coordinating the work of RHS Data Collectors. In conversation, Jessica shared with us some of her experiences with communities.

One data collector sat with an Elder in his home, made him a meal and had tea, and the Elder gave him a feather. It didn't matter to us if a survey took an hour, like they say. It was really about respecting the people that were giving us information, and that was huge for us. – JESSICA GUSS

Jessica emphasized that building relationships with communities and individuals is essential when we ask First Nations in BC to trust us with their stories, and to trust us to take their stories to those who can use them for positive change. The RHS is indebted to the Data Collectors who travelled to communities across the province, worked long hours for weeks straight, and put their blood, sweat, and tears into bringing the voices of First Nations to this report.

This is what we have been asking for for so many centuries. And people who don't normally get included in having a voice, who feel that their voices don't matter, that they don't have opinions, that they have no impact—we gave them that [voice] and that's what drove us. – JESSICA GUSS

We made over 6,000 prayer tobacco ties and got little sacred coins, so if we were talking directly with an Elder we would have them on us. So we would give a tobacco tie or a sacred coin in exchange for the conversations, so things would still remain respectful on so many different levels. – JESSICA GUSS

Many First Nations cultures teach that knowledge is not given for free. In respect of that protocol, we offer this report as a first step in giving back to the communities and individuals who generously participated. We will continue to work to ensure that First Nations in BC benefit from sharing their stories with us.

Members of the RHS Team with FNHA Chief Medical Officer Dr. Evan Adams, May 2016.







SUMMARY OF INTEREST AREAS

Before writing this report, the First Nations Health Authority (FNHA) consulted with representatives from each region to identify their interests. This section summarizes key findings from the First Nations Regional Health Survey (RHS) that were identified as topics of interest by Fraser Salish Region (FSR) representatives.

Representatives for the FSR identified the following health and wellness areas as of interest within their communities:

- Traditional wellness;
- Mental health and wellness;
 - Alcohol and substance use; and
- Primary health care.

Traditional wellness, mental health and wellness and primary health care were identified as interests across the province. Alcohol and substance use was identified as an additional interest by Fraser Salish health and Nation representatives for the FSR based on engagement conducted for the RHS.

To honour the contributions of participating First Nations communities and individuals across BC, it is the hope of the RHS team that these findings are used to inform positive change at provincial, regional, Nation and community levels. To spark these discussions, this section also shares future directions for our shared journey to healthy, self-determining and vibrant BC First Nations children, families and communities.

Background

Since time immemorial the health and wellness of First Nations peoples has been rooted in their connection to the land and their communities. Time spent connecting to the land, providing for and enjoying traditional diets and ceremonial practices continue to form the foundations of physical, mental, spiritual and emotional well-being. Today, First Nations in BC are creating opportunities for positive change in support of their health and wellness. In October 2013, Health Canada officially transferred its services, programs, employees and resources to the FNHA. This is the first provincial health authority created *by* First Nations, *for* First Nations in Canada. The conditions that contribute to healthy, self-determining and vibrant First Nations in BC will require us to bring together the best of traditional wellness approaches and western health services.

The RHS captures a snapshot of the health and wellness of First Nations peoples living on reserves across Canada. The FNHA is responsible for implementing the RHS in BC and sharing the knowledge gathered through the survey with First Nations in BC and other stakeholders. Over 5,700 participants in 122 communities contributed to the BC RHS Phase 3 (2015-17).

The FSR covers 1.7% of BC's land base [1] and is home to 32 diverse communities. This report brings together the survey results from 732 individuals from 19 communities in the FSR. Their responses reflect the voices and perspectives of First Nations peoples in this region who are living on-reserve across the lifespan. Findings are presented in this Summary of Priority Areas and across the report for three age groups, which are children (0-11 years), youth (12-17 years) and adults (18+ years). Where possible, information for younger adults (18-54 years) and older adults (55+ years) is shown separately.

From the "land facing the sea" to the lands spanning the Fraser Canyon, the Fraser Salish First Nations are the 32 communities within the Fraser Salish Region.

"All Fraser Salish People are of One Heart, One Mind and One Spirit. Being strong and balanced, our laws and teachings are for everything and everyone. Everything is sacred to us."

This quote, from the *Fraser Salish Unity Health Declaration* [2], captures the spirit of our diverse Nations. It is a reminder of the unifying force that brings our Nations together and led to the signing of the Fraser Salish Partnership Accord in December 2011 between the Fraser Salish Regional Caucus (representing the Nations across the region) and the FNHA. The essence of this Accord is that no community should be forced into region-wide health strategies, while at the same time, no community should be left behind. This promotes health across our region and celebrates the unique health and wellness needs of each Nation.

For our Fraser Salish Nations, health and wellness takes on the form of a cedar basket. The **Pillars** represent our core regional health priorities, which are reflected within the priority health areas in the following paragraphs and across this report. The **common threads** of the basket weave through the pillars and are derived from regional themes for health and the First Nations Health Directives. A **base** forms the foundation for continuous quality improvement and learning, which is grounded on planning and evaluation with quality information and data. This represents our region's unique approach to health and wellness.

Interest Area 1: Traditional Wellness

First Nations individuals, families, communities and Nations in BC have been sustained by their connection to the land since time immemorial. First Nations' cultures and teachings express their shared connection to the land through their traditional languages, foods, art, activities and medicines. Although colonialism systematically disrupted these practices, First Nations cultures have endured and these cultures continue to form the foundation of First Nations peoples' health and wellness.

KEY FINDINGS



SAID THEY HAD OFTEN EATEN
TRADITIONAL FOODS IN THE LAST YEAR

47% OF ADULTS

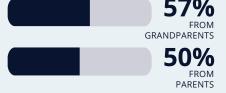
SAID THEY HAD USED TRADITIONAL

MEDICINES
IN THE PAST
YEAR

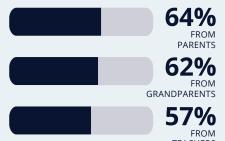


······ CULTURAL LEARNING AND ACTIVITIES ·······





CHILDREN LEARNED ABOUT THEIR CULTURE



Outside of school hours, 35% of children and 14% of youth participated in traditional activities such as SINGING, DRUMMING or DANCING at least once per week.



FUTURE DIRECTIONS

- Respect and promote a First Nations perspective on health and wellness that is grounded in cultural safety and humility and increased decision-making and control.
- Prioritize support for traditional healing and wellness practices that build on First Nations knowledge, beliefs, values, practices, medicines and models of health and wellness.
- Support and create opportunities for First Nations children, youth and their parents to learn their language(s),
- participate in traditional cultural activities and have sustainable access to traditional foods.
- Support and create opportunities for intergenerational culture and knowledge transmission between children, youth and Elders.
- Provide supports for a community-driven, Nation-based approach to health and wellness planning.

Interest Area 2: Mental Health and Wellness

First Nations in BC have identified mental health and wellness, rooted in community and family health and wellness, as a top priority. First Nations individuals, families, communities and Nations are on a journey to reclaim their mental health and wellness using traditional wellness practices to heal the traumatic impacts of colonialism, residential schools and the removal of children from their families and communities.



SAID THEIR MENTAL HEALTH WAS GENERALLY GOOD (34%),

VERY GOOD (31%)
OR EXCELLENT (18%)

17% OF ADULTS SAID THEIR MENTAL HEALTH WAS FAIR OR POOR

SAID THEIR MENTAL HEALTH WAS GOOD (36%), VERY GOOD (31%)

OR EXCELLENT (18%)

16% OF YOUTH SAID THEIR MENTAL HEALTH WAS FAIR OR POOR

15% OF ADULTS REPORTED ATTEMPTING SUICIDE

Overall, 23% of adults said they had seriously contemplated suicide at some point in their lives. Fifty-two per cent of adults said they sought help from a health professional¹ after seriously considering suicide and 55% reported the same after a suicide attempt.

 1 This includes responses from individuals who reported turning to a family doctor, mental health professional, community health representative, nurse, social worker or crisis line worker for support.

12% OF YOUTH SAID THEY HAD ATTEMPTED SUICIDE

About half of those (55%*) who had attempted suicide said they **sought help from a health professional** following their attempt.

* Interpret with caution due to moderate variability

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

- Scale up rapid-access mental health and substance use services that are Nation-based, trauma-informed, wholistic and strengths-based. Include the best of western and traditional healing and wellness approaches and make sure services are equipped to meet the unique needs of all genders.
- Take action at all levels to address self-harm and suicide. This should include investing in supports to engage youth and males in mental health, scaling up services in rural and remote communities, building community capacity for crisis response and building cultural safety into emergency services.

····· BELONGING AND SOCIAL SUPPORT ·····



- Social Support Overall -------





29% OF YOUTH
HAD TALKED WITH A FRIEND
ABOUT THEIR MENTAL HEALTH
IN THE LAST YEAR

Eighteen per cent of adults and 7% of youth **sought professional medical support** in the last year. However, **44% of** adults and **46% of youth reported that they had spoken to no** one about their emotional or mental health in the past year.

Social Support Among Males and Females

Over half of all adult (62%) and youth (54%) males had not reached out to anyone to discuss an emotional or mental health problem over the past year, a higher proportion than for females (26% for female adults and 35% for female youth). Males were also less likely than females to reach out to family (29% and 53%, respectively) and medical professionals. (7% and 25%, respectively).

- Deliver Nation-based, peer-led education for health care providers and community members on cultural safety, mental health and wellness, stigma and trauma-informed practice to build health care provider and community capacity to provide effective support.
- Include the perspective of those who have lived experience coping with mental health and/or substance use concerns in all changes to policy and programming. Invest in community-based, peer-delivered mental health and substance use services, such as peer support, peer navigation, or peer-led support groups.

Interest Area 3: Primary Health Care

Many First Nations people in BC access quality health care services during periods of illness. However, it is often challenging for First Nations to access appropriate health services for many reasons including geographic availability and experiences of discrimination in health care. Efforts to eliminate barriers, such as embedding cultural safety and humility into the health care system, are underway, but it will take time to see their impacts reflected in the health care experiences of First Nations in BC.

KEY FINDINGS



64% OF ADULTS

RATED THE QUALITY OF
HEALTH CARE SERVICES
IN THEIR COMMUNITY
AS GOOD (49%)
OR EXCELLENT (15%)



72% OF ADULTS SAID THEY RECEIVED HEALTH CARE SERVICES

OF THOSE WHO REQUIRED CARE FROM A DOCTOR, NURSE, OR OTHER HEALTH PROFESSIONAL,



IN THE PAST YEAR

BARRIERS TO CARE



ADULTS WHO RECEIVED HEALTH CARE IN THE PAST YEAR SAID THEY EXPERIENCED A RANGE OF BARRIERS TO RECEIVING CARE. THE MOST COMMON WERE:

- COST including the cost of services not covered by insurance (46%) and the cost of services enabling them to get care such as childcare or transportation (27%);
- LACK OF ACCESS including where services or health professionals were unavailable or inaccessible due to wait times (34%);
- CULTURALLY INAPPROPRIATE SERVICES (22%);
- INADEQUATE HEALTH CARE (21%); and
- INABILITY TO ARRANGE TRANSPORTA-TION (20%).

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

- Increase availability of mandatory and voluntary training opportunities for health professionals and trainees on First Nations histories, trauma-informed care and cultural safety and humility.
- Improve the availability of accessible, affordable, adequate and culturally appropriate health care for First Nations communities across BC.
- Work with partners to ensure that Jordan's Principle² is implemented to address the unique health, social and education needs of all First Nations children and youth in BC.
- Identify and fill critical gaps in primary health care with wholistic service delivery models that are appropriate for First Nations communities, such as the Primary Care ++ model that includes oral health and traditional wellness supports.

² Jordan's Principle states that First Nations children and youth between the ages of 0 and 19 must receive the public care and services they need when they are needed and that any disputes between different levels of government or government agencies about who should pay for care be resolved later [3].

Interest Area 4: Alcohol and Substance Use

Emotional, mental, physical and spiritual pain stemming from intergenerational and lifetime traumas have contributed to problematic alcohol and substance use among some First Nations peoples in BC. However, communities remain resilient and continue to promote cultural connections and supportive programs that aim to restore balance. While Fraser Salish communities have faced burdens from alcohol and substance use, generations are increasingly looking to new coping strategies and are living healthy and fulfilled lives.

88% OF ADULTS

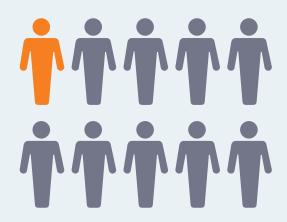
SAID THEY HAD NOT USED ILLICIT SUBSTANCES IN THE PAST YEAR.

94% OF YOUTH

1 in 10
OF ADULTS (9%*)

HAD ATTENDED TREATMENT FOR ALCOHOL OR SUBSTANCE USE IN THE PAST YEAR.

* Interpret with caution due to moderate variability



FUTURE DIRECTIONS

- Promote and support mental wellness and prevent substance use harms in settings such as communities, schools, workplaces and care facilities through partnerships and evidence-based action.
- Support traditional and cultural approaches to healing
- Develop plans for mental wellness and substance use that focus on wholistic wellness, community care, integrated care and specialized care.
- Support families who are coping with the impacts of substance use disorders.
- Prevent and reduce illnesses and diseases associated with substance use through harm reduction measures.



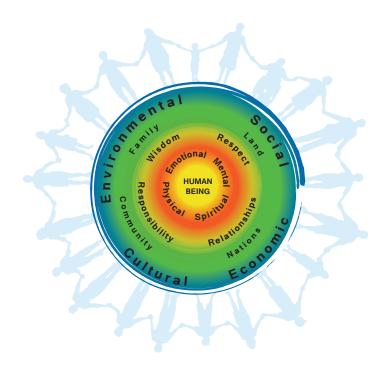


INTRODUCTION

Since time immemorial the health and wellness of First Nations peoples has been rooted in their connection to the land and their communities. First Nations individuals, families and communities draw on the physical, mental, spiritual and emotional aspects of their cultures to sustain wellness. Across BC there are 203 First Nations communities speaking 32 different languages [4]. While there are common threads between these Nations, First Nations across BC are diverse with unique cultures, languages, traditions and histories. Today, First Nations in BC are creating opportunities for positive change in support of their health and wellness. Achieving our shared vision of healthy, self-determining and vibrant communities will require the FNHA and First Nations in BC to work to bring together the best of traditional wellness approaches and western health services.

FIGURE 1

First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness [6]



First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness

The First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness is wholistic and includes the physical, mental, spiritual and emotional aspects of well-being, as seen in Figure 1 [5-7]. Wellness goes beyond the individual to include the family, extended family, community and Nation [5]. A healthy, well and balanced life includes living in harmony with all of creation, including all living things and the spirit world [5]. Sustaining these relationships has formed the foundation of First Nations wellness for thousands of years [6].

Cultural wellness is a crucial aspect of the First Nations Perspective on Health and Wellness.

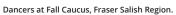






FIGURE 2

Social determinants of First Nations health. Figure adapted from **First Nations Health** Council [10]

Everything is Connected: Social Determinants of First Nations Health

The health of a person is interconnected with all of their surroundings. Biology, environment, income and education, connections to culture and community and individual choices play a part in the wellness of First Nations people [8, 9]. This report describes some conditions that promote health and wellness among First Nations in BC and others that pose a risk to health and wellness as challenges or barriers. These natural, social, political and economic factors are called the social determinants of health (Figure 2). You can read more about the social determinants of health on pages 23 and 24.

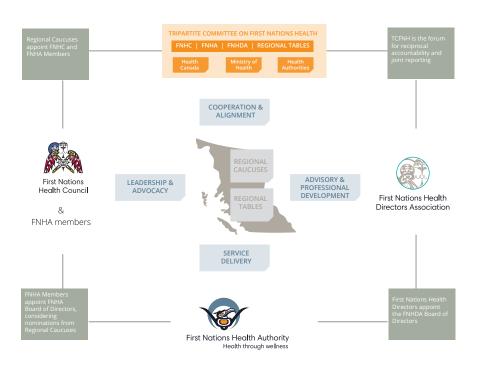
Self-Determination and Health

All First Nations peoples have the right to control their lives and destinies and self-determination is vital to the health and wellness of First Nations peoples [5, 7]. Strengthening self-determination can help address the root causes of the health inequalities experienced by First Nations peoples in BC. Since the last RHS report was published in 2012, First Nations across the country have continued to assert their pre-existing rights to land, culture and self-determination with political action, activism and legal action. In 2015, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada released its report on the impacts of residential schools, including 94 calls to action [15]. Governments and health services organizations across the country have committed to pursuing action with these 94 calls. The current federal and provincial governments have taken steps to renew Nation-to-Nation relationships with Indigenous peoples by supporting Bill C-262 to implement the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People in Canadian law [11]³.

In October 2013, First Nations in BC took a major step to increase their decision-making and control over their health and wellness when Health Canada officially transferred its services, programs, employees and resources to the FNHA. This is the first provincial health authority created by First Nations, for First Nations in Canada [12]. Leaders of First Nations in BC came together to create the FNHA, voting for greater control over their own health care. This was a key milestone in the 10 year Tripartite First Nations Health Plan signed in 2007 by First Nations in BC, the Province of BC and the federal government [13].

Four groups came together to form the First Nations Health Governance Structure (Figure 3). The FNHA is responsible for the planning, management, service delivery and funding of health programs. The First Nations Health Council (FNHC) is the political arm that advocates for First Nations health and wellness priorities, supports health systems transformation and builds partnerships. The First Nations Health Directors Association is composed of health directors and managers working in First Nations communities and it provides technical advisory support and capacity development. Finally, the Tripartite Committee on First Nations Health brings together the FNHA, BC regional and provincial health authorities and BC Ministry of Health and Health Canada partners. Each group is joined by a shared vision of "healthy, self-determining and vibrant, BC First Nations children, families and communities."

FIGURE 3 **First Nations health** governance structure



At the time of writing, Bill C-262 was being debated at a second reading in the Senate. If passed at this reading, the bill will go to a committee to be reviewed and possibly amended and then adopted



Truth and Reconciliation Commission walk to honour residential school survivors in Vancouver, June 11, 2015 | REUTERS/Ben Nelms.

Impact of Colonialism and Discrimination

First Nations peoples in BC continue to experience health inequities and gaps in health services compared to other BC residents. These differences are rooted in the ongoing impacts of colonialism that disrupted First Nations ways of life [14]. Imposition of foreign laws – including the Indian Act – took away First Nations land, rights and freedoms [15]. The well-being of First Nations was further eroded as children were removed from families and communities into the residential school system and into the child welfare system during the Sixties Scoop [16-19]. Communities and families continue to experience the collective burden of these harms and disconnections, including overrepresentation in BC's child welfare and health care systems [18-20].

Communities and families continue to experience the collective burden of the harms and disconnections resulting from colonialism.

Ongoing racism and discrimination are harmful to the health and well-being of First Nations in BC. Racism and discrimination can be both interpersonal (person-to-person) and systemic (policies and institutions) [21]. Discrimination prevents people from accessing the resources that are important to healthy living, including education, employment and health care. Some First Nations individuals may avoid seeking health services because they have experienced and expect to receive unfair treatment and discrimination. Painful memories of residential schools and Indian hospitals also contribute to a lack of trust and may cause people to delay seeking care [22, 23]. Today, far too many First Nations peoples experience culturally unsafe treatment when visiting a mainstream health provider [24-26].

