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# Women in the Labour Force 

1994 Edition

Target groups project

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## Housing. Family and Social Slatistica Division

## Women in the Labour Force 1994 Edition

## Target groups project

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## HIGHLIGHTS

- One of the most dramatic trends in Canadian society has been the growth in the labour force participation of women. In 1993, 58\% of all women aged 15 and over were labour force participants. In contrast, men's labour force participation declined over the same period, falling from $78 \%$ in 1975 to $73 \%$ in 1993.
- Most of the growth in the labour force participation of women has been accounted for by growth in employment. By 1993,51\% of all women aged 15 and over were working outside the home, up from $41 \%$ in 1975. Indeed, between 1975 and 1993, almost three-quarters of all growth in employment in Canada was due to the increase in the number of women working outside the home.
- There have also been significant shifts in the employment patterns of women in different age groups. Women between the ages of 25 and 54 are now the most likely to be employed. This is in contrast to the mid-1970s, when women aged 15-24 were more likely than older women to be working outside the home.
- Women are much more likely than men to work part-time. In 1993, 26\% of all women employed outside the home worked part-time. This compared with just $10 \%$ of employed men. Women accounted for $69 \%$ of all part-time employment in Canada in 1993, a figure that has changed little over the past two decades.
- Many women work part-time because they can not find full-time work. In 1993, over 500,000 women, $34 \%$ of female part-time workers, wanted but could not find, full-time employment. The latter figure was up from $20 \%$ in 1989.
- The majority of women employed outside the home continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 1993, $71 \%$ of all working women were employed in teaching, nursing and health-related occupations, clerical work, or sales and service occupations. This was down from 1982, however, when $78 \%$ of working women were in these occupations.
- Women have made gains in several professional occupations in which few women have worked in the past. In 1993, for example, women
accounted for $26 \%$ of all doctors, dentists, and other health-diagnosing and -treating professionals, up from $18 \%$ in 1982. There has also been a sharp increase in the proportion of women employed in management and administrative positions. On the other hand, women remain very much underrepresented among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineering and mathematics. There has also been little change in women's employment in most blue-collar occupations.
- Female labour force participants are currently less likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts. In 1993, the unemployment rate for women was more than a full percentage point below that of men: $10.6 \%$ versus $11.7 \%$. This is a change from the latter half of the 1980 s, when the unemployment rate of women was consistently a half to a full percentage point higher than that of men.
- Young women are currently considerably more likely than other women to be unemployed. In 1993, 15.0\% of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with $10.1 \%$ of those aged $25-44$ and $8.8 \%$ of those aged 45-64. Younger women, however, were not as affected by the recession as their male counterparts, $20.2 \%$ of whom were unemployed in 1993.
- Women active in the paid work force still earn substantially less than men. In 1992, women employed full-time, full-year earned just $72 \%$ the figure for their male counterparts. This, however, was up from $68 \%$ in 1990 and around $64 \%$ in the early 1980s.
- Women in professional and related occupations have considerably higher incomes than those in other occupational groups. Women's earnings, however, are significantly below those of men in all occupational categories.
- There have been significant increases in the proportion of women participating in the Canada/ Quebec Pension Plan, employer-sponsored pension plans and Registered Retirement Savings Plans. However, women are still less likely than men to be contributors to these various retirement funds.


## HIGHLIGHTS - concluded

- There has been sharp growth in the percentage of women with postsecondary qualifications in the last decade. At the same time, the proportion of women with low levels of educational attainment has declined.
- Women currently make up the majority of students in Canadian universities. In the 1991-92 academic year, 54\% of all university students were female, up from $49 \%$ in 1981-82 and $40 \%$ in 1972-73.
- Women's share of enrolment, however, declines the higher the level. In 1991-92, women made up 55\% of all students in bachelor's and first professional degree programs, compared with $48 \%$ of those in master's programs and just $36 \%$ of those working towards their doctorates.
- Women make up the majority of undergraduate students in most university faculties, except for mathematics, science and engineering. However, their share of enrolment declines the higher the academic level in all faculties.
- Women with postsecondary qualifications are more likely than other women to be active in the labour force and to be employed. They are also less likely than other women to work part-time or to be unemployed. As well, differences in educational attainment have a greater relationship to the labour force activity of women than that of men.
- The earnings of highly educated women are also significantly greater than those of other women. However, women's earnings are still considerably below those of men in all educational groups. In 1992, for example, the earnings of women with a university degree were less than three-quarters those of male university graduates.
- There has been very rapid growth in the labour force activity of married women, especially those with children. In 1993, 70\% of women with children less than age 16 were in the labour
force, up from $55 \%$ in 1981. However, women with pre-school-aged children are still less likely than other mothers to be in the labour force or to be employed. Women with children also are more likely than other women to work part-time.
- The growth in the labour participation of married women is also reflected in their increasingly important contribution to family income. By 1992, dual-earner families made up $61 \%$ of all two-spouse families, compared with just $33 \%$ in 1967. As a result, the earnings of wives represented $31 \%$ of family income from all sources in 1992, up from $26 \%$ in 1967.
- Even when employed, women continue to be responsible for most unpaid domestic work. In 1992, women who were active in the workplace devoted about two hours more per day than comparable men to household activities, including domestic work, primary child care and shopping.
- There has been a substantial increase in the number of day care spaces in Canada. However, the number of such spaces currently available meets only a portion of the child care requirements of Canadian families. In fact, most children are cared for in informal arrangements by people such as relatives, sitters or nannies.
- An increasing number of women are members of a union. By 1991, 31\% of employed women were union members. Nonetheless, employed women are still less likely to belong to a union than their male counterparts, $39 \%$ of whom were union members that year.
- The majority of women currently active in the paid work force believe they are exposed to some form of health hazard at work. In 1991, $61 \%$ of employed women indicated they were exposed to a health hazard on the job and $28 \%$ reported adverse health effects due to this exposure. Women, however, are less likely than men to report exposure to job-related health hazards and they are also less likely to report subsequent negative health impacts.

The increased involvement of women in the paid work force has been one of the most profound economic and social changes in Canada over the last several decades. In fact, women have accounted for most of the growth in both labour force participation and employment since the mid-1970s. As a result, women currently represent almost half of the Canadian work force.

While the proportion of women in the labour force has increased dramatically, several aspects of women's work experience have been slower to change. For example, while many women are entering occupations in which few women have worked in the past, most employed women are still concentrated in female-dominated occupations; women's earnings remain well below those of their male counterparts; and even when employed, women are still primarily responsible for housework and family care.

This report describes these and other trends related to women's participation in the labour force. The information presented here has been integrated from a variety of Statistics Canada sources to provide an overview of the labour force participation, employment, unemployment, earnings and employment benefits of women. The report also includes sections examining the changes in the educational attainment of women and the impact of these changes on their labour force activity; the relationship between women's work experience and their family responsibilities; and the exposure of women to perceived work-related health hazards. Finally, the report also includes lists of historical and legislative milestones central to the evolution of women's participation in the labour force over the last four decades.

The unpaid domestic work of women who are neither employed in the paid work force nor looking for work and whose main work activity is looking after their household is also discussed in this report. However, because this type of work is not generally covered by national labour market surveys, this section is brief.

Most of the information in this report has been taken from Statistics Canada publications, although a number of series include previously unpublished data from sources such as the Labour Force Survey, the Absence from Work Survey, the Survey of Consumer Finances, the General Social Survey and the National Child Care Study. Those seeking precise information on data comparability and data quality should consult the source publications directly or contact the Target Groups Project.

The information in this report generally is presented at the national level, although several provincial breakdowns are also included. In addition, historical data have been used to illustrate significant trends where applicable. As well, most series describing employed women are accompanied by "benchmark" comparisons with their male counterparts.

This report was prepared by Colin Lindsay, Target Groups Project Manager, with the assistance of Josée Normand and Marcia Almey. The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance of Cheryl Sarazin, Lisa Verdon, Lynne Durocher, Jill Reid, Renée Saumure, Alex Solis, and lan Kisbee in the preparation and distribution of this report. The Target Groups Project also gratefully acknowledges the assistance of Debra Sunter, whose insightful comments were invaluable in preparing this report.

Questions or comments pertaining to this report should be addressed to Colin Lindsay, Target Groups Project, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A OT6 or by calling (613) 951-2603.

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## LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

One of the most dramatic trends in Canadian society has been the growth in the labour force participation of women. Despite this trend and the fact that male labour force participation has declined over much of the same period, women are still considerably less likely than men to be in the labour force.

Labour force participants include people who are employed, as well as those who are unemployed, that is, they are out of work but looking for work. However, women who are neither employed outside the home nor looking for employment and whose main activity is keeping house are not included, as they are not currently covered by national labour market surveys. It should also be noted that because most female labour force participants are employed, many of the trends in this section are similar to those reported in the section dealing with employment.

## Rise in labour force participation

In 1993, 6.3 million women, $58 \%$ of all women aged 15 and over, were active in the labour force. The latter figure was up from $44 \%$ in 1975. In contrast, the labour force participation rate among men declined over the same period, falling from $78 \%$ in 1975 to $73 \%$ in 1993. As a result of these trends, women made up $45 \%$ of all people active in the labour force in 1993, compared with $37 \%$ in 1975. (Table 1.1)

The percentage of women in the labour force, though, has fallen somewhat in recent years as a result of the overall downturn in the economy. In 1993, $57.5 \%$ of women were in the labour force, down close to a full percentage point from $58.4 \%$ in 1990. However, the labour force participation rate of men declined even more in the same period, falling almost 3 percentage points from $75.9 \%$ in 1990 to $73.3 \%$ in 1993. Despite these shifts, the participation rate of women remains well below that of men.

## Provinclal variation

There is considerable variation in the labour force participation rates of women across the country, with women in Ontario and the Western provinces generally more likely than those in the other provinces to be active in the labour force. In 1993, $64 \%$ of women in Alberta were labour force participants, along with $60 \%$ of those in Ontario, $59 \%$ in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan, and 58\% in British Columbia. A similar percentage of women
in Prince Edward Island ( $60 \%$ ) were also in the labour force in 1993. In contrast, the labour force participation rates of women in the remaining provinces ranged from only 54\% in Quebec to just $46 \%$ in Newfoundland. (Table 1.2)

Provincial differences in the labour force participation rates of women are similar to those of men, although women are much less likely than men to be labour force participants in all provinces. In 1993, the difference between the labour force participation rates of women and men ranged from 12 percentage points in Prince Edward Island to 17 percentage points in Quebec. These gaps, however, are significantly smaller than those recorded in the mid-1970s, when the labour force participation rates of women were 30 to 40 percentage points below those of men in all provinces.

## Age differences

The drop in the labour force participation rate of women in the early 1990s was accounted for almost exclusively by a decline in participation among young women. In fact, between 1990 and 1993, the labour force participation rate of women aged $15-24$ fell by more than 5 percentage points. The figure for women aged 25-44 also declined slightly in this period. In contrast, the labour force participation rate of women aged $45-54$ rose about 3 percentage points between 1990 and 1993, while that of women aged 55-64 also increased slightly. (Chart 1.1)

These recent trends in women's labour force participation contrast with changes that occurred in the previous decade and a half, when labour force participation increased among women in all age groups under the age of 65. Indeed, between 1975 and 1990, the proportion of women aged 25-44 active in the labour force rose 25 percentage points, while there were increases of 23 percentage points among 45-54-year-old women, 10 among 15-24-yearolds and 5 percentage points among women aged 55-64. (Table 1.3)

As a result of these shifts, women between the ages of 25 and 54 are currently more likely than other women to be in the labour force. In 1993, 77\% of women aged 25-44 and $72 \%$ of those aged 45-54 were involved in the labour force. These figures compared with $61 \%$ of women aged 15-24 and just $36 \%$ of those aged 55-64. The fact that women in the 25-54 age range are now the most likely to be active in the labour force represents a notable

Chart 1.1

## Labour force participation rates of women, by age group, 1990 and 1993



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529
change from the mid-1970s, when women aged 15-24 had the highest female labour force participation rate.

However, women in all age ranges are still less likely than their male counterparts to participate in the labour force. For example, $77 \%$ of women aged 25-44 were in the labour force in 1993, compared with $92 \%$ of men in this age range. Among 45-54-year-olds, $72 \%$ of women, versus $90 \%$ of men, were labour force participants. Both these differences were less than half what they had been in 1975, as rates for women in these age groups have risen, while those for men have declined.

The labour force participation rate of women aged $55-64,36 \%$ in 1993, was also well below that of men in the pre-retirement years, $61 \%$ of whom were labour force participants that year. It is also interesting to note that while the participation rate of women in this age range increased from $31 \%$ to $36 \%$ between 1975 and 1993, the rate among men of this age dropped significantly, from $79 \%$ to $61 \%$, in the same period.

There is a much smaller difference in the labour force participation rates of $15-24$-year-old women and men. In 1993, 61\% of women in this age group, compared with $66 \%$ of men, were labour force participants. As in other age groups, however, the gap between the participation rates of women and men aged 15-24 has closed since the mid-1970s, when $57 \%$ of women in this age range, versus $69 \%$ of men, were in the labour force.

## Women not in the labour force

Although women have been entering the labour force in great numbers over the past several decades, many more women than men are still not participating in the labour force, that is, they are neither employed in the paid work force nor looking for work. In 1993, 3 million women, $32 \%$ of all those aged 15-64, were not in the labour force. In contrast, just 1.6 million men, $18 \%$ of all males aged 15-64, were not active in the labour force. (Table 1.4)

Women aged 25-44 are less likely than other women to be out of the labour force. In 1993, 23\% of women aged 25-44 were not active in the labour force, compared with $43 \%$ of those aged 45-64 and $39 \%$ of 15-24-year-olds.

Despite the fact that wornen aged $25-44$ were less likely than other women to be out of the labour force, women in this age range were almost three times more likely than their male contemporaries, $23 \%$ versus $8 \%$, to be non-labour force participants in 1993. Women aged 45-64 were also considerably more likely than their male counterparts to be out of the labour force that year: $43 \%$ compared to $22 \%$. There was a much smaller gap between the labour force participation rates of women and men aged $15-24$, although at $39 \%$, the proportion of these women not in the labour force was still greater than that for men in this age range ( $34 \%$ ).

## Reasons for not participating

Roughly half of women currently not active in the labour force have either not worked outside the home within the last five years or have never been a member of the paid work force. In 1993, 32\% of female non-participants aged 15-64 had not worked for wages within the preceding five-year period and $19 \%$ had never worked outside the home. (Table 1.4)

Of the remaining women who were not active in the labour force in 1993, 16\% had either lost their last job or been laid off, 9\% had left their last job because of personal responsibilities, $8 \%$ had left work to go back to school, $6 \%$ had left their last job because of illness, 4\% had retired, while 7\% cited other reasons.

The reasons why women not in the labour force left their last job differ from those reported by male nonparticipants. Women not in the labour force in 1993, for example, were twice as likely as men to have not worked for wages within the preceding five-year period. They were also more likely to have left their
last job because of personal responsibilities. On the other hand, these women were less likely than men to have lost, or been laid off from their last job, to have left work to return to school, to have retired or to have left their last job because of illness.

The reasons why women are not active in the labour force also vary by age. Women aged $45-64$ who are not in the labour force, for example, were far more likely than younger women to have not worked outside the home within the last five years. Not surprisingly, they were also more likely than their younger counterparts to have retired.

In contrast, women who had left work to return to school accounted for a relatively large proportion of $15-24$-year-old women not active in the labour force, whereas this category accounted for very small percentages of female non-participants aged 25 and over. At the same time, female non-participants aged 25-44 were more likely than women in other age groups to have lost, or been laid off from their last job. They were also the most likely to have left their last job because of personal responsibilities.

Table 1.1
Labour force participation, 1975-1993

|  |  |  |  |  | Women as \% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | labour force |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1975 | 3,680 | 6,294 | 44.4 | 78.4 | 36.9 |
| 1976 | 3,836 | 6,368 | 45.2 | 77.6 | 37.6 |
| 1977 | 3,996 | 6,505 | 46.0 | 77.7 | 38.1 |
| 1978 | 4,239 | 6,657 | 47.9 | 78.1 | 38.9 |
| 1979 | 4,420 | 6,811 | 49.0 | 78.5 | 39.4 |
| 1980 | 4,638 | 6,935 | 50.4 | 78.4 | 40.1 |
| 1981 | 4,849 | 7,051 | 51.7 | 78.4 | 40.8 |
| 1982 | 4,916 | 7,009 | 51.7 | 77.0 | 41.2 |
| 1983 | 5,057 | 7,052 | 52.6 | 76.7 | 41.8 |
| 1984 | 5,216 | 7.100 | 53.6 | 76.6 | 42.4 |
| 1985 | 5,365 | 7,167 | 54.6 | 76.6 | 42.8 |
| 1986 | 5,502 | 7,244 | 55.3 | 76.6 | 43.2 |
| 1987 | 5,679 | 7,332 | 56.4 | 76.6 | 43.6 |
| 1988 | 5,853 | 7.422 | 57.4 | 76.6 | 44.1 |
| 1989 | 5,978 | 7,525 | 57.9 | 76.7 | 44.3 |
| 1990 | 6,119 | 7,561 | 58.4 | 75.9 | 44.7 |
| 1991 | 6,188 | 7.569 | 58.2 | 74.8 | 45.0 |
| 1992 | 6,215 | 7,582 | 57.6 | 73.8 | 45.0 |
| 1993 | 6,297 | 7.649 | 57.5 | 73.3 | 45.2 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 1.2
Labour force participation rates, by province, 1975-1993

|  | 197 |  | 198 |  | 199 |  | 199 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Newroundland | 31.2 | 67.1 | 42.1 | 64.3 | 48.2 | 63.9 | 46.0 | 59.9 |
| Prince Edward Island | 41.4 | 72.2 | 51.7 | 71.8 | 59.0 | 73.4 | 59.5 | 71.3 |
| Nova Scotia | 39.1 | 72.5 | 48.0 | 70.5 | 53.8 | 71.1 | 52.5 | 67.7 |
| New Brunswick | 38.0 | 70.0 | 46.5 | 67.5 | 51.8 | 68.3 | 52.0 | 66.3 |
| Quebec | 40.1 | 77.8 | 50.2 | 74.8 | 54.6 | 74.7 | 53.7 | 71.1 |
| Ontario | 48.6 | 80.3 | 58.1 | 78.7 | 61.4 | 77.8 | 59.5 | 74.7 |
| Manitoba | 43.4 | 79.0 | 55.8 | 76.4 | 59.4 | 76.2 | 59.0 | 74.5 |
| Saskatchewan | 40.3 | 78.0 | 54.9 | 77.9 | 57.8 | 76.0 | 58.7 | 74.8 |
| Alberta | $49.6$ | 82.4 | 61.4 | $82.4$ | $63.8$ | 80.6 | $64.2$ | 78.9 |
| British Columbia | 45.2 | 77.2 | 54.0 | 75.4 | 58.1 | 74.3 | 57.9 | 73.7 |
| Canada | 44.4 | 78.4 | 54.6 | 76.6 | 58.4 | 75.9 | 57.5 | 73.3 |

Source: Statistics Canada. Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 1.3
Labour force participation rates, by age group, 1975-1993

|  | 1975 |  | 1985 |  | 1990 |  | 1993 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Aged: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $15-24$ | 56.8 | 68.8 | 64.9 | 69.9 | 66.6 | 71.1 | 61.1 | 65.5 |
| $25-44$ | 52.3 | 95.6 | 70.8 | 94.6 | 77.7 | 94.0 | 77.1 | 92.3 |
| 45.54 | 46.1 | 92.7 | 61.2 | 91.1 | 68.7 | 91.0 | 71.8 | 89.7 |
| 55-64 | 30.8 | 79.3 | 33.8 | 70.1 | 35.7 | 64.9 | 36.4 | 60.9 |
| 65 and over | 4.9 | 18.5 | 4.3 | 12.4 | 3.8 | 11.4 | 3.7 | 10.2 |
| Total | 44.4 | 78.4 | 54.6 | 76.6 | 58.4 | 75.9 | 57.5 | 73.3 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 1.4
Reasons non-labour force participants left last job, by age group, 1993

|  | Women aged |  |  |  | Men aged |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 | 25-44 | 45-64 | Total 15-64 | $15 \cdot 24$ | 25-44 | 45-64 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { Total } \\ 15-64 \end{array}$ |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lost job/laid off | 15.3 | 21.3 | 11.3 | 15.8 | 18.8 | 42.3 | 15.8 | 22.6 |
| Personal responsibilities | 6.8 | 17.5 | 2.2 | 8.6 | 0.9 | 1.7 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| Going 10 school | 27.6 | 3.8 | 0.2 | 8.0 | 34.8 | 10.8 | 0.2 | 16.4 |
| Retired |  |  | 9.2 | 3.9 |  | ... | 28.6 | 11.0 |
| Own illness | 1.7 | 6.2 | 7.2 | 5.5 | 1.4 | 14.9 | 15.3 | 9.6 |
| Had not worked in last |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 years | 1.1 | 31.3 | 51.6 | 32.4 | $\because$ | 13.4 | 34.0 | 16.0 |
| Never worked | 39.9 | 10.7 | 13.9 | 19.0 | 38.6 | 8.2 | 2.3 | 18.3 |
| Other reasons | 7.7 | 8.9 | 4.6 | 6.9 | 5.2 | 8.2 | 3.2 | 5.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Total not in labour force (000s) | 711 | 1,044 | 1,228 | 2,983 | 655 | 343 | 618 | 1,617 |
| \% of population not in labour force | 38.9 | 22.9 | 1,228 | 32.4 | 34.4 | 7.7 | 22.4 | 17.7 |

[^0]
## EMPLOYMENT

Women have accounted for most of the growth in employment in Canada in the past several decades. Despite this, they are still less likely than men to be in the paid work force. As well, women are much more likely than men to work part-time and they remain overrepresented in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated.

