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Inter-Occupational Mobility of Groups Designated Under the Employment Equity Act 1986-1989 STATISTICG STATISTIQUE CANADA CANADA
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# Inter-Occupational Mobility of Groups Designated Under the Employment Equity Act 1986-1989 

## (Working Paper)

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A study prepared for the Interdepartmental Working Group on Employment Equity Data

## by

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Disponible en anglais seulement
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# Inter-Occupational Mobility of Groups Designated Under the Employment Equity Act 1986-1989 

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## HIGHLIGHTS

- In the current structure of employment, male employees in the general population have proportionately more of the higher level jobs than do female employees, but about the same as the other designated group employees.
- Over the period 1986-1989, the pattern of change within the occupational structure was very similar among male, female and other designated group employees.
- Rates of job leaving and job change show little variation among population groups generally; however, among paid employees, rates of job leaving are higher for female and other designated group employees than for others.
- The gaps in status in the occupational hierarchy tended to narrow among male, female and other designated group employees over the four-year period.
- Women and members of other designated groups are less likely to be hired into jobs that are unionized than into non-unionized jobs or into establishments of less than 100 employees than into larger establishments. They are less likely than men to be hired into high status jobs. Women are less likely, but members of other designated groups are more likely, to be hired full-time than part-time.
- If employment equity goals had been attained, female employees changing jobs would have achieved higher-status jobs than they did - by approximately $\$ 1,700$ in terms of expected annual wage income, on average. For the other designated groups, the gain is evaluated at about $\$ 1,900$. Nevertheless, there is a tendency toward convergence of the distributions of the three population groups with respect to their distribution over the range of job status levels.
- Although the 12-way employment equity occupational classification appears to capture the bulk of actual progress of female and other designated group employees, it understates by half the potential progress, i.e., the progress to be expected if gains in status for male and other employees starting from the same jobs were equal.


## I. INTRODUCTION

This study examines the rates and patterns of job change in Canada over the period 1986-1989 for members of groups designated in the Employment Equity Act. This time span corresponds approximately to the first four years in which the Act was in force. The objective of the study is to examine differences between members of designated groups ${ }^{1}$ and the balance of the labour force in rates of hiring, job leaving, promotion and advancement through change of employers and to estimate the impact on these rates of achieving the employment equity goals of equality of access to employment. By examining differences in these components of mobility among jobs of designated group versus other employees, it may be possible to conclude whether any gaps between the two are being narrowed. This analytic approach is suitable to the statistical base available from the results of the Labour Market Activity Survey (LMAS) conducted by Statistics Canada, the source used in this study. The LMAS includes information on job characteristics and job changes over the course of the year. It is thus possible to examine changes in job status as they occur. This approach may be contrasted with examination of differences between the groups in the structure of employment, i.e., in the characteristics of jobs actually held, a type of analysis which might be employed with the aid of Census data. The structural approach would be expected to yield conclusions only when the observations are made over a lengthy period of time, since the structure changes only slowly.

There are three ways in which possible barriers to the advancement of members of designated groups, either within firms or in the external labour market may be affected and which will be examined by means of three types of indicators:

- If employers are less likely to promote members of designated groups than they are other employees, members of designated groups may try to compensate by seeking advancement through changing employers. In addition, employers may tend to lay off designated group workers sooner than other workers with comparable skills and experience. Compared with other employees, therefore, members of designated groups may be more likely to leave their positions within a given time span.
- Employers may perceive members of designated groups as being less suitable for employment for particular occupations. If so, members of designated groups may be less likely to be hired or promoted into particular types of positions.
- Even when they are hired into the firm or are promoted within the firm, members of designated groups, on account of their weaker bargaining position resulting from these perceptions, may be offered lower-status jobs by employers. Consequently, members of designated groups may, when they change jobs, achieve less of a gain in job status than do other workers.

[^0]Following a brief overview of the main components of mobility and of progress in job status over time, a model is developed which identifies and quantifies statistical differences in these components among the population groups.

The principal questions to be examined in the study as part of the interpretation of the statistical results are as follows:

- How do members of designated groups differ from the remainder of the population in their rates of change between jobs and labour force situations?
- Is the current pattern of hiring and promotion leading to a lessening or a widening in the gaps between the designated groups and the remainder of the population in terms of their standing in the occupational hierarchy?
- How do the various occupation groups compare in terms of the extent to which these gaps are increasing or decreasing?
- Are members of designated groups becoming more or less concentrated in the occupations in which they have until now chiefly been employed?
- How much better would the occupational situation of designated groups have been if employment equity goals had been achieved?