Ongoing effects of colonialism and discrimination can contribute to mental and physical stress [5, 27]. Many First Nations in BC continue to feel the impacts of intergenerational and lifetime trauma [28-30]. Socio-economic inequality resulting from discrimination - such as poverty, food insecurity and housing insecurity - contributes to stress. Chronic stress impacts physical, mental, spiritual and emotional health and well-being [7, 8, 27]. The body's response to stress can prevent the immune system from protecting against disease and can contribute to chronic illness [31, 32]. Stress can also affect an individual's health by making them more likely to rely on coping mechanisms such as smoking, substance use and a sedentary lifestyle [32]. Strong social supports and cultural connection can minimize the impact of stress and enable people to be more resilient during stressful periods [33].

Despite the adversities they have faced, First Nations peoples are strong and resilient. Traditional territories, teachings and wellness practices continue to sustain individuals, families and communities. Hope and optimism for the future contribute to mental well-being and good physical health [32]. Throughout First Nations in BC, hope and optimism are strengthened by all those who are working hard to transform First Nations health, including families, communities and Nations.

First Nations Regional Health Survey: Background

The RHS is a unique national survey that increases the decision-making and control of First Nations peoples to collect, control and share their own health information. In the past, reliable information on the health and wellness of First Nations people was severely lacking, as on-reserve populations were excluded from major national health surveys [34]. The 2016 census estimated that approximately 30% of the 172,520 First Nations individuals living in BC lived on-reserve [35].

The RHS began as a way to fill this gap and it captures the self-reported health and wellness status of on-reserve First Nations peoples in BC. This survey provides information to inform programs and policies that target the health and wellness needs reported by First Nations living on-reserve.

The RHS is a national survey led by the First Nations Information Governance Centre (FNIGC), a First Nations organization promoting First Nations information needs. The FNHA is responsible for coordinating the administration, management and reporting of the survey in BC. An important foundation of the RHS is respect for the principles of Ownership, Control, Access and Possession of data (OCAP®), OCAP® principles outline that First Nations must have control over how data is collected within their communities and that they own and control how this information can be used. The Code of Research Ethics for the RHS was approved by the First Nations Information Governance Committee [36].

The FNHA and FNIGC are the data stewards for the First Nations participating in this phase of the RHS. These two organizations are responsible for holding and facilitating access to the data on behalf of First Nations. The RHS data will be used according to agreements with participating First Nations and First Nations individuals to further empower First Nations communities.

The FNHA values the information gathered by the RHS and has invested significantly in additional surveys implemented throughout BC. This process has enabled better estimates and allowed for accurate regional reporting. To complete the RHS, individual members of participating communities were invited to take part in the survey according to a carefully designed study methodology (see Appendix A for more details on the methods). Participants completed the RHS in their communities at a site of their choosing (e.g., band office, health centre, home) and could receive assistance from a survey administrator hired from local communities. The RHS has been completed nationally three times: Phase 1 in 2002-03, Phase 2 in 2008-10 and Phase 3 in 2015-17.

RHS Phase 3 includes a Provincial Report, 4 which represents all First Nations in BC. Separate reports have been published for each BC health region, namely the FSR, Interior Region (IR), Northern Region (NR), Vancouver Coastal Region (VCR) and Vancouver Island Region (VIR). For the purposes of this survey, the administrative boundaries of the health authorities across BC were used to define the regions. This is also how the FNHA defines the regional boundaries across the province for service delivery and programming [1]. Some communities may access health services in the region and may not be located within the geographic area of the region but, overall, these reports speak to the health and wellness of each region.

This report includes results for the FSR from Phase 3. Individuals who participated in Phase 1 or 2 had the same chance of being selected to participate in RHS Phase 3 as individuals who had not previously participated.

http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/research-knowledge-exchange-and-evaluation/regional-health-survey

ABOUT THE BC FIRST NATIONS REGIONAL HEALTH SURVEY

WHAT TO KEEP IN MIND AS YOU READ THIS REPORT

- Results apply to First Nations peoples living on their home reserve in BC.
- Comparisons are sometimes made between results from the current RHS and other reports or research. RHS results may not be directly comparable to other reports and studies because of different methods and ways of measuring results. These comparisons are meant to provide additional context for interpreting results from the RHS.
- Children, youth and adults completed different surveys. Age groups are listed in Table 1. A parent or caregiver was asked to respond on behalf of children aged 0-11. Youth between the ages of 12 and 17 responded to their own surveys with parental permission. Because the surveys for each age group were different, some statistics are available for all age groups and others are only available for one or two age groups.
- Some statistics are reported as "Interpret with caution due to moderate variability" (*). This means that although we can report these indicators, we are less confident in these results than other results from the RHS since a smaller number of participants responded to the question. In other cases, this statement tells you that some data is not reportable, as response rates were too low (denoted by E) or the estimate was unreliable due to high variability (denoted by **).

TABLE 1 Age groups

Children	0-11 years
Youth	12-17 years
Adults	18+ years
Younger adults	18-54 years
Older adults	55+ years

INTERPRETING THE FINDINGS

- The RHS uses a randomly selected sample of survey participants to represent all First Nations people living on-reserve in BC. This allows the results to be generalized to the whole population.
- Percentages are presented for each question, representing the best possible estimates for First Nations peoples living on-reserve in BC.
- A 95% confidence interval is also presented with each estimate on the figures in this report. The range indicated by the confidence interval indicates the range that the true population value would fall within, with a 95% certainty. When we compare two groups, such as males and females, only if the confidence intervals do not overlap (include the same numbers), can we be sure that these groups are different. Appendix B presents the 95% confidence intervals for all reported estimates.
- See Appendix A for more details on the methods used in this survey.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS RHS REPORT IS TO:

- Return regional and provincial-level health and wellness information to First Nations in BC.
- Inform on-reserve First Nations prioritization, planning, evaluation, investment and transformation at the community, Nation, regional and provincial levels in BC.
- Enable evidence-based decision-making in health and wellness planning and policy.
- Produce a wholistic snapshot of on-reserve First Nations health in BC.
- Provide additional information for the FNHA's external health and wellness partners to inform collaborative planning.

The next sections of this report share the results of the BC RHS Phase 3 (2015-17) for the FSR, focusing on demographics, health determinants, health status and outcomes and primary health care access and use.





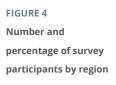


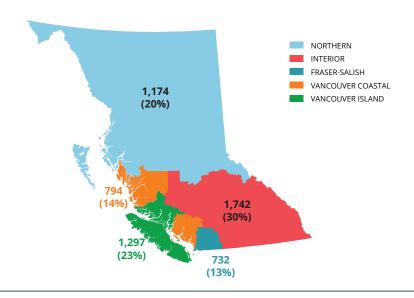
Delegates at Fraser Salish Caucus, 2015.

Regional Sampling and Response Rate

Thirty-two First Nations communities were eligible to be included in the survey in the Fraser Salish Region (FSR). All communities were sampled, resulting in a 100% sampling ratio. First Nations individuals who lived on the reserve where they were registered as a band member were eligible to participate in the survey.

Of the 32 communities asked to participate, 19 agreed to participate (a 59% community response rate). There is not enough information to determine the individual response rate (the percentage of people approached who agreed to participate in the RHS). See Appendix A for more information on the methods used in RHS Phase 3 in BC.





Fraser Salish Region Participation

In the FSR, 732 First Nations people from 19 communities participated in the survey. This included 382 adults, 159 youth and 191 children. Participants across the FSR represent 13% of the total RHS participants (Figure 4).

Survey Participation by Age

The survey was completed by adults, youth and the parents and caregivers of children. In the FSR, there was approximately equal representation among the following groups: adults 55 and older, adults 18 to 54, youth 12 to 18 and children 0 to 11 years (Figure 5). The average age of all FSR survey participants was 31.

Regional Representation by Age

Participants represent a proportion of their age group across the region. When compared to the overall population across each age group in the FSR, participation in the RHS was as follows: 25% of children aged 0 to 11 in the region, 37% of youth aged 12 to 17 in the region, 9% of adults aged 18 to 54 in the region and 23% of adults aged 55 and older in the region.

Survey Participation by Gender

In the FSR, half of both adult and child participants were male (50%) and half of both adults and children were female (50%). Among youth, males (56%) were more likely than females (44%) to participate. ⁵

These numbers reflect the participants' answers to the question "are you male or female?" This question did not differentiate between sex and gender, where sex is biologically determined and gender refers to how an individual self-identifies. As a result, throughout this report, the terms "male" and "female" refer to self-identified gender.

The survey did not ask participants to identify their gender beyond the binary of male or female. We acknowledge that this question did not include the multitude of gender identities that exist, which is a limitation of this survey.

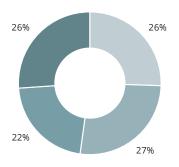




FIGURE 5 Number and percentage of survey participants by age group

Gender is discussed in more detail in "Gender Identity" on page 44





HEALTH DETERMINANTS

Health has both biological and social components. Research suggests that biology (meaning genes) accounts for just 15% of overall health [8, 9]. Life circumstances – the social and economic environments in which people are born, live, play, work and go to school – play a much larger role in determining health [8, 9]. These are often known as the "social determinants of health." They provide a strong foundation for the health and wellness of First Nations people in BC and include:

- Governance;
- Culture and language;
- Land, water and environment;
- Lifelong learning;
- Income and employment;
- Early life;
- Social support networks;
- Gender;
- Physical environment; and
- Personal health practices and coping skills.

Although housing, employment, income and education are not included in Figure 6, inequalities in society cause the health and wellness of First Nations to be negatively impacted by these factors more often than other groups [7]. The following section talks about important health determinants.

Community Wellness

Wellness includes relationships and interconnectedness with others. Community strength and connection are rooted in cultural traditions, including laws and governance, languages, ceremonies and arts [5]. A sense of belonging and cultural identity are key to health and well-being [5, 40-42].

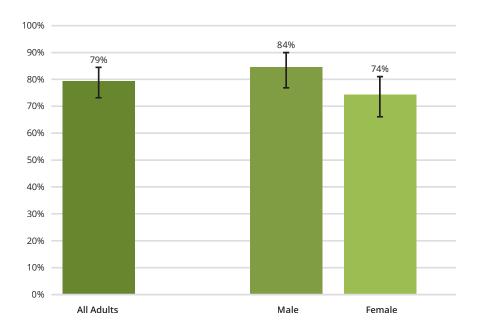


FIGURE 7

Percentage of adults reporting a strong sense of belonging in their community

Adults - Most adults (79%) in the FSR described a strong sense of belonging in their community. Figure 7 shows these proportions by males and females.

This result suggests First Nations communities in the FSR foster a strong sense of community belonging. The 2012 Canadian Community Health Survey reported that among all residents in the Fraser Health Authority⁶, 72% of individuals 12 years and older reported a sense of belonging to their local community [43].

What Makes You Healthy?

Adults - Adults in the FSR were asked "What things help make you healthy?" Among all adults, over half identified at least one of happiness and contentment (73%), good diet (72%), proper sleep (69%), good social supports (65%), regular exercise (56%) or reduced stress (51%). Answers for both adult age groups are shown in Figure 8.

Youth - Youth said that good sleep (65%), good diet (59%), social support (51%), regular exercise (48%) and happiness and contentment (48%) were important to their health (Figure 9).

Not all of the communities in the Fraser Salish regional caucus fall within the geographic boundaries of the Fraser Health Authority

Things that adults identified as helping to make them healthy by age group

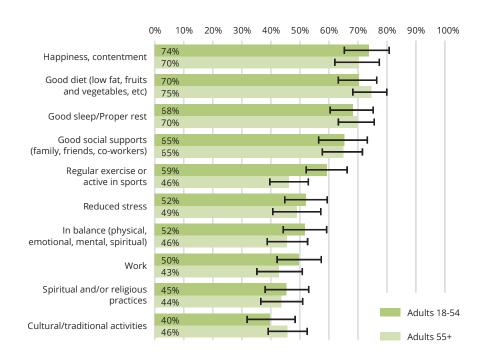
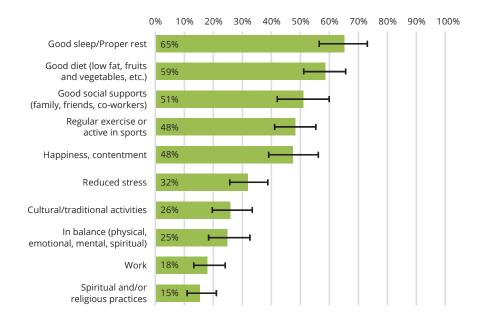


FIGURE 9

Things that youth identified as helping to make them healthy



Traditional Wellness

First Nations individuals, families, communities and Nations in BC have been sustained by their connection to the land since time immemorial. First Nations' cultures and teachings express their shared connection to the land through their traditional languages, foods, art, activities and medicines. Land-based activities create wellness by connecting First Nations to nature, enhancing community connection and creating opportunities for language and traditional skills to be shared, used and practiced. Traditional wellness is wholistic and encompasses traditional medicines, practices, approaches and knowledge unique to each First Nation [44]. Cultural activities – like singing, drumming or dancing - and sharing traditional teachings benefit body and spirit while strengthening community and cultural connections. Although colonization systematically disrupted these practices, First Nations cultures continue to form the foundation of First Nations peoples' health and wellness.

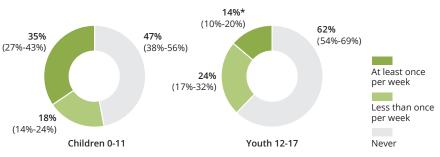
On the FNHA journey with First Nations in BC to improve services, one of the strategic approaches is to protect, incorporate and promote First Nations wholistic models of health and wellness into health services. The Traditional Wellness Strategic Framework, developed through extensive consultation with traditional healers and First Nations, describes strategies and recommendations to promote and strengthen the role of traditional medicines and practices in the wholistic wellness of First Nations peoples in BC [44].

Cultural Activities and Learning

Children and youth represent the future. Opportunities for them to gain knowledge about their cultural identity are vital to their wellness and the strength and continuity of their communities' and Nations' cultures [45, 46]. Young Aboriginal⁷ people in BC who engage in weekly cultural activities are more likely to feel connected in their community and at school [47].

Youth and children - Outside of school hours, 35% of children and 14% of youth in the FSR participated in traditional activities, such as singing, drumming or dancing, at least once a week. Approximately six in 10 youth (62%) and half of children (47%) said they had not taken part in traditional activities outside school (Figure 10). Children and youth were not asked to describe their participation in traditional activities during school hours.

The term Aboriginal was used for the BC Adolescent Health Survey and the associated report Raven's Children IV. This survey of students in BC asked participants to self-identify as Aboriginal and did not distinguish between First Nations, Métis, or Inuit. Throughout this report, the term Aboriginal is used when associated with this reference



* interpret with caution due to moderate variability

FIGURE 10

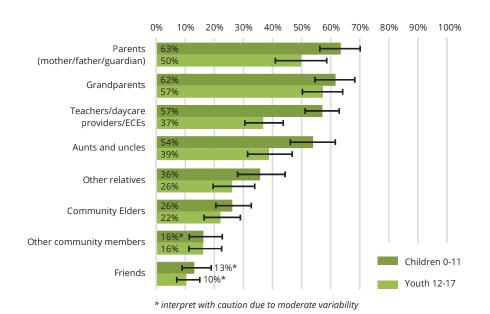
How often children and youth participated in traditional activities outside of school hours



Children in the FSR learned about their cultures mainly from their parents (64%), grandparents (62%), teachers/daycare (57%) and aunts and uncles (54%). For youth, grandparents (57%) and parents (50%) were the common sources of cultural learning for youth. Figure 11 shows responses for children and youth.

FIGURE 11

Individuals identified as helping children and youth understand their culture



Traditional Languages

BC is home to 34 unique First Nations languages, accounting for 60% of First Nations languages across Canada [48]. Language is a fundamental part of identity, as traditional languages include the vocabulary needed to articulate cultural values and world views [5, 49]. Traditional languages were sought to be eliminated at residential schools, but First Nations language champions are hard at work to reclaim their voices [16, 19, 48].

All ages - Traditional language speakers are aging. While data for the FSR was not reportable for this topic, across BC the RHS found that 35% of adults 55 and older can understand and speak a First Nations language at an intermediate or fluent level. The same was true for 5% of adults between the ages of 18 and 54, youth and children. Additionally, 10% of adults 55 and older said they can read and write a First Nations language at an intermediate or fluent level, with 5% of adults aged 18 to 54 being able to do the same.

The low percentage of younger generations fluent in traditional languages is a cause for concern for maintaining First Nations culture and risk of language and knowledge system loss. Across the province, there are ongoing initiatives in pre-schools and schools for First Nations children and youth to become more immersed in their traditional languages [48]. For example, Aboriginal Head Start On-Reserve (AHSOR) programs include a language and culture component, giving First Nations children the opportunity to begin to learn their traditional languages [50].

Traditional Foods

First Nations territories, which cover every inch of what is now BC, are rich with traditional foods. Gathering, sharing, preparing and eating nutritious traditional foods are important to mind, body and spirit. These activities nurture and restore a connection to the land and promote self-reliance [51]. Traditional foods are an important aspect of health and wellness, as they nourish the body, provide medicinal benefits and are of fundamental importance to First Nations culture [6, 51, 52].

The FNHA has created a fact sheet on traditional foods that reviews some of the traditional foods harvested and eaten by First Nations in BC. The resource describes the nutritional benefits of these foods and offers some tips for preparing and sharing these culturally significant delicacies [52].

The RHS survey asked people about their consumption of traditional foods, including animals and plants from lands and waters.8 Bannock was not included in the analysis [53].9

Adults - In the last year, two-thirds of adults (67%) in the FSR said they had often eaten traditional food. See Figure 12 for responses by adult age groups. Among traditional foods eaten in the past year, adults in the FSR frequently ate freshwater fish (50%), land-based animals (35%), berries and other vegetation (31%) and broth from meat, fish or vegetables (27%).

Participants were also able to select N/A, where the food was not a local traditional food. This is especially important for wild rice and corn soup.

While bannock is an important cultural treat for many BC First Nations, it was first introduced by colonizers and it has changed over centuries from being cooked with camas and corn flour to often being fried using wheat flour. This analysis highlights the use of other traditional foods.

Children learn about their cultures from grandparents

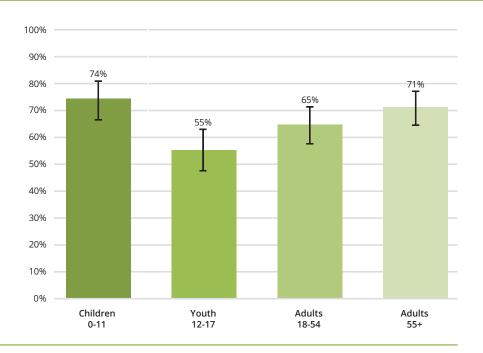


Elders Gathering, 2018.

Youth - Over half of youth (55%) in the FSR said they had often eaten traditional foods in the past year (Figure 12). Youth most commonly said they had eaten berries and other vegetation (31%), freshwater fish (28%), land-based animals (23%) and broth from meat, fish or vegetables (15%). Eating traditional foods has been linked with positive mental health and community connection among Aboriginal youth in BC [47].

Children - Three-quarters of children (74%) in the FSR were reported to have eaten traditional foods often in the past year (Figure 12). Children were reported to eat freshwater fish (50%), berries and other vegetation (48%), land-based animals (35%) and broth from meat, fish or vegetables (27%).

FIGURE 12 Percentage of participants who ate at least one traditional food often in the past year by age group





Eating Healthy is one of the FNHA's four Wellness Streams.