Employed people include those working for pay or profit, as well as a small number of unpaid family workers who contribute directly to the operation of a farm, business or professional practice. Again, however, women who are neither employed nor looking for work and whose main activity is keeping house are not included, as they are not currently covered by national labour market surveys.

## More women employed

Between 1975 and 1993, the total number of women employed in the paid work force rose 2.2 million, from 3.4 to 5.6 million. As a result, by 1993, just over half ( $51 \%$ ) of all women aged 15 and over were working outside the home, up substantially from $41 \%$ in 1975. (Table 2.1)

The number of men with jobs also increased in this period, rising by just under a million from 5.9 to 6.8 million. However, the proportion of men with jobs actually declined sharply between 1975 and 1993, falling from $74 \%$ to $65 \%$.

Overall, the increase in the number of women working outside the home represented almost threequarters ( $73 \%$ ) of all growth in employment in the 1975-1993 period. As a result, women made up $45 \%$ of all those with jobs in 1993, compared with $36 \%$ in 1975. In spite of these trends, however, the proportion of women employed outside the home in $1993,51 \%$, was still well below the figure for men (65\%).

As with labour force participation rates, the proportion of women with jobs has fallen during the recessionary period in the early 1990s. In 1993, $51 \%$ of women were employed, down from a high of $54 \%$ in 1990. This decline, though, was less severe than that experienced by men, among whom the percentage with jobs fell from a peak of $71 \%$ in 1989 to $65 \%$ in 1993.

This pattern is similar to that which characterized the economic downturn in the early 1980s, when the percentage of women with jobs dropped slightly,
while that of men fell sharply. In contrast, the proportion of women with jobs resumed its dramatic growth during the expansionary years between the two recessions, while the percentage of men working climbed much more slowly in the same period.

## Provinclal distribution

As with men, women living in Ontario and the Western provinces are much more likely to be employed than those in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces. In 1993, 58\% of women in Alberta, 54\% in Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Ontario, and $52 \%$ in British Columbia were employed. In contrast, the level of female employment was under $50 \%$ in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces. In fact, just 37\% of women in Newfoundland were employed in 1993, while the figures were $49 \%$ in Prince Edward Island, $47 \%$ in Quebec and $46 \%$ in both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. (Table 2.2)

Women are considerably less likely than men to be employed in all provinces, with the gap in 1993 ranging from 14 percentage points in Quebec, British Columbia and Saskatchewan to 9 percentage points in Prince Edward Island. However, the differences between the percentages of women and men with jobs have closed dramatically in all provinces since the mid-1970s, when women were from 30 to 40 percentage points less likely than men to be employed in all provinces.

## Age and employment

As with labour force participation, most of the recent drop in the percentage of women with jobs was accounted for by declines in employment among young women. Between 1989 and 1993, the proportion of women aged 15-24 with jobs fell 9 percentage points, from $61 \%$ to $52 \%$. In contrast, the percentage of women aged 45-54 with jobs continued to rise through the early 1990s, while there were small declines of around 1 to 2 percentage points in the proportions of women aged 25-44 and $55-64$ with jobs. (Table 2.3)

There was also considerable variation in employment trends of women in different age groups in the decade and a half prior to the most recent recession, although the proportion of women with jobs rose in all these groups during this period. Between 1975 and 1990, the proportion of women aged 25-44 employed outside the home rose 23 percentage points, while there was an increase of 21 percentage
points among women aged 45-54. In contrast, the figures rose just 9 percentage points among 15-24-year-olds and only 4 percentage points among those aged 55-64.

As a result of these changes, women between the ages of 25 and 54 are currently more likely than other women to be employed. In 1993, 69\% of women aged 25-44 and $66 \%$ of those aged 45-54 worked for pay or profit, whereas the figures were $52 \%$ for women aged 15-24 and $33 \%$ for those aged 55-64.

The fact that women in the $25-54$ age range are now more likely than other women to be employed represents a major change from the mid-1970s, when women aged 15-24 were more likely than older women to be working outside the home.

Despite increases in their employment levels in the last several decades, women in the 25-54 age range are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be part of the paid work force. In 1993, $69 \%$ of $25-44$-year-old women and $66 \%$ of those aged 45-54 were employed, compared with $82 \%$ of men in both age groups. However, these gaps have closed significantly since the mid-1970s, when the proportions of women aged 25-44 and 45-54 with jobs were only about half those of men in these age groups.

Women aged 55-64 are also considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed: $33 \%$ versus $55 \%$ in 1993. The proportion of these women with jobs, though, has grown in the last two decades, rising from $29 \%$ in 1975 to $33 \%$ in 1993, whereas the figure among men in this age range has fallen sharply, from $76 \%$ to just $55 \%$, in the same period.

On the other hand, there is currently no difference in the percentages of women and men aged 15-24 with jobs. In 1993, 52\% of both were working for pay or profit. This also represents a change from the mid1970s, when these young women were less likely than their male counterparts to be employed.

## More women working part-time

A relatively large proportion of employed women work part-time. In 1993, 1.5 million women, $26 \%$ of all those employed for pay or profit, worked parttime, that is, they worked less than 30 hours a week at all jobs. In comparison, just 10\% of employed men worked part-time. (Table 2.4)

Part-time work among women has generally risen during periods of slow economic growth and fallen in
expansionary periods. For example, between 1990 and 1993, the percentage of women working parttime rose from $24 \%$ to $26 \%$, whereas it had fallen by a similar amount in the years between 1983 and 1989.

The proportion of employed men working part-time has also increased significantly in recent years, rising from around $8 \%$ in the late 1980s to $10 \%$ in 1993. Women, though, are still much more likely than men to work part-time. Indeed, women accounted for $69 \%$ of all part-time employment in 1993, a figure that has changed little over the past two decades.

Young women are more likely than other women to work part-time. In fact, in 1993, almost half ( $48 \%$ ) of employed women aged 15-24 worked part-time, compared with $25 \%$ of those aged 45 and over and $21 \%$ of those aged 25-44. Women in these older age ranges, however, were far more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time, whereas there was a much smaller difference in the proportions of young women and men employed part-time. (Table 2.5)

## More involuntary part-time work

Many women employed part-time do so because they can not find full-time work. In 1993, over 500,000 women, $34 \%$ of all female part-time workers, indicated that they wanted full-time employment, but could only find part-time work. (Table 2.6)

The recent recession had a particularly dramatic effect on the proportion of women working part-time involuntarily. In 1993, 34\% of female part-time workers wanted, but could not find, full-time work, up from $20 \%$ in 1989. (Chart 2.1)

At the same time, though, many women work parttime either because they do not want full-time employment or because part-time work is more appropriate for their personal situation. In 1993, 32\% of women employed part-time reported they did not want to work full-time, while $21 \%$ indicated they were going to school and $11 \%$ said they worked part-time because of personal or family responsibilities.

Not surprisingly, the reasons women work part-time vary according to age. Women aged 25-44, for example, are more likely than other women to work part-time because they cannot find full-time work. In 1993, $40 \%$ of female part-time workers in this age bracket, compared with $32 \%$ of those aged 45 and over and $28 \%$ of those aged 15-24, wanted, but could not find, full-time employment.

Chart 2.1


Women aged 25-44 were also the most likely to work part-time because of personal or family responsibilities. In contrast, the majority ( $62 \%$ ) of women aged 15-24 working part-time in 1993 did so because they were going to school, while most female part-timers aged 45 and over did not want full-time employment (58\%).

## Most in service industries

The vast majority of women employed outside the home work in the service sector ${ }^{1}$ of the economy. In 1993, $86 \%$ of all employed women held jobs in this industrial sector, compared with $63 \%$ of employed men. In fact, women currently make up the majority, $53 \%$ in 1993, of all service-sector workers. (Table 2.7)

In contrast, only $14 \%$ of working women, versus $37 \%$ of men, worked in goods-producing industries ${ }^{2}$ in 1993. As such, women represented only $24 \%$ of total employment in these industries that year, although this was up from around $20 \%$ in the mid1970s. Indeed, while women are still underrepresented in the goods-producing sector, they actually accounted for all the growth in these industries over the last two decades. Between 1975 and 1993, the number of women working in the goods-producing sector increased $26 \%$, while the number of men declined $2 \%$.

## Industrial sector and part-time work

Women employed in the service sector are almost twice as likely as those involved in the goodsproducing industries to work part-time. In 1993, 28\% of female senvice-sector workers, versus $15 \%$ of those in the goods-producing industries, worked parttime hours. (Chart 2.2)

Women in both industrial sectors, however, are considerably more likely than their male co-workers to work part-time. In 1993, female service-sector workers were over twice as likely as their male counterparts to work part-time: $28 \%$ versus 13\%; while women employed in the goods-producing industries were almost four times more likely than men to be part-timers: $15 \%$ versus $4 \%$.

## Most still In traditional occupations

The majority of women employed outside the home continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 1993, 71\% of all working women were employed in teaching, nursing and health-related occupations, clerical work, or sales and service occupations. This compared with just $31 \%$ of employed men. The percentage of women currently employed in these areas, however, was down from 1982, when $78 \%$ of working women were in these occupations. (Table 2.8)

Chart 2.2


Women make up very large components of the total work force in each of these occupational groups. In 1993, $86 \%$ of nurses and health-related therapists, $80 \%$ of clerks, $66 \%$ of teachers, $57 \%$ of service personnel and $45 \%$ of salespersons were women.

## Gains In other professions

Women have made gains in several professional occupations in which few women have been employed in the past. In 1993, women accounted for $26 \%$ of all doctors, dentists and other healthdiagnosing and -treating professionals, up from $18 \%$ in 1982. The current figure, though, is still well below women's share of total employment ( $45 \%$ ). It also pales in comparison with the fact that women make up $86 \%$ of nurses, therapists, and other medical assistants and technologists.

There has also been a sharp increase in the proportion women employed in management and administrative positions. In 1993, 42\% of those working in these categories were women, up from $29 \%$ in 1982. It should be noted that some of this increase may actually be attributable to changes in occupational definitions. Even without this artificial boost, however, there was considerable growth in women's employment in these areas.

Women also make up an increasing share of those employed in occupations in the social sciences and religion. In fact, women currently constitute the majority, $56 \%$ in 1993, of people in these professions, whereas they made up only $43 \%$ in 1982.

On the other hand, women remain very much underrepresented among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineoring and mathematics. In 1993, just $18 \%$ of people employed in these fields were women, up only slightly from $15 \%$ in 1982.

## Few in blue-collar jobs

Women also remain underrepresented in several goods-producing occupations in which traditionally few women have worked. In 1993, only around 20\% of those employed in primary occupations, materialhandling jobs and in manufacturing were women. They also represented just $9 \%$ of all workers in transportation and equipment-operating occupations and only $2 \%$ of those in construction trades. As well, there has been little change in women's share of employment in these occupations in the past decade.

## Part-time work by occupation

Women employed part-time account for a significant proportion of the female work force in most occupational groups. In 1993, around $40 \%$ of women in both service and sales occupations worked part-time, as did $36 \%$ of those employed in transportation, $32 \%$ in primary occupations, $29 \%$ in construction and $26 \%$ in clerical positions. In contrast, only $9 \%$ of women involved in manufacturing, 19\% of those in managerial or professional positions, and $20 \%$ in material-handling jobs worked part-time. Women are also much more likely than men to work part-time in all occupational categories. (Table 2.9)

## Few self-employed

Women are very much underrepresented among people who are self-employed. In 1993, a total of 590,000 women, $10 \%$ of all employed women, worked for themselves. In comparison, $20 \%$ of all male workers were self-employed.

There has, however, been a relatively sharp increase in the number of women running their own businesses in the last decade. Between 1981 and 1993, the number of self-employed women almost doubled, rising from 323,000 to 590,000 . This represented nearly half ( $48 \%$ ) of all growth in selfemployment in this period. As a result, women represented $31 \%$ of all self-employed workers in 1993, up from $24 \%$ in 1981. (Table 2.10)

Women are underrepresented among self-employed people who are incorporated, as well as those who are not incorporated. In 1993, women made up just $20 \%$ of incorporated self-employed workers and only $36 \%$ of those owning unincorporated businesses. However, both these figures are up from 1981, when $14 \%$ of incorporated self-employed workers and $28 \%$ of those who were unincorporated were women.

On the other hand, women make up the vast majority of unpaid family workers. In 1993, three-quarters of all these workers were women, although the actual number of women in this category, 54,000, represented just $1 \%$ of total female employment that year.

## Less tenure

Women tend to have less tenure at their job than men. In 1993, employed women had been at the same job or business an average of 81 months, compared with 108 months for men. (Table 2.11)

Not surprisingly, older women tend to have greater job tenure than their younger counterparts. In 1993, employed women aged 45 and over had been at the same job an average of 137 months, compared with 73 months for women aged 25-44 and just 20 months for those aged 15-24.

Women aged 45 and over, however, have considerably less tenure on average than men in this age group: 137 months versus 192 months in 1993. Women under age 45 also have less tenure than men in comparable age ranges, although these differences are much smaller than those characteristic of older workers. The fact that women in general, and older women in particular, have less tenure on average than men may result, in part because, traditionally, many women have interrupted their work activity in order to raise a family.

1 The service industries include trade; finance, insurance and real estate; business, educational, and health and social services; accommodation, and food and beverage services; other services; public administration; transportation; and communications.
2 The goods-producing industries include agriculture; resource-based industries such as mining, forestry and fishing; manufacturing; construction; and utilities.

Table 2.1
Total employment, 1975-1993

|  | Women |  | Men |  | Women |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total employment 000s | \% of women employed | Total employment 000s | \% of men employed | total employment |
| 1975 | 3,381 | 40.8 | 5,903 | 73.5 | 36.4 |
| 1976 | 3,513 | 41.4 | 5,964 | 72.7 | 37.1 |
| 1977 | 3,619 | 41.7 | 6,032 | 72.0 | 37.4 |
| 1978 | 3,830 | 43.3 | 6,156 | 72.2 | 38.4 |
| 1979 | 4,033 | 44.7 | 6.362 | 73.3 | 38.8 |
| 1980 | 4,249 | 46.2 | 6,459 | 73.0 | 39.7 |
| 1981 | 4,445 | 47.4 | 6,556 | 72.9 | 40.4 |
| 1982 | 4,382 | 46.1 | 6,236 | 68.5 | 41.3 |
| 1983 | 4,472 | 46.5 | 6,203 | 67.5 | 41.9 |
| 1984 | 4,624 | 47.6 | 6,308 | 68.0 | 42.3 |
| 1985 | 4,794 | 48.8 | 6,428 | 68.7 | 42.7 |
| 1986 | 4,964 | 49.9 | 6,567 | 69.5 | 43.1 |
| 1987 | 5,152 | 51.2 | 6,709 | 70.1 | 43.4 |
| 1988 | 5,368 | 52.6 | 6,876 | 70.9 | 43.8 |
| 1989 | 5,508 | 53.3 | 6.977 | 71.1 | 44.1 |
| 1990 | 5,624 | 53.7 | 6,948 | 69.8 | 44.7 |
| 1991 | 5,589 | 52.6 | 6,751 | 66.7 | 45.3 |
| 1992 | 5,568 | 51.6 | 6,672 | 65.0 | 45.4 |
| 1993 | 5,630 | 51.4 | 6,753 | 64.7 | 45.4 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.2
Percentage employed, by province, 1975-1993

|  | 1975 |  | 1985 |  | 1990 |  | 1993 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nowfoundland | 26.6 | 57.9 | 33.5 | 50.9 | 40.0 | 52.9 | 36.9 | 47.5 |
| Prince Edward Istend | 37.4 | 67.1 | 44.7 | 62.4 | 50.1 | 62.7 | 49.1 | 58.5 |
| Nova Scotia | 35.7 | 67.3 | 41.3 | 61.1 | 48.1 | 63.7 | 45.5 | 57.1 |
| New Brunswick | 33.7 | 63.8 | 39.9 | 56.8 | 45.4 | 60.1 | 45.7 | 57.7 |
| Quebec | 36.5 | 72.0 | 44.1 | 66.0 | 49.0 | 67.1 | 47.2 | 61.3 |
| Ontario | 44.8 | 76.0 | 53.2 | 72.7 | 57.6 | 72.9 | 53.6 | 66.4 |
| Manitoba | 41.0 | 75.9 | 51.1 | 70.4 | 55.3 | 70.5 | 54.0 | 67.2 |
| Saskatchewan | 38.5 | 76.4 | 50.2 | 71.8 | 54.0 | 70.5 | 54.4 | 68.4 |
| Alberta | 47.0 | 79.6 | 55.2 | 74.2 | 59.1 | 75.1 | 58.0 | 71.4 |
| British Columbia | 41.0 | 71.1 | 46.5 | 64.7 | 53.2 | 68.3 | 52.4 | 66.5 |
| Canada | 40.8 | 73.5 | 48.8 | 68.7 | 53.7 | 69.8 | 51.4 | 64.7 |

Sounce: Statistics Canada. Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.3
Percentage employed, by age group, 1975-1993

|  | People aged |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 |  | 25-44 |  | 45-54 |  | 55-64 |  |
|  | Woman | Men | Wornen | Men | Women | Men | Wornen | Men |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1975 | 50.3 | 60.2 | 48.6 | 91.4 | 43.5 | 89.2 | 29.3 | 76.2 |
| 1976 | 50.0 | 58.9 | 49.6 | 91.3 | 45.6 | 89.2 | 30.5 | 73.6 |
| 1977 | 49.6 | 58.7 | 50.9 | 90.5 | 46.0 | 88.4 | 30.4 | 72.6 |
| 1978 | 50.8 | 59.3 | 53.6 | 90.5 | 47.7 | 88.6 | 30.9 | 72.5 |
| 1979 | 53.2 | 61.9 | 55.3 | 91.3 | 49.0 | 89.0 | 32.3 | 73.0 |
| 1980 | 54.7 | 62.0 | 57.9 | 90.6 | 50.7 | 88.8 | 32.0 | 72.9 |
| 1981 | 55.4 | 62.1 | 60.2 | 90.6 | 52.6 | 88.9 | 32.2 | 71.8 |
| 1982 | 52.2 | 54.7 | 59.3 | 86.0 | 52.1 | 85.6 | 31.6 | 68.4 |
| 1983 | 52.2 | 53.8 | 60.3 | 84.6 | 53.5 | 85.3 | 30.9 | 66.4 |
| 1984 | 53.5 | 56.3 | 62.3 | 84.9 | 54.0 | 84.4 | 30.8 | 65.2 |
| 1985 | 55.5 | 57.2 | 63.6 | 86.1 | 56.5 | 85.0 | 31.2 | 64.2 |
| 1986 | 56.8 | 59.4 | 66.3 | 86.7 | 56.3 | 86.1 | 31.0 | 63.5 |
| 1987 | 58.2 | 61.1 | 67.7 | 87.3 | 59.1 | 87.0 | 32.4 | 62.0 |
| 1988 | 59.6 | 62.9 | 69.5 | 88.3 | 62.0 | 87.1 | 33.3 | 62.4 |
| 1989 | 60.6 | 64.0 | 70.6 | 88.2 | 63.6 | 87.4 | 32.3 | 61.9 |
| 1990 | 59.0 | 61.2 | 71.6 | 87.0 | 64.4 | 85.9 | 33.7 | 60.9 |
| 1991 | 56.4 | 56.0 | 70.6 | 83.7 | 64.4 | 84.3 | 32.9 | 57.2 |
| 1992 | 53.5 | 53.4 | 69.2 | 81.7 | 65.3 | 82.8 | 33.3 | 56.0 |
| 1993 | 51.9 | 52.3 | 69.3 | 82.2 | 65.6 | 82.4 | 33.0 | 54.9 |

Source: Statistics Cenada, Calalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.4
Part-time employment, 1975-1993

|  | Women employed part-time 000 s | $\%$ of women employed part-time ${ }^{1}$ | \% of men employed part-time ${ }^{1}$ | Women as \% of total part-time employment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1975 | 687 | 20.3 | 5.1 | 69.5 |
| 1976 | 741 | 21.1 | 5.1 | 70.8 |
| 1977 | 800 | 22.1 | 5.4 | 70.9 |
| 1978 | 867 | 22.6 | 5.5 | 71.9 |
| 1979 | 938 | 23.3 | 5.7 | 72.1 |
| 1980 | 1,011 | 23.8 | 5.9 | 72.6 |
| 1981 | 1,074 | 24.2 | 6.3 | 72.3 |
| 1982 | 1,100 | 25.1 | 6.9 | 72.0 |
| 1983 | 1,169 | 26.1 | 7.6 | 71.3 |
| 1984 | 1,187 | 25.7 | 7.6 | 71.2 |
| 1985 | 1,251 | 26.1 | 7.6 | 72.0 |
| 1986 | 1,274 | 25.7 | 7.8 | 71.2 |
| 1987 | 1,294 | 25.1 | 7.6 | 71.7 |
| 1988 | 1,355 | 25.2 | 7.7 | 72.0 |
| 1989 | 1,352 | 24.5 | 7.7 | 71.6 |
| 1990 | 1,371 | 24.4 | 8.1 | 71.0 |
| 1991 | 1,425 | 25.4 | 8.8 | 70.4 |
| 1992 | 1,440 | 25.9 | 9.3 | 70.0 |
| 1993 | 1,485 | 26.4 | 9.7 | 69.3 |

1 Expressed as a percentage of total employed.
Source: Statistics Canada, Calalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.5
Percentage employed part-time, by age group, 1975-1993

|  |  |  |  | Peo |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1975 | 22.2 | 17.1 | 18.9 | 0.9 | 20.4 | 2.9 | 20.3 | 5.1 |
| 1976 | 24.0 | 17.4 | 18.8 | 0.9 | 21.3 | 2.9 | 21.1 | 5.1 |
| 1977 | 24.8 | 18.2 | 19.9 | 1.1 | 22.8 | 3.1 | 22.1 | 5.4 |
| 1978 | 25.7 | 18.2 | 20.1 | 1.1 | 23.7 | 3.4 | 22.6 | 5.5 |
| 1979 | 26.8 | 18.6 | 20.4 | 1.0 | 24.2 | 3.6 | 23.3 | 5.7 |
| 1980 | 27.3 | 19.4 | 20.8 | 1.1 | 25.3 | 3.6 | 23.8 | 5.9 |
| 1981 | 28.3 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 1.3 | 25.7 | 3.7 | 24.2 | 6.3 |
| 1982 | 31.4 | 24.3 | 21.1 | 1.7 | 26.4 | 4.1 | 25.1 | 6.9 |
| 1983 | 33.6 | 26.4 | 21.9 | 2.2 | 27.2 | 4.7 | 26.1 | 7.6 |
| 1984 | 34.7 | 26.8 | 20.9 | 2.3 | 26.7 | 4.5 | 25.7 | 7.6 |
| 1985 | 35.8 | 27.3 | 21.4 | 2.3 | 26.7 | 4.4 | 26.1 | 7.6 |
| 1986 | 36.4 | 28.2 | 20.8 | 2.4 | 26.4 | 4.7 | 25.7 | 7.8 |
| 1987 | 37.0 | 27.8 | 20.0 | 2.3 | 25.6 | 4.6 | 25.1 | 7.6 |
| 1988 | 37.3 | 29.1 | 20.1 | 2.1 | 26.4 | 4.4 | 25.2 | 7.7 |
| 1989 | 38.1 | 29.3 | 19.3 | 2.1 | 25.0 | 4.8 | 24.5 | 7.7 |
| 1990 | 39.4 | 31.3 | 19.0 | 2.4 | 24.9 | 5.1 | 24.4 | 8.1 |
| 1991 | 43.4 | 35.2 | 19.9 | 3.0 | 24.9 | 5.6 | 25.5 | 8.8 |
| 1992 | 45.4 | 37.4 | 20.4 | 3.4 | 24.4 | 5.7 | 25.9 | 9.3 |
| 1993 | 48.3 | 39.1 | 20.7 | 4.0 | 24.5 | 5.8 | 26.4 | 9.7 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.6
Reasons for part-time work, by age group, 1993

|  | Women aged |  |  |  | Men aged |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 | 25-44 | 45 and over | Total | 15-24 | 25-44 | 45 and over | Total |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Personal/family responsibility | 2.0 | 20.1 | 7.8 | 11.3 | -- | -- | -. | 0.9 |
| Going to school | 61.6 | 4.1 | -- | 20.9 | 66.6 | 15.5 | - | 43.0 |
| Could only find part-time work | 28.2 | 40.1 | 31.6 | 34.3 | 26.2 | 68.9 | 38.0 | 38.0 |
| Did not want full-time work | 8.1 | 34.2 | 57.8 | 32.1 | 6.4 | 8.1 | 52.1 | 15.0 |
| Other reasons | .- | 1.4 | 2.4 | 1.3 | - | 5.4 | 8.3 | 2.9 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Total (000s) | 458 | 653 | 374 | 1,485 | 389 | 148 | 121 | 658 |
| \% employed part-time' | 48.3 | 20.7 | 24.5 | 26.4 | 39.1 | 4.0 | 5.8 | 9.7 |

1 Expressed as a pencentage of total employed.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

Table 2.7
Distribution of employment, by industry, 1975-1993

|  |  |  |  |  | Wom total | \% of yment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Service | Goods producing | Service | Goods producing | Service | Goods producing |
|  |  |  |  | \% |  |  |
| 1975 | 81.6 | 18.4 | 56.7 | 43.3 | 45.2 | 19.6 |
| 1976 | 81.0 | 19.0 | 56.5 | 43.4 | 45.8 | 20.4 |
| 1977 | 82.0 | 18.0 | 57.3 | 42.7 | 46.2 | 20.2 |
| 1978 | 82.0 | 18.0 | 57.2 | 42.8 | 47.2 | 20.7 |
| 1979 | 81.4 | 18.5 | 57.1 | 42.9 | 47.4 | 21.5 |
| 1980 | 81.6 | 18.4 | 57.7 | 42.3 | 48.2 | 22.0 |
| 1981 | 81.5 | 18.4 | 55.9 | 44.1 | 49.7 | 22.2 |
| 1982 | 82.7 | 17.3 | 58.0 | 42.0 | 50.0 | 22.4 |
| 1983 | 82.6 | 17.4 | 59.1 | 40.9 | 50.2 | 23.4 |
| 1984 | 82.7 | 17.3 | 58.7 | 41.3 | 50.8 | 23.6 |
| 1985 | 83.2 | 16.8 | 59.2 | 40.8 | 51.2 | 23.5 |
| 1986 | 83.2 | 16.8 | 59.8 | 40.2 | 51.3 | 24.0 |
| 1987 | 83.8 | 16.2 | 59.4 | 40.5 | 52.0 | 23.5 |
| 1988 | 83.6 | 16.4 | 59.1 | 40.9 | 52.4 | 23.9 |
| 1989 | 83.9 | 16.1 | 59.1 | 40.9 | 52.8 | 23.7 |
| 1990 | 84.6 | 15.4 | 60.2 | 39.8 | 53.2 | 23.8 |
| 1991 | 85.2 | 14.8 | 61.5 | 38.4 | 53.4 | 24.2 |
| $1992$ | 85.6 | 14.4 | 62.4 | 37.5 | 53.4 | 24.3 |
| 1993 | 86.0 | 14.0 | 62.8 | 37.2 | 53.3 | 23.9 |

[^1]Table 2.8
Distribution of employment, by occupation, 1982 and 1993

|  | 1982 |  |  | 1993 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women as \% of employment | Women | Men | Women as \% of employment |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Managerial/administrative | 6.0 | 10.2 | 29.2 | 12.6 | 14.3 | 42.2 |
| Natural sciences | 1.3 | 5.2 | 14.6 | 1.5 | 5.8 | 18.0 |
| Social sciences/religion | 2.0 | 1.8 | 42.8 | 3.1 | 2.0 | 56.2 |
| Teaching | 6.2 | 3.0 | 59.3 | 7.0 | 3.0 | 65.8 |
| Doctors/dentists | 0.3 | 0.8 | 18.3 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 26.4 |
| Nursing/therapy/other health related | 8.9 | 1.1 | 85.1 | 9.3 | 1.3 | 85.8 |
| Artistic/literary/recreational | 1.4 | 1.6 | 39.2 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 44.4 |
| Clerical | 34.0 | 6.3 | 79.0 | 27.7 | 5.7 | 80.2 |
| Sales | 10.2 | 10.8 | 39.8 | 9.7 | 9.9 | 45.1 |
| Service | 18.3 | 10.7 | 54.5 | 17.2 | 10.9 | 56.8 |
| Primary | 2.8 | 8.1 | 19.4 | 2.4 | 6.9 | 22.4 |
| Manufacturing | 6.3 | 19.8 | 18.4 | 4.6 | 17.2 | 18.2 |
| Construction | 0.2 | 9.4 | 1.3 | 0.2 | 9.2 | 2.2 |
| Transportation | 0.6 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 0.7 | 5.9 | 8.9 |
| Material handling/other crafts | 1.8 | 5.1 | 19.4 | 1.5 | 4.7 | 21.0 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 41.3 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 45.4 |
| Total (000s) | 4,382 | 6,236 | ... | 5,630 | 6,753 | - |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529, and the Labour Force Survey.

## Table 2.9

Percentage employed part-time, by occupation, 1993

|  | \% of employed persons working part-time |  | \% of all women working part-time | Women as \% of persons employed part-time in group |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men |  |  |
| Managerial/professional | 18.6 | 5.4 | 25.3 | 77.5 |
| Clencal | 25.7 | 15.1 | 26.9 | 87.3 |
| Sales | 38.8 | 16.4 | 14.3 | 66.3 |
| Service | 40.7 | 24.6 | 26.6 | 68.4 |
| Primary | 31.9 | 9.8 | 2.9 | 48.9 |
| Manufacturing | 9.3 | 3.1 | 1.6 | 40.0 |
| Construction | 28.6 | 5.6 | 0.3 | 10.3 |
| Transportation | 35.9 | 7.6 | 0.9 | 31.1 |
| Material handling/other crafts | 20.0 | 16.9 | 1.1 | 23.9 |
| Total | 26.4 | 9.7 | 100.0 | 69.3 |
| Total employed part-time (000s) | 1,485 | 658 | ... | ... |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

Table 2.10
Self-employed women, 1981-1993

|  | incorporated |  |  | Unincorporated |  |  | Total self-employed |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 000s | \% of employed women | Women as \% of group | 000s | \% of employed women | Women as \% of group | 000s | \% of employed women | Women as \% of group |
| 1981 | 59 | 1.3 | 14.3 | 264 | 5.9 | 28.1 | 323 | 7.3 | 23.9 |
| 1982 | 67 | 1.5 | 15.5 | 273 | 6.2 | 28.8 | 340 | 7.8 | 24.7 |
| 1983 | 70 | 1.6 | 15.7 | 298 | 6.7 | 30.0 | 368 | 8.2 | 25.6 |
| 1984 | 74 | 1.6 | 16.9 | 324 | 7.0 | 31.3 | 398 | 8.6 | 27.0 |
| 1985 | 85 | 1.8 | 18.3 | 342 | 7.1 | 32.1 | 427 | 8.9 | 27.9 |
| 1986 | 85 | 1.7 | 17.5 | 327 | 6.6 | 31.1 | 412 | 8.3 | 26.8 |
| 1987 | 98 | 1.9 | 18.8 | 346 | 6.7 | 32.1 | 444 | 8.6 | 27.8 |
| 1988 | 108 | 2.0 | 18.9 | 376 | 7.0 | 33.7 | 484 | 9.0 | 28.7 |
| 1989 | 114 | 2.1 | 20.1 | 378 | 6.9 | 34.0 | 492 | 8.9 | 29.3 |
| 1990 | 123 | 2.2 | 20.6 | 398 | 7.1 | 34.5 | 521 | 9.3 | 29.8 |
| 1991 | 128 | 2.3 | 20.6 | 397 | 7.1 | 34.0 | 525 | 9.4 | 29.4 |
| 1992 | 128 | 2.3 | 20.6 | 420 | 7.5 | 35.4 | 548 | 9.8 | 30.3 |
| 1993 | 129 | 2.3 | 20.2 | 461 | 8.2 | 36.2 | 590 | 10.4 | 30.9 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 2.11
Job tenure, by age group, 1993

|  | Tenure |  |  |  |  | Average tenure (months) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Less than 12 months | $\begin{array}{r} 1-5 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $6-10$ <br> years | 11 years and over | Total |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Women aged: |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15-24 | 51.3 | 43.7 | 4.8 | -* | 100.0 | 19.5 |
| 25-44 | 19.9 | 36.4 | 21.8 | 21.9 | 100.0 | 72.7 |
| 45 and over | 12.2 | 21.1 | 19.4 | 47.2 | 100.0 | 137.2 |
| Total | 23.2 | 33.4 | 18.3 | 25.1 | 100.0 | 81.2 |
| Men aged: |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15-24 | 53.4 | 39.7 | 6.7 | -- | 100.0 | 20.3 |
| 25-44 | 18.9 | 31.7 | 21.2 | 28.2 | 100.0 | 83.5 |
| 45 and over | 9.8 | 14.9 | 13.1 | 62.3 | 100.0 | 191.8 |
| Total | 21.1 | 27.7 | 16.6 | 34.6 | 100.0 | 107.6 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Caralogue 71-220.

## UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment has generally been higher among women than men over the last two decades. However, during recessionary periods, including the one in the early 1990s, increases in unemployment among women have been less severe than those experienced by men. As a result, female labour force participants are currently less likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts.
experienced by male labour force participants. Between 1989 and 1993, for example, the number of unemployed women rose $42 \%$, compared with $64 \%$ among men. As a result, the unemployment rate of women in 1993 was more than a full percentage point below that of men: $10.6 \%$ versus $11.7 \%$.

Chart 3.1


Persons counted as unemployed include those who are without work, but are available for work during the reference week and who either (1) have actively looked for work in the previous month; (2) were laid off and have not actively looked for work in the previous month; or (3) have not actively looked for work, but have a new job to start within the next four weeks. The unemployment rate represents the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the relevant labour force.

## Unemployment rate increasing

Unemployment has risen significantly among women in the early 1990s as a result of the major economic downturn which occurred during this period. By 1993, 667,000 women, $10.6 \%$ of all female labour force participants, were unemployed, up from around $8 \%$ in the late 1980s. (Table 3.1)

While unemployment has risen among women in recent years, the increase has been smaller than that

The unemployment rate of women also rose much more slowly than that of men during the recession in the early 1980s, although the actual difference between the unemployment rates of women and men in this period was smaller than that recorded in the early 1990s. One factor explaining, at least in part, why the unemployment rate of women has risen less rapidly than that of men during recessions, is that women are more likely than men to drop out of the labour force when they lose their job.

In contrast, throughout the late 1970s and in the expansionary period from 1983 to 1989, the unemployment rate of women was consistently above that for men. In fact, the unemployment rate of women was around 2 percentage points higher than that of men in the late 1970s, while the difference ranged from a half to a full percentage point in the latter half of the 1980s. In 1988, for example, $8.3 \%$ of female labour force participants were unemployed, compared with $7.4 \%$ of their male counterparts. (Chart 3.1)

## Provincial unemployment

Similar to the situation with men, women in Atlantic Canada and Quebec have higher unemployment rates than those in Ontario and the Western provinces. In 1993, 19.6\% of female labour force participants in Newfoundland were unemployed, along with $17.4 \%$ of those in Prince Edward Island, 13.4\% in Nova Scotia and $12.1 \%$ in both New Brunswick and Quebec. In the remaining provinces, the unemployment rates of women ranged from $9.9 \%$ in Ontario to $7.3 \%$ in Saskatchewan. (Table 3.2)

Women experienced lower rates of unemployment than men in all provinces except Alberta and British Columbia in 1993. In the latter two provinces, unemployment rates of women and men were about the same.

## Young most llkely to be unemployed

There has been a particularly sharp increase in the unemployment rate of young people in the last several years. Between 1989 and 1993, the unemployment rate of women aged $15-24$ rose 5 percentage points, compared with increases of 3 percentage points among 45-64-year-old women and 2 percentage points among those aged 25-44. (Table 3.3)

Partly as a result, young women are currently considerably more likely than other women to be unemployed. In 1993, 15.0\% of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with $10.1 \%$ of those aged $25-44$ and $8.8 \%$ of those aged 45-64.

Young women, however, were not as affected by the recession as their male counterparts. Whereas the unemployment rate among $15-24$-year-old women rose 5 percentage points between 1989 and 1993, the figure for men in this age range was up 8 percentage points in the same period. As a result, young women are considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be unemployed. In 1993, $15.0 \%$ of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with $20.2 \%$ of men in this age group.

Recent increases in the unemployment rate of women aged 25 and over have also been smaller than those experienced by men in comparable age groups. As a result, the unemployment rate of women aged 25-44 was almost a full percentage below that of men in this age range in 1993: $10.1 \%$ versus $10.9 \%$, while there was no difference in rates for women and men aged 45-64. These situations contrast with those in the late 1980s, when women in both these age groups were more likely than men to be unemployed.

Unemployment rates are highest among young women in all provinces for which age breakdowns are available. Indeed, in 1993, 28.9\% of Newfoundland's female labour force aged 15-24 was unemployed. In the other provinces, unemployment rates among women aged $15-24$ ranged from $12.4 \%$ in Saskatchewan to $19.2 \%$ in Nova Scotia. Unemployment rates among women aged 15-24, though, were still well below figures for men in this age range in all provinces. (Table 3.2)

Women aged 25-44 were also less likely than their male counterparts to be unemployed in most provinces in 1993. Again, Alberta and British Columbia, along with New Brunswick, were the exceptions. In contrast, among those aged 45-64, women had higher unemployment rates than men in Newfoundland, Quebec, Manitoba and British Columbia, while there was little difference in rates in the remaining provinces for which reliable estimates were available.

## Unemployment by Industry

Women in the goods-producing industries are more likely than those in the service sector to be unemployed. In 1993, 12.7\% of female labour force participants in the goods-producing industries were unemployed, compared with $9.1 \%$ of female servicesector workers. (Table 3.4)

Part of the difference between the unemployment rates of women in the two industrial sectors results from the fact that unemployment increased more rapidly among those in the goods-producing sector during the recent recession. Between 1989 and 1993, the unemployment rate of female labour force participants in goods-producing industries rose nearly 4 percentage points, almost twice the increase recorded in service industries.