Harvesting

All ages - As well as being a healthy source of nutrition, hunting, gathering and fishing are important cultural skills and an opportunity for individuals to participate in learning and community. One-third of adults (34%) in the FSR, including 44% of males and 24% of females, had harvested traditional foods through berry picking or other gathering, fishing, hunting or trapping in the past three months. This was more common among adults 18 to 54 (39%) than adults 55 and older (22%; Figure 13).10 Additionally, 19% of youth and 31% of children in the FSR had harvested traditional foods in the past three months.

In the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey, approximately one-third of First Nations participants living off-reserve in BC had hunted, fished or trapped in the last year. One-quarter of individuals did not participate in these harvesting activities but expressed interest in doing so in the future [54], indicating that people are looking for opportunities to participate in these kinds of land-based activities.

¹⁰ It is important to note that the survey took place over several seasons (fall 2015 to spring 2017). The survey was the same throughout and did not take into account the seasonality of gathering traditional foods. There may be several other factors that also affect harvesting among adults, youth and children, such as other activities they participate in that compete for time (e.g., school or work). As such, these values may not be representative of all harvesting activities.

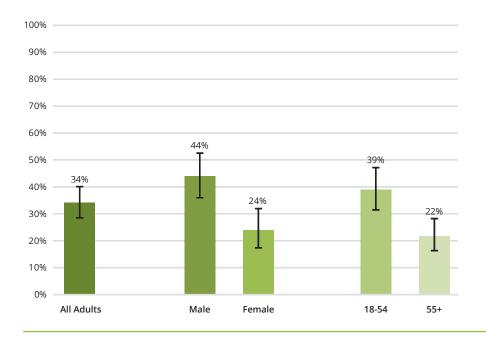


FIGURE 13

Percentage of adults who harvested traditional foods in the past three months

Elders, healers and knowledge keepers carry knowledge of native plants, ceremonies, spiritual practices and cultural teachings.

Traditional Medicines

First Nations peoples have used traditional medicines for millennia. Elders, healers and knowledge keepers carry knowledge of native plants, ceremonies, spiritual practices and cultural teachings. Traditional medicines are herbal remedies, spiritual therapies, assistance from healers or other practices linked to their culture. Today, many First Nations people draw from the strengths of both traditional and mainstream medicines as part of their wellness journeys.

Adults - Forty-seven per cent of adults in the FSR used traditional medicines in the past year. Figure 14 shows that traditional medicine use was similar for both males and females. Among adults who had used traditional medicines, 32% said they had difficulties accessing them, with most reporting difficulties related to restrictions and regulations. These results show that traditional medicines continue to be an important part of the health and wellness journeys for many First Nations people in the FSR and that more needs to be done to facilitate access to them [44].

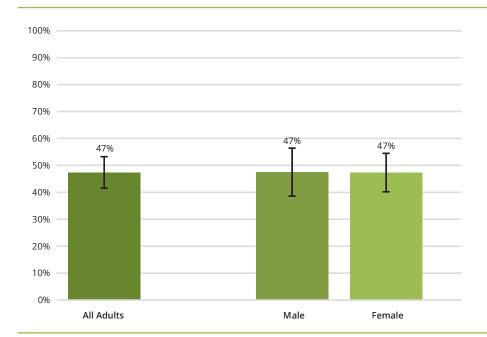
Healthy Living

The foods we consume, our level of physical activity and our sedentary behaviours (e.g., screen time) are all important factors that work together to influence our physical wellness. A healthy diet and physical activity promote positive health and can help prevent chronic diseases, like heart disease or obesity. These factors do not work alone; they come together to affect one's health and overall health and wellness.

The FNHA supports the healthy living and physical wellness of First Nations in BC by providing information, programs and financial grants to promote wellness and support individuals and communities to increase their physical activity and improve their nutrition. The First Nations Act Now Initiative and the Aboriginal Diabetes Initiative are two examples of the FNHA's commitment to supporting health and wellness [55, 56]. For example, FNHA wellness grant funding has supported the H'ulh-etun Health Society Outrigger Canoe Club, which uses this team sport to improve physical fitness and build community [57].







Percentage of adults who used traditional medicine in the past vear

Healthy Eating

Healthy eating is central to health and well-being. The arrival of European settlers marked major changes in diet for First Nations [51]. Diets rich in protein and nutrients were partly replaced by diets high in sugar, salt, simple carbohydrates and fats. Health consequences of changing diets include obesity, diabetes and other chronic conditions. The FNHA recommends avoiding sugary drinks and eating a balance of nutritional food groups in moderation to satisfy needs and maintain health and wellness [58].

Unaffordable and inaccessible nutritious food is a barrier to healthy eating. Fresh fruit, vegetables and meats can be expensive and these are especially difficult to access in Northern and remote communities [59]. Highly processed packaged and fast foods are often cheaper and more readily available. This contributes to inequitable impacts among First Nations, who may have less access to healthy foods. Additionally, processed foods and fast food are heavily advertised, which can influence food choices. This has been shown to be of particular concern for children [60, 61].

Adults - Overall, 46% of adults in the FSR said they eat from all four recommended food groups (i.e., meat and alternatives, dairy,11 fruit or vegetables and grain products) each day [62]. However, 35% of all adults also said they eat fast food or sugary foods (e.g., pop, artificially flavoured juice, sweets and energy drinks) every day. Figure 15 and Figure 16 show eating habits for younger and older adults.

Youth and children - Half (52%) of youth and 77% of children two years and older in the FSR were reported eating from all four recommended food groups each day (Figure 15).12 However, 34% of youth and 23% of children two years and older were reported to eat fast food or sugary foods at least once per day (Figure 16).

The category for dairy included soy products; however there are other traditional foods that are dairy alternatives (e.g., wild plants, seaweed, fish with bones, nuts and

¹² The differences between adults and children could mean that adults are prioritizing healthy meals for children over themselves, or that among participants there were proportionally more adults without children who are eating from fewer food groups daily. However, these results should be used with caution, as a reporting bias may be possible.

The BC Adolescent Health Survey included Aboriginal students in BC but did not separate them by First Nations, Métis, or Inuit.¹³ A report on this survey data found that Aboriginal students living on-reserve were more likely to consume pop, energy drinks and fast food than those living off-reserve. Students living on-reserve were also less likely to have eaten vegetables. Yet those living on-reserve were also more likely to have eaten traditional foods or those harvested by their families [47]. Creating a healthy food environment at home is one way to help children and youth maintain good habits as they continue to grow [51].

Physical Activity

First Nations in BC have long and rich histories of physical activity and athleticism.

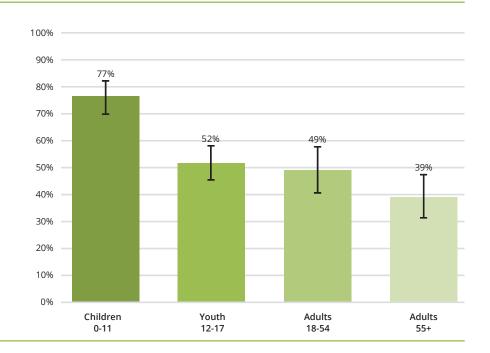
Physical activity is important for maintaining healthy, confident and resilient First Nations children, families and communities [63]. Being active can help reduce the risk of premature death, heart disease, stroke, high blood pressure, certain types of cancer, type 2 diabetes, osteoporosis and obesity [64]. It can also help maintain mental wellness [64].

Physical activity benefits more than just physical health – it is a vital part of mind, body and spirit. Studies have shown that Aboriginal youth who exercise at least three times a week are more likely to say they have good mental health and self-worth. They are also less likely to self-harm or consider/attempt suicide [47].

First Nations in BC have long and rich histories of physical activity and athleticism [63]. However, the legacy of colonization has contributed to a major reduction in physical activity. Screen time has increased and conveniences like cars and supermarkets have had an impact. Reduced activity levels impact health and increase the risk of many chronic health conditions. This trend is common across all residents of Canada, including non-First Nations [65].

FIGURE 15

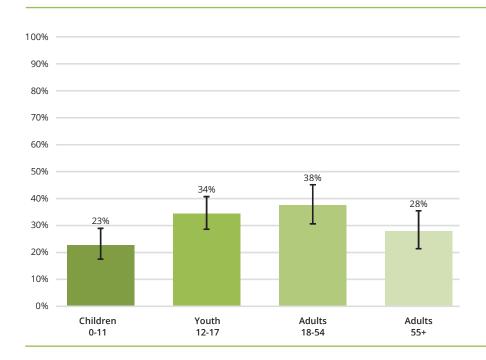
Percentage of participants who said they eat from all four recommended food groups daily by age group



¹³ These results – reported in Raven's Children IV: Aboriginal youth health in BC [47] – separated Aboriginal students into those who lived on-reserve and those who did not despite the fact that only First Nations, not Métis or Inuit, live on reserves



Fresh produce ready for Yale First Nation's vegetable delivery program, 2019.



Percentage of participants who said they eat foods that are high in sugar or fast food daily by age group

Adults - Canadian guidelines recommend that adults participate in at least 150 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity per week [64]. In the FSR, 80% of adults said they get the recommended amount of 150 minutes of physical activity per week (Figure 17).

This percentage appears higher than for all residents in BC. According to the 2015-16 Canadian Community Health Survey, 66% of all BC residents aged 18 and older get 150 minutes of physical activity per week [66]. Throughout First Nations in BC, wellness champions involved in sports and active recreation are leading the way to get communities moving [63].

Youth and children - It is recommended that youth and children between the ages of 5 and 17 get an hour a day of heart-pumping physical activity, with no more than two hours of sitting time [68]. Although research shows that just 9% of Canadian children are getting their recommended dose of activity [68], the BC average is much higher. The 2015-16 Canadian Community Health Survey found that 67% of all youth across BC said they got an average of 60 minutes of activity per day [66].

The RHS found that in the FSR, 45% of youth get the recommended average of 60 minutes per day. Additionally, over half (65%) of children aged 5 to 11 engaged in this same amount of exercise (Figure 21).14 Staying active helps younger generations lead longer, healthier lives as they age. Family and community support for physical activity is needed to ensure that no children are left behind.

Screen Time

There are growing concerns that too much screen time (including time spent on TV, computers, iPads, gaming systems or cellphones) may be harmful to health, especially among young children [69].

Zero screen time is recommended for children under two years old [69]. Less than one hour per day is recommended for children aged 2 to 5 and less than two hours per day is recommended for children and youth between the ages of 5 and 17 [68, 69].

All ages - Substantial daily screen time was seen across all age groups in the FSR (Figure 19). Adults reported an average of 4.3 hours of screen time per day. On average, daily recommendations for screen time were exceeded by youth (4.2 hours/day) and children (3.3 hours/day). While the RHS data uses different age ranges than the previously mentioned recommendations, this still suggests that among First Nations in the FSR, all age groups are getting more screen time than what may be healthy. This is similar to trends seen for all residents of Canada [69].

Body Mass Index

Body mass index (BMI) is a way of measuring body composition using height and weight. A person's BMI may indicate that they are underweight, normal, overweight or obese. Obesity has been linked to major chronic diseases, such as arthritis, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases and cancer [33]. Although BMI is an imperfect indicator, as it does not distinguish between fat and muscle [70], it is useful for understanding weight categories and population health and wellness [71].

¹⁴ Youth and children were only asked how much physical activity they get per week, so to report data in line with Canadian guidelines RHS data reports an average per day. However, most other data surveys report youth physical activity daily. It is hard to know how comparable these statistics are

OF ADULTS participate in the recommended 150 minutes or more of

physical activity a week

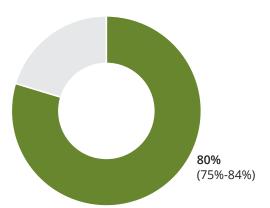


FIGURE 17

Percentage of adults getting recommended amount of physical activity per week

65%

OF CHILDREN aged 5 to 11 years participate in the recommended 60 minutes or more of physical activity a day

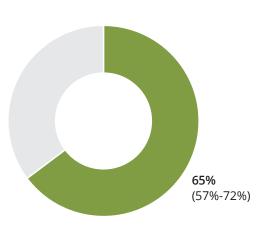


FIGURE 18

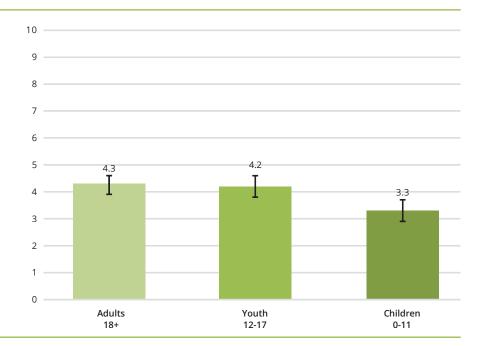
Percentage of children aged 5 to 11 years meeting the recommended amount of physical activity

While BMI is the best available measure of healthy weight and obesity in the RHS data, it is important to recognize that healthy weight among First Nations in BC is more complex than this measure. Changes in First Nations cultures and lifestyles have affected healthy weight. Transitions from healthful traditional diets towards western diets may have contributed to increased obesity, as western foods may be less nutritional [59]. Traditionally, First Nations have led active lifestyles through activities such as hunting and gathering or playing traditional games. However, with colonialism and westernization, active traditional lifestyles have decreased and people are more sedentary [72]. These lifestyle changes are systematic and draw attention to the influence of health determinants on healthy weight.

Adults - Based on reported BMI measures, 37% of adults in the FSR were overweight and 43% of adults were obese. More females (55%) than males (30%) were considered obese.

The 2011-14 Canadian Community Health Survey found that 32% of First Nations adults in BC living off-reserve were overweight and 30% were obese [73]. Among all BC residents, the 2015-16 Canadian Community Health Survey found that 36% were overweight and 21% obese [66]. In recent years, obesity has increased across Canada and the world, making it a public health concern for all populations [74, 75].

Average daily screen time (hours per day) by age group



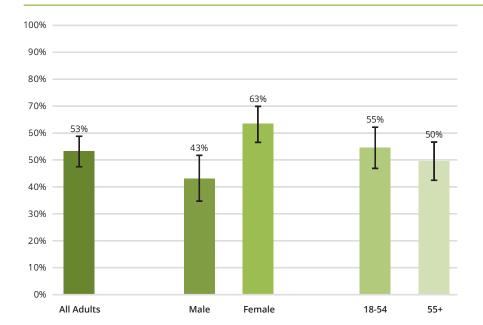
Youth and children - Data on BMI was not reportable for youth and children in the FSR or across the province.

The 2015-16 Canadian Community Health Survey found that 26% of all youth in BC aged 12 to 17 years old were overweight or obese [66]. Other research has found that 9% of Canadian children (aged 5 to 11) are obese [76]. Reducing childhood obesity among First Nations in BC is a priority identified in the Transformative Change Accord: First Nations Health Plan [71].

Education

Education is an important determinant of health. First Nations approaches to learning are lifelong, experiential, wholistic and communal. Formal and informal education can promote health in many ways. For example, it can introduce employment and income opportunities that support healthy living [33]. Education may also make it easier for people to access and understand health information. This ability to understand health information is known as "health literacy" and it can help individuals make healthy choices.

The following section talks about formal education. However, it does not include all the forms of learning that enrich the lives of First Nations people. For example, cultural education also supports health and wellness as individuals gain knowledge of traditional teachings. Sources of cultural education for children and youth were shown in Figure 11. It would be useful to explore other indicators to understand lifelong learning in First Nations communities. The First Nations Regional Early Childhood, Education and Employment Survey (FNREEES) was designed to collect information on formal and informal education, as well as employment, among First Nations [77].



Percentage of adults who have completed a high school diploma by males and females and age group

The RHS offers a snapshot of formal education among First Nations people in BC. Barriers to formal education persist among First Nations due in part to historical and intergenerational trauma associated with residential school experiences. This history of abuse from residential schools has created mistrust of mainstream education. Poverty, discrimination and racism also exclude First Nations people from educational opportunities [33]. First Nations cultural values and ways of knowing are often not reflected in mainstream classrooms. Obstacles to formal education can contribute to poor health by limiting employment opportunities and increasing social exclusion [7].

Adults - Among adults in the FSR, 53% have completed a high school diploma. 15 Figure 20 shows the responses by males and females and adult age groups. Two-thirds of females (64%) and almost half (43%) of males have a high school diploma. Among FSR adults who did not complete a high school diploma, most (85%) had attended some or all high school grades.

Many adults said they had received education that was separate from high school. Nearly six in 10 (58%) adults in the FSR had completed at least some additional post-secondary, trade school, community college or university education. Of all adults in the FSR, three out of 10 (28%) had pursued some further education, 27% had finished a trade or community college diploma and 4%15* had completed a university degree.

The number of First Nations people who have graduated from high school and are pursuing post-secondary education is growing [78]. The 2016 Canadian Census found that the proportion of First Nations peoples across Canada who completed high school or post-secondary education increased from 62% to 70% over the previous 10-year period [79].

The RHS asked adults in the FSR with post-secondary education if they had completed training in a health field, such as nursing, medicine, laboratory technology, dentistry, epidemiology, etc. This data was not reportable for the FSR, but across the province 14% of adults had been trained in these areas. Increasing the number of

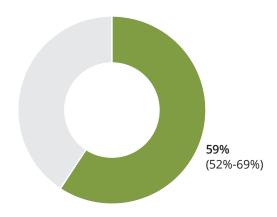
Participants who had upgraded their high school, or completed an equivalent program such as General Educational Development or Adult Basic Education were included as having completed a high school diploma

^{16 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability

FIGURE 21

Percentage of children who have attended an **AHSOR** program





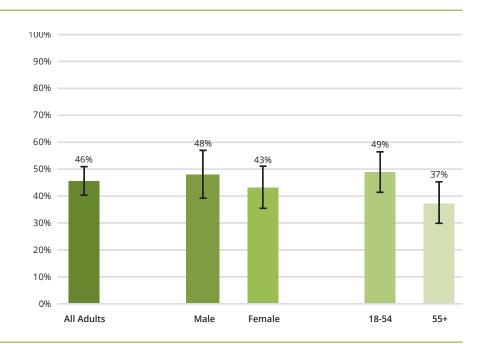
First Nations health professionals at all levels is an important factor to support cultural safety in health services and meet the needs of First Nations people [81]. For this reason, it is an indicator of success in promoting cultural safety in health care identified in the Transformative Change Accord: First Nations Health Plan [80].

Children - Locally controlled AHSOR programs are designed for children aged 0 to 6 years [82]. Each program includes six key components: culture and language, education, health promotion, nutrition, parent and family involvement and social support [82]. Emotional, spiritual, physical and intellectual needs of First Nations children are placed front and centre.

In the FSR, 59% of children had attended an AHSOR program (Figure 21). Because not all communities have AHSOR programs, some children may not have been able to attend an AHSOR program. Supporting children in their early years is essential for health and wellness throughout their lives, underlining the importance of these programs [45]. The FNHA is working to increase the number of AHSOR programs for First Nations children living on- and off-reserve across BC [50].

FIGURE 22

Percentage of adults who are currently working at a job or business for pay by males and females and age group



Employment

Employment plays an important role in an individual's self-worth, ability to fulfill family responsibilities and ability to lead a healthy life [7]. Income gained from employment - namely through the "wage economy" where money is exchanged for work – is also vital to accessing basic needs like food and shelter. In contrast, poverty has been shown to be harmful for health [33].

First Nations traditionally placed community needs over individual ones.

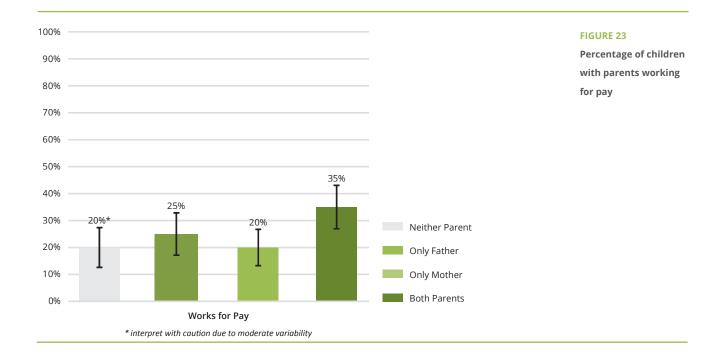
The "wage economy," as described above, is not part of all First Nations histories. First Nations traditions have historically evolved from community values [83]. Previously, the distinction between home and work was not always as pronounced as it tends to be now and First Nations traditionally placed community needs over individual ones [84, 85]. As such, tasks and duties in many First Nations communities were and are performed without the expectation of financial reward. These services are important and provide physical and mental benefits to individuals that work for the benefit of their communities [86-88]. Although these services are not captured in employment statistics, they contribute to personal and community wellness. It is important to remember that these roles continue in communities today and that they are not reflected in the following employment statistics.

Some forms of work not captured by this survey could include hunting, fishing, caring for children and Elders and providing spiritual and healing care. First Nations adults, particularly in rural communities, may also be employed on a seasonal basis, which may not have been captured due to the timing of this survey [77].

Adults - Among adults in the FSR, 46% said they are currently working for pay. See Figure 22 for responses for both adult age groups and males and females.

The RHS results are similar to those in the 2011 Canadian National Household Survey from Statistics Canada, which reported 57% employment among First Nations peoples between the ages of 25 and 64 across Canada, compared to 76% among non-First Nations peoples [89].

Children - A majority (80%) of children had at least one parent or caregiver who was currently working for pay (Figure 23).





Vancouver, BC.

Living Away from the Community

Many First Nations people in BC maintain connections with their cultural traditions and home community, even when they live elsewhere.

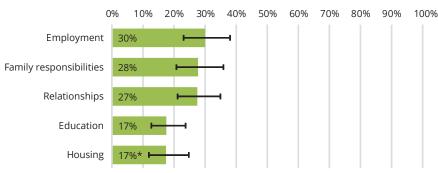
Over 170,000 First Nations people live in BC [35]. While some live in cities, towns or rural areas, others live on-reserve in their home communities. Many First Nations people in BC maintain connections with their cultural traditions and home community, even when they live elsewhere.

The most recent National Household Survey shows that 16% of First Nations peoples across Canada had moved at least once in the past year [89]. Moving frequently can disrupt access to social supports like neighbours, community and family [5]. The desire to seek employment and education opportunities, the need to leave unsafe situations and a desire to connect with family and culture are some reasons individuals decide to leave or stay in a community [5].

Adults - Nearly two-thirds (63%) of adults in the FSR had lived outside of their First Nation community at some point in their life.¹⁷ Employment, family responsibilities, relationships and education were common reasons given for moving away from the community (Figure 24). Thirty-three per cent of adults aged 18 to 54 and 14% of adults over 55 reported moving away for both housing and family responsibilities. Males (46%) were more likely than females (17%) to move away from their community for work. These numbers only reflect those who are currently living on-reserve and do not represent those who are still living outside of their community.

FIGURE 24

Common reasons reported for moving away from their community among adults who had ever lived outside of their community by males and females



^{*} interpret with caution due to moderate variability

¹⁷ In the RHS, a participant's community was the reserve community where they registered as a band member. However, the community where someone feels at home may be different and was not captured by the survey



Education, employment and adequate income help families and individuals meet their basic needs, such as nutritious food and quality housing.

Basic Needs

Education, employment and adequate income help families and individuals meet their basic needs, such as nutritious food and quality housing. When an individual cannot meet their basic needs, this directly impacts health by affecting their ability to survive and thrive. It also indirectly impacts health by causing stress, which takes a toll on the body over time. Finally, it negatively impacts other social determinants of health. For example, when an individual cannot meet their basic needs, this limits their ability to work, go to school or take care of health in other ways.

The FNHA recognizes the role of social and economic conditions in the journey to health and wellness. The FNHA Health Promotion and Prevention Healthy Living Unit supports improvements in these conditions for First Nations by funding community-based initiatives that focus on health promotion, including food security [90].

Adults - Adults were asked if they had struggled to meet their basic needs - including food, shelter, utilities, clothing and transportation - in the past year. While 54% of adults in the FSR said they did not struggle to meet their basic needs, 41% struggled to meet some needs (i.e., at least one basic need, but not all) and 6%18* struggled to meet all the listed basic needs (Figure 25). More adults 55 and older (65%) said that they did not struggle to meet their basic needs than adults 18 to 54 (50%).

^{18 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

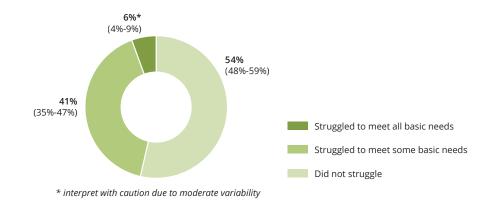
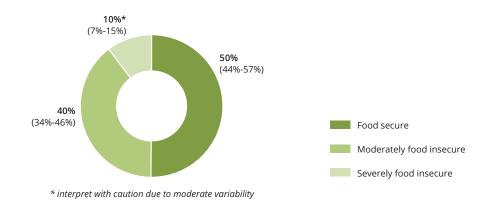


FIGURE 25

Percentage of adults who said they had struggled to meet their basic needs in the past year

FIGURE 26

Level of household food insecurity reported by adults



The RHS found that almost half of adults struggled to meet at least one basic need. These are essential for individuals to lead healthful lives, but are often outside of an individual's control. These needs may not be easily available or accessible in communities, which has been described as an effect of colonialism and the loss of traditional resources and environments [91].

To learn about food security issues, the RHS asked adults if their household had experienced any of the following in the past year: 19

- Food that was bought didn't last and didn't have the money to get more;
- Couldn't afford to eat balanced meals;
- Cut the size of meals or skipped meals because there wasn't enough money for food;
- Hungry but didn't eat because there wasn't enough money for food; or
- Ate less than felt they should because there wasn't enough money to buy food.

While 50% of adults in the FSR said that they did not experience food insecurity in the past year, 10%20* said their household experienced all the food insecurity issues listed above (i.e., severe food insecurity). Another 40% said their household had experienced at least one but not all issues (i.e., moderate food insecurity; Figure 26). These results show that the ability to purchase and provide oneself and family with foods that nourish minds and bodies is not always available [8, 33, 51, 92].

Differences in the way food security is measured makes it difficult to compare this data to results from other surveys. However, Statistics Canada has reported that among First Nations people 12 years and older living off-reserve in Canada, 22% lived in households that experienced moderate or severe food insecurity [89]. This was approximately three times higher than non-Indigenous people in Canada [89].

¹⁹ The RHS does not measure all aspects of food security, such as food accessibility and food availability. This means that these data may not capture all experiences of

^{20 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability



Mothers and babies are honoured in First Nations cultures in BC.

Healthy Mothers and Babies

Mothers and babies are honoured in First Nations cultures in BC [93]. Birth is sacred, spiritual and life giving [94]. The well-being of mothers and children affects the health and well-being of families and communities [93].

Adults - Approximately 4%21* of First Nations females aged 18 to 45 in BC were pregnant at the time of the RHS.²² This data was not reportable for the FSR.

child - A healthy pregnancy is important for the long-term health of both a mother and child. Most (90%) of the parents or caregivers in the FSR said that their child's mother had taken a prenatal vitamin containing folic acid or iron during pregnancy. The FNHA funds most of the First Nations in BC for the Prenatal Nutrition Program. This provides funds and resources for communities to design and deliver their prenatal nutrition programs [94].

Birth weight is an important indicator of infant health and development. In the FSR, the average birth weight, as reported by parents and primary caregivers, was 3.6kg (7lbs, 15oz). Most (92%) babies had a moderate birth weight. Low birth weight was not reportable in the FSR, but across BC the RHS found that 7% of infants had a low birth weight.²³ In Canada, 6.4% of infants born in 2016 had a low birth weight [96]. Although the Canadian data is not directly comparable to data in this survey because low birth weight is measured differently, the Canadian data provides some context for the RHS data [97].

^{21 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability

²² Female youth in the RHS were not asked if they were pregnant.

^{23.} Note that preterm babies are included in the measure of low birth weight in the RHS. These babies would likely fall in the low birth weight category, but may not be considered low for their gestational age. Also, the RHS data was self-reported, while Statistics Canada data was not.

"Two-Spirit" is used by some *Indigenous people across* North America to refer to a broad range of sexual and gender identities.

Gender Identity

Gender identity and sexual orientation can play an important role in health and wellness, particularly due to reduced access to health and wellness services. Many First Nations cultures have histories of gender and sexual diversity "Two-Spirit" is used by some Indigenous people across North America to refer to a broad range of sexual and gender identities. It may refer to people who have both masculine and feminine spirits, or people who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender or queer [98]. Although the RHS was not able to produce a reliable snapshot of sexual orientation for First Nations peoples living on-reserve, it must be acknowledged that sexual orientation influences health and wellness and may lead to increased discrimination and marginalization experienced both in daily life and in access to health services.

Adults - Approximately 3%^{24*} of adults in the FSR said they identify as Two-Spirit or transgender.²⁵ Two-Spirit people may face additional challenges as a result of discrimination and marginalization both in and outside First Nations communities in BC, which may contribute to underreporting. It is important to recognize the unique health needs of Two-Spirit people.

Youth - Data was not reportable for youth who identify as Two-Spirit or transgender in the FSR. However, the RHS found that 2%^{26*} of youth across the province identified as Two-Spirit or transgender.

The BC Adolescent Health Survey from 2013 found that 1% of Aboriginal youth attending school in BC identified as transgender and 5% identified as Two-Spirit.²⁷ This research with Aboriginal transgender and Two-Spirit youth in BC found that a majority feel positive about themselves and their overall health. However, alarming percentages of Aboriginal transgender and Two-Spirit youth reported experiencing physical and sexual abuse (29%), thinking about suicide (34%) and experiencing discrimination (36%) [47].

- 24 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- 25 It is important to note that these measures may not adequately capture sexual and gender diversity as an individual's expression may not be confined to these
- 27 These results reported in Raven's Children IV: Aboriginal youth health in BC [47] separated Aboriginal students into those who lived on-reserve and those who did not despite the fact that only First Nations, not Métis or Inuit, live on reserves.





Trauma

The impact of colonialism on First Nations has been described as a "soul wound" [99]. First Nations in BC continue to experience the impact of historical, intergenerational and ongoing traumas. Intergenerational effects of residential schools, as well as experiences of present day racism, violence and bullying, are barriers to health and healing [17]. With these wounds in mind, the FNHA works to foster cultural safety within the health system by advocating for spaces where the traumas and experiences of First Nations are heard and respected [100].

Residential School Attendance

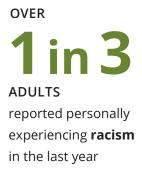
Adults - One in 10 (10%) of FSR adults said they had attended a residential school. Of these, 85% reported that attendance at a residential school had negatively affected their overall health and well-being. These survivors and their descendants are part of the fabric of First Nations communities across the province. Their strength in the face of tremendous adversity is a powerful testament to their resilience [101].

Racism

Adults - Over one in three (38%) adults in the FSR reported personally experiencing racism at least once in the past year (Figure 27). As little data exists documenting how many First Nations people experience racism in their daily lives, this is an important finding.

Bullying, Aggression and Violence

Adults - Four in 10 (43%) adults in the FSR said they had experienced physical (e.g., hitting, kicking, crowding, etc.) or verbal aggression (e.g., threats, insults, name calling, etc.) in the past year. Aggression was experienced by more adults aged 18 to 54 (48%) than those 55 and older (33%). Indigenous peoples across Canada are three times more likely to be victims of violent crime than non-Indigenous Canadians [102]. Disproportionate levels of violence experienced by Indigenous peoples are also reflected by the number of missing and



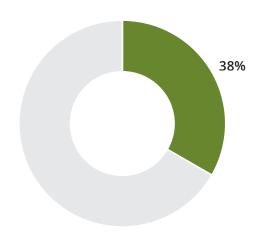
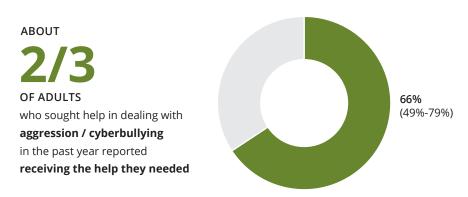


FIGURE 27

Percentage of adults who experienced racism in the past year

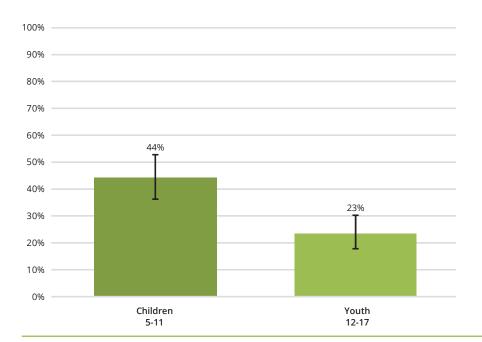
Adults who reported experiencing, seeking and receiving help for aggression or cyberbullying



murdered Indigenous women in BC and across Canada [103, 104]. However, increasing public awareness and activism are working to address the systemic injustices experienced by victims of violence in the legal system.

Adults who had experienced aggression were asked where the aggression occurred. In the FSR, adults said that this was experienced in the community (41%), at home (38%) and at work or school (15%^{28*}). Among adults who had experienced aggression or cyberbullying, 19% sought help in dealing with it and about two-thirds felt they received all the help they needed (Figure 28).

The traumas and abuses experienced by many First Nations people in the past and present have created a legacy of violence within First Nations communities [105]. Ensuring that communities are safe and free from violence is an important part of healing and rebuilding in this era of reconciliation.



Percentage of children and youth reported to having been bullied in the past year

Youth - One-quarter (24%) of youth in the FSR said they had been bullied in the past year (Figure 29). Bullying was defined as a purposeful act in which the bully uses their power to threaten, harass or hurt others. It includes physical, verbal, indirect and cyberbullying. The percentage of First Nations youth who reported being bullied in this RHS survey may be lower than that of all BC youth attending grades 7 to 12, among whom approximately half reported having been bullied in the past year [106].

Bullying experienced by youth has important implications for health and wellness [107]. Among Aboriginal youth in BC, experiencing bullying has been linked with missing out on extracurricular activities, feeling extreme despair and attempting suicide. However, when a young person who is bullied feels that their family pays attention to them, harmful outcomes are reduced [47].

Children - According to their parents or caregivers, 44% of children between five and 11 years in the FSR had been bullied in the past year (Figure 29).29 The extent of reported bullying may highlight an area for attention, as bullying can be harmful to a child's health and well-being [107].

²⁹ A parent or guardian was asked to respond on behalf of children. These figures may underestimate the experiences if the parent or guardian was not aware o bullying in the child's life.





HEALTH STATUS AND OUTCOMES

Each of the social determinants of health described in the previous section plays a role in shaping the health status of First Nations in BC. Understanding health status and outcomes requires recognizing a wholistic perspective of health and wellness that involves the whole person — physical, emotional, mental and spiritual — and extends beyond the individual to family, community and cultural traditions. The impacts of these health determinants are visible in perceived health and wellness, patterns of disease and individual behaviours. Some of these determinants buffer against poor health outcomes, while others put individuals in harm's way.

This section shares findings on the health and wellness status and outcomes reported by RHS participants.



FNHA supports Gathering Our Voices youth conference each year, contributing to youth wellness.

Perceived Health and Wellness

All ages - Seven out of 10 (73%) adults in the FSR said their health was generally good, very good or excellent. Most youth (92%) and children (98%) were also reported to be in good, very good or excellent health. Figure 30 shows a breakdown of these results.

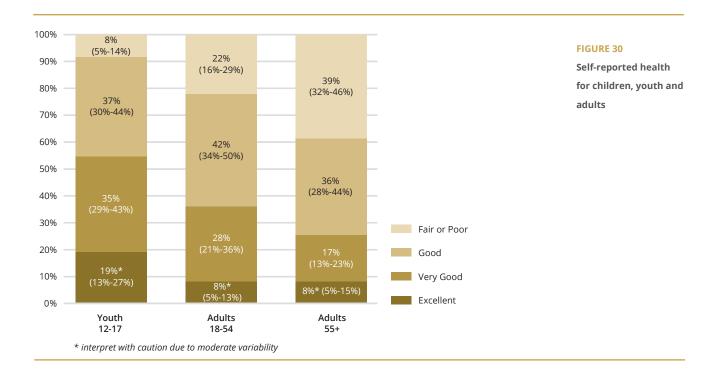
Mental Health and Wellness

First Nations communities in BC have consistently identified mental health and wellness as a top priority. Individual mental health and wellness is rooted in community and family wellness [108, 109]. Individuals, families and Nations are on a journey to reclaim their mental health and wellness by healing from the traumatic impacts of colonization, residential schools and the removal of children from their families and communities [108]. Personal resilience, community connectedness, traditional wellness practices and healthy relationships are essential. Supporting mental health and wellness is also key to addressing harmful substance use in First Nations communities in BC.

Addressing mental health conditions – such as anxiety or mood disorders – is one piece of this larger perspective [110-112]. A full spectrum of wholistic supports and services that address physical, emotional, mental and spiritual needs is crucial to support mental health and wellness among First Nations peoples [109]. Mental health and wellness initiatives must go beyond the individual to engage and support communities to take action [113]. Interventions must be accessible, acceptable and available when and where those who need them are ready to engage. The FNHA created the Hope, Help and Healing Toolkit, a resource for communities to strengthen their mental health prevention, intervention and post-intervention capacities [114].

Self-Reported Mental Health Status

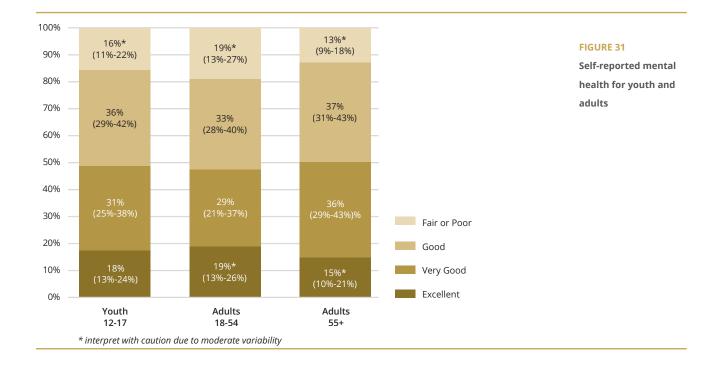
Most adults (82%) in the FSR said their mental health was good (34%), very good (31%) or excellent (18%) and 17% said that their mental health was fair or poor. Among youth, 85% said they had good, very good or excellent mental health and 18% said that it was fair or poor. See Figure 31 for self-reported mental health for both adult age groups and youth.