Female goods-producing workers, however, are currently somewhat less likely than their male colleagues to be unemployed, whereas there is little difference in the unemployment rates of women and men employed in the service sector. In 1993, 12.7\% of women in the goods-producing sector were unemployed, compared with $14.0 \%$ of men. Among service-sector workers, around $9 \%$ of both were unemployed that year. These situations, however, represent shifts from 1989, when women in both sectors were more likely than men to be unemployed.

## Occupation and unemployment

As with men, there is considerable variation in the level of unemployment experienced by women in different occupational groups. Female labour force participants involved in construction trades had a particularly high unemployment rate in 1993,
$24.4 \%$, while rates were also high for women in manufacturing ( $16.9 \%$ ) and materials-handling and other crafts ( $15.3 \%$ ). In contrast, women in managerial and professional occupations had an unemployment rate of just $6.1 \%$ in 1993, significantly lower than that of other women. At the same time, $12.8 \%$ of women in service occupations were unemployed, while the figures were $11.6 \%$ for those in transportation, $11.1 \%$ in primary occupations, $10.3 \%$ in sales and $9.6 \%$ in clerical positions. (Table 3.5)

## Reasons unemployed left last job

The majority of unemployed women either lost or were laid off from their last job. In 1993, 60\% of unemployed women fell into one of these categories. This figure, though, was below that for unemployed men, $73 \%$ of whom had either lost their last job or been laid off. (Table 3.6)

## Duration of unemployment

Women are generally unemployed for shorter periods of time than men. In 1993, women who were unemployed had been out of work an average of 23 weeks, compared with 27 weeks for men. (Table 3.7)

Women are also somewhat less likely than men to experience extended periods of unemployment. In 1993, $11 \%$ of unemployed women, compared with $16 \%$ of men, had been unemployed for more than one year. (Chart 3.2)

The duration of unemployment among women increases with age. In 1993, unemployed women aged 15-24 had been out of work an average of 15 weeks, compared with 24 weeks for 25-44-year-olds and 29 weeks for those aged 45 and over. At all ages, though, the average length of unemployment of women was lower than that of men.

Chart 3.2
Percentage of unemployed out of work for more than one year, by age group, 1993


On the other hand, unemployed women are more likely than their male counterparts to have left their last job because of personal or family responsibilities. In 1993, 6\% of unemployed women, versus a negligible proportion of men, had left their last job for these reasons.

Unemployed women are also more likely than men to be either new job-market entrants who have never worked or labour force reentrants who have not worked within five years. These two categories accounted for $10 \%$ of all unemployed women in 1993, almost double the figure for men.

Older women were also more likely than their younger counterparts to be unemployed for extended periods of time. In 1993, 17\% of unemployed women aged 45 and over, compared with $12 \%$ of those aged 25-44 and $5 \%$ of those aged 15-24, had been out of work for a year or more. Again, though, women at all ages were less likely than men in the same age range to be unemployed for extended periods.

## Unemployment Insurance reciplents

Not surprisingly, the number of women receiving Unemployment insurance (UI) benefits has risen and fallen in response to changes in the overall unemployment rate. Between 1989 and 1992, for example, the number of women receiving UI benefits on a monthly basis rose $27 \%$, from 485,900 to 616,400 . However, because the recession resulted in a greater rate of unemployment among men than women, the increase in the number of female Ul recipients was smaller than that for men. As a result, women represented $44 \%$ of all UI recipients in 1992, down from $47 \%$ in the late 1980s. (Table 3.8)

The majority of women receiving Unemployment Insurance get regular benefits. In 1992, 76\% of all female UI beneficiaries received regular benefits. Another 15\% received maternity/parental benefits, ${ }^{1}$ while $5 \%$ received training benefits and $3 \%$ got sickness benefits. At the same time, very small
percentages received work sharing, job creation, fishing or self-employment assistance benefits. (Table 3.9)

As might be expected, women make up almost all, $99 \%$ in 1992, recipients of maternity/parental benefits. Indeed, while parental benefits under the UI plan have been available to both mothers and fathers since 1990, men still make up just $1 \%$ of these beneficiaries.

Women also made up the majority ( $59 \%$ ) of those receiving sickness benefits. In contrast, they accounted for only $40 \%$ of those receiving training benefits, 39\% of those getting job-creation benefits and $32 \%$ of those involved in work-sharing arrangements.

[^2]Table 3.1
Unemployment, 1975-1993


Source: Statistics Canade, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 3.2
Unemployment rates, by age group and province, 1993

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Newtoundland | 28.9 | 34.0 | 17.5 | 19.9 | 17.4 | 13.7 | 19.6 | 20.7 |
| Prince Edward Island | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 17.4 | 18.0 |
| Nova Scotia | 19.2 | 26.4 | 12.6 | 15.0 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 13.4 | 15.6 |
| New Brunswick | 18.1 | 22.2 | 11.7 | 11.7 | -- | 9.6 | 12.1 | 12.9 |
| Quebec | 16.2 | 22.0 | 11.1 | 12.9 | 11.8 | 11.4 | 12.1 | 13.8 |
| Ontario | 14.6 | 21.0 | 9.7 | 10.4 | 7.6 | 7.5 | 9.9 | 11.2 |
| Manitoba | 12.9 | 17.9 | 7.9 | 9.3 | 6.7 | 6.1 | 8.5 | 9.8 |
| Saskatchewan | 12.4 | 16.2 | 7.2 | 8.4 | -- | 5.6 | 7.3 | 8.6 |
| Alberta | 13.3 | 15.1 | 9.4 | 8.8 | 7.3 | 7.5 | 9.6 | 9.5 |
| British Columbia | 12.7 | 16.3 | 9.0 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 7.9 | 9.6 | 9.8 |

1 Includes those aged 65 and over.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

Table 3.3
Unemployment rates, by age group, 1975-1993

|  | People aged |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 |  | 25-44 |  | 45-64 |  | Total ${ }^{1}$ |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1975 | 11.4 | 12.5 | 7.1 | 4.4 | 5.4 | 3.9 | 8.1 | 6.2 |
| 1976 | 12.1 | 13.2 | 7.6 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 3.7 | 8.4 | 6.3 |
| 1977 | 13.8 | 14.9 | 8.2 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 4.5 | 9.4 | 7.3 |
| 1978 | 13.8 | 15.0 | 8.7 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 4.9 | 9.6 | 7.5 |
| 1979 | 12.7 | 13.2 | 7.8 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 4.2 | 8.8 | 6.6 |
| 1980 | 12.6 | 13.7 | 7.0 | 5.2 | 5.8 | 4.2 | 8.4 | 6.9 |
| 1981 | 12.3 | 14.1 | 7.5 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 4.3 | 8.3 | 7.0 |
| 1982 | 16.1 | 21.1 | 9.7 | 9.1 | 7.1 | 6.9 | 10.9 | 11.0 |
| 1983 | 17.0 | 22.3 | 10.5 | 10.3 | 7.9 | 7.7 | 11.6 | 12.0 |
| 1984 | 16.1 | 19.3 | 10.5 | 9.9 | 8.1 | 7.7 | 11.3 | 11.2 |
| 1985 | 14.5 | 18.1 | 10.2 | 9.0 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 10.7 | 10.3 |
| 1986 | 13.6 | 16.4 | 9.2 | 8.3 | 7.3 | 6.5 | 9.8 | 9.3 |
| 1987 | 12.4 | 14.8 | 8.7 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 6.1 | 9.3 | 8.5 |
| 1988 | 11.0 | 12.9 | 8.0 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 5.4 | 8.3 | 7.4 |
| 1989 | 10.1 | 12.4 | 7.9 | 6.6 | 5.9 | 5.4 | 7.9 | 7.3 |
| 1990 | 11.4 | 14.0 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 6.1 | 5.8 | 8.1 | 8.1 |
| 1991 | 13.4 | 18.8 | 9.3 | 10.1 | 7.9 | 7.5 | 9.7 | 10.8 |
| 1992 | 15.2 | 20.2 | 9.8 | 11.5 | 8.3 | 8.6 | 10.4 | 12.0 |
| 1993 | 15.0 | 20.2 | 10.1 | 10.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 10.6 | 11.7 |

[^3]Table 3.4
Unemployment rates, by industry, 1981-1993

|  |  | indus |  |  | ucing |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1981 | 6.8 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 9.7 | 8.0 | 8.4 |
| 1982 | 9.0 | 8.2 | 8.6 | 14.1 | 13.8 | 13.9 |
| 1983 | 9.8 | 9.3 | 9.5 | 13.4 | 14.7 | 14.4 |
| 1984 | 9.7 | 9.0 | 9.3 | 12.6 | 13.0 | 12.9 |
| 1985 | 9.0 | 8.5 | 8.8 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 11.3 |
| 1986 | 8.4 | 7.7 | 8.1 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.6 |
| 1987 | 7.9 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 10.7 | 9.5 | 9.8 |
| 1988 | 7.1 | 6.0 | 6.6 | 9.7 | 8.3 | 8.7 |
| 1989 | 6.8 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 9.1 | 8.3 | 8.5 |
| 1990 | 6.9 | 6.2 | 6.6 | 10.5 | 10.0 | 10.1 |
| 1991 | 8.2 | 8.3 | 8.2 | 13.0 | 13.6 | 13.5 |
| 1992 | 8.8 | 9.5 | 9.2 | 13.3 | 14.5 | 14.2 |
| 1993 | 9.1 | 9.2 | 9.2 | 12.7 | 14.0 | 13.7 |

Source: Slatistics Canada, Calalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 3.5
Unemployment rates, by occupation, 1993

|  | Women | Men |
| :--- | :---: | ---: |
|  |  | $\%$ |
| Managerial/professional | 6.1 | 5.6 |
| Clerical | 9.6 | 10.5 |
| Sales | 10.3 | 8.6 |
| Service | 12.8 | 12.5 |
| Prmary | 11.1 | 12.4 |
| Manufacturing | 16.9 | 12.5 |
| Construction | 24.4 | 21.6 |
| Transportation | 11.6 | 11.5 |
| Material handling/other cratts | 15.3 | 14.7 |
| Total | 10.6 | 12.7 |
| Total unemployed (000s) | 667 | 11.7 |

Source: Statistics Canada. Catalogue 71-220.

Table 3.6
Unemployed, by reason for leaving last job, 1993

|  | Women |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 000s | \% | 000s | \% |
| Own illness | 27 | 4.0 | 26 | 2.9 |
| Personal/family responsibility | 37 | 5.5 | 9 | 1.0 |
| Going to school | 38 | 5.7 | 48 | 5.4 |
| Lost job/laid off | 398 | 59.7 | 650 | 72.5 |
| Retired | 5 | 0.7 | 10 | 1.1 |
| Other reasons | 93 | 13.9 | 99 | 11.0 |
| Had not worked in last 5 years | $32$ | 4.8 | 17 | 1.9 |
| Never worked | 37 | 5.5 | 36 | 4.0 |
| Total | 667 | 100.0 | 896 | 100.0 |

[^4]Table 3.7
Duration of unemployment, by age group, 1993

|  | Women aged |  |  |  |  | Men aged |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 | 25-44 | $\begin{aligned} & 45 \text { and } \\ & \text { over } \end{aligned}$ | Total |  | 15-24 | 25-44 | 45 and over | Total |
|  |  |  |  |  | \% |  |  |  |  |
| 4 weeks or less | 34.1 | 22.8 | 19.3 | 25.0 |  | 29.9 | 19.9 | 17.6 | 22.2 |
| 5-13 weeks | 31.7 | 24.5 | 20.7 | 25.4 |  | 29.1 | 23.0 | 19.7 | 24.0 |
| 14-26 weeks | 16.2 | 20.8 | 18.6 | 19.2 |  | 19.1 | 20.6 | 18.1 | 19.6 |
| 27-52 weeks | 11.4 | 17.4 | 21.4 | 16.8 |  | 12.7 | 19.0 | 18.7 | 17.2 |
| 53 weeks and over | 4.8 | 12.1 | 16.6 | 11.2 |  | 8.0 | 16.2 | 24.9 | 15.6 |
| Other | 2.4 | 2.3 | -- | 2.2 |  | 8.0 | 1.3 | , | 1.3 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Average duration (weeks) | 15.2 | 24.1 | 29.0 | 22.9 |  | 18.4 | 27.8 | 34.7 | 26.7 |
| Total unemployed (000s) | 167 | 355 | 145 | 667 |  | 251 | 452 | 193 | 896 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

Table 3.8
Unemployment Insurance beneflciaries, 1981-1992

|  | Women | Men | Women as \% of total beneficiaries |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| 1981 | 308.4 | 411.9 | 42.8 |
| 1982 | 443.0 | 694.7 | 38.9 |
| 1983 | 493.2 | 754.8 | 39.5 |
| 1984 | 496.4 | 698.0 | 41.6 |
| 1985 | 496.3 | 648.9 | 43.3 |
| 1986 | 482.5 | 613.0 | 44.0 |
| 1987 | 473.6 | 559.4 | 45.8 |
| 1988 | 476.2 | 538.4 | 46.9 |
| 1989 | 485.9 | 543.8 | 47.2 |
| 1990 | 510.6 | 610.3 | 45.6 |
| 1991 | 596.2 | 769.1 | 43.7 |
| 1992 | 616.4 | 771.9 | 44.4 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202S.

Table 3.9
Unemployment Insurance beneficlaries, by type of benefit, 1992

|  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Women |  |  |  |  |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202S.

## EARNINGS AND PENSION COVERAGE

There are considerable differences in the earnings of women depending on their age, occupation and province of residence. The earnings of women, however, remain well below those of men, although the earnings differential between women and men has closed somewhat in recent years.

The discussion in this section refers primarily to the earnings of full-time, full-year workers. By including only these workers, the effects of differences in the work force characteristics of women and men are minimized. However, this restriction does not eliminate all work pattern variation between women and men. Even for those employed full-time, for example, the total hours worked by women and men are different.

An issue related to that of earnings is pension coverage. Indeed, as more women have entered the work force, the number of them covered by pension plans, both public and private, has grown. Again, though, women are still less likely than their male counterparts to have pension coverage. In addition, women are less likely than men to contribute to a Registered Retirement Savings Plan, although the percentage of women participating in this program has increased in the last decade. 1

## Average earnings still lower

Women active in the paid work force earn substantially less than men. In 1992, women employed on a full-time, full-year basis earned an average of $\$ 28,350$, compared with $\$ 39,468$ for their male counterparts. (Table 4.1)

The gap between the earnings of women and men, however, has narrowed somewhat in recent years. Women's full-time, full-year earnings were $72 \%$ those of men in 1992, up from 68\% in 1990 and around $64 \%$ in the early 1980 s.

The difference between the earnings of women and men has closed in recent years largely because there have been substantial increases in the earnings of women, while there has been little change in those of men. Between 1990 and 1992, for example, the earnings of women employed full-time, full-year rose $6 \%$, once the effects of inflation were accounted for, whereas men's earnings actually declined marginally in the same period.

## Provincial earnings

Women in Ontario and British Columbia have higher earnings than women in other provinces. In 1992, women employed full-time, full-year in Ontario had average earnings of $\$ 30,356$, while the figure in British Columbia was $\$ 28,601$. Indeed, these were the only provinces in which women's average earnings exceeded the national figure for women of $\$ 28,350$. In contrast, the average earnings of women were under $\$ 25,000$ in most other provinces. (Table 4.2)

Women's earnings are well below those of men in all provinces. In 1992, women's full-time, full-year earnings as a percentage of those of men ranged from 80\% in Prince Edward Island to 70\% in Alberta, Manitoba, New Brunswick, British Columbia and Newfoundland.

## Earnings by age

As with men, women between the ages of 35 and 54 generally have higher earnings than women in other age groups. In 1992, women in the age groups 35-44 and 45-54 employed full-time, full-year had average earnings of just under $\$ 31,000$. This compared with around $\$ 27,000$ for women aged $25-34$ and 55-64 and less than $\$ 21,000$ for those aged $20-24$. (Chart 4.1)

The earnings of women, though, are lower than those of men in all age groups. In 1992, women aged $35-44,45-54$, and 55 and over, employed on a full-time, full-year basis, all had average earnings which were less than $70 \%$ those of men in the same age group, while the figure was $79 \%$ for women aged $25-34$ and $93 \%$ for 15 - 24 -year-olds. (Table 4.3)

The gap between the earnings of women and men, however, has closed in all age groups under the age of 55 in the last decade. The average earnings of women aged 25-34, 35-44, and 45-54, expressed as a percentage of those of men in the same age group, were all around 10 percentage points higher in 1992 than in 1981, while the figure for 15-24-yearold women was up 15 percentage points in the same period. In contrast, the earnings of women aged 55 and over as a percentage of those of men in this age range were almost the same in 1992 as in 1981.

Chart 4.1


## Occupation

As is the case with men, women in professional and related occupations have considerably higher incomes than those in other occupational groups. In 1992, female teachers employed full-time, full-year earned $\$ 40,931$ on average, while the figure for other professionals ranged from $\$ 37,050$ for those in social sciences/religion professions to $\$ 28,426$ for those in artistic and recreational occupations. In contrast, the average annual earnings of women employed fulltime, full-year in non-professional occupations ranged from $\$ 26,515$ for those employed in transportation to just $\$ 13,461$ for those in agriculture. Women's earnings, however, were significantly below those of men in all occupational categories. (Table 4.4)

## Earnings of women in health professions

There is considerable variation in the earnings of women employed in different health professions. In 1990, female physicians and surgeons employed on a full-time, full-year basis earned an average of $\$ 73,071$, while the figure for dentists was $\$ 67,997$.

These totals were well above those of women employed in other diagnosing and treating professions, including veterinarians, osteopaths and chiropractors. They were also more than double those of both nurses and other health professionals, including pharmacists, dietitians, optometrists, and related technicians, who averaged around $\$ 30,000$ in 1990. (Chart 4.2)

Women employed as doctors and dentists, though, make considerably less than men in these professions. In 1990, the earnings of women employed full-time, full-year as physicians and surgeons were only $66 \%$ those of their male colleagues, while the figure for dentists was $68 \%$. In contrast, the earnings of women employed as nurses were $93 \%$ those of male nurses that year.

## Canada/Quebec Pension Plan membershlp

The tremendous growth in the work force participation of women has resulted in an increase in the proportion of women participating in the Canada/ Quebec Pension Plan (C/QPP). Between 1981 and

Chart 4.2


1991, the percentage of all women aged 15-64 contributing to this program rose from $56 \%$ to $61 \%$. (Chart 4.3)

However, because eligibility for this governmentsponsored plan is tied to employment, a smaller proportion of women than men participate. In 1991, $61 \%$ of women aged 15-64 were C/QPP contributors, compared with $77 \%$ of men. This is a much smaller difference than in 1981, though, when $56 \%$ of all women aged $15-64$, versus $84 \%$ of men in this age range, were C/QPP participants.

## Employer-sponsored pension plans

There has also been an increase in the proportion of women covered by employer-sponsored pension plans. In 1992, 43\% of all employed women were members of such plans, up from $38 \%$ in 1980. (Table 4.5)

The proportion of women covered by employersponsored plans, though, remains below that of male workers. In 1992, 43\% of paid female workers, versus $52 \%$ of their male counterparts, belonged to

Chart 4.3

one of these plans. Again, however, the gap is closing. In fact, while participation in these programs by women has increased since the early 1980s, the proportion of employed men participating in private pension plans was actually lower in 1992 than in 1980.

## Registered Retirement Savings Plans

The proportion of women contributing to a Registered Retirement Savings Plan (RRSP) has also increased in the last decade. As of 1991, 1.9 million women had reported contributing to an RRSP. These women represented $20 \%$ of all female taxfilers that year, more than double the figure in 1982. (Table 4.6)

Women, though, are less likely than men to contribute to an RRSP. Again, as of 1991, 20\% of female taxfilers had contributed to one of these plans, compared with $28 \%$ of their male counterparts.

Women also tend to contribute less to their RRSPs than men. In 1991, women made an average RRSP contribution of $\$ 2,300$, about $\$ 1,000$ less than that of men. (Table 4.7)

As well, the average RRSP contribution made by women has declined sharply in the early 1990s. In fact, their average contribution in 1991 was $17 \%$ less than in 1988, after accounting for inflation. In comparison, the average contribution by men declined by $6 \%$ in the same period.