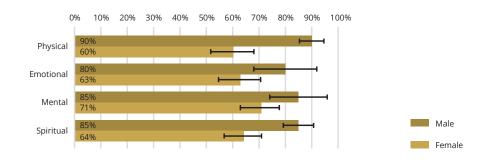
Adults - Adults were asked how often they felt physical, mental, emotional and spiritual balance. In the FSR, 60% of adults said they felt balanced in all these areas most or all the time. More males than females said they felt balanced in all areas.

In addition, when these areas (i.e., physical, emotional, mental and spiritual balance) were considered separately, most adults said they felt balanced in each of the four areas all or most of the time. Figure 32 shows more males than females reported feeling balanced in terms of their physical, emotional and mental health.

Youth - In the FSR, the majority (72%) of youth said they felt in balance physically most or all the time and many reported feeling in balance emotionally (57%) and mentally (65%).



Percentage of adults that feel they are in balance most of the time for each of the four aspects of their life by males and females



Mental Health Conditions

Adults - Approximately one in 10 adults reported having either an anxiety³⁰ (14%) or mood disorder³¹ (12%) (Figure 33). This is consistent with data from all of Canada, which also shows that 10% of the population experiences anxiety or mood disorders, with more females (and adolescents) reporting this [115].

Youth and children - It is important to address children and youth's mental health conditions. Early prevention and providing supports can contribute to better outcomes for youth struggling with these conditions. In the FSR, 8%^{32*} of youth reported an anxiety disorder and 8%* reported a mood disorder. Most children had not been diagnosed with an anxiety disorder, mood disorder, attention deficit (hyperactivity) disorder or fetal alcohol spectrum disorder. Given the small number of "yes" responses, it is difficult to provide a precise estimate of the number of children with these conditions. Although a small percentage of children and youth may have mental health conditions, those who do may require additional support to thrive in school, at home and in the community [110, 112].

While it is difficult to find current data on mood and anxiety disorders among youth and children for context, the Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) estimates that between 10% and 20% of youth and children may develop a mental health disorder [116]. Although this data from the CIHI is not directly comparable to RHS data, it is similar. This could suggest that First Nations in BC may report similar mental health outcomes as all youth and children across all of Canada.

Anxiety disorders include anxiety disorder, phobia, obsessive-compulsive disorder, or panic disorder.

³¹ Mood disorders include depression, bipolar, mania or dysthymia.

^{32 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability



Fraser Salish Caucus, 2017, Sts'ailes territory.

Social Support

Adults - Most adults (88%) in the FSR said they had someone to confide in or listen to them either some or all the time. As well, most adults (95%) said they had someone to have a good time or do something enjoyable with some or all the time. High levels of social support have also been reported for off-reserve First Nations peoples represented in the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey [117]. Good social supports, relationships and feelings of connectedness are vital to mental health and wellness [109].

Adults were asked who they had seen or talked to on the telephone about their emotional or mental health in the past year. Common sources of support for adults in the FSR were family members (41%) and friends (26%). Some adults (16%) sought professional medical support (e.g., family doctor, mental health professional, community health worker, nurse, social worker, crisis line) for their emotional or mental health and 4%33* had sought support from a traditional healer. Younger adults were more likely than those 55 and older to have talked with a friend (31% and 14%^{34*}, respectively). It was more common for females to speak with a family member, as shown in Figure 34.

^{34 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

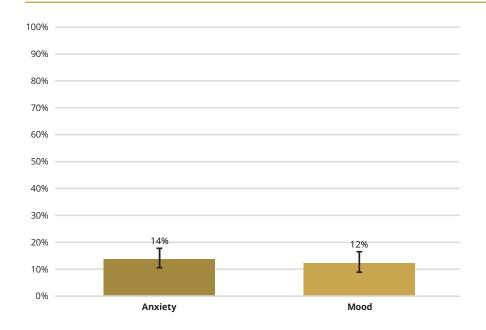
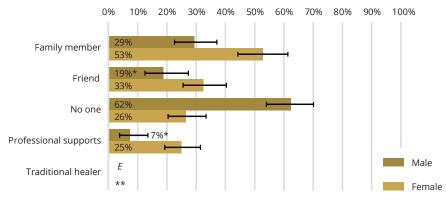


FIGURE 33

Percentage adults reporting that they have been told by a health care professional that they have an anxiety or mood disorder

^{33 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability

Social supports adults have seen or talked to on the telephone about their emotional or mental health in the past year by males and females



- * interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- ** estimate suppressed due to extreme variability

E estimate suppressed due to low cell count

Of note, 44% of adults said they had not spoken to anyone about their emotional or mental health in the past year.³⁵ Figure 34 shows that 62% of males had not spoken to anyone and this was more than twice the percentage of females.

Youth - Most youth (90%) said they had someone to confide in or listen to them when support was needed. As well, most (95%) youth reported that they had someone to have a good time or do something enjoyable with either some or all the time. Healthy relationships with friends and family and within school and community are linked with better health and a feeling of hope for the future [47].

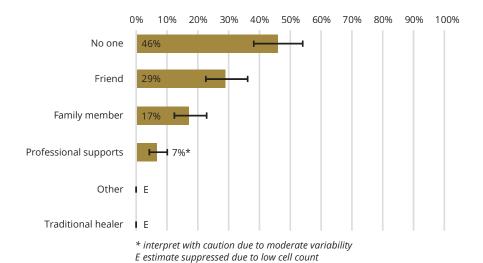
Youth were asked who they would go to first for help if they had problems with depression. More than half (55%) said they would first turn to their family members and 19% said they would go to community members. It is important to note that 18% said they would turn to no one.

Youth were asked who they had seen or talked to on the telephone about their emotional or mental health in the past year (Figure 35). The largest percentage of youth in the FSR said they had spoken to a friend (46%), with females (60%) much more likely than males to do so (20%). More than one-quarter (29%) of youth spoke with a family member and 7%^{36*} had sought professional medical support for their emotional or mental health. Nearly half (46%) had spoken to no one, which was reported among 54% of males and 35% of females.³⁷ It is possible that youth are reaching out for emotional and mental support in other ways, for example, online. However, the RHS data highlights the importance of friends for mental health support among First Nations youth living on-reserve.

³⁵ This question considers all participants and so a portion of those reporting that they sought help from "no one" may not have required any help.

^{36 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

³⁷ Similar to adults, this question considers all participants and so a portion of those reporting that they sought help from "no one" may not have required any help



Social supports youth have seen or talked to on the telephone about their emotional

or mental health in

the past year

FIGURE 35

Among adults and youth, males tended to reach out to social supports for mental and emotional health concerns less frequently than females. However, as mentioned above, it was more likely for females than males to have a lower self-rated mental health status and to report mood or anxiety disorders. (These concerns may also have been underreported among males.) Survey participants were not asked whether they required mental or emotional support that went unaddressed. However, when asked who they reached out to in the past year for support, over half of male adults and youth reported "no one." As discussed above, this was a higher percentage than for female adults and youth. Adult males were also less likely than adult females to reach out to a family member or professional medical supports. These findings highlight an area for attention. Empowering, culturally rooted programs, such as the Northern Indigenous Guys Gathering that brings together 45 males from 20 communities to participate in traditional activities, are great examples of the work being done to ensure that First Nations males have the tools they need to succeed [118].





Suicide

First Nations across BC continue to cope with the impact of suicide in their communities [119]. Understanding the reasons behind First Nations peoples' thoughts of suicide and the high numbers of suicide in their communities requires recognizing the pain and loss stemming from colonization that has also passed through generations [120]. Ongoing trauma and cultural disconnection contribute to the risk of suicide.

Nearly one-third of unexpected deaths among First Nations youth aged 15 to 24 in BC from 2010 to 2016 were suicides [119]. Elders and leaders remain especially concerned about high rates of suicide among young people who are involved in substance use and/or the foster care system [119, 121].

First Nations in BC have identified that hope, help and healing are critical supports for mental health and wellness and essential to addressing suicide [114]. Hope is about prevention by strengthening community resilience and supporting positive outlooks for the future [41]. Help means being ready to respond to suicidal feelings and attempts, and healing means supporting those affected by suicide and strengthening the community response [114].

Adults - Overall, 23% of adults in the FSR said they had seriously considered suicide at some point and 15% said they had attempted suicide. See Figure 36 for these results by males and females. Among those who said they had considered suicide, 62% had done so during adulthood and 36%38* during adolescence. Among those who had attempted suicide, half (47%^{39*}) of adults had done so during adulthood and 47%^{40*} during adolescence. Fifty-five per cent of adults in the FSR sought help from a medical professional after seriously considering suicide and 55% reported the same after a suicide attempt. According to the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey, one in five First Nations adults living off-reserve has seriously considered suicide [122].

^{38 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{39 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

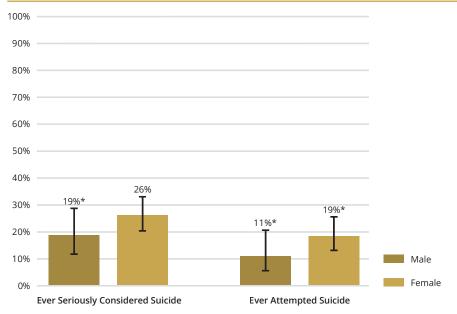
^{40 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability

Suicide touches the entire community. Eighteen per cent of adults have had a close friend or family member take their own life in the past year. Recognizing the impact of grief and loss among loved ones left behind is a vital part of supporting the well-being of First Nations families and communities in BC affected by suicide. The Hope, Help and Healing toolkit supports communities to prevent and respond to suicide, including helping individuals to reclaim their mental well-being [114]. Culturally safe crisis support is funded by the FNHA for community members who are facing a suicide risk or are healing from suicide through the 24-hour KUU-US Crisis Line.41

Youth - Suicide rates have been decreasing among First Nations youth aged 15 to 24 in BC over the past 20 years, with a decline from 5.3 per 10,000 in 1993-1997 to 2.3 per 10,000 in 2009-2013 [80]. Across communities, self-determination and cultural continuity are seen as factors that have contributed to this decline in youth suicide [41]. However, Indigenous youth still struggle with suicide more than other BC youth [80]. While declining suicide rates provide hope, we must ensure youth are getting the appropriate support they need. First Nations communities and families continue to support youth so they can navigate challenges, cope with adversities and thrive.

In the FSR, one in five (21%) youth said they had seriously considered suicide and 12% reported they had attempted suicide at some point. About half sought help from a medical professional following having suicidal thoughts (52%) or after their attempt (55%^{42*}). In addition, 16%^{43*} of youth said that a close friend or family member had taken their own life in the past year. The proportion of youth who reported attempting suicide in the RHS may be similar to other studies. Among Aboriginal youth attending school in BC in 2013, 13% had attempted suicide in the past year [47].

- First Nations and other Indigenous peoples who may require emotional support can contact the 24-hour KUU-US Crisis Line at 1-800-588-8717.
- 42 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- 43 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.



* interpret with caution due to moderate variability

FIGURE 36

Percentage of adults who have ever seriously considered or attempted suicide by males and females

Alcohol and Substance Use

First Nations in BC are resilient and are working to restore balance in their relationships with family, community, ancestors and the earth [108]. First Nations Elders and knowledge keepers continue to maintain traditional knowledge and values and this cultural connection has been shown to protect against problems associated with the misuse of alcohol and illicit substances [123]. While not all alcohol and substance use is harmful, it has the potential to become problematic and lead to health issues. Emotional, mental, physical and spiritual pain stemming from intergenerational and lifetime traumas have contributed to problematic alcohol and substance use among some First Nations people in BC [108].

Although many people across BC experience problematic alcohol and substance use, First Nations peoples in BC experience a disproportionate burden of harms from such use [124, 125]. As well, drug-related harms have intensified among all residents of BC because of the current opioid crisis. Most recent data indicates that First Nations in BC are three times more likely to die from an overdose than non-First Nations residents [121].

The FNHA supports a harm reduction approach [126] to reduce the harmful use of substances without judgment. Innovative, culturally based programs to prevent problematic substance use and support healthy coping strategies for trauma and mental health conditions are offered in many communities across the province. The FNHA manages the National Native Alcohol and Drug Addiction Program (NNADAP) in BC. This program supports community-based prevention and treatment services, such as community awareness campaigns, school programs and cultural and spiritual events. It also funds treatment centres, counselling, detox and support groups [127].

Adults - According to the Canadian Tobacco, Alcohol and Drugs Survey, 2% of all Canadian residents aged 15 and older said they had used at least one illicit substance in the past year [128].44 Approximately, one in 10 (9%45*) adults in the FSR said they sought treatment for alcohol or substance use in the past year. Most adults (88%) in the FSR said they had not used illicit substances over the past year.

^{45 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability



⁴⁴ The RHS defined illicit substances as cocaine, amphetamines, methamphetamine, ecstasy, hallucinogens, heroin or other non-prescription drugs. Cannabis, inhalants and salvia were excluded from this analysis of illicit substances. The definition of illicit substances is not stagnant. As of 2015, the Canadian Tobacco, Alcohol and Drugs Survey defined illicit substances as cocaine or crack, ecstasy, speed or methamphetamines, hallucinogens or heroin. Cannabis is a widely used and now legal (since October 17, 2018) substance in Canada; however, its legal status was debated during the development of this survey and report.



Roundlake Treatment Centre, Armstrong, BC.

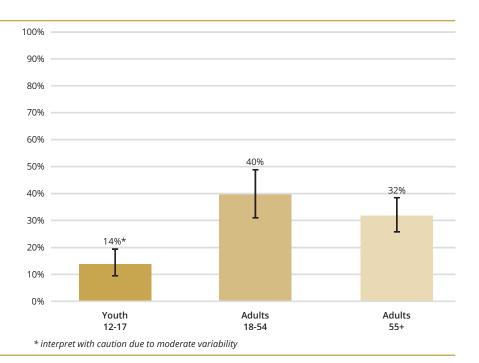
The drug-use patterns reported by the 8% of adults in the FSR who said they had used an illicit substance ranged from daily use to once or twice over the past year. It is also important to note that not all alcohol and substance use is harmful and that the stigma associated with substance use may make people less likely to report that they have used these substances.

Youth - There was not enough data to report on illicit substance use among youth in the FSR. The RHS shows that across the province, most youth (94%) said they had not used illicit substances and $6\%^{46}$ said they had sought treatment for alcohol or substance use in the past year. Previous studies have observed that Aboriginal youth in BC who experienced discrimination were more likely to use substances (other than marijuana and alcohol) [47].

Children - Parents or caregivers were asked whether the child's birth mother drank any alcohol during their pregnancy. While this was not reportable for the FSR, 93% of survey participants across BC reported that the mother did not drink any alcohol during the pregnancy and among those who did, most were said to have had a drink less than once a month. The powerful stigma against drinking during pregnancy may make people less likely to report alcohol use during pregnancy.

FIGURE 37

Percentage of youth and adults who currently smoke cigarettes by age group



Smoking

Tobacco has been used in ceremonies among many First Nations since time immemorial [129-131]. As a sacred plant used with respect in a traditional way, it has powerful spiritual and healing benefits [129, 130].

In contrast, commercial tobacco - such as cigarettes or chewing tobacco - is harmful to health. Harmful tobacco consumption increases the risk of death, cancers and reproductive issues, as well as respiratory and cardiovascular diseases like Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD), emphysema, heart attacks and angina [131].

Quitting commercial tobacco is an excellent way to improve long-term health – and the health of future generations. That's why the FNHA has developed First Nations-focused programs to support people to quit. These include the Tobacco Timeout Challenge, Youth Respecting Tobacco video contest, Inside | Out handbook on second-hand smoke, Smokestack Sandra's Podcast Series and the Run to Quit fitness training program [129].

Adults - Over one-third (37%) of adults in the FSR reported smoking cigarettes during the survey period. Reported smoking for both adult age groups is shown in Figure 37. Among those who said they had quit smoking, most (91%) did so by going "cold turkey" or through willpower alone. The 2016-17 Canadian Community Health Survey found that 14% of all BC residents aged 12 and older smoked on a daily or occasional basis [66].

Youth - Across Canada, Indigenous youth are three times more likely to smoke cigarettes than other teens [132]. In the RHS, $14\%^{47*}$ of youth in the FSR said they smoke cigarettes (Figure 37). This may be similar to the national estimate that 11% of youth currently smoke and is lower than other data that suggests 33% of First Nations youth across Canada smoke [132].

^{47 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

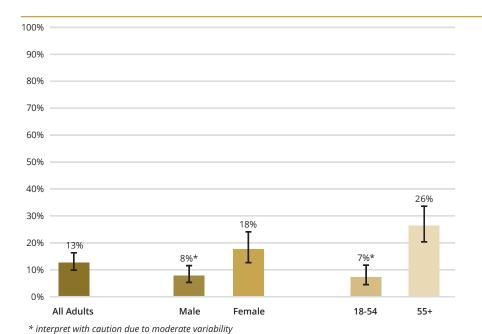


FIGURE 38

Percentage of adults told by a health care professional that they have diabetes by males and females and age group

Diabetes

Diabetes is a chronic disease caused when the body becomes unable to properly produce or use insulin, a hormone that controls sugar in the bloodstream. If not properly treated, diabetes can result in serious complications. There are two types of diabetes: Type 1, which is mainly caused by genetics, and Type 2, which is more commonly seen in people who are overweight or obese or physically inactive [133]. The survey did not ask participants to specify whether they had Type 1 or Type 2 diabetes. We acknowledge that this is a limitation but since the Public Health Agency of Canada estimates that 90% to 95% of all diabetes cases are Type 2, compared to 5% to 10% that are Type 1, we can assume that most cases of diabetes are Type 2 [133].

Diabetes has not always been a health issue for First Nations in BC. Historically, healthy traditional diets and active lifestyles sustained generations over thousands of years and prevented many chronic diseases [134-136]. The drastic lifestyle and dietary changes resulting from colonization have contributed to more cases of diabetes among First Nations peoples [134-136].

Recent Canada wide survey data estimated that 10% of off-reserve and 17% of on-reserve First Nations peoples are living with diabetes [133]. Diabetes diagnoses have increased for all BC residents over the past 25 years. However, the gap between First Nations in BC and other residents has also grown, with more First Nations people being diagnosed with diabetes than other BC residents [80].

First Nations communities in BC are building on their traditional knowledge and strengths to support healthy lifestyles as a way of managing and preventing diabetes today and for future generations.

It is critical that First Nations people have access to culturally safe prevention, treatment and care for diabetes. The First Nations Act Now Initiative, produced by the FNHC, is a toolkit communities can use to design culturally appropriate programs aimed at changing the social, environmental and economic conditions that affect individual and family health and that potentially lead to chronic disease [55, 137].



Dr. Evan Adams, FNHA CMO, at the 2016 Elders Gathering in Williams Lake.

Adults - Most adults (87%) in the FSR said that they had not been diagnosed with diabetes and 13% said they had been diagnosed with diabetes (Figure 38). A higher proportion of females (18%) than males (8%^{48*}) reported having diabetes. Age is a risk factor for diabetes and so a higher proportion of adults 55 and older (26%) have been diagnosed with diabetes than adults aged 18 to 54 ($7\%^{49*}$). Many adults in the FSR who have diabetes said it had affected their vision (39%50*), feelings in the hands and feet (20%51*), circulation (15%52*) and/or lower limbs (1353*).

Among the 13% of adults in the FSR who self-reported diabetes, a majority (87%) said their diagnosis had led them to adopt a healthier lifestyle including a good diet and/or exercise. Just over half (57%) of adults with diabetes were currently attending a diabetes clinic or seeing someone like a medical doctor or nurse for education about the condition. Of those who were not attending a clinic, 42% felt they no longer required diabetes education.