[^5]Table 4.1
Average annual earnings, ${ }^{1}$ 1967-1992

|  | Full-time, full-year workers |  |  | Other workers |  |  | All eamers |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Earnings ratio ${ }^{2}$ | Women | Men | Earnings ratio ${ }^{2}$ | Women | Men | Earnings ratio ${ }^{2}$ |
|  | \$ |  | \% | \$ |  | \% | \$ |  | \% |
| 1967 | 17,411 | 29,808 | 58.4 | 6,254 | 12,369 | 50.6 | 11,403 | 24,734 | 46.1 |
| 1969 | 19,075 | 32,514 | 58.7 | 7.429 | 16,161 | 46.0 | 12,073 | 26,418 | 45.7 |
| 1971 | 21,027 | 35,246 | 59.7 | 7,017 | 13,918 | 50.4 | 13,291 | 28,358 | 46.9 |
| 1972 | 21,829 | 36,491 | 59.8 | 7.206 | 13,944 | 51.7 | 13,556 | 29,400 | 46.1 |
| 1973 | 22,034 | 37,177 | 59.3 | 7,365 | 14,106 | 52.2 | 13,849 | 29,937 | 46.3 |
| 1974 | 23,024 | 38,655 | 59.6 | 8,050 | 15,084 | 53.4 | 14,522 | 30,628 | 47.4 |
| 1975 | 23,863 | 39,643 | 60.2 | 7,970 | 15,745 | 50.6 | 15,076 | 31,354 | 48.1 |
| 1976 | 25,100 | 42,443 | 59.1 | 8,760 | 16,704 | 52.4 | 15,598 | 33,408 | 46.7 |
| 1977 | 24,453 | 39,408 | 62.1 | 8,907 | 14,657 | 60.8 | 16,091 | 31,697 | 50.8 |
| 1978 | 25,259 | 40,096 | 63.0 | 8,496 | 14,481 | 58.7 | 16,035 | 31,563 | 50.8 |
| 1979 | 24,692 | 38,903 | 63.5 | 8,833 | 15,243 | 57.9 | 16,203 | 31,423 | 51.6 |
| 1980 | 25,469 | 39,641 | 64.2 | 8,707 | 14,058 | 61.9 | 16,254 | 31,497 | 51.6 |
| 1981 | 24,787 | 38,891 | 63.7 | 9,046 | 14,457 | 62.6 | 16,429 | 30,723 | 53.5 |
| 1982 | 24,618 | 38,477 | 64.0 | 8,440 | 13,389 | 63.0 | 16,109 | 29,335 | 54.9 |
| 1983 | 25,404 | 39,332 | 64.6 | 7,974 | 12,766 | 62.5 | 16,235 | 29,560 | 54.9 |
| 1984 | 25,082 | 38,255 | 65.6 | 8,884 | 12,675 | 70.1 | 16,586 | 28,925 | 57.3 |
| 1985 | 24,947 | 38,413 | 64.9 | 8,616 | 12,155 | 70.9 | 16,636 | 29,611 | 56.2 |
| 1986 | 25,440 | 38,654 | 65.8 | 9,359 | 12,633 | 74.1 | 17.254 | 30,060 | 57.4 |
| 1987 | 25,786 | 39,105 | 65.9 | 9,569 | 12,466 | 76.8 | 17,453 | 30,279 | 57.6 |
| 1988 | 25,850 | 39,579 | 65.3 | 9,425 | 12,661 | 74.4 | 17,755 | 30,943 | 57.4 |
| 1989 | 25,935 | 39,393 | 65.8 | 9,829 | 13,293 | 73.9 | 18,299 | 31,031 | 59.0 |
| 1990 | 26,719 | 39,519 | 67.6 | 9,600 | 13,411 | 71.6 | 18,376 | 30,671 | 59.9 |
| $1991$ | 27,244 | $39,144$ | 69.6 | $9,023$ | $12,727$ | 70.9 | $18,320$ | $29,767$ | 61.5 |
| 1992 | 28,350 | 39,468 | 71.8 | 9,297 | 12,151 | 76.5 | 18,923 | 29,652 | 63.8 |

[^6]Table 4.2
Average annual earnings, by province, 1992


[^7]Table 4.3
Earnings ${ }^{1}$ of women as a percentage of those of men, by age group, 1981-1992


[^8]Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

Table 4.4
Average annual earnings, by occupation, 1992

|  | Full-time, full-year workers |  |  | All workers |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Earnings ratio ${ }^{1}$ | Women | Men | Earnings ratio ${ }^{1}$ |
|  | \$ |  | \% | \$ |  | \% |
| Manageria/administrative | 33,548 | 51,794 | 64.8 | 29,761 | 48,303 | 61.6 |
| Natural sciences | 35,375 | 48,034 | 73.6 | 31,200 | 43,309 | 72.0 |
| Social sciences/religion | 37,050 | 61,764 | 60.0 | 29,508 | 51,737 | 57.0 |
| Teaching | 40,931 | 51,923 | 78.8 | 31,225 | 44,620 | 70.0 |
| Medicine/health | 33,787 | 57,107 | 59.2 | 28,179 | 50,971 | 55.3 |
| Artistic/recreational | 28,426 | 34,946 | 81.3 | 17,503 | 25,975 | 67.4 |
| Clencal | 25,208 | 33,009 | 76.4 | 19,125 | 26,335 | 72.6 |
| Sales | 24,109 | 35,240 | 68.4 | 16,387 | 27,086 | 60.4 |
| Service | 18,783 | 30,787 | 61.0 | 11,263 | 21,691 | 51.9 |
| Agriculture | 13,461 | 18,530 | 72.6 | 10,991 | 15,772 | 69.7 |
| Processing | 25,731 | 35,978 | 71.5 | 18,355 | 29,755 | 61.7 |
| Product assembly/fabrication/repair | 21,386 | 34,791 | 61.4 | 18,028 | 29,832 | 60.4 |
| Transport equipment operation | 26,515 | 36,012 | 73.6 | 18,871 | 29,728 | 63.4 |
| Material handling | 22,144 | 29,953 | 73.9 | 15,457 | 19,456 | 79.4 |
| Total | 28,350 | 39,468 | 71.8 | 18,923 | 29,652 | 63.8 |

T Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217 and the Survey of Consumer Finances.

Table 4.5
Membership in employer-sponsored pension plans, 1980-1992

|  | Women |  |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total members 000 s |  | \% of all plan members | Total members 000s | \% of employed paid workers |
| 1980 | 1,378 | 37.6 | 30.8 | 3,098 | 54.2 |
| 1982 | 1,477 | 36.2 | 31.7 | 3,181 | 53.7 |
| 1984 | 1,525 | 37.3 | 33.4 | 3,039 | 54.7 |
| 1986 | 1,621 | 37.0 | 34.7 | 3,047 | 52.9 |
| 1988 | 1,763 | 37.2 | 36.4 | 3,082 | 51.0 |
| 1989 | 1,869 | 37.8 | 37.6 | 3,096 | 49.9 |
| 1990 | 1,981 | 39.0 | 38.8 | 3,128 | 49.6 |
| 1992 | 2,189 | 42.5 | 41.2 | 3,129 | 51.8 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 7401.

Table 4.6
Contributors to Registered Retirement Savings Pians, 1982-1991

|  | Women |  | Men |  | Women as \% of all contributors |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 000s | $\%$ of all female taxfilers | 000s | \% of all male taxtilers |  |
| 1982 | 706.7 | 9.7 | 1,393.6 | 17.5 | 33.6 |
| 1983 | 823.4 | 11.3 | 1,505.8 | 18.8 | 35.4 |
| 1984 | 960.6 | 12.9 | 1,684.4 | 20.8 | 36.3 |
| 1985 | 1,085.5 | 14.2 | 1,807.4 | 21.9 | 37.5 |
| 1986 | 1,241.9 | 15.6 | 1,974.4 | 23.1 | 38.6 |
| 1987 | 1,364.2 | 16.5 | 2,119.5 | 24.1 | 39.2 |
| 1988 | 1,510.5 | 17.6 | 2,291.7 | 25.4 | 39.7 |
| 1989 | 1,690.9 | 19.1 | 2,470.6 | 26.7 | 40.6 |
| 1990 | 1,704.8 | 18.4 | 2,435.1 | 25.6 | 41.2 |
| 1991 | 1,928.8 | 20.3 | 2,688.8 | 28.1 | 41.8 |

Source: Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.

Table 4.7
Contributions to Registered Retirement Savings Plans, 1982-19911

|  | Women |  | Women's <br> contribution <br> as of men's |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |
| 1982 | 2,663 | 3,321 | 80.2 |
| 1983 | 2,614 | 3,304 | 79.1 |
| 1984 | 2,528 | 3,254 | 77.7 |
| 1985 | 2,595 | 3,292 | 78.8 |
| 1986 | 2,604 | 3,425 | 76.0 |
| 1987 | 3,624 | 3,459 | 75.9 |
| 1988 | 2,787 | 3,537 | 78.8 |
| 1989 | 2,670 | 3,521 | 75.8 |
| 1990 | 2,302 | 2,997 | 76.8 |
| 1991 | 2,306 | 3,318 | 69.4 |

[^9]Source: Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.

One factor explaining the increased work force participation of women is higher levels of educational attainment. There has, for example, been dramatic growth in the proportion of women with postsecondary qualifications in the past several decades, although women are still less likely than men to have a university degree. This gap, however, is likely to narrow in the future as women currently make up the majority of students attending university.

Not surprisingly, there is a strong relationship between women's educational attainment and their labour force characteristics. Women with high levels of education are generally more likely than other women to be in the labour force and to be employed; conversely, they are less likely to work part-time or to be unemployed. Female university graduates also have much higher incomes on average than other women.

## More with postsecondary training

There has been particularly sharp growth in the percentages of the women and men with postsecondary qualifications in the last decade. Between 1981 and 1993, the proportion of women aged 15 and over with a university degree rose from $7 \%$ to $11 \%$, while the share with a diploma or certificate from a postsecondary institution other than a university more than doubled, rising from $11 \%$ to $23 \%$. (Table 5.1)

In contrast, the proportion of women with low levels of educational attainment has declined. For example, the percentage of women with less than a Grade 9 education fell from $22 \%$ in 1981 to $13 \%$ in 1993, while the proportion who were either high school graduates or had attended but had not completed high school dropped from $53 \%$ to $44 \%$ in the same period.

The proportion of women with a university degree, though, is still lower than that of the male population. As of $1993,11 \%$ of women aged 15 and over were university graduates, compared with $14 \%$ of men. This gap, however, is smaller than that recorded in 1981 , when $7 \%$ of women, versus $11 \%$ of men, had a university degree.

On the other hand, there is currently no difference in the proportions of women and men with a certificate or diploma from a postsecondary institution other than a university. There is also little difference in the percentages of women and men who have less than a Grade 9 education.

## Young women relatively better educated

Young women, though, tend to be better educated than their male counterparts, whereas the opposite is the case among older segments of the population. In 1993, 5\% of women aged 15-24, compared with $3 \%$ of men in this age range, had a university degree. These young women were also more likely than their male counterparts, $16 \%$ versus $13 \%$, to have a non-university certificate or diploma. ${ }^{1}$ At the same time, women aged 15-24 were less likely than men in this age range either to have not completed high school or to have not attended high school at all. (Table 5.2)

In contrast, among people aged 45 and over, women were only about half as likely as men to have a university degree in 1993, $8 \%$ versus $14 \%$, while women aged 25-44 were slightly less likely than men in this same age group to be university graduates.

## Women majority in university

The overall difference in the proportions of women and men with a university degree is likely to close even further in the future since women currently make up the majority of students in Canadian universities. In the 1991-92 academic year, 54\% of all university students were women, up from $49 \%$ in 1981-82 and $40 \%$ in 1972-73. (Table 5.3)

Women also make up the majority of students in most university faculties. In 1991-92, 69\% of all students in both health-related programs and education, as well as $63 \%$ of those in fine/applied arts and $61 \%$ of those in the humanities, were women. Women also made up $57 \%$ of agricultural/ biological science students and $54 \%$ of those in the social sciences. (Table 5.4)

At the same time, women make up much smaller shares of enrolment in mathematics and science faculties in which traditionally few women have participated. In 1991-92, only $28 \%$ of all students in mathematics/physical sciences and just 17\% of those in engineering/applied sciences were women. Women as a proportion of enginearing/applied science students, however, is up from $3 \%$ in 1972 73 and $10 \%$ in 1981-82. There has also been some growth in women's share of enrolment in mathematics/physical sciences since the early 1970s, although most of this increase occurred in the 1970s.

## Women teaching in university

Women account for a small, but growing share of university faculty members. In 1991, there were 7,600 women teaching at Canadian universities, representing $21 \%$ of all university faculty. The latter figure is up from 15\% in 1977. (Table 5.7)

As with enrolment figures, there is wide variation in the proportion of university teachers accounted for by women in different faculties, although women currently constitute a minority in all fields of study. In 1991, women represented close to $30 \%$ of all teachers in education, fins/applied arts, health-related and humanities faculties. They also made up around $20 \%$ of professors in both the social sciences and agricultural/biological sciences.

At the same time, women make up much smaller shares of teachers in faculties in which traditionally few women have taught. In 1991, only $7 \%$ of university mathematics/physical science professors and just 4\% of those teaching engineering/applied sciences were women.

The large majority of women teaching at Canadian universities are in tenured positions, that is, they either have tenure or are in positions leading to tenure. In 1991, $84 \%$ of full-time female faculty were in these positions, up substantially from $53 \%$ in 1977. The proportion of full-time female faculty in tenured positions, however, is still somewhat below the figure for their male colleagues, $91 \%$ of whom were in such positions in 1991.

A substantial majority of female university teachers in all fields of study are in tenured positions. In 1991, the percentage of full-time female university instructors in tenured positions ranged from $88 \%$ in both education and the social sciences to $78 \%$ in health-related faculties.

Female university teachers, however, are less likely than their male colleagues to be in tenured positions in most faculties. The exception in 1991 was health-related programs, where $78 \%$ of full-time female professors, versus $75 \%$ of men, were in tenured positions. In the other faculties, the difference between the shares of female and male teachers with tenure ranged from around 7 percentage points in education, fine/applied arts, and the social sciences to 14 percentage points in mathematics/physical sciences. (Chart 5.1)

Chart 5.1
Percentage of full-time university teachers with tenure, by faculty, 1991


## Fewer in graduate studies

While women make up the majority of university students, their share of enrolment declines the higher the level. In 1991-92, women made up $55 \%$ of all students in bachelor's and first professional degree programs, compared with $48 \%$ of those in master's programs and just $36 \%$ of those working towards their doctorates. All three of these figures, though, have increased substantially in the last two decades. Indeed, women's shares of enrolment at both the master's and doctoral levels are currently almost twice what they were in 1972-73, when women represented $27 \%$ of master's students and $19 \%$ of Ph.D candidates. (Table 5.3)

The fact that women are less well represented in graduate programs also holds in all faculties. For example, while female bachelor's and first professional degree students outnumber men in all faculties except engineering/applied sciences and mathematics/physical sciences, they represent the majority of doctoral candidates only in education. In fact, in 1991-92, women made up just $32 \%$ of Ph.D students in agriculture/biological sciences, $18 \%$ of those in mathematics/physical sciences, and 10\% in engineering/applied sciences. (Table 5.5)

## Women in community college

Women also make up the majority of students in community colleges. In 1990-91,55\% of all full-time students at these institutions were women. There has, however, been little change in women's share of community college enrolment since 1976-77, when they made up $53 \%$ of these students. (Table 5.6)

There is wide divergence in women's share of total enrolment in different fields of study at the college level. Women made up the vast majority of all fulltime college students enrolled in secretarial science ( $97 \%$ ), educational services ( $91 \%$ ) and nursing ( $90 \%$ ) in 1990-91. They also represented $72 \%$ of those in health sciences other than nursing, $70 \%$ of those in humanities, $64 \%$ of those in social sciences other than education, $59 \%$ in arts and sciences, $58 \%$ in fine/applied arts, and $53 \%$ in business and commerce programs other than secretarial science.

In contrast, women accounted for only $31 \%$ of fulltime community college enrolment in both natural science/primary industry programs and mathematics/ computer science. They also made up just $12 \%$ of those in engineering technologies and $11 \%$ of those in other technologies. As well, the proportion of total enrolment in mathematics/computer science programs accounted for by women has actually fallen quite substantially since 1981-82, while there have only been small increases in their share of enrolment in other technical programs.

## Continuing education

A significant number of working women in Canada are taking courses designed to upgrade their job qualifications. In 1991, over 1.6 million working women, $30 \%$ of all women with jobs, were participating in some kind of education or training program for job-related reasons. (Table 5.8)

Most working women involved in training courses are enrolled in non-academic courses oriented to improving job-related skills. In fact, in 1991, $25 \%$ of all women in the paid work force were taking courses of this nature.

At the same time, nearly one-in-ten working women are taking courses designed to upgrade their academic qualifications. In 1991, 444,000 employed women, $8 \%$ of the total, were taking strictly academic courses.

As well, there was little difference in either the proportions of working women and men taking courses, or in the distribution of training programs participated in by women and men.

## Labour force activity and educational attainment

As with the overall population, the labour force activity of women is highly related to their level of educational attainment. In 1993, 80\% of all women with a university degree were labour force participants, as were $72 \%$ of those with a non-university certificate or diploma and $63 \%$ of high school graduates. In comparison, just $43 \%$ of women who had attended but had not completed high school and only $20 \%$ of those with less than a Grade 9 education were in the labour force. (Chart 5.2)

Much the same pattern appears for employment. In 1993, $76 \%$ of women with a university degree worked for pay or profit, as did $66 \%$ of those with a certificate or diploma from a community college, 59\% of those with some postsecondary training and $56 \%$ of high school graduates. In contrast, the figure dropped to $37 \%$ for those who had attended but had not completed high school and to just $17 \%$ for those who had not gone beyond Grade 8. (Table 5.9)

As well, differences in educational attainment appear to have a greater relationship to the labour force activity of women than that of men. In 1993, for example, the percentage of women with less than a Grade 9 education who were in the labour force ( $20 \%$ ) was less than half that of comparable men ( $42 \%$ ), whereas there was a gap of just 7 percentage points in the participation rates of women ( $80 \%$ ) and men ( $87 \%$ ) with a university degree. (Chart 5.2)


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

There is a similar pattern for employment. Women with less than a Grade 9 education were about half as likely as men with a comparable education to be employed in 1993, while only a few percentage points separated the employment levels of women and men with various forms of postsecondary education. (Table 5.9)

It is significant to note, however, that young women with postsecondary training are more likely than their male contemporaries to be employed. In 1993, 74\% of female university graduates aged 15-24 were employed, compared with $69 \%$ of men in this age range with degrees. In contrast, university-educated women over the age of 25 were considerably less likely than men in the same age groups to be part of the paid work force.

## Education and part-time work

Women with high levels of educational attainment are also less likely than other women to work part-time. In 1993, 17\% of employed women with a university degree and $23 \%$ of those with other postsecondary qualifications worked part-time. In comparison, 40\% of those who had attended but had not completed high school and $31 \%$ of those who had less than a Grade 9 education worked part-time. (Chart 5.3)

Women, though, are considerably more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time whatever their educational qualifications. Women with a university degree, for example, were over three times more likely than male graduates to work part-time in 1993, while those with a non-university certificate or diploma were almost five times more likely than their male colleagues to be employed part-time.

## Unemployment and education

Again, as with the overall population, women who have graduated from a postsecondary institution generally have lower unemployment rates than other women. In 1993, 6.1\% of female labour force participants with a university degree and $8.6 \%$ of those with a non-university certificate or diploma were unemployed. This compared with around $11 \%$ of those with either some postsecondary training or a high school diploma, and around $16 \%$ of those who had either attended but had not completed high school or had less than a Grade 9 education. (Table 5.10)

Women with a university degree, however, had a higher unemployment rate than similarly qualified men in 1993: $6.1 \%$ compared with $5.3 \%$. In contrast, at all other levels of educational attainment, women were less likely to be unemployed.