THE FNHA'S CHIEF MEDICAL OFFICER, DR. EVAN ADAMS, RECOMMENDS SOME ACTIONS PEOPLE CAN TAKE TO REDUCE THEIR SUGAR INTAKE TO PREVENT AND CONTROL DIABETES [137]:

- FOLLOW TRADITIONAL HEALTH TEACHINGS.
- EAT REAL FOODS. TRADITIONAL FOODS ARE REAL FOODS.
- ENJOY PROTEIN, HEALTHY FATS AND FIBRE.
- DO WHAT YOU CAN TO REDUCE THE STRESS IN YOUR LIFE.
- DRINK LOTS OF WATER.
- BE PATIENT WITH YOURSELF AS YOU CREATE HEALTHY NEW HABITS.

^{48 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{49 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{50 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{51 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{52 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{53 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.



Delegates at Gathering Wisdom IX support early cancer screening.

Cancer

Historically, there has been a lack of knowledge about cancer diagnoses among First Nations, but recent research on cancer among First Nations in BC has provided new information. From 1993 to 2010, First Nations accounted for 1.2% of all cancer diagnoses in BC. Although this is a smaller percentage than might be expected given the proportion of First Nations in the province, First Nations individuals diagnosed with cancer may experience unique issues [139, 140]. First Nations have lower survival rates and higher prevalence of specific types of cancers (e.g., colorectal and cervical cancer) than non-First Nations [139]. Increased life expectancy may lead to more cancer diagnoses, as age is a risk factor for cancer [141]. Potentially challenging effects of social determinants, like low income or education, may affect Indigenous peoples' ability to access cancer screening and prevention programs, which may lead to delays in cancer diagnosis and an increase in deaths due to cancer [141, 142].

Barriers to care, including limited access in rural and remote areas and costs related to accessing health care, as well as systemic racism and unresolved trauma, prevent First Nations in BC from timely access to cancer screening and treatment [139]. Preventing cancer, detecting it early and promoting cultural safety and humility in cancer care are key to longer, healthier lives for First Nations in BC affected by cancer [143]. Traditional medicines and mainstream health services are both important parts of many cancer journeys [144]. Incorporating cultural safety and humility in the health care system is important within the entire journey of cancer care, from prevention to treatment [143].

Cancer Prevalence

In the FSR, 4%^{54*} of adults said they had been diagnosed with cancer.

Cancer Screening

Screening programs help detect cancer before symptoms appear [143]. Early detection and treatment have a major impact on health and survival. BC's screening programs focus on colon, cervical and breast cancer

[143]. The intimacy of these tests can prevent some people from choosing to be screened for cancer, especially those who are survivors of sexual abuse [145]. Screening programs should be both culturally safe and trauma informed and health providers must be sensitive that some First Nations people may fear or mistrust these tests because of the legacy of residential schools and other adversities [17, 143].

Breast cancer

Adults – It's recommended that females get screened for breast cancer by having a mammogram every two years if they are between the ages of 50 and 74. Women at a higher risk of breast cancer must be screened more often and at younger ages. Mammograms can usually find lumps two or three years before they can be felt [146, 147]. Among FSR participants in the RHS, six in 10 females (62%) aged 50 to 75 had a mammogram screening within the past two years.

Cervical cancer

Adults - First Nations females in BC are nearly twice as likely as other females in BC to be diagnosed with cervical cancer [139]. Cervical cancer is highly treatable if caught early. BC Cancer recommends females between the ages of 25 and 69 have a pap smear every three years to support early detection and treatment [148]. The RHS found that 64% females in the FSR aged 25 to 69 had a pap smear within the past three years as recommended.

Colorectal cancer

Adults - Risk of colorectal cancer is higher among First Nations in BC compared to other BC residents [139]. However, early screening can identify and remove precancerous growths, contributing to an approximately 90% survival rate among those diagnosed with colorectal cancer [149]. Screening is recommended every two years for males and females aged 50 to 74 [150]. Within this age group 34% of adults in the FSR said they had been screened for colorectal cancer in the past two years.55

Prostate cancer

Adults - Prostate cancers are lower among First Nations males in BC than other male residents, though First Nations males are more likely to have poorer outcomes [139]. Four in 10 (42%) First Nations males in the FSR between the ages of 50 and 69 had been screened. It is unusual for prostate cancer to be diagnosed in males under 50 years of age [151]. It is important to note however, that screening is not recommended on a routine basis for the general population [152, 153]. The BC Cancer Agency recommends that males maintain a healthy weight through diet and exercise to prevent prostate cancer [151].

Injury

Preventing and reducing injury is an important priority for First Nations in BC [71, 154]. Hospitalizations due to injury have been decreasing over the past 30 years and injury gaps between First Nations and other BC residents have narrowed [155]. However, First Nations people working in high risk jobs and living in remote areas or in crowded or inadequate housing remain at risk [156]. In contrast, higher income and education have been linked with a lower likelihood of injury [156]. Preventing injuries can allow First Nations in BC to stay active longer, contributing to overall wellness and healthy aging.

Participants were asked whether they had experienced an injury serious enough to limit their normal activities the next day, such as a broken bone, bad cut, burn or sprain. They also answered questions about the type and cause of the injury.

Adults - Nearly one-quarter (23%) of adults in the FSR said they had been injured in the past year. Injuries by adult age groups are shown in Figure 39. Of injuries among all adults, 28%56* were major sprains or strains, 20%57* were broken bones and 52% were other injuries.

Youth - Among youth, 31% said they had been injured seriously enough in the past year to limit their normal activities the next day (Figure 39). Of the injuries reported, 35%58* were broken or fractured bones and 48% were injuries caused by a fall. Other research has found that 32% of Aboriginal youth attending school in BC had been injured seriously enough to require medical attention in the past year⁵⁹ [47].

Children - In the FSR, 15% of children were reported to have been injured in the past year (Figure 39). Around half (46%60*) of these injuries were caused by a fall.

- 56 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- 57 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- 58 * Interpret with caution due to moderate variability
- 59 These results reported in Raven's Children IV: Aboriginal youth health in BC [47] separated Aboriginal students into those who lived on-reserve and those who did not despite the fact that only First Nations, not Métis or Inuit, live on reserves.

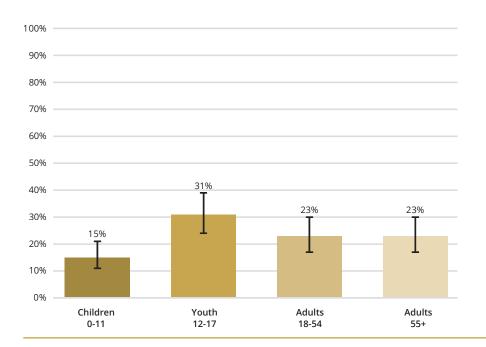


FIGURE 39

Percentage of participants injured in the past year by age group





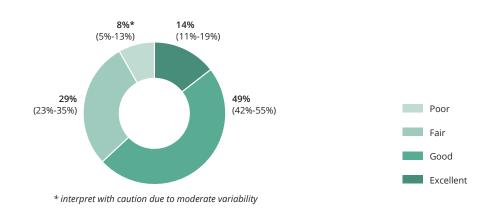
Guided by the 7 Directives, the FNHA has begun to transform the way health care is delivered in the province to improve the health of First Nations peoples and reduce inequities in health care access [159]. The RHS data collected by the FNHA is essential for identifying barriers to care to facilitate improving access to health care and wellness services for First Nations living on-reserve in BC. The recent expansion of the PharmaCare program for First Nations in BC is an example of how barriers to health and wellness are being addressed. The FNHA is also working to improve the quality of health services for First Nations in BC. The First Nations Quality Improvement and Safety (QIS) Network, overseen by the FNHA Community Accreditation and Quality Improvement Program, was established to support this goal [160].

Efforts to embed cultural safety and humility into the health care system are underway, although it will take time to see their impact reflected in the RHS. BC's health leaders have signed commitments asserting that First Nations peoples have a right to access health care free of racism and discrimination and to feel safe accessing health care [161]. The ultimate goal is a future where First Nations peoples have a new relationship with their care providers based on mutual respect, understanding and reciprocal accountability [162].

Quality

Adults - Almost two-thirds of adults rated the quality of health care services in their community as good (49%) or excellent (15%; Figure 40). Cultural safety and trusting relationships with care providers are key to the quality of health care experiences [163]. Positive relationships that shift the power balance in clinical settings can renew confidence in the health care system.

FIGURE 40 How adults rated the quality of health care services available in their community



Access and Health Needs

Adults and children - Almost three-quarters of adults (72%) said they required health care from a doctor, nurse, or other health professional in the past year. Among these adults, 12% felt they did not receive all the care they needed. Six in 10 children (61%) required health services from a doctor, nurse or other health professional in the past year.

The adults who received health care in the past year said they faced a range of barriers to receiving care (Figure 41). These included costs of services not covered by insurance (46%); lack of access (34%); costs of services enabling them to get care such as childcare or transportation (27%); culturally inappropriate services (22%); inadequate health care (21%); and an inability to arrange transportation (20%).

Children in the FSR were reported to have faced similar barriers as adults at somewhat lower proportions, as shown in Figure 41. To ensure the health care needs of First Nations children are met, Jordan's Principle must be implemented across the province. Jordan's Principle states that First Nations children and youth between the ages of 0 and 19 must receive the public care and services they need when they are needed and that any disputes between different levels of government or government agencies about who should pay for care be resolved later [3, 164].

Reducing barriers to First Nations health care ensures that individuals receive the needed care and feel respected when they reach out to the health care system. Barriers to care could prevent or delay care when it is most needed. For example, according to a BC Coroners' Service and FNHA report, many First Nations youth and adults who died unexpectedly from 2010-15 faced barriers when they sought care and approximately half of those with mental health concerns who died unexpectedly had received mental health support and services [119]. Accessible, culturally safe and trauma-informed services can address health concerns as they arise.

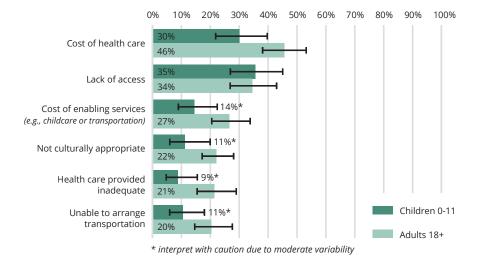


FIGURE 41 Barriers children and adults faced when accessing health care in the last year



Limitations Due to Long-Term Conditions

Long-term conditions can limit daily life activities. This includes physical conditions, mental conditions or other health problems that have lasted (or are expected to last) six months or more. Among First Nations adults in the FSR with long-term conditions, the following difficulties were identified:

- Communication: 18% always or often had communication difficulties. Examples of communication difficulties include challenges reading a newspaper or hearing a normal conversation.
- **Physical:** 13% always or often had physical limitations. This was true for more adults 55 and older (24%) than adults 18 to 54 (9%^{62*}). Physical difficulties may prevent an individual from being able to climb a flight of stairs or pick something up from the floor.
- Cognitive: 9%63* always or often had cognitive difficulties. Examples of cognitive difficulties include challenges remembering, learning or concentrating.

^{62 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

^{63 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.

FNHA Fraser Salish team members at Caucus, 2017.

Assisted Living and Supportive Care

First Nations people of all ages sometimes require care in their homes and communities as a result of disabilities or chronic or acute illnesses [165]. Providing care at home can reduce complications, death, time in hospital and costs and it can also increase patient and caregiver satisfaction [166].

Adults – Some adults in the FSR said they currently required home care support because of a physical or mental condition or health problem. The common areas in which they required additional support were home maintenance ($7\%^{64}$), light housekeeping ($4\%^{65}$) and paying bills ($4\%^{66}$).



 $^{^{\,\,\,\}star}$ Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.



^{66 *} Interpret with caution due to moderate variability.





CONCLUSION

First Nations peoples and communities in BC are resilient and this is reflected in their health and wellness across the province. The 2015-17 RHS shares several messages of optimism for communities when it comes to health and wellness determinants, health outcomes and health services. While challenges remain, the results from this survey show that First Nations people in BC are taking positive steps to live healthy lifestyles and that First Nations communities are championing initiatives that lead the journey to health and wellness.

For example, traditional wellness has been identified as an important priority and while the RHS showed that children and youth have supports within their communities to learn about culture, it is important to offer even more opportunities for them to learn about culture and maintain these traditions among future generations. The FNHA's Traditional Wellness and Strategic Framework provides a way forward to foster traditional wellness in First Nations communities and it advocates for increased resources and opportunities for this important area [38].

Mental health and emotional wellness also remain a high priority for First Nations communities and although most respondents said they generally had good mental health, work is still necessary to ensure that supports are accessible for the benefit of all First Nations people. The FNHA is supporting communities to promote mental wellness by acknowledging the impact of trauma and working towards addressing those impacts using training for mental health and wellness support workers.

Finally, while many respondents believed they received good or excellent health care over the past year, others reported barriers to heath care services. Cultural humility and trauma-informed care resources, which are actively being developed and promoted, will support First Nations peoples to access sensitive health care, where they feel safe, respected and well cared for [100].

These are only some examples of initiatives addressing First Nations health and wellness priorities and are one part of a complex health and wellness journey. Communities are on this journey and are carving their own path that celebrates and strengthens their unique cultures. This regional report, in addition to the reports for each of the other four health regions in BC and the summary report for the entire province, returns health information back to communities to support self-determination in health. By reclaiming their voice, controlling their own health information and through First Nations-driven initiatives, communities have greater opportunities to support healthful lives into the future and foster strong future generations.



References

- First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). Regions. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/about/regions 1.
- 2. Unity Health Declaration. (2016, July). Fraser Salish First Nations.
- 3. Blackstock, C. (2012). Jordan's Principle: Canada's broken promise to First Nations children? Paediatrics & Child Health, 17(7), 368-370. https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/17.7.368
- 4. First Nations Health Council. (2011). Implementing the vision: BC First Nations health governance. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/Documents/FNHC_Health_Governance_Book.pdf
- 5. King, M., Smith, A., & Gracey, M. (2009). Indigenous health part 2: The underlying causes of the health gap. The Lancet, 374(9683), 76-85. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(09)60827-8
- 6. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). First Nations perspective on health and wellness. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellness/wellness-and-the-first-nations-health-authority/ first-nations-perspective-on-wellness
- 7. Reading, C., & Wien, F. (2013). Health inequalities and the social determinants of Aboriginal peoples' health (2nd ed.). Prince George, BC: National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health. Retrieved from https://www.nccah-ccnsa.ca/495/Health_inequalities_and_the_social_determinants_of_ Aboriginal_peoples__health_.nccah?id=46
- 8. Raphael, D. (Ed.). (2016). Social determinants of health: Canadian perspectives (3rd ed.). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- Canadian Medical Association. (2013). Health equity and the social determinants of health: A role for the medical profession. Retrieved from http://policybase.cma.ca/dbtw-wpd/Policypdf/PD13-03.pdf
- 10. First Nations Health Council. (n.d.). The work. Retrieved from http://fnhc.ca/initiatives/the-work/
- 11. United Nations. (2007). United Nations declaration on the rights of Indigenous peoples. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/development/desa/indigenouspeoples/declaration-on-the-rights-ofindigenous-peoples.html
- 12. O'Neil, J., Gallagher, J., Wylie, L., Bingham, B., Lavoie, J., Alcock, D., & Johnson, H. (2016). Transforming First Nations' health governance in British Columbia. International Journal of Health Governance, 21(4), 229-244. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijhg-08-2016-0042
- 13. First Nations Health Authority. (2013). Our story: The made-in-BC Tripartite health transformation journey. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/documents/fnha_our_story.pdf
- 14. Greenwood, M., de Leeuw, S., Lindsay, N. M., & Reading, C. (Eds.). (2015). Determinants of Indigenous peoples' health: Beyond the social. Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.

- 15. Reading, C. (2015). Structural determinants of Aboriginal Peoples' health. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay, & C. Reading (Eds.), *Determinants of Indigenous Peoples' Health: Beyond the social* (pp. 3–15). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- 16. Aguiar, W., & Halseth, R. (2015). *Aboriginal peoples and historic trauma: The processes of intergenerational transmission*.

 Prince George, BC: National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/context/RPT-HistoricTrauma-IntergenTransmission-Aguiar-Halseth-EN.pdf
- 17. Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada. (2015). *Honouring the truth, reconciling for the future: Summary of the final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada.* Winnipeg, MB: The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada. Retrieved from http://publications.gc.ca/site/eng/9.800288/publication.html
- 18. Fournier, S., & Crey, E. (1997). Stolen from our embrace. Vancouver, BC: Douglas & McIntyre.
- 19. Sinclair, R. (2007). Identity lost and found: Lessons from the Sixties Scoop. First Peoples Child & Family Review, 3(1), 65–82.
- 20. Grand Chief Ed John. (2016). *Indigenous resilience, connectedness and reunification—from root causes to root solutions: A report on Indigenous child welfare in British Columbia*. Retrieved from http://fns.bc.ca/our-resources/indigenous-resilience-connectedness-and-reunification-from-root-causes-to-root-solutions
- 21. First Nations Health Authority. (2017). *Overdose data and First Nations in BC: Preliminary findings*. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/newsContent/Documents/FNHA_OverdoseDataAndFirstNationsInBC_PreliminaryFindings_FinalWeb.pdf
- 22. Lux, M.K. (2016). *Separate beds: A history of Indian hospitals in Canada, 1920s–1980s.* Toronto, ON: University of Toronto Press. https://doi.org/10.3138/9781442663114
- 23. Loppie, S., Reading, C., & de Leeuw, S. (2014). *Aboriginal experiences with racism and its impacts*. Prince George, BC:
 National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/determinants/FS-A boriginalExperiencesRacismImpacts-Loppie-Reading-deLeeuw-EN.pdf
- 24. Allan, B., & Smylie, J. (2015). First Peoples, second class treatment: The role of racism in the health and well-being of Indigenous peoples in Canada. Toronto, ON: The Wellesley Institute. Retrieved from http://www.wellesleyinstitute.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Summary-First-Peoples-Second-Class-Treatment-Final.pdf
- 25. Browne, A. J., Smye, V. L., Rodney, P. Tang, S. Y., Mussell, B., & O'Neil, J. (2011). Access to primary care from the perspective of Aboriginal patients at an urban emergency department. *Qualitative Health Research*, *21*(3), 333–348. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732310385824
- Tang, S. Y., & Browne, A. J. (2008). 'Race' matters: Racialization and egalitarian discourses involving Aboriginal people in the Canadian health care context. *Ethnicity and Health*, *13*(2), 109–127. https://doi.org/10.1080/13557850701830307
- 27. Mikkonen, J., & Raphael, D. (2010). *Social determinants of health: The Canadian facts*. Toronto, ON: York University School of Health Policy and Management. Retrieved from http://thecanadianfacts.org/The Canadian Facts.pdf
- 28. Chansonneuve, D. (2005). *Reclaiming connections: Understanding residential school trauma among Aboriginal people*. Ottawa, ON: Aboriginal Healing Foundation.
- 29. Bombay, A., Matheson, K., & Anisman, H. (2009). Intergenerational trauma: Convergence of multiple processes among First Nations peoples in Canada. *Journal of Aboriginal Health*, *5*(3), 6–47.
- 30. Bombay, A., Matheson, K., & Anisman, H. (2014). The intergenerational effects of Indian Residential Schools: Implications for the concept of historical trauma. *Transcultural Psychiatry*, *51*(3), 320–338. https://doi.org/10.1177/1363461513503380