## Income and education

Also consistent with the pattern for the overall population, women with a university degree have considerably higher earnings than women with other educational qualifications. In 1992, female university graduates employed on a full-year, full-time basis earned an average of $\$ 41,288$. This compared with $\$ 27,772$ for women with a community college certificate or diploma, $\$ 25,129$ for high school graduates, and only around $\$ 21,000$ for those who had either attended but had not completed high school or had not gone beyond Grade 8. (Table 5.11)

Chart 5.3


The earnings of women, however, are considerably below those of men in all educational groups. In fact, the earnings of women with a university degree were still less than three-quarters ( $74 \%$ ) those of male university graduates in 1992. Women with less than a Grade 9 education made $73 \%$ what comparable men did, while the figures for other educational groups ranged from $71 \%$ for both high
school and community college graduates to $67 \%$ for those who had attended but had not completed high school.

[^10]Table 5.1
Educational attalnment of people aged 15 and over, 1981 and 1993

|  | Women |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1981 | 1993 | 1981 | 1993 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than Grade 9 | 21.9 | 13.3 | 23.0 | 12.8 |
|  | 53.1 | 43.9 | 49.3 | 41.2 |
| Some secondary school | 5 | 20.9 | , | 21.5 |
| High school graduate | ... |  | $\ldots$ |  |
| Some postsecondary | 7.4 | 8.8 | 8.3 | 8.9 |
| Postsecondary certificate/diploma ${ }^{2}$ | 11.1 | 23.1 | 9.0 | 23.0 |
| University degree | 6.5 | 10.9 | 10.5 | 14.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Total (000s) | 9,374 | 10,955 | 8,994 | 10,437 |

[^11]Table 5.2
Educational attainment, by age group, 1993

|  | People aged |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 |  | 25-44 |  | 45 and over |  | Total |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than Grade 9 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 25.5 | 24.8 | 13.2 | 12.8 |
| Some secondary school | 35.6 | 39.8 | 13.9 | 15.6 | 21.9 | 19.4 | 20.9 | 21.5 |
| High school graduate | 20.4 | 20.9 | 26.4 | 22.4 | 20.6 | 16.2 | 23.0 | 19.7 |
| Some postsecondary | 17.7 | 16.8 | 9.1 | 8.9 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 8.8 | 8.9 |
| Postsecondary certificate or diploma' | 16.3 | 13.1 | 29.5 | 29.8 | 19.4 | 20.0 | 23.1 | 23.0 |
| University degree | 5.0 | 3.4 | 16.7 | 18.4 | 7.6 | 14.4 | 10.9 | 14.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

3 Includes trades certificato.
Source: Siatistics Canada, Calalogve 71-220

Table 5.3
University enrolment of women, by level, 1972-73, 1981-82 and 1991-92

|  | 1972-73 |  |  | 1981-82 |  |  | 1991-92 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | \% | Women as \% of tota! | Women | \% | Women as \% of total | Women | \% | Women as \% of total |
| Bachelor's/first professional | 146,230 | 92.7 | 42.6 | 219,095 | 89.8 | 50.1 | 325,629 | 88.8 | 55.3 |
| Master's | 8,902 | 5.6 | 26.7 | 20,748 | 8.5 | 40.8 | 32,260 | 8.8 | 48.4 |
| Doctorate | 2,630 | 1.7 | 19.4 | 4,223 | 1.7 | 31.1 | 8,630 | 2.4 | 35.8 |
| Total ${ }^{1}$ | 157,762 | 100.0 | 40.4 | 244,066 | 100.0 | 48.6 | 366,519 | 100.0 | 54.0 |

1 Includes those with no specialization.
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Table 5.4
University enrolment of women, by fleld of study, 1972-73, 1981-82 and 1991-92

|  | 1972.73 |  |  | 1981-82 |  |  | 1991-92 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | \% | Women as \% of total | Women | \% | Women as \% of total | Women | \% | Women as \% of total |
| Education | 33,410 | 21.2 | 56.2 | 45,017 | 18.4 | 67.0 | 58,667 | 16.0 | 68.9 |
| Finelapplied ants | 5,941 | 3.8 | 59.9 | 10,827 | 4.4 | 63.6 | 13,927 | 3.8 | 62.8 |
| Humanities | 19,427 | 12.3 | 48.1 | 23,506 | 9.6 | 58.8 | 45,366 | 12.4 | 61.0 |
| Social sciences | 24,388 | 15.4 | 28.9 | 66,371 | 27.2 | 44.8 | 117,798 | 32.1 | 53.5 |
| Agricultural/biological sciences | 8,873 | 5.6 | 40.4 | 12,512 | 5.1 | 52.2 | 22,036 | 6.0 | 56.6 |
| Engineering/applied sciences | 748 | 0.4 | 2.7 | 4,702 | 1.9 | 10.4 | 9.423 | 2.6 | 16.7 |
| Medicine/health | 10,257 | 6.5 | 51.2 | 17,021 | 7.0 | 63.1 | 25,977 | 7.1 | 69.3 |
| Mathematics/physical sciences | 4,148 | 2.6 | 19.1 | 8,154 | 3.3 | 26.3 | 10.962 | 3.0 | 27.9 |
| Total ${ }^{1}$ | 157,762 | 100.0 | 40.4 | 244,066 | 100.0 | 48.6 | 366,519 | 100.0 | 54.0 |

[^12]Table 5.5
Women as a percentage of unlversity enrolment, by level and field of study, 1991-92

|  | Bachelor's and first professional | Master's | Doctorate | Total ${ }^{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Education | 69.4 | 68.0 | 58.7 | 68.9 |
| Fine/applied arts | 63.3 | 60.4 | 43.7 | 62.8 |
| Humanities | 62.8 | 55.6 | 44.3 | 61.0 |
| Social sciences | 54.9 | 44.6 | 43.8 | 53.5 |
| Agriculture/biological sciences | 59.2 | 47.5 | 32.3 | 56.6 |
| Engineering/applied sciences | 17.2 | 16.4 | 10.3 | 16.7 |
| Medicine/health | 71.4 | 66.4 | 43.4 | 69.3 |
| Mathernatics/physical sciences | 29.4 | 25.7 | 17.8 | 27.9 |
| Total ${ }^{1}$ | 55.3 | 48.4 | 35.8 | 54.0 |

1 meludes those with no specialization.
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Table 5.6
Full-time community college enrolment ${ }^{11}$ of women, by field of study, 1976-77, 1981-82 and 1990-91

|  | 1976-77 |  |  | 1981-82 |  |  | 1990-91 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Wornen | \% | Women as \% of total | Women | \% | Women as \% of total | Women | \% | Women as \% of total |
| Arts/science | 648 | 0.8 | 63.2 | 982 | 1.0 | 68.6 | 2,785 | 2.3 | 59.3 |
| Fine/applied arts | 7,165 | 9.0 | 51.8 | 9,892 | 9.8 | 58.2 | 12,369 | 10.3 | 57.7 |
| Humanities | 1,616 | 2.0 | 73.7 | 1,802 | 1.8 | 73.7 | 1,936 | 1.6 | 69.6 |
| Nursing | 21,876 | 27.4 | 96.3 | 18,609 | 18.4 | 93.4 | 20,450 | 17.0 | 89.7 |
| Other health sciences | 7,018 | 8.8 | 76.8 | 6,599 | 6.5 | 74.8 | 8,459 | 7.0 | 72.0 |
| Educational services | 4,255 | 5.3 | 87.4 | 4,928 | 4.9 | 89.1 | 7,706 | 6.4 | 91.3 |
| Other social sciences/ services | 9,568 | 12.0 | 65.4 | 11,674 | 11.6 | 67.2 | 17,260 | 14.3 | 64.1 |
| Secretarial science | 9,821 | 12.3 | 99.5 | 12,277 | 12.2 | 99.6 | 12,367 | 10.3 | 96.5 |
| Other business/ commerce | 11,307 | 14.1 | 41.6 | 22,032 | 21.9 | 51.8 | 25,776 | 21.4 | 52.9 |
| Mathematics/computer science | 1,932 | 2.4 | 41.2 | 5,196 | 5.2 | 46.1 | 3,694 | 3.1 | 30.6 |
| Engineering technologies | 1,228 | 1.5 | 7.3 | 2,095 | 2.1 | 9.3 | 2,700 | 2.2 | 12.2 |
| Other technologies | 1,213 | 1.5 | 8.5 | 1,481 | 1.4 | 8.0 | 1,793 | 1.4 | 10.9 |
| Natural sciences/ primary industries | 1,818 | 2.3 | 24.2 | 3,001 | 3.0 | 28.3 | 2,941 | 2.4 | 31.4 |
| Tolal ${ }^{2}$ | 79,923 | 100.0 | 53.4 | 100,760 | 100.0 | 52.9 | 120.501 | 100.0 | 54.6 |

[^13]Table 5.7
Women as a percentage of full-time university teachers, by tenure and field of study, 1977 and 1991

|  | 1977 |  |  | 1991 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Women as \% of faculty | \% of women teachers with tenure | Women | Women as \% of faculty | \% of women teachers with tenure |
| Education | 757 | 23.3 | 48.2 | 895 | 29.7 | 87.9 |
| Fine/applied ants | 272 | 20.6 | 46.7 | 427 | 27.7 | 84.5 |
| Humanities | 1,098 | 18.3 | 59.7 | 1.570 | 26.0 | 85.3 |
| Social sciences | 998 | 12.8 | 52.7 | 1,982 | 21.0 | 87.7 |
| Agricultura/biotogical sciences | 380 | 16.2 | 62.4 | 491 | 18.2 | 86.8 |
| Engineering/applied sciences | 29 | 1.2 | 48.3 | 123 | 4.2 | 86.2 |
| Health | 1,048 | 23.3 | 50.2 | 1,622 | 26.8 | 77.7 |
| Mathematics/physical sciences | 167 | 3.9 | 44.9 | 352 | 7.2 | 81.0 |
| Total | 4,781 | 14.9 | 53.1 | 7.563 | 20.5 | 83.9 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Table 5.8
Participation in education or tralning programs for job-related reasons, 1991

|  | Women |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 000s | As \% of all employed | 000s | As \% of all employed |
| Academic programs | 444 | 8 | 437 | 7 |
| Other courses | 1,339 | 25 | 1,553 | 24 |
| Total | 1,648 | 30 | 1,862 | 29 |

Source: Statistics Canada. Adult Education and Training Survey.

Table 5.9
Percentage employed, by age group and educational attainment, 1993

|  | People aged |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15-24 |  | 25-44 |  | 45 and over |  | Total |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than Grade 9 | 22.0 | 30.2 | 37.4 | 59.9 | 13.3 | 29.7 | 17.0 | 34.6 |
| Some secondary school | 36.2 | 40.2 | 51.3 | 72.9 | 27.4 | 46.6 | 36.5 | 52.6 |
| High school graduate | 60.0 | 66.1 | 68.1 | 82.9 | 38.6 | 56.0 | 55.9 | 71.1 |
| Some postsecondary | 58.0 | 56.4 | 68.0 | 80.9 | 42.2 | 57.5 | 58.5 | 67.2 |
| Postsecondary certificate or diptoma' | 71.6 | 67.6 | 76.7 | 85.6 | 47.6 | 60.9 | 65.9 | 75.4 |
| University degree | 74.2 | 68.6 | 82.1 | 90.2 | 61.3 | 73.6 | 75.5 | 82.7 |
| Total | 51.9 | 52.3 | 69.3 | 82.2 | 33.3 | 51.2 | 51.4 | 64.7 |

[^14]Table 5.10
Unemployment rates, by educational attainment, 1975-1993

|  | 1975 |  | 1985 |  | 1989 |  | 1993 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than Grade 9 | 10.0 | 7.6 | 13.7 | 12.7 | 11.4 | 10.9 | 16.3 | 16.6 |
| Grade 9-131: <br> Some secondary school | 9.1 | 7.2 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 9.2 | 8.6 | $\begin{aligned} & 12.8 \\ & 15.9 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 14.4 \\ & 17.5 \end{aligned}$ |
| High school graduate | $\ldots$ | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 10.9 | 11.7 |
| Some postsecondary | 7.4 | 5.8 | 9.7 | 9.4 | 7.8 | 6.8 | 11.3 | 11.8 |
| Postsecondary certificate or diploma ${ }^{2}$ | 5.2 | 3.6 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 5.7 | 4.7 | 8.6 | 10.2 |
| University degree | 4.9 | 2.2 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 3.4 | 6.1 | 5.3 |
| Total | 8.1 | 6.2 | 10.7 | 10.3 | 7.9 | 7.3 | 10.6 | 11.7 |

1 Detailed breakdown not available for this category until 1990.
2 Includes trades certificate.
Source: Statistics Canada, Caialogues 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 5.11
Average annual earnings, by educational attainment, 1992

|  | Full-time, full-year workers |  | Other workers |  | All earners |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women's earnings | As \% of those of men | Wamen's earnings | As \% of those of men | Wornen's earnings | As \% of those of men |
|  | \$ |  | \$ |  | \$ |  |
| Less than Grade 9 | 20,580 | 73.4 | 7,785 | 65.9 | 12,824 | 61.7 |
| Some secondary school | 21,216 | 67.3 | 6,069 | 68.9 | 11,170 | 56.0 |
| High school graduate | 25,129 | 71.1 | 9.548 | 74.4 | 17,977 | 64.0 |
| Some postsecondary | 24,745 | 68.8 | 7,490 | 76.8 | 14,377 | 63.5 |
| Postsecondary certificate or diploma | 27,772 | 71.0 | 11,432 | 72.7 | 20,510 | 63.4 |
| University degree | 41,288 | 74.2 | 14,189 | 83.2 | 32,178 | 67.3 |
| Total | 28,350 | 71.8 | 9,297 | 76.5 | 18,923 | 63.8 |

[^15]
## WORK AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

One of the most dramatic trends in Canada has been the growth in the work force activity of married women, especially those with children. However, even when employed, women still bear most of the responsibility for their families. Women who are part of the paid work force continue to spend considerably more time than their spouses on unpaid domestic work, while their work patterns are much more likely than those of men to be affected by family demands. In this context, the provision of paid maternity leave and the availability of accessible, affordable child care are still very important issues for women.

## Marital status

Trends in the labour force activity of married women have been quite distinct from those of other women over the last decade. The proportion of married women in the labour force rose sharply between 1981 and 1989, and then continued to grow, albeit slowly, during the recession in the early part of the 1990s. In comparison, the labour force participation rates of both single and separated/divorced women rose much more slowly in the 1981-1989 period, and have actually dropped significantly since the late 1980s. (Table 6.1)

There have been similar trends in the employment of married and other women. In the period 1981-1989, the proportion of married women who were part of the paid work force rose nine percentage points, compared with increases of four percentage points for single women and just one percentage point for separated/divorced women. In contrast, during the 1990s, there has been little change in the proportion of married women with jobs outside the home, whereas there have been sharp declines in employment among women in other marital groups. (Table 6.2)

As a result of these changes, there is currently little difference in either the labour force participation rate or the employment levels of women depending on their marital status. This is in sharp contrast to the early 1980 s, when married women were considerably less likely than single or separated/divorced women to be in the labour force or to be employed.

As well, in all marital categories, women are less likely than men to be in the labour force or to be employed. The differences between the labour force
participation rates and employment levels of women and men, however, have generally declined over the last decade, with the largest drop occurring among married people.

## Work force activity of women with children

There has also been very rapid growth in the labour force activity of women with children in the past decade. In 1993, $70 \%$ of women with children less than age 16 were in the labour force, up from $55 \%$ in 1981. (Table 6.3)

Most of the increase in the labour force participation of women with children in the last decade was accounted for by growth in employment. Between 1981 and 1993, the proportion of mothers employed outside the home rose from $49 \%$ to $63 \%$. (Table 6.4)

This pattern held even for women with young children. By 1993, over half ( $54 \%$ ) of women with children less than age 3 were part of the paid work force, up from 39\% in 1981. In the same period, the proportion of women with youngest child aged 3-5 working outside the home rose from $47 \%$ to $59 \%$.

Women with pre-school-aged children, though, are still somewhat less likely than those with school-aged children to be in the labour force or to be employed. As well, whatever the age of their children, women are considerably less likely than men with children to be in the labour force or to be employed. In fact, the age of their children makes no difference to the labour force participation rate or employment levels of men with children.

## Mothers working part-time

Women with children are somewhat more likely than other women to work part-time. In 1993, 28\% of employed women with children less than age 16 worked part-time, compared with $20 \%$ of women without children less than age 16 living at home. (Table 6.6)

As well, significant proportions of employed women with children work part-time whatever the age of their children. In 1993, 31\% of employed women with youngest child aged $3-5$ were employed part-time, as were $28 \%$ of those with children less than age 3 and $26 \%$ of those whose youngest child was aged 6-15.

## Labour force characteristics of female lone parents

Female lone parents are considerably less likely than women in two-parent families with children to be employed outside the home. In 1993, 48\% of female lone parents with children less than age 16 were employed, compared with $65 \%$ of mothers in two-parent families. (Chart 6.1)

Chart 6.1


In fact, the proportion of female lone parents with jobs in $1993(48 \%)$ was 6 percentage points lower than it was in 1981, when $54 \%$ of these women were part of the paid work force. This decline can be traced largely to substantial drops in employment levels among lone mothers during the recessions in both the 1981-1983 period and the early 1990s, a trend contrary to that for women in two-parent families.

The employment of female lone parents is also very much influenced by the presence of young children. In 1993, just $25 \%$ of these women with children less than age 3 and $44 \%$ of those whose youngest child was aged $3-5$ were employed; this compared with $60 \%$ of those whose youngest child was aged 6-15. (Chart 6.2)

Chart 6.2
Employment of female lone parents, by age of youngest child, 1993


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

Female lone parents, though, are less likely than women in two-parent families to work part-time. In $1993,21 \%$ of employed female lone parents with children less than age 16 worked part-time, versus $28 \%$ of their counterparts in two-parent families. (Chart 6.3)

Chart 6.3


Unemployment is much higher among female lone parents than among women in two-parent families with children. In 1993, 19.8\% of female lone parents with children less than age 16 were unemployed, compared with just $9.1 \%$ of their counterparts with partners. (Chart 6.4)

Female lone parents with young children have especially high unemployment rates. In 1993, 30.9\% of these women with children less than age 3 and $22.8 \%$ of those whose youngest child was aged $3-5$ were unemployed. In contrast, the comparative figures for women in two-parent families were both less than $10 \%$.

Chart 6.4

## Unemployment rates, by family status and age of youngest child, 1993



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

## Contribution to family income

One result of the growth in work force activity of married women, including those with children, is that these women are making an increasingly important contribution to the income of their families. Indeed, in 1992, dual-earner families made up $61 \%$ of all two-spouse families, up from just $33 \%$ in 1967. (Chart 6.5)

At the same time, the share of women's contribution to family income within dual-earner families has also risen. The earnings of wives made up 31\% of income from all sources in these families in 1992, compared with $26 \%$ in 1967.1

## Still responsible for housework and child care

Women who are active in the workplace also devote considerable amounts of time to unpaid household work. In 1992, employed women with a spouse and at least one child less than age 5 spent 5.3 hours per day ${ }^{3}$ on household activities, including domestic work, primary child care and shopping. At the same time, employed women with a spouse and youngest child aged 5 and over devoted 4.4 hours per day to these activities, while the figure for those without children was 3.7 hours per day. All these figures were around 2.0 hours more per day than those for men. (Table 6.8)

Chart 6.5


The impact of women's contribution to family income is also reflected in the fact that in 1992, dual-earner families had an average income of $\$ 67,352$, compared with only $\$ 47,817$ in single-earner husband-wife families. 1

The number of earners in a household is also critical to Ione-parent families headed by women. In 1992, lone-parent families headed by women less than age 65 with no earners had an average income of just $\$ 13,721$. As a result, almost all of these families, $96 \%$ in 1992, had incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. ${ }^{2}$ (Table 6.7)

Female-headed lone-parent families with one earner do somewhat better; still, in 1992, their average income was only $\$ 27,149$, and $40 \%$ were classified as having low incomes.

## Much time on domestic work and child care

Domestic work activities such as cooking, cleaning and laundry make up the largest component of the total unpaid work time of women employed outside the home. In 1992, employed women with a spouse and children spent around 2.5 hours per day on these activities. This was about an hour more per day than men with spouses devoted to these tasks.

Women active in the paid work force also devote considerable amounts of time to child care activities, ${ }^{4}$ although this varies depending on the age of the children. Employed women with a spouse and at least one child less than age 5 spent 2.2 hours per day on primary child care activities, while mothers with older children spent only 0.7 hours per day on

## Homemaker's work

For many women, especially those with children, looking after the household is their main work activity. In fact, most female homemakers spend more time on unpaid household activities than employed people do at their jobs. These women, however, are not currently included in national labour market surveys.

Among women whose main activity was keeping house, those in two-parent families with pre-school-aged children spent 8.5 hours per day doing unpaid household work in 1992, while the figures were 7.8 hours for lone mothers with young children and around 7.0 hours per day for women in both two-parent and lone-parent families with youngest child aged 5 and over. (Table 6.9)

As well, the amounts of time women whose main activity is keeping house spend on unpaid household work have increased in recent years. Female lone parents, for example, spent close to an hour and a half more per day on these activities in 1991 than they did in 1986, while there were increases of between a half an hour and an hour per day among women in two-parent families with children. (Chart 6.6)

Chart 6.6


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 4 and the General Social Survey.
primary child care. For both groups, however, the amount of time women devoted to child care was roughly double the total for mon with spouses and children.

## Children in day care

There has been a substantial increase in the number of day care spaces available to working women and their children in the last decade. By 1992, there were a total of just over 350,000 supervised day care spaces in Canada, over three times the number in 1980. (Table 6.10)

The rate of increase in the number of day care spaces, however, has slowed in recent years. In the 1989-1992 period, the number of such spaces rose $5.6 \%$ per year, compared with $10.7 \%$ per year between 1987 and 1989 and $15.6 \%$ in the years 1982-1986.

Despite the overall increase, the number of day care spaces currently available still meets only a portion of the child care requirements of Canadian families. In 1990, 28\% of all children under the age of 6 receiving care were in a regular day care centre, while another $3 \%$ were in workplace centres. (Table 6.11)

## Most in informal care

The majority of children in care are looked after through less formal arrangements, with the largest share cared for by sitters, nannies or neighbours. In $1990,43 \%$ of all children in care were looked after at the home of a sitter or neighbour, while $25 \%$ received care at home from a sitter or nanny.

Relatives also play an important child care role. In 1990, 13\% of all children in care went to a grandparent's home and $9 \%$ were cared for in their own home by a grandparent. Another $8 \%$ went to the home of other relatives, while the same percentage were cared for at home by a relative other than a grandparent.

## Absences from work

Women active in the paid work force are almost three times as likely as employed men to be absent from work because of personal or family responsibilities. During an average week in $1993,3.6 \%$ of all women employed full-time, versus $1.1 \%$ of their male counterparts, lost some time from work for these reasons. (Table 6.12)

As well, the average number of days of work lost annually because of personal or family responsibilities has jumped quite dramatically among women over the past decade. In 1993, female workers missed an average of 6.7 days due to these commitments, up from 4.2 days in 1985 and 2.9 days in 1980. Employed men, on the other hand, were absent from work for less than a day in 1993 because of personal or family responsibilities, a figure which is up only marginally from 1980.5

## Maternity benefits

Another important issue facing many women in Canada is the availability of maternity leave. 6 In 1991, there were 164,000 ended maternity absences from work in Canada, almost double the number in 1980.7 Overall, there were 3.9 ended maternity absences for every 100 employed women aged $15-44$ in 1991, up from $2.7 \%$ in 1980. (Table 6.13)

The large majority of maternity absences are paid. In 1991, 89\% of all ended maternity absences
received some form of monetary compensation. This was up from 77\% in 1980. However, the 1991 figure was also down slightly from 1986 and 1987, when the incidence of paid maternity absences had risen to $92 \%$.

Unemployment Insurance benefits are the most common form of maternity leave compensation. In 1991, $77 \%$ of women on compensated maternity leave received only UI benefits. Another 17\% received UI benefits accompanied by other forms of compensation such as group insurance benefits or employer top-ups, while the remaining $6 \%$ received only benefits other than UI. (Table 6.14)

There have, however, been some shifts in the percentages of women receiving benefits from these various sources. For instance, the share of women receiving unemployment insurance in combination with other sources has more than doubled since 1980, while fewer women are relying solely on either unemployment insurance or alternate forms of compensation.

[^16]Table 6.1
Labour force participation rates, by marital status, 1981-1993

|  | Sing |  | Marr |  | Separ divorc |  | Wido |  | Tota |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1981 | 64.7 | 71.3 | 50.6 | 83.4 | 64.3 | 79.5 | 18.5 | 26.5 | 51.7 | 78.4 |
| 1982 | 63.4 | 69.0 | 51.2 | 82.2 | 64.4 | 79.3 | 17.3 | 26.1 | 51.7 | 77.0 |
| 1983 | 64.1 | 69.5 | 52.3 | 81.7 | 64.2 | 77.3 | 17.2 | 27.4 | 52.6 | 76.7 |
| 1984 | 64.8 | 70.3 | 54.0 | 81.2 | 64.8 | 76.8 | 16.4 | 27.6 | 53.6 | 76.6 |
| 1985 | 65.8 | 71.3 | 55.1 | 80.8 | 65.0 | 77.5 | 16.4 | 27.4 | 54.6 | 76.6 |
| 1986 | 66.1 | 72.3 | 56.5 | 80.3 | 63.1 | 77.6 | 15.1 | 26.1 | 55.3 | 76.6 |
| 1987 | 67.1 | 73.9 | 57.6 | 79.5 | 64.6 | 77.7 | 16.0 | 26.4 | 56.4 | 76.6 |
| 1988 | 67.9 | 74.1 | 59.1 | 79.5 | 65.4 | 77.3 | 14.1 | 23.9 | 57.4 | 76.6 |
| 1989 | 68.2 | 75.2 | 59.9 | 79.1 | 66.7 | 76.5 | 14.2 | 24.9 | 57.9 | 76.7 |
| 1990 | 68.1 | 74.1 | 60.9 | 78.6 | 65.5 | 74.4 | 14.1 | 21.5 | 58.4 | 75.9 |
| 1991 | 66.5 | 72.7 | 61.4 | 77.5 | 64.0 | 75.6 | 13.4 | 22.2 | 58.2 | 74.8 |
| 1992 | 65.2 | 71.0 | 61.0 | 76.8 | 63.2 | 73.1 | 13.1 | 21.0 | 57.6 | 73.8 |
| 1993 | 63.6 | 70.3 | 61.4 | 76.3 | 61.9 | 73.7 | 13.1 | 22.6 | 57.5 | 73.3 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 6.2
Percentage employed, by marital status, 1981-1993

|  | Single |  | Married |  | Separated/ divorced |  | Widowed |  | Total |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  |  |  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1981 | 58.1 | 61.8 | 46.8 | 79.7 | 58.9 | 72.1 | 17.5 | 24.8 | 47.4 | 72.9 |
| 1982 | 55.1 | 55.4 | 46.2 | 76.0 | 56.5 | 68.7 | 16.1 | 23.6 | 46.1 | 68.5 |
| 1983 | 55.3 | 55.0 | 46.8 | 74.9 | 55.5 | 64.0 | 15.7 | 24.7 | 46.5 | 67.5 |
| 1984 | 56.4 | 57.0 | 48.4 | 74.9 | 56.2 | 65.4 | 14.9 | 24.9 | 47.6 | 68.0 |
| 1985 | 58.1 | 58.8 | 49.6 | 75.1 | 56.5 | 65.6 | 15.0 | 24.7 | 48.8 | 68.7 |
| 1986 | 58.6 | 60.9 | 51.4 | 75.1 | 55.8 | 67.5 | 13.9 | 24.1 | 49.9 | 69.5 |
| 1987 | 60.4 | 63.6 | 52.6 | 74.8 | 57.6 | 68.6 | 14.2 | 24.4 | 51.2 | 70.1 |
| 1988 | 62.0 | 65.1 | 54.4 | 75.4 | 59.1 | 69.1 | 13.1 | 22.4 | 52.6 | 70.9 |
| 1989 | 62.4 | 66.1 | 55.5 | 75.2 | 60.2 | 68.9 | 13.3 | 22.7 | 53.3 | 71.1 |
| 1990 | 61.9 | 64.3 | 56.4 | 74.1 | 58.9 | 66.0 | 13.1 | 19.6 | 53.7 | 69.8 |
| 1991 | 59.0 | 60.2 | 55.9 | 71.4 | 56.4 | 65.2 | 12.2 | 19.7 | 52.6 | 66.7 |
| 1992 | 57.0 | 57.4 | 55.4 | 70.2 | 55.0 | 61.0 | 11.6 | 18.3 | 51.6 | 65.0 |
| 1993 | 55.1 | 57.4 | 55.8 | 69.8 | 53.1 | 61.5 | 11.8 | 20.3 | 51.4 | 64.7 |

[^17]Table 6.3
Labour force participation rates of women with chlidren, by age of youngest child, 1981-1993

|  | 1981 | 1983 | 1985 | 1987 | 1989 | 1991 | 1993 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | \% |  |  |  |
| All families with youngest child: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than 3 years |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3-5 yoars | 52.4 | 55.6 | 59.8 | $63.4$ | $65.8$ | $68.2$ | $67.2$ |
| Total less than 6 years | 47.5 | 51.5 | 56.4 | 59.9 | 62.1 | 64.0 | 63.4 |
| 6-15 years | 61.2 | 62.0 | 66.1 | 70.7 | 74.8 | 76.2 | 76.4 |
| Total less than 16 years | 54.5 | 56.9 | 61.4 | 65.4 | 68.6 | 70.2 | 69.9 |
| Two-parent families with youngest child: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than 3 years | 44.7 | 49.3 |  |  |  |  | 64.4 |
| $3-5$ years | 51.4 | 55.6 | 59.7 | 63.4 | 66.7 | 69.9 | 69.2 |
| Total less than 6 years | 47.1 | 51.5 | 56.7 | 60.6 | 63.5 | 66.0 | 66.2 |
| 6-15 years | 60.2 | 61.4 | 65.6 | 70.5 | 75.1 | 77.0 | 77.4 |
| Total less than 16 years | 53.6 | 56.4 | 61.1 | 65.6 | 69.2 | 71.4 | 71.7 |
| Lone-parent families with youngest child: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than 3 years |  |  |  |  |  |  | 36.5 |
| 3.5 years | $59.6$ | 56.5 | 59.9 | 63.0 | 60.6 | $59.5$ | 57.5 |
| Total less than 6 years | 51.3 | 51.0 | 54.0 | 52.8 |  |  |  |
| $6-15$ years | 67.8 | 65.5 | 69.2 | 71.5 | 74.0 | 72.1 | 71.1 |
| Total less than 16 years | 61.5 | 60.0 | 63.4 | 64.0 | 64.4 | 62.7 | 59.9 |

Source: Stalistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529, and the Labour Force Survey.

Table 6.4
Percentage of women with children employed, by age of youngest child, 1981-1993

|  | Youngest child <br> less than age 3 | Youngest child <br> aged $3-5$ | Total with youngest <br> child less than age 6 | Youngest child <br> aged $6-15$ | Total without children <br> less than age 16 <br> living at home |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 6.5
Part-time empioyment, by marital status, 1981-1993


Source: Statistics Canada, the Labour Force Survey.

Table 6.6
Part-time employment of women, by age of youngest chlld, 1981-1993

|  | 1981 | 1983 | 1985 | 1987 | 1989 | 1991 | 1993 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | \% |  |  |  |
| Youngest child: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than age 3 | 33.2 | 33.8 | 31.8 | 32.4 | 32.2 | 32.1 | 28.3 |
| Aged 3-5 | 31.8 | 33.2 | 31.6 | 29.5 | 28.8 | 30.9 | 30.7 |
| Total less than age 6 | 32.6 | 33.4 | 31.7 | 31.2 | 30.9 | 31.6 | 29.2 |
| Aged 6-15 | 27.2 | 29.2 | 28.0 | 25.1 | 24.4 | 25.0 | 26.1 |
| Total less than age 16 | 29.4 | 31.0 | 29.7 | 27.8 | 27.2 | 27.9 | 27.5 |
| Women without children less |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| than age 16 living at home | 18.4 | 20.2 | 20.3 | 19.4 | 18.9 | 19.4 | 20.2 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

Table 6.7
Average income and incidence of low income for selected family types, by number of earners, 1992

|  | \% of all <br> families | Average <br> income |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  | $\$$ |
| All families: |  |  |
| No earner |  |  |
| One earner |  |  |
| Two earners |  |  |
| Three or more earners |  |  |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207 and the Survey of Consumer Finances.

Table 6.8
Average time spent on selected activities by employed women and men, by family status, 1992

|  | Total productive activity ${ }^{1}$ | Total paid work oducation | Total unpaid work ${ }^{2}$ | Domestic work | Primary child care | Shopping/ services | Personal care | Free time |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Hours per day ${ }^{3}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Those w/children less than age $5^{4}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Fermale lone parents | 9.3 | 4.8 | 4.5 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 0.8 | 10.0 | 4.8 |
| Women w/spouse | 10.6 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 0.6 | 10.0 | 3.4 |
| Men w/spouse | 10.2 | 6.8 | 3.4 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 9.6 | 4.1 |
| Those w/children |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| aged 5 and over ${ }^{5}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Female lone parents | 9.6 | 5.6 | 3.9 | 2.0 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 10.2 | 4.2 |
| Women w/spouse | 9.9 | 5.4 | 4.4 | 2.6 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 10.2 | 4.0 |
| Men w/spouse | 9.3 | 6.6 | 2.8 | 1.5 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 9.9 | 4.8 |
| Those w/o children |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Women w/spouse | 9.9 | 6.3 | 3.7 | 2.6 | 0.1 | 0.9 | 10.3 | 3.8 |
| Men w/spouse | 8.9 | 7.3 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 10.0 | 5.1 |

[^18]Table 6.9
Average time spent on selected activitles by women keeping house, by family status, 1992

|  | Total <br> productive <br> activity | Total paid <br> work/ <br> education | Total <br> unpaid <br> work | Domestic <br> work | Primary <br> child care | Shopping/ <br> services | Personal <br> care | Free <br> (time |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

1 includes paid work, education and unpaid work; subtolals may nol add due to rounding.
2 includes domestic work, primary child care, and shopping and services.
3 figures averaged over a seven-day week.
4 Al least one child less than age 5.
5 Youngest child aged 5 and over.
Source: Statistics Canada, the General Social Survey, 1992.

Table 6.10
Supervised day care spaces, by type, 1971-1992

|  | Regular <br> day care | Family <br> day cars |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| 1971 | 16,791 | 600 |
| 1975 | 65,281 | 4,671 |
| 1980 | 98,238 | 10,903 |
| 1982 | 109,535 | 14,427 |
| 1983 | 123,292 | 15,778 |
| 1984 | 149,965 | 21,689 |
| 1985 | 169,751 | 22,623 |
| 1986 | 197,802 | 22,715 |
| 1987 | 216,685 | 26,860 |
| 1988 | 232,787 | 30,839 |
| 1989 | 259,891 | 38,192 |
| 1990 | 282,465 | 38,159 |
| 1991 | 292,338 | 40,741 |
| 1992 | 302,790 | 123,962 |

Source: Health and Welfare Canada. Status of Day Care in Canada.

Table 6.11
Families with children less than age 6 recelving child care, by type of care, 1990

|  | Families with children less than age 6 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0005 | \% |
| Receiving child care on a regular basis | 1,329.7 | 45 |
| Receiving child care outside the home in: |  |  |
| Workplace day care | 43.6 | 3 |
| Non-work day care | 375.4 | 28 |
| Sitter or neighbour's home | 566.6 | 43 |
| Grandparent's home | 169.1 | 13 |
| Another relative's home | 108.1 | 8 |
| Other arrangement | 21.1 | 2 |
| Receiving care in home of: |  |  |
| Grandparent | 123.2 | 9 |
| Another relative | 102.8 | 8 |
| Sitter or nanny | 326.1 | 25 |
| Other arrangement | 26.0 | 2 |

Source: Statistics Canada, the General Social Survey, 1990.

Table 6.12
Absences from work due to personal or family responsibilitles, 1980-1993

|  | Women |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Average days lost per year | \% losing time per week | Average days lost per year | \% losing time per week |
| 1980 | 2.9 | 2.1 | 0.7 | 1.1 |
| 1981 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 0.7 | 1.1 |
| 1982 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 0.7 | 1.1 |
| 1983 | 3.8 | 2.5 | 0.8 | 1.2 |
| 1984 | 4.2 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 1.2 |
| 1985 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 0.8 | 1.1 |
| 1986 | 4.4 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 1.2 |
| 1987 | 4.3 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 1.1 |
| 1988 | 4.7 | 3.0 | 0.9 | 1.3 |
| 1989 | 5.1 | 3.3 | 0.9 | 1.4 |
| 1990 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 0.9 | 1.3 |
| 1991 | 5.6 | 3.7 | 0.9 | 1.1 |
| 1992 | 6.0 | 3.2 | 0.8 | 1.0 |
| 1993 | 6.7 | 3.6 | 0.9 | 1.1 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529, and the Labour Force Survey

Table 6.13
Maternity absences from work, 1980-1991
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{lrrr}\hline & \begin{array}{r}\text { Total ended } \\
\text { maternity } \\
\text { absences }\end{array} & \begin{array}{r}\text { Ended maternity } \\
\text { absences as a \% of ended } \\
\text { employed women } \\
\text { aged 15-44 }\end{array}
$$ <br>
maternity <br>
absences <br>

compensated\end{array}\right]\)|  |
| :--- |

Source: Statistics Canada, the Absence from Work Survey.

Table 6.14
Percentage of ended maternity absences compensated, by type of compensation, 1980-1991

|  | Unemployment <br> Insurance only | Unemployment <br> Insurance <br> plus other | Unemployment <br> Insurance ${ }^{1}$ | Other only |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |

[^19]
## UNION MEMBERSHIP

A growing proportion of employed women are members of a union. In fact, women have accounted for most of the growth in union membership in Canada since the early 1980s, although they are still less likely than men to be members of a union. As well, there are differences in the unionization rates of women depending on their job status and industry.

## Women in unions

There was considerable growth in the number of women in unions in the 1980s. By 1991, there were almost 1.6 million female union members, up $34 \%$ from 1983. In contrast, the number of male labour union members rose only $4 \%$ in the same period. Indeed, women accounted for $81 \%$ of all the growth in total union membership in Canada between 1983 and 1991. As a result, women represented $41 \%$ of all union membership in 1991, up from $35 \%$ in 1983. (Table 7.1)

Between 1983 and 1991, the proportion of employed female paid workers who were unionized rose from $29 \%$ to $31 \%$. In contrast, the unionization rate of men declined from $40 \%$ to $39 \%$ in the same period.

Despite these shifts, employed female paid workers are still less likely than their male counterparts to belong to a union. In 1991, 31\% of all femalo paid workers were unionized, compared with 39\% of employed men.

## Full-time/part-time workers in unions

Women employed full-time are more likely than those that work part-time to be unionized. In 1992, $32 \%$ of women employed full-time were union members, compared with $23 \%$ of those working part-time. (Chart 7.1)

Chart 7.1


Part of the growth in total union membership of women reflects the fact that so many more women are part of the paid work force. At the same time, however, the percentage of employed female paid workers belonging to a union has also increased.

Women employed part-time, however, are more likely than male part-timers to be unionized. In 1992, 23\% of women employed part-time were union members, versus $14 \%$ of their male counterparts. In contrast, there was no difference in the unionization rates of women and men employed full-time.

## Unionization by Industry

There is considerable variation in the unionization rate of women in different industries. In 1991, 77\% of women emplayed in public administration, $72 \%$ of those in education, and $64 \%$ of those in communications were members of a union, as were $52 \%$ of those in health and other social services, $41 \%$ in transportation, and $39 \%$ in other utilities. In contrast, only $23 \%$ of women employed in manufacturing, $15 \%$ of those in primary industries other
than agriculture, $10 \%$ of those in both construction and trade, $7 \%$ in services other than education, health, or social services, $5 \%$ of those in finance, and just $2 \%$ of those employed in agriculture were unionized. (Chart 7.2)

Women are also less likely than men to be unionized in most industries. Indeed, health and social services was the only category in which employed female paid workers were more likely than their male counterparts to be unionized.