- 31. McEwen, B. S., & Gianaros P. I. (2011). Stress- and allostasis-induced brain plasticity. Annual Review of Medicine, 62, 431-445. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-med-052209-100430
- 32. Institute of Medicine Committee on Health and Behaviour: Research, Practice, and Policy. (2001). Health and behavior: The interplay of biological, behavioral, and societal influences. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- 33. Reading, J. L., & R. Halseth. (2013). Pathways to improving well-being for Indigenous peoples: How living conditions decide health. Prince George, BC: National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health.
- 34. First Nations Information Governance Centre. (n.d.). About RHS. Retrieved from http://fnigc.ca/our-work/regional-healthsurvey/about-rhs.html
- 35. Statistics Canada. (n.d.). Census Profile, 2016 Census. Retrieved from https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/censusrecensement/2016/dp-pd/prof/index.cfm?Lang=E
- 36. First Nations Information Governance Committee. (2007). First Nations Regional Longitudinal Health Survey (RHS) code of research ethics. Retrieved from https://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/rhs-code-of-research-ethics-2007.pdf
- 37. British Columbia Statistics. (n.d.). 2016 census total population results: Indian reserves by census division. Retrieved from http://www.bcstats.gov.bc.ca/statisticsbysubject/census/2016census/PopulationHousing/IndianReservesByCD.aspx
- 38. First Nations Health Authority. (2012). Healthy children, healthy families, healthy communities: BC provincial results 2008-10 First Nations Regional Health Survey. West Vancouver: First Nations Health Authority.
- 39. First Nations Health Council. (n.d.) What are the social determinants of health? Retrieved from http://fnhc.ca/wp-content/ uploads/FNHC-SDOH-Backgrounder.pdf
- 40. Greenwood, M. L., & de Leeuw S. N. (2012). Social determinants of health and the future well-being of Aboriginal children in Canada. Paediatrics & Child Health, 17(7) 381–384. https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/17.7.381
- 41. Chandler, M. J., & Lalonde, C. E. (2009). Cultural continuity as a moderator of suicide risk among Canada's First Nations. In L. J. Kirmayer & G. G. Valaskakis (Eds.), Healing traditions: The mental health of Aboriginal Peoples in Canada (pp. 221–248). Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia Press.
- 42. Pearce, M. E., Jongbloed, K. A., Richardson, C. G., Henderson, E. W., Pooyak, S. D., Oveido-Joekes, E., . . . Cedar Project Partnership. (2015). The Cedar Project: Resilience in the face of HIV vulnerability within a cohort study involving young Indigenous people who use drugs in three Canadian cities. BioMed Central Public Health, 15(1) 1095–1106. https://doi. org/10.1186/s12889-015-2417-7
- 43. Provincial Health Services Authority. (2018). BC Community Health Data. Retrieved from http://communityhealth.phsa.ca/
- 44. First Nations Health Authority. (2014). Traditional Wellness Strategic Framework. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/ wellnesscontent/wellness/fnha traditionalwellnessstrategicframework.pdf
- 45. Greenwood, M. and E. Jones. (2015). Being at the interface: Early childhood as a determinant of health. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay & C. Reading (Eds.), Determinants of Indigenous peoples' health: Beyond the social (pp. 64–77). Toronto: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- 46. Macdougall, B. (2015). Knowing Who You Are: Family History and Aboriginal Determinants of Health. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay & C. Reading (Eds.), Determinants of Indigenous peoples' health: Beyond the social (pp. 185–203). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.

- 47. Tourand, J., Smith, A., Poon, C., Saewyc, E., & McCreary Centre Society. (2016). *Raven's children IV: Aboriginal youth health in BC*. Vancouver, BC: McCreary Centre Society.
- 48. First Peoples' Cultural Council. (2014). *Report on the status of B.C. First Nations Languages* (2nd ed.). Brentwood Bay, BC: First Peoples' Cultural Council.
- 49. Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada. (2015). *Canada's residential schools: The legacy: The final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, Volume 5.* Montreal, QC: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- 50. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). *Aboriginal Head Start on-reserve*. Retrieved July 19, 2018, from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/maternal-child-and-family-health/aboriginal-head-start-on-reserve
- 51. Chandler, M. J., & Lalonde, C. E. (2009). Cultural continuity as a moderator of suicide risk among Canada's First Nations. In L. J. Kirmayer & G. G. Valaskakis (Eds.), *Healing traditions: The mental health of Aboriginal Peoples in Canada* (221–248). Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia Press.
- 52. Pearce, M. E., Jongbloed, K. A., Richardson, C. G., Henderson, E. W., Pooyak, S. D., Oveido-Joekes, E., . . . Cedar Project Partnership. (2015). The Cedar Project: Resilience in the face of HIV vulnerability within a cohort study involving young Indigenous people who use drugs in three Canadian cities. *BioMed Central Public Health*, *15*(1) 1095–1106. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-015-2417-7
- 53. Provincial Health Services Authority. (2018). *BC Community Health Data*. Retrieved from http://communityhealth.phsa.ca/ GetTheData
- 54. First Nations Health Authority. (2014). *Traditional Wellness Strategic Framework*. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellnesscontent/wellness/fnha_traditionalwellnessstrategicframework.pdf
- 55. Greenwood, M. and E. Jones. (2015). Being at the interface: Early childhood as a determinant of health. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay & C. Reading (Eds.), *Determinants of Indigenous peoples' health: Beyond the social* (pp. 64–77). Toronto: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- 56. Macdougall, B. (2015). Knowing Who You Are: Family History and Aboriginal Determinants of Health. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay & C. Reading (Eds.), *Determinants of Indigenous peoples' health: Beyond the social* (pp. 185–203). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- 57. Tourand, J., Smith, A., Poon, C., Saewyc, E., & McCreary Centre Society. (2016). *Raven's children IV: Aboriginal youth health in BC*. Vancouver, BC: McCreary Centre Society.
- 58. First Peoples' Cultural Council. (2014). *Report on the status of B.C. First Nations Languages* (2nd ed.). Brentwood Bay, BC: First Peoples' Cultural Council.
- 59. Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada. (2015). *Canada's residential schools: The legacy: The final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, Volume 5.* Montreal, QC: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- 60. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). *Aboriginal Head Start on-reserve*. Retrieved July 19, 2018, from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/maternal-child-and-family-health/aboriginal-head-start-on-reserve
- 61. Boyland, E. J., Nolan, S., Kelly, B., Tudur-Smith, C., Jones, A., Halford, J. C., & Robinson E. (2016). Advertising as a cue to consume: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the effects of acute exposure to unhealthy food and nonalcoholic beverage advertising on intake in children and adults. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 103*(2), 519–533. https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.115.120022
- 62. Health Canada. (2007). Eating well with Canada's food guide: First Nations, Inuit and Métis. Ottawa, ON: Health Canada.

- 63. First Nations Health Council. (2010). Active spirit, active history: A culture of sports, activity, and wellbeing among BC First Nations. West Vancouver, BC. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/Documents/ASAHBook web.pdf
- 64. Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology. (2011). Canadian physical activity guidelines for adults 18-64 years. Retrieved from http://www.csep.ca/CMFiles/Guidelines/CSEP_PAGuidelines_adults_en.pdf
- 65. Public Health Agency of Canada. (2018). A Common vision for increasing physical activity and reducing sedentary living in Canada: Let's get moving. Retrieved from https://www.canada.ca/content/dam/phac-aspc/documents/services/ publications/healthy-living/lets-get-moving/pub-eng.pdf
- 66. Statistics Canada. (n.d.). Canadian health characteristics, two-year period estimates Canadian Community Health Survey. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/t1/tbl1/en/tv.action?pid=1310011301
- 67. Tremblay, M. S., Carson, V., Chaput, J., Gorber, S., Dinh, T., Duggan, M., at.al. (2016). Canadian 24-hour movement guidelines for children and youth: An integration of physical activity, sedentary behaviour, and sleep. Applied Physiology, Nutrition and Metabolism, 41(6), S311-S327. https://doi.org/10.1139/apnm-2016-0203
- 68. ParticipACTION. (2016). Are Canadian kids too tired to move? The ParticipACTION report card on physical activity for children and youth. Retrieved from https://www.activehealthykids.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/canada-report-card-longform-2016.pdf
- 69. Canadian Paediatric Society & Digital Health Task Force. (2017). Screen time and young children: Promoting health and development in a digital world. Paediatrics & Child Health, 22(8), 461-468. https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/pxx197
- 70. Center for Disease Control & Prevention. (n.d.). Body Mass Index: Considerations for practitioners. Retrieved from https:// www.cdc.gov/obesity/downloads/bmiforpactitioners.pdf
- 71. Transformative Change Accord: First Nations Health Plan. (2005). Retrieved from https://www.health.gov.bc.ca/library/ publications/year/2006/first_nations_health_implementation_plan.pdf
- 72. National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health. (2013). Physical activity fact sheet. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsanccah.ca/docs/health/FS-Physical%20Activity-EN.pdf
- 73. Statistics Canada. (n.d.). Health indicator profile, by Aboriginal identity and sex, age-standardized rate, four year estimates. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/t1/tbl1/en/tv.action?pid=1310009901
- 74. World Health Organization. (2017). Obesity and overweight: Key facts. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/news-room/ fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight
- 75. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2017). Obesity update. Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/ els/health-systems/Obesity-Update-2017.pdf
- 76. Public Health Agency of Canada. (2017). How healthy are Canadians? A trend analysis of the health of Canadians from a healthy living and chronic disease perspective. Retrieved from https://www.canada.ca/content/dam/phac-aspc/documents/ services/publications/healthy-living/how-healthy-canadians/pub1-eng.pdf
- 77. First Nations Information Governance Centre. (2016). Our data, our stories, our future: The national report of the First Nations Regional Early Childhood, Education and Employment Survey. Ottawa, ON. Retrieved from https://fnigc.ca/sites/ default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final.pdf
- 78. Bougie, E., Kelly-Scott, K., & Arriagada, P. (2013). The education and employment experiences of First Nations people living off reserve, Inuit, and Métis: Selected findings from the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan. gc.ca/n1/en/pub/89-653-x/89-653-x2013001-eng.pdf?st=viZoZmdN

- 79. Statistics Canada. (2016). Canada's educational portrait, 2016 Census of Population. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan. gc.ca/n1/pub/11-627-m/11-627-m2017036-eng.htm
- 80. Provincial Health Officer of BC & First Nations Health Authority. (2015). First Nations health and well-being: Interim update. Retrieved from https://www2.gov.bc.ca/assets/gov/health/about-bc-s-health-care-system/office-of-the-provincial-healthofficer/reports-publications/special-reports/first-nations-health-and-well-being-interim-update-nov-2015.pdf
- First Nations Health Authority. (2016). Health careers guidebook. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/Documents/FNHA_ 81. health careers guidebook.pdf
- 82. First Nations Health Authority. (2018). What is Aboriginal Head Start on-reserve (AHSOR)? Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/ what-we-do/maternal-child-and-family-health/aboriginal-head-start-on-reserve
- 83. Little Bear, L. (2000). Worldview: Jagged worldviews colliding. In M. Battiste (Ed.), Reclaiming Indigenous voice and vision (pp. 77-85). Vancouver: UBC Press.
- 84. Frideres, J. S. (2011). First Nations in the twenty-first century. Don Mills, ON: Oxford University Press.
- 85. Belanger, Y. (2014). Ways of knowing: An introduction to native studies in Canada (2nd ed). Toronto, ON: Nelson.
- 86. Piliavin, J. A., & Siegl, E. (2007). Health benefits of volunteering in the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 48(4), 450-464. https://doi.org/10.1177/002214650704800408
- 87. Yeung, J., Zhang, Z., & Kim, T. Y. (2017). Volunteering and health benefits in general adults: cumulative effects and forms. BMC Public Health, 18(1), 8. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4561-8
- 88. Griep, Y., Hyde, M., Vantilborgh, T., Bidee, J., De Witte, H., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Voluntary work and the relationship with unemployment, health, and well-Being: A two-year follow-up study contrasting a materialistic and psychosocial pathway perspective. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 20(2):190-204. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0038342
- 89. Statistics Canada. (2015). Aboriginal Statistics at a Glance (2nd ed). Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/en/ pub/89-645-x/89-645-x2015001-eng.pdf?st=b2pDH_Ov
- 90. First Nations Health Authority. (2018). Healthy Living. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/healthy-living
- 91. Richmond, C. A. M., & Ross, N. A. (2009). The determinants of First Nation and Inuit health: A critical population health approach. Health & Place, 15(2), 403-411. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2008.07.004
- 92. World Health Organization. (2008). Closing the gap in a generation: Health equity through action on the social determinants of health. Final report of the Commission on Social Determinants of Health. Geneva: WHO Press.
- 93. National Collaborating Centre for Aboriginal Health. (2013). The sacred space of womanhood: Mothering across the generations. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/health/RPT-SacredSpaceWomanhood-Bckgrnd-EN.pdf
- 94. Perinatal Services BC, Ministry of Health & First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). Our sacred journey: Aboriginal pregnancy passport. (Adapted from: Women's Health Pregnancy Passport, 2011). Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/ wellnessContent/Wellness/AboriginalPregnancyPassport.pdf
- 95. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). Prenatal nutrition program. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/ maternal-child-and-family-health/prenatal-nutrition-program
- 96. Statistics Canada. (n.d.). Live births, by birth weight. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/t1/tbl1/en/ tv.action?pid=1310042201

- 97. Public Health Agency of Canada. (2016). Health status of Canadians 2016: A report of the Chief Public Health Officer. Retrieved from http://healthycanadians.gc.ca/publications/department-ministere/state-public-health-status-2016-etatsante-publique-statut/alt/pdf-eng.pdf
- 98. Hunt, S. (2016). An introduction to the health of Two-spirit People: Historical, contemporary and emergent issues. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/emerging/RPT-HealthTwoSpirit-Hunt-EN.pdf
- 99. Duran, E., Duran, B., Heart, M. Y. H. B., & Horse-Davis, S. (1998). Healing the American Indian soul wound. In Y. Danieli (Ed.), International Handbook of Multigenerational Legacies of Trauma (pp. 341-354). New York, NY: Springer. https://doi. org/10.1007/978-1-4757-5567-1 22
- 100. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). FNHA's policy statement on cultural safety and humility. Retrieved from http://www. fnha.ca/documents/fnha-policy-statement-cultural-safety-and-humility.pdf
- 101. Stout, M. D., & Kipling, G. D. (2003). Aboriginal people, resilience and the residential school legacy. Retrieved from The Aboriginal Healing Foundation website: http://www.ahf.ca/downloads/resilience.pdf
- 102. Brzozowski, J. A., Taylor-Butts, A., & Johnson, S. (2006). Victimization and offending among the Aboriginal population in Canada. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/en/pub/85-002-x/85-002-x2006003-eng.pdf?st=dB_rMuq3
- 103. Pearce, M. (2003). An awkward silence: Missing and murdered vulnerable women and the Canadian justice system (Master's thesis). Retrieved from https://ruor.uottawa.ca/handle/10393/26299
- 104. Royal Canadian Mounted Police. (2014). Missing and murdered aboriginal women: A national operational overview. Retrieved from http://www.rcmp-grc.gc.ca/en/missing-and-murdered-aboriginal-women-national-operational-overview
- 105. Bombay, A., Matheson, K., & Anisman, H. (2014). Origins of lateral violence in Aboriginal communities: A preliminary study of student-to-student abuse in Indian Residential Schools. Ottawa, ON: Aboriginal Healing Foundation.
- 106. Office of the Provincial Health Officer & Child Health BC. (2016). Is "good", good enough? The health and well-being of children & youth in BC. Retrieved from https://www2.gov.bc.ca/assets/gov/health/about-bc-s-health-care-system/office-ofthe-provincial-health-officer/reports-publications/annual-reports/pho-annual-report-2016.pdf
- 107. Pepler, D., Craig, W. M., Cummings, J., Petrunka, K., & Garwood, S. (2017). Mobilizing Canada to promote healthy relationships and prevent bullying among children and youth. In P. Sturmey, (Ed.), The Wiley Handbook of Violence and Aggression. John Wiley & Sons. doi: 10.1002/9781119057574.whbva123
- 108. First Nations Health Authority, BC Ministry of Health, & Health Canada. (2013). A path forward: BC First Nations and Aboriginal People's mental wellness and substance use - 10 year plan. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/documents/fnha_ mwsu.pdf
- 109. Assembly of First Nations & Health Canada (2015). First Nations mental wellness continuum framework; Summary report. Retrieved from https://thunderbirdpf.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/24-14-1273-FN-Mental-Wellness-Summary-EN03_ low.pdf
- 110. Bellamy, S., & Hardy, C. (2015). Anxiety disorders and Aboriginal peoples in Canada: The current state of knowledge and directions for future research. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/emerging/RPT-AnxietyDisorders-Bellamy-Hardy-EN.pdf
- 111. Bellamy, S., & Hardy, C. (2015). Post-traumatic stress disorder in aboriginal people in Canada: Review of risk factors, the current state of knowledge and directions for further research. Retrieved from https://www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/emerging/RPT-Post-TraumaticStressDisorder-Bellamy-Hardy-EN.pdf

- 112. Bellamy, S., & Hardy, C. (2015). Understanding depression in Aboriginal communities and families. Retrieved from https:// www.ccnsa-nccah.ca/docs/emerging/RPT-UnderstandingDepression-Bellamy-Hardy-EN.pdf
- 113. Kirmayer, L., Simpson, C., & Cargo, M. (2003). Healing traditions: Culture, community and mental health promotion with Canadian Aboriginal peoples. Australasian Psychiatry, 11(1), 15-23. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1038-5282.2003.02010.x
- 114. First Nations Health Authority & BC Ministry of Health. (2015). Hope, help, and healing: A planning toolkit for First Nations and Aboriginal communities to prevent and respond to suicide. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellnessContent/ Wellness/FNHA-Hope-Help-and-Healing.pdf
- 115. McRae, L., O'Donnell, S., Loukine, L., Rancourt, N., & Pelletier, C. (2016). Report summary - mood and anxiety disorders in Canada, 2016. Health promotion and chronic disease prevention in Canada: Research, policy and practice, 36(12), 314-315. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5387798/
- 116. Canadian Institute of Health Informatics. (n.d.). Child and youth mental health in Canada — Infographic. Retrieved from: https://www.cihi.ca/en/child-and-youth-mental-health-in-canada-infographic
- 117. Rotenberg, C. R. (2016). Aboriginal Peoples Survey, 2012, social determinants of health for the off-reserve First Nations population, 15 Years of age and older. Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-653-x/89-653-x2016010eng.htm
- 118. First Nations Health Council (2017, June 30). Northern Indigenous guys gathering. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/ watch?v=0NN TZnFXfc
- 119. BC Coroner's Service & First Nations Health Authority. (2017). A review of First Nation youth and young adult injury deaths: 2010-2015. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/Documents/FNHA-BCCS-A-Review-of-First-Nations-Youth-and-Young-Adults-Injury-Deaths-2010-2015.pdf
- 120. Kirmayer, L. J., Brass, G. M., Holton, T., Paul, K., Simpson, C., Tait, C. (2007). Suicide among Aboriginal people in Canada. Retrieved from http://www.ahf.ca/downloads/suicide.pdf
- 121. Jongbloed, K. Pearce, M. E., Pooyak, S., Zamar, D., Thomas, V., Demerais, L., . . . Spittal, P. M (2017). The Cedar Project: Mortality among young Indigenous people who use drugs in British Columbia. Canadian Medical Association Journal, 189(44), E1352-E1359. https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.160778
- 122. Statistics Canada. (n.d.). Perceived mental health and suicidal thoughts, by Aboriginal identity. Retrieved from https:// www150.statcan.gc.ca/t1/tbl1/en/tv.action?pid=4110001101
- 123. Currie, C., Wild, T. C., Schopflocher, D., Laing, L., Veugelers, P. (2013). Illicit and prescription drug problems among urban Aboriginal adults in Canada: The role of traditional culture in protection and resilience. Social Science & Medicine, 88, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2013.03.032
- 124. McKenzie, H. A., Dell, C. A., & Fornssler, B. (2016). Understanding addictions among Indigenous people through social determinants of health frameworks and strength-based approaches: A review of the research literature from 2013 to 2016. Current Addiction Reports, 3(4), 378-386. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40429-016-0116-9
- 125. Firestone, M., Tyndall, M., & Fischer, B. (2015). Substance use and related harms among aboriginal people in Canada: A comprehensive review. Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved, 26(4), 1110-1131. https://doi.org/10.1353/ hpu.2015.0108
- 126. First Nations Health Authority. (2018). Harm reduction. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/ mental-wellness-and-substance-use/overdose-information/harm-reduction