Chart 7.2


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202.

Table 7.1
Unionized workers, 1983-1991

|  |  | omen |  | Men |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0005 | \% of paid workers unionized | 000s | workers unionized | Women as \% of total union members ${ }^{1}$ |
| 1983 | 1,175 | 28.5 | 2,160 | 39.9 | 35.2 |
| 1984 | 1,210 | 28.4 | 2,169 | 39.7 | 35.8 |
| 1985 | 1,253 | 28.2 | 2,181 | 38.7 | 36.4 |
| 1986 | 1,301 | 28.4 | 2,250 | 39.0 | 36.6 |
| 1987 | 1,353 | 28.1 | 2,261 | 38.0 | 37.4 |
| 1988 | 1,406 | 28.3 | 2,311 | 38.1 | 37.8 |
| 1989 | 1.511 | 29.4 | 2,314 | 38.0 | 39.5 |
| 1990 | 1.552 | 30.3 | 2,288 | 38.6 | 40.4 |
| 1991 | 1.575 | 30.8 | 2,254 | 38.8 | 41.1 |

[^20]
## WORK AND HEALTH

An issue of concern to many employed Canadians is exposure to workplace health hazards. In fact, the majority of women currently active in the paid work force believe they are exposed to some form of health hazard at work. Women, however, are less likely than men to report exposure to health hazards on the job; they are also less likely than men to report negative health impacts due to this exposure. 1

## Perceived exposure to workplace health hazards

The majority of women employed outside the home believe they are exposed to some sort of health hazard at work. In 1991, 61\% of employed women believed they had been exposed to a health hazard in the previous year. This figure, however, was lower than that of comparable men, $71 \%$ of whom reported exposure to workplace health hazards. (Chart 8.1)
addition, $12 \%$ said poor interpersonal relations on the job was a problem. (Chart 8.2)

The proportion of employed women who believe they are exposed to most of these hazards, however, is smaller than that for men. For example, exposure to loud noise in the workplace was reported only a third as often by women as by men, $13 \%$ versus $36 \%$. Similarly, exposure to dust or fibres was reported by $24 \%$ of women, compared with $41 \%$ of men, while exposure to dangerous chemicals was reported by $10 \%$ of women, as opposed to $25 \%$ of men. In contrast, women were more likely than men to report proximity to computer equipment as a problem, $36 \%$ versus $27 \%$, while there was almost no difference in the percentages of women and men reporting excessive demands on the job or poor interpersonal relations as work-related health problems.

Chart 8.1
Perceived exposure to workplace health hazards, by occupational status, 1991


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 8.

The most common perceived risk reported by women is working in proximity to a computer screen or terminal. In $1991,36 \%$ of employed women reported this problem. At the same time, 25\% of employed women reported excessive worry or stress as a result of the demands of the job, $24 \%$ reported exposure to dust or fibres in the air, and $20 \%$ cited poor air quality. Another $13 \%$ reported exposure to loud noise, $10 \%$ cited exposure to chemicals or fumes, and 5\% said they were at risk of injury. In

In general, women employed in professional, semiprofessional, supervisory and skilled positions are more likely to report perceived exposure to workplace hazards than women in other occupational groups. For example, in 1991, 69\% of professionals and high-level managers and $67 \%$ of semiprofessionals, technicians, and middle managers reported some type of exposure, compared with $59 \%$ of unskilled workers and 53\% of semi-skilled workers. (Chart 8.1)

Perceived exposure to workplace health hazards, 1991


## Health impact of percelved exposure to workplace hazards

Over a quarter of employed women believe that exposure to workplace hazards has negatively affected their health. In 1991, 28\% of women reported adverse health effects due to such exposure. However, this was less than the $34 \%$ of men who reported negative health effects. (Chart 8.3)

There is considerable variation, though, in the likelihood of women employed in different occupational categories to report negative health impacts. In 1991, the proportion of employed women reporting
health problems as a result of perceived workplace hazards ranged from $35 \%$ of those in semiprofessional positions to $23 \%$ of both supervisors and semi-skilled workers.

Women employed in semi-professional positions were also marginally more likely than their male colleagues to associate health risks at work with damage to their health. In contrast, women employed as supervisors or forewomen or skilled or semi-skilled labourers were much less likely than men in comparable occupations to report negative health effects due to perceived workplace exposure to health hazards.

Chart 8.3
Perceived impact of exposure to workplace hazards on health, by occupational status, 1991


Source: Statisfics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 8.

Chart 8.4

> Annual days lost from work, by those with perceived exposure to workplace hazards, 1991


## Days lost from work

Women are generally more likely than men to miss work for health reasons. In 1991, employed women reported that they were off the job for health reasons an estimated average of 7.3 days a year, more than a day and a half more than men. (Chart 8.4)

Women concerned about the risk of accident or injury were the most likely to lose time from work for health reasons. In 1991, these women missed 10.7 days per year on average, compared with 9.6 days on average for women concerned about excessive job demands, 9.4 days for those reporting poor interpersonal relations, 8.3 days for those exposed to either poor air quality or dangerous chemicals or fumes, and 7.0 days for those reporting either dust or fibres in the air or exposure to loud noise.

Women concerned about the risk of accident or injury, however, missed only about half as much time
for health reasons as comparable men. Women reporting either poor air quality or exposure to computer screens as perceived health risks also missed less work time for health reasons than men. In contrast, women exposed to all other types of hazards tended to miss work more often than men reporting the same problem.

## Employment health beneflts

Some women in the paid work force receive employment health benefits over and above those provided by the federal and provincial governments. In 1991, 48\% of employed women had disability insurance, while $46 \%$ were covered for each of extra medical/surgical services and for dental care. At the same time, $33 \%$ were eligible for paid maternity/paternity leave as an employment benefit and $30 \%$ were entitled to counselling services for personal problems. (Chart 8.5)

## Chart 8.5



However, with the exception of maternity/paternity leave, women are less likely than men to receive these benefits. In 1991, 48\% of female paid workers aged 15 and over had disability insurance coverage, compared with $63 \%$ of employed men. At the same time, $46 \%$ of women in the paid work force, versus $59 \%$ of men, had either medical/surgical or dental insurance. Women were also slightly less likely than men, $30 \%$ versus $32 \%$, to be entitled to counselling services. On the other hand, $33 \%$ of women had access to additional maternity/paternity benefits, compared with $27 \%$ of men.

## Better coverage in more skilled occupations

Women working in high status occupations such as professional and management positions are considerably more likely than those in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs to be entitled to health benefits at work. For example, $73 \%$ of women in professional or senior management positions were entitled to each of disability insurance and medical and dental benefits in 1991, whereas the figures were just over
$30 \%$ for semi-skilled workers. Similarly, $55 \%$ of management or professional women had access to counselling services, compared with $20 \%$ of unskilled workers and only $17 \%$ of semi-skilled workers. In addition, 50\% of women in the professional/management category were entitled to paid maternity leave, versus $26 \%$ of unskilled workers and $21 \%$ of semi-skilled workers. (Table 8.1)

In general, proportionately fewer women than men had access to disability insurance and medical and dental benefits in almost all occupational categories in 1991. In contrast, women were more likely than men to have access to maternity/paternity leave in most occupational categories that year, while female supervisors and those in semi-professional/technical/ middle-management positions were more likely than their male counterparts to have access to counselling services.

[^21]Table 8.1
Percentage covered by employment health beneflts, by type of benefit and occupatlonal status, 1991

|  | Disability insurance | Medical benefits | Dental benefits | Counselling services | Maternity/paternity leave |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Women: |  |  |  |  |  |
| Professional/high-level management | 73 | 73 | 73 | 55 | 50 |
| Semi-professional/technical/middle management | 66 | 60 | 64 | 47 | 50 |
| Supervisors | 73 | 71 | 71 | 49 | 39 |
| Skilled workers | 53 | 49 | 46 | 27 | 35 |
| Semi-skilled workers | 31 | 32 | 31 | 17 | 21 |
| Unskilled workers | 41 | 37 | 37 | 20 | 26 |
| Total | 48 | 46 | 46 | 30 | 33 |
| Men: |  |  |  |  |  |
| Professional/high-level management | 86 | 81 | 82 | 61 | 49 |
| Semi-professional/technical/middle management | 71 | 68 | 68 | 40 | 38 |
| Supervisors | 84 | 71 | 77 | 39 | 34 |
| Skilled workers | 68 | 68 | 68 | 36 | 23 |
| Semi-skilled workers | 56 | 50 | 48 | 24 | 22 |
| Unskilled workers | 51 | 44 | 4.4 | 21 | 18 |
| Total | 63 | 59 | 59 | 32 | 27 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No.8.

## APPENDIX: MILESTONES FOR WOMEN SINCE 1955

## Legislative milestones

1955 - Removal of restrictions on the employment of married women in the federal Public Service.

Federal Female Employee Equal Pay Act establishes the principle of equal pay for equal work.

- Canada Labour Code is amended establishing the right of women to maternity leave and to equal pay for work of equal value.
- The Unemployment Insurance Act is modified to provide maternity benefits for a period of 15 weaks.
- The Canadian Human Rights Act comes into force prohibiting discrimination on a number of grounds including sex.
- Quebec becomes the first jurisdiction to implement legislation for the protective reassignment of pregnant or nursing workers which requires the employer to reassign the employee to other duties if working conditions are hazardous to the mother, fetus or nursing child.
- The federal Employment Equity Act comes into force requiring federal Crown corporations and federally regulated companies with 100 or more employees to take measures to eliminate systemic discrimination on the basis of sex, race and disability.
- With the exception of submarine duty, all

The Canadian Labour Code is amended to provide for 24 weeks of child care leave and to require employers to ensure that the workplace is free from sexual harassment.

- Section 15 of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms comes into force establishing equal rights for all Canadians and barring discrimination on various grounds including sex. restrictions are removed on the employment of women in the Canadian armed forces.
- The Unemployment Insurance Act is amended to provide 10 weeks of parental benefits.
- The Canada Labour Code is amended to provide maternity-related reassignment and leave which would require employers to make every reasonable attempt to modify the job or reassign a pregnant or nursing employes if her physician deemed it necessary for health reasons; unpaid leave of absence is granted if reassignment is impractical or if the woman is unable to work.
- Saskatchewan becomes the first jurisdiction to address the problem of workplace violence by amending its Occupational Health and Safety Act to require employers to implement a policy to deal with potentially violent situations in the workplace.
- Ontario becomes the first province in Canada to enact Employment Equity legislation. The legislation requires public-sector employers with 10 or more workers and private sector employers with 50 or more employess to create a plan for the hiring and promotion of women, visible minorities, native peoples and people with disabilities. As of May 1994 this legislation had yet to be proclaimed.


## Occupational milestones ${ }^{1}$

1957 - Ellen Fairclough is the first woman federal Cabinet Minister.

- Margaret Meagher is appointed as Canada's Ambassador to Israel and becomes the first Canadian woman to hold an ambassadorial post.
- Dr. Marguerite Ritchie is the first Canadian woman to be appointed as Queen's Council.
- Jean Sutherland Boggs becomes the world's first woman to head a national art gallery, when she is appointed Director of the National Gallery of Canada in Ottawa.
- Thérèse Casgrain, the woman who was instrumental in winning the vote for women in Québec, becomes the first francophone woman appointed to the Senate of Canada.
- Barbara Hughes is elected to the executive of the law society in Nova Scotia, becoming the first woman in Canada to become an executive member of a provincial law society.
- Pauline McGibbon becomes the first woman Chancelior of a Canadian university when she is appointed Chancellor of the University of Toronto.
- Muriel Fergusson is appointed first woman Speaker of the Senate of Canada.
- Rosemary Brown is elected to the legislature in British Columbia becoming the first Black woman to be elected to a provincial legislature in Canada.
- Monique Bégin becomes the first female francophone in the House of Commons.
- Pauline Jewett is appointed President of Simon Fraser University in British Columbia becoming the first woman to head a co-educational university in Canada.
- Working for Transair, Rosella Bjornson becomes the first female jet pilot in North America.
- Gertrude Lane is the first woman to be appointed Chair of the Canada Council.
- Sylvia Ostry is appointed Deputy Minister of Consumer and Corporate Affairs becoming the first woman to hold the position of Deputy Minister in the federal government.
- Grace Hartman is elected president of the Canadian Union of Public Employees, becoming the first woman to head a major union in Canada.
- Rosemary Brown becomes the first woman candidate and the first Black candidate for the leadership of a major Canadian political party when she entered the NDP leadership race against Ed Broadbent.
- Marion Iron Quill Meadmore becomes the first Aboriginal woman admitted to the bar in Canada (Bar of Manitoba).
- Nadine Hunt of Saskatchewan is the first woman to be elected president of a provincial Federation of Labour.
- Jeanne Sauvé becomes the first female Speaker of the House of Commons.
- Alexa McDonough is elected leader of the New Democratic Party of Nova Scotia, becoming the first woman leader of a provincial political party in Canada.
- Judy Erola becomes the first woman Minister Responsible for the Status of Women in the House of Commons.
- Madame Justice Bertha Wilson is the first woman appointed to the Supreme Court of Canada.
- Betty Hughes is the first woman to head a Crown Corporation in Canada when she is appointed Chair of Canadian National.
- Jeanne Sauve is installed as the first female Governor General of Canada.
- Ann Cools is the first Black person in Canada appointed to the Senate.
- Daurene Lewis becomes the first Black woman to be elected mayor when she won $80 \%$ of the vote in the town of Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia.
- Shirley Carr is elected the first female President of the Canadian Labour Congress.
- Claire L'Heureux-Dubé is the first francophone woman appointed to the Supreme Court of Canada.
- Guylaine Bernier becomes the first woman in Canada to become an international judge in the sport of rowing.
- Geraldine Kenney-Wallace is the first woman to head the Science Council of Canada.
- Sheila Hellstrom becomes the first woman Brigadier-General in the Canadian Armed Forces.
- The Honorable Diane Marleau becomes the first francophone woman elected to the House of Commons in a riding outside of Quebec, representing the riding of Sudbury.
- Maxine Tynes becomes the first Black woman to win the Milton Acorn Memorial People's Poet of Canada award.
- Audrey McLaughlin, as leader of the New Democratic Party becomes the first woman to head a federal political party in Canada.
- Helen Sinclair is the first woman to become President of the Canadian Bankers' Association.
- Donna Loban becomes the first female Vice President of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation.
- Glenda Simms is the first Black woman appointed President of the Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women.
- Carol Anne Letheren becomes the first female president of the Canadian Olympic Association.
- Evelyn Lau becomes the first person to have her work short-listed for the Governor General's Award for Poetry while at the young age of twenty-one.
- Terry Vyse becomes the first Aboriginal woman judge in Canada when she is appointed to the Ontario Court, Provincial Division.
- Louise Frechette is appointed Canada's first woman Ambassador to the United Nations.
- Joanne Polack is the first woman general manager of a major football club, the Ottawa Roughriders.
- Rita Johnson becomes the first female premier when she is installed as the Premier of British Columbia.
- Dr. Carole Guzman becomes the first female President of the Canadian Medical Association.
- Nellie Cournoyea becomes Canada's first female territorial leader when she is elected Government Leader of the Northwest Territories.
- Madame Justice Catherine Anne Fraser becomes Canada's first woman Chief Justice of a province (Alberta).
- Paule Gauthier becomes the first woman president of the Canadian Bar Association.
- Maryka Amatsu becomes the first Asian woman judge when she is appointed to the Bench in Ontario.
- Manon Rhéaume is the first woman to play in a professional team sport when she began to play in the National Hockey League.
- Dr. Roberta Bondar is the first woman in Canada to be a member of a space mission.
- Catherine Callbeck is the first woman in Canada to be elected premier when she becomes the Premier of Prince Edward Island.
- Sunera Thobani, a South Asian woman becomes the first woman of colour to head the national women's non-governmental organization, the National Action Committee on the Status of Women.
- The Right Honourable Kim Campbell becomes Canada's first female Prime Minister.
- Sheila Copps is appointed Canada's first woman Deputy Prime Minister.
- The Honourable Ethel Blondin-Andrew becomes the first Aboriginal woman to hold a federal cabinet position. She is appointed Secretary of State for Training and Youth.

1994 - Jocelyne Bourgon becomes the first woman appointed clerk of the Privy Council of Canada.

[^22]References:
Armour, Moira and Pat Staton, Canadian Women in History: A Chronology. Toronto: Green Dragon Press, 1990.

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Status of Women Canada, Canadian Committee on Women's History, and the Department of the Secretary of State of Canada, Women's History Month. Ottawa: Status of Women Canada, 1993.

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[^0]:    Source: Siatistics Canada. Catalogue 71-220 and the Labour Force Survey.

[^1]:    Source: Statistics Canada. Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

[^2]:    1 For more information on maternal benefits see Section 6 . "Work and Family Responsibilities."

[^3]:    1 Includes those aged 65 and over.
    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

[^4]:    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

[^5]:    1. For more information on the retirement income of women see "Women Approaching Retirement", by Diane Galarneau, in Perspectives on Labour and Income, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001. Autumn 1991; and "RRSPs - New Rules. New Growth," by Hubert Frenken and Karen Maser, in the Winter 1993 issue of Perspectives on Labour and income.
[^6]:    1 Expressed in constant 1992 dollars.
    2 Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.
    Source: Slatistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

[^7]:    'Represents women's eamings as a percentage of those of men.
    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

[^8]:    1 For full-year, full-time workers.

[^9]:    - Excludes rollovers of eligible income to RRSPs.

[^10]:    1 Some caution should be used in interpreting these figures because many people in this age range have not yet completed their educations. However, as noted below, women also make up the majority of university students in Canada.

[^11]:    1 Detailed breakdown not available for this category in 1981.
    2 Includes irades certificaie.
    Source: Sialistics Canada, Caialogues 71-220 and 71-529.

[^12]:    1 Inciudes those with no specialization.
    Source: Stafistics Canada, Education, Culiune and Tourism Division.

[^13]:    1 Refers to enrolment in career programs only.
    2 Includes other and not reported.
    Source: Sialistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

[^14]:    1 includes trades certificate.
    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220 and the Labour Force Survey.

[^15]:    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

[^16]:    1 Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-215.
    ${ }_{2}$ includes families that usually spend $56.2 \%$ or more of their income on food, shelter and clothing. These limits also vary by size of family and size and area of residence. These figures, however, are not intended as a measure of poverty.
    3 Figures are averaged over a seven-day week.
    4 It should be noted that the time use information discussed in this section includes only the respondent's main or primary activity at any one time. To the extent that many household activities such as child care are actually done simultaneously with other activities, it is likely that time devoted to these activities is underreported.
    5 For more information on this topic see "Absences from Work Revisited," by Emest B. Akyeampong, in Perspectives on Labour and Income, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001, Spring 1992.
    6 For more information about maternity leave, see "On Maternity Leave," by Joanne Moloney, in Perspectives on Labour and income. Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001. Preview Edition, 1989; and "Maternity Leave," also by Joanne Moloney, in Canadian Social Trends, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-008E, Autumn 1989.
    7 These data include the total number of maternity absences over the course of the year. As such, they differ from figures in Section 3 which report the average monthly number of women receiving maternity Unemployment insurance benefits.

[^17]:    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

[^18]:    1 includes paid work, education and unpaid work: subtotals may not add due to rounding.
    2 mcludes domestic work, primary child care, and shopping and services.
    3 Fígures averaged over a seven-day weok.
    4 Ai least one child less than age 5.
    5 Youngest child aged 5 and over.
    Source: Statistics Canada, the General Social Sunvey, 1992.

[^19]:    1 Includes maternity absences compensated solely by Unemployment Insurance, and those compensated by both Unemployment insurance and an additional source.
    Source: Statistics Canada, the Absence from Work Survey.

[^20]:    1 Excludes pensioners, unemployed and members living in the Territories.
    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202.

[^21]:    , The date in this section are from the 1991 General Social Survey. For more information on this topic see Chapter 6, Health status of Canadians, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 8.

[^22]:    1 This is by no means an exhaustive list of occupational "firsts" for women in Canada since 1954. If you have additional information regarding women's occupational milestones please contact the Women's Bureau. Human Resources Development Canada at (819) 997-1557.