- 127. Government of Canada. (n.d.). National native alcohol and drug abuse program. Retrieved from https://www.canada.ca/en/ indigenous-services-canada/services/first-nations-inuit-health/reports-publications/substance-use-treatment-addictions/ alcohol-drugs-solvents/national-native-alcohol-drug-abuse-program.html
- 128. Government of Canada. (n.d.). Canadian Tobacco Alcohol and Drugs (CTADS): 2015 supplementary tables. Retrieved from https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/canadian-tobacco-alcohol-drugs-survey/2015-supplementary-tables. html
- 129. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). Respecting tobacco. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellness/ wellness-and-the-first-nations-health-authority/wellness-streams/respecting-tobacco
- 130. National Native Addictions Partnership Foundation. (2006). Keeping the sacred in tobacco: A Toolkit for tobacco cessation. Retrieved from http://epub.sub.uni-hamburg.de/epub/volltexte/2013/20227/pdf/NNAPF_Keeping_Sacred_Tobacco1.pdf
- 131. Orisatoki, R. (2013). The public health implications of the use and misuse of tobacco among the Aboriginals in Canada. Global Journal of Health Science, 5(1), 28-34. https://doi.org/10.5539/gjhs.v5n1p28
- 132. Jetty, R. (2017). Tobacco use and misuse among Indigenous children and youth in Canada. Paediatrics & Child Health, 22(7), 395-399. https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/pxx124
- 133. Public Health Agency of Canada. (2011). Diabetes in Canada: Facts and figures from a public health perspective. Ottawa, ON: Chronic Disease Surveillance and Monitoring Division.
- 134. Maar, M. A., Manitowabi, D., Gzik, D., McGregor, L., & Corbiere, C. (2011). Serious complications for patients, care providers and policy makers: Tackling the structural violence of First Nations people living with diabetes in Canada. The International Indigenous Policy Journal, 2(1), 6. Retrieved from https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/iipj/vol2/iss1/6
- 135. Polanco, F., & Arbour, L. (2015). Type 2 diabetes in Indigenous Populations: Why a focus on genetic susceptibility is not enough. In M. Greenwood, S. de Leeuw, N. M. Lindsay & C. Reading (Eds.), Determinants of Indigenous Peoples' Health: Beyond the Social (pp. 296-311). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- 136. Dyck, R. F., Karunanayake, C., Janzen, B., Lawson, J., Ramsden, V. R., Rennie, D. C. ... First Nations Lung Health Team. (2015). Do discrimination, residential school attendance and cultural disruption add to individual-level diabetes risk among Aboriginal people in Canada? BioMed Central Public Health, 15(1), 1222. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-015-2551-2
- 137. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). Being active. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellness/ wellness-and-the-first-nations-health-authority/wellness-streams/being-active
- 138. Adams, E. (2017). World diabetes day 2017. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/about/news-and-events/news/ world-diabetes-day-2017
- 139. McGahan, C. E., Linn, K., Guno, P., Johnson, H., Coldman, A. J., Spinelli, J. J., & Caron, N. R. (2017). Cancer in First Nations people living in British Columbia, Canada: An analysis of incidence and survival from 1993 to 2010. Cancer Causes & Control, 28(10), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-017-0950-7
- 140. First Nations Health Authority & BC Cancer Agency. (2017). Cancer and First Nations peoples in BC: A community resource. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellnessContent/Wellness/Cancer-and-First-Nations-Peoples-in-BC.PDF
- Elias, B., Kliewer, E. V., Hall, M., Demers, A. A., Turner, D., Martens, P., ... Munro, G. (2011). The burden of cancer risk in 141. Canada's Indigenous population: A comparative study of known risks in a Canadian region. International Journal of General Medicine, 4, 699-709. https://doi.org/10.2147/ijgm.s24292
- 142. Ahmed, S., Shahid, R., & Episkenew, J. (2015). Disparity in cancer prevention and screening in aboriginal populations: Recommendations for action. Current Oncology, 22(6), 417. https://doi.org/10.3747/co.22.2599

- 144. First Nations Health Authority, Métis Nation of BC, BC Cancer Agency, & BC Association of Aboriginal Friendship Centres. (2016). *Living with cancer: Everyone deserves support*. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/wellnessContent/Wellness/Living-With-Cancer.pdf
- 145. Gesink, D., & Nattel, L. (2015). A qualitative cancer screening study with childhood sexual abuse survivors: experiences, perspectives and compassionate care. *British Medical Journal Open, 5*(8), e007628. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2015-007628
- 146. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). *Who Should Get a Mammogram?* Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/screening/breast/get-a-mammogram/who-should-get-a-mammogram
- 147. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). *Why are mammograms important?* Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/screening/breast/get-a-mammogram/why-are-mammograms-important
- 148. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). *Why is screening important?* Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/screening/cervix/get-screened/why-is-screening-important
- 149. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). Colon. Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/screening/colon
- 150. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). *Who should get screened?* Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/screening/colon/get-screened/who-should-get-screened
- 151. BC Cancer Agency. (n.d.). *Prostate*. Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/health-info/types-of-cancer/mens-cancer/prostate
- 152. BC Cancer Agency, Genito-Urinary Tumour Group, The Prostate Centre at VGH, & The Vancouver Prostate Support and Awareness Group. (2007). *The pros and cons of PSA testing for prostate cancer*. Retrieved from http://www.bccancer.bc.ca/books/documents/genitourinary/psascreeningpatientpamphlet2007april.pdf
- 153. Bell, N. Gorber, S. C., Shane, A., Joffres, M., Singh, H., Dickinson, J., ... & Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care. (2014). Recommendations on screening for prostate cancer with the prostate-specific antigen test. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 186(16), 1225–1234. https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.140703
- 154. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.). *Injury prevention and control*. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/healthy-living/injury-prevention-and-control
- 155. George, M. A., Jin, A., Brussoni, M., & Lalonde, C. E. (2015). Is the injury gap closing between the Aboriginal and general populations of British Columbia? *Health Reports*, *26*(1), 3–15.
- 156. Brussoni, M., Jin, A., George, M. A., Lalonde, C. E. (2015). Aboriginal community-level predictors of injury-related hospitalizations in British Columbia, Canada. *Prevention Science*, *16*(4), 560–567. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-014-0503-1
- 157. Lavoie, J., & Gervais, L. (2011). Access to primary health care in rural and remote aboriginal communities: Progress, challenges, and policy directions. In J. C. Kulig & A. M. Williams (Eds.), *Health in Rural Canada* (390-408). Vancouver, BC: UBC Press.

- 158. Cameron, B. L., Camargo Plazas, M. dP., Santos Salas, A., Bourque Bearskin, R. L., Hungler, K. (2014). Understanding inequalities in access to health care services for Aboriginal people: A call for nursing action. Advances in Nursing Science, 37(3), E1-E16. https://doi.org/10.1097/ans.0000000000000039
- 159. First Nations Health Authority. Directives. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/about/fnha-overview/directives
- 160. First Nations Health Authority. (2018). Community health services accreditation & quality improvement. Retrieved from http:// www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/health-and-wellness-planning/accreditation
- 161. First Nations Health Authority. (2015). Declaration of commitment on cultural safety and humility in health services. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/Documents/Declaration-of-Commitment-on-Cultural-Safety-and-Humility-in-Health-Services.pdf
- 162. First Nations Health Authority. (2016). It starts with me: Creating a climate for change. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/ documents/fnha-creating-a-climate-for-change-cultural-humility-resource-booklet.pdf
- 163. Browne, A. J., Varcoe, C., Lavoie, J., Smye, V., Wong, S. T., Krause, M., ... Fridkin, A. (2016). Enhancing health care equity with Indigenous populations: Evidence-based strategies from an ethnographic study. BMC Health Services Research, 16(1) 544. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-016-1707-9
- 164. First Nations Child & Family Caring Society of Canada. (2018). Jordan's Principle: How to access public services and supports through Jordan's Principle. Retrieved from https://fncaringsociety.com/sites/default/files/Jordan%27s%20Principle%20 Infographic%20%28web%29.pdf
- 165. First Nations Health Authority. (n.d.), Home and community care. Retrieved from http://www.fnha.ca/what-we-do/ nursing-services/home-and-community-care
- 166. Caplan, G. A., Sulaiman, N. S., Mangin, D. A., Ricauda, N. A., Wilson, A. D., & Barclay, L. (2012). A meta-analysis of "hospital in the home". The Medical Journal of Australia, 197(9), 512-519. https://doi.org/10.5694/mja12.10480



Appendix A: Methods

Background

The RHS is a national survey led by the First Nations Information Governance Centre (FNIGC), a First Nations organization promoting First Nations information needs. The Code of Research Ethics for the RHS was approved by the First Nations Information Governance Committee [36].

An important foundation of the RHS is respect for the First Nations principles of Ownership, Control, Access and Possession of data (OCAP®). The FNHA is working with regions and communities to return the results (i.e., provincial and regional reports) in a good way while maintaining the data to enable further reporting and analysis of the information. FNHA and FNIGC have been designated by participating First Nations as knowledge keepers for the data obtained by the RHS. These two organizations are responsible for holding the data and facilitating its access on behalf of First Nations. The RHS information will be used according to agreements with participating First Nations and First Nations individuals and according to the principles of these organizations, in order to empower and enable First Nations communities to gain further control of their health.

The RHS has been conducted three times in BC (Phase 1 in 2002-2003, Phase 2 in 2008-2010 and now Phase 3 in 2015-17). Most of the questions in the current RHS (Phase 3) were also asked in Phase 1 and 2.

Sampling

The RHS process for selecting participants involved two stages. In Stage 1: Community Selection, BC First Nations communities were grouped by the five health regions: Fraser Salish Region (FSR), Interior Region (IR), Northern Region (NR), Vancouver Coastal Region (VCR) and Vancouver Island Region (VIR). In IR, FSR and VCR, all communities, regardless of size, were invited to participate. In the NR and VIR, communities with fewer than 75 members were excluded due to the cost and complexity of engaging those communities. In Stage 2: Survey Participants, individuals from selected communities were randomly selected using community membership lists. The number of members surveyed depended on the number of participants required to meet the sampling strategy. The sampling strategy was designed to enable results to be generalized to the whole on-reserve population at a 95% confidence level. Individuals were invited to participate and if they declined, a random substitute (same gender and age group) was surveyed in order to accurately represent First Nations communities within their demographic complexity.

Data Collection

Field supervisors and support staff were hired for each region and community navigators were hired from within each community, when possible. Data collectors helped administer the survey and individuals directly entered their responses to the survey on a computer. If individuals needed help, data collectors were available to provide assistance. Data collectors supported individuals to take the survey wherever they felt most comfortable (e.g., band office, health centre, home, etc.). Surveys were completed between December 2015 and March 2017. Participants filled out age-specific surveys: Child (0-11 years); Youth (12-17 years); and Adult (18+ years). Adults and youth filled out their own surveys and a parent or caregiver was asked to respond on behalf of children aged 0-11. Surveys covered a range of topics including but not limited to: mental health and wellness, primary health care, social determinants of health, traditional wellness, health status and health behaviours.

Indicator Selection

The scope of the survey was very wide with many questions, producing a substantial amount of data, beyond what is manageable to share in a single document. An indicator selection process was used to select questions that would be included in the RHS summary report. Regional and Nation representatives were engaged by FNHA to choose which major sections to address (e.g., Health Determinants, Health Status and Primary Care, Mental Health and Wellness). Within these major sections and beyond, these representatives identified and prioritized survey questions within each section. The areas of interest from each region were combined and the most frequently identified topics and questions were prioritized for inclusion in the reports.

Data Analysis

To ensure the data was representative of the entire population of First Nations living on a reserve in BC, responses were weighted using age and gender. Estimated percentages and a 95% confidence interval (CI) are used to report results. The 95% CI tells us the range in which we can be 95% certain that the actual population value falls.

CIs are useful to compare results between groups (e.g., age and gender groups). When comparing results, if the CI ranges **do not overlap**, the two groups are statistically significantly different. If the CIs between groups for an indicator **do overlap**, we **cannot** say if the groups are statistically significantly different without conducting further analysis. In this report, further analysis was not completed and differences are only reported if the CIs do not overlap. The one exception to this is when comparisons were made between results between RHS survey cycles.

Data Quality

To ensure reported results represent a valuable estimate, the coefficient of variation of the estimate was examined.

When the coefficient of variation of an estimate is less than or equal to 16.6%, the confidence interval is comparatively narrow and the estimate can be used without restriction. Estimates with moderately high coefficients of variation (between 16.7% and 33.3%) have wider confidence intervals, hence the true

population value is estimated in a relatively wide range. These estimates were supplemented with an "*" in the results to indicate the high sampling variability associated with the estimate and that it should be interpreted with caution. Estimates with unacceptably high coefficients of variation (greater than 33.3%) have very wide confidence intervals and therefore the value could fall in a very wide band. These estimates were suppressed as conclusions based on these data will be unreliable and possibly invalid (denoted by an "**" within the graphics and tables). In addition, results of the analyses based on low cell counts (nine or fewer individuals) were suppressed to protect confidentiality (denoted by an "E" in the graphics and tables).

Questions that had 10% or greater "don't know" or "refused" responses are viewed as unreliable and not reported. Dependent questions were also not reported.

Reporting

Sometimes comparisons are made between results from the current RHS and other reports or research. They are not directly comparable. They may involve a different population, such as urban Aboriginal people. Or they may use a slightly different way of measuring concepts, sampling, study design or conducting analyses. While they provide useful context, results will not be directly comparable.

Throughout the provincial report there are green boxes, comparing results from RHS Phase 1 (2002-03) to RHS Phase 3 (2015-17, the current phase) and RHS Phase 2 (2008-10) to RHS Phase 3 (2015-17). This analysis, comparing differences between RHS phases, was not performed at the regional level. Differences may be statistically significant, however, it is a matter of judgment whether these differences are practically important.

Across graphs in this report, estimates for one category usually add to 100%, which reflects all responses. In some cases, this may add to slightly over (e.g., 101%) or slightly under (e.g., 99%) 100%. This is due to data rounding and estimates remain accurate.

Key Limitations

Although measures were taken to ensure that results speak to the whole province, there may be unique differences between communities that were not captured. Additionally, the RHS is voluntary. Selected communities and individuals could choose not to participate. These individuals may be different than those who participated.

Another data limitation is inherent reporting bias; for example, when participants choose a response that may be perceived as more "desirable" than what is true. This bias occurs within all survey research and is not unique to the RHS.

Depending on the number of surveys completed and the variability of responses, results may not be able to be reported due to low numbers or high coefficients of variation. Some regions had more surveys completed than others, enabling more complete reporting.

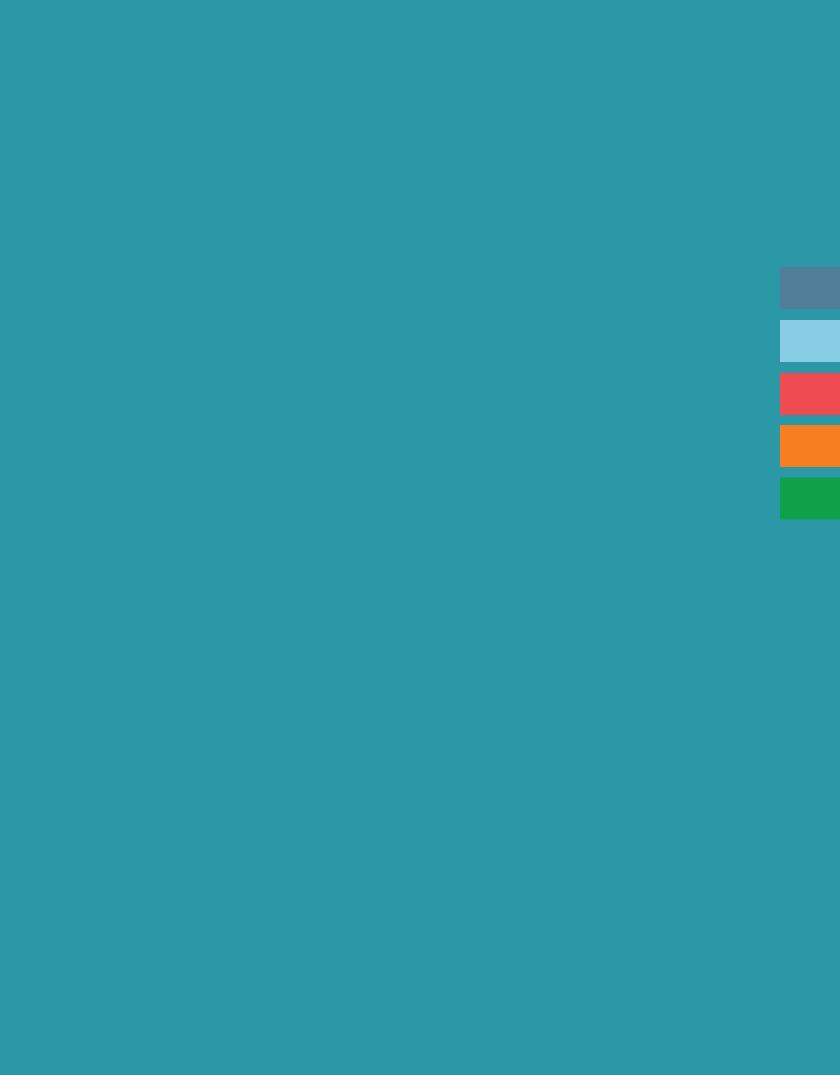


Appendix B: RESULTS

Appendix B contains a table that includes 95% confidence intervals for all of the results in the report.

The range indicated by a 95% confidence interval indicates the range that the true population value would fall within, with a 95% certainty. When we compare two groups, such as males and females, only if the confidence intervals do not overlap (include the same numbers), can we be sure that these groups are different.

Appendix B presents the 95% confidence intervals for all reported estimates and is available for download at www.fnha.ca/Documents/FNHA-Appendix-B-Table-of-RHS-Results-for-Fraser-Salish-British-Columbia-2019.pdf.





Published by: First Nations Health Authority 501 - 100 Park Royal South Coast Salish Territory West Vancouver, BC Canada V7T 1A2 www.fnha.ca | info@fnha.ca

ISBN 978-1-9995471-9-6