## II. JOB MOBILITY AND THE STRUCTURE OF EMPLOYMENT: AN OVERVIEW

## A. Patterns of Employment and Mobility

During a representative year in the Canadian labour market in the period 1986 to 1989, 53\% of men and $42 \%$ of women were employed at some time during the year. Of the total population of labour force age: $48 \%$ of men and $37 \%$ of women were employed throughout the year; an additional $20 \%$ of men and of women became either employed or unemployed during the year and remained so until the end of the year; and the balance, $32 \%$ of men and $43 \%$ of women, were not employed during the year.

The main patterns of mobility by individual designated group and sex are shown graphically in Figures 1 and 2. These charts are based on the numerical information in Table $10^{2}$. Shown for the total population in each group in Fig. 1 are the rates of: employment throughout the year; non-employment throughout the year; and entry to ("in") and exit from ("out") employment during the year ${ }^{3}$.

Female groups had lower rates of employment and higher rates of non-employment than their counterparts in the male population. Within each sex, the rates of employment were very similar for the general population and members of the visible minority population; but the rates of employment for members of the Aboriginal population were lower and those of persons with disabilities were lower still. Over $70 \%$ of both male and female persons with disabilities wer7/non-employed.

For the employed population as a whole, the rate of job-leaving is $36.0 \%$ annually over the period 1986-1989. With the exception of Aboriginal employees, who show relatively high rates, there are only very small differences among population groups, as shown in the accompanying tables. Female employees have a somewhat higher rate than male employees overall and within each of the population groups.

2 All tables referred to by number in the text may be found in Appendix 3.
3 The discrepancy between flows into and out of employment for each population group is due in part to the nature of the sample from which the data are drawn. Within each of the two-year periods covered by successive samples, persons entering the population of labour force age for the first time (principally through aging or immigration) are not included in the sample frame; whereas those included at the start but leaving the population (principally through aging, death or emigration) are at least, in part, included.

Fig. 1
Employment Status and Transition. Total Population: Male


Disabilities


## Employment Status and Transition

Total Population: Female



Disabilities


Annual Rates of Job Leaving (\%)

|  | Visible <br> Minority | Aboriginal | Disabilities | General | Total |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Male | 36.1 | 43.6 | 35.3 | 34.4 | 34.6 |
| Female | 37.3 | 45.0 | 38.4 | 37.5 | 37.6 |

Shown in Fig. 2 are rates of job change for the continuously-employed population, excluding the self-employed. Rates for all four groups shown are very close - in the range of $15-17 \%$. Thus, there is also very little difference in this mobility stream between designated groups and the balance of the employed population.

This brief analysis demonstrates two important facts about the attainment of employment equity goals via job mobility. First, rates of job leaving, with the one exception noted, and of job change for designated groups are very close to those of the remainder of the population, i.e., men not in any designated group. If members of designated groups, discouraged at their lesser prospects for advancement within the firm, are more likely to change jobs to achieve such advancement, their response is not evident from the overall rates ${ }^{4}$. It may be, however, that some portion of the lower employment rates observed for members of the Aboriginal and persons with disabilities populations, in particular, is due to the prospect of lesser access to employment. Second, only about $15 \%$ of the population in paid employment at both the beginning and end of the year and $13 \%$ of the total population of labour force age move into a new job during the year. Any disparity in job status between designated groups and the remainder of the employed population can only be eliminated by movement among jobs. In any period as short as one year, the extent of adjustment toward equality of status in employment equity is very limited, since the great majority of employed persons remain in the same job throughout the year.

## B. Progress Over Time

Over time, the distributions of the various population groups in the occupational hierarchy may be expected to change. Insofar as the objectives of the Employment Equity Act are achieved, the distributions for the individual population groups may be expected to converge. In this study, the individual employee's standing in the occupational hierarchy is referred to by the term "job status". It is evaluated as the expected value of the wage rate or annual wage income associated with the job.

[^1]Fig. 2 Job Change Employed Population


Male: General


Male: Designated Groups


Female: General


Female: Designated Groups

Progress in job status during each of the four years for male, female and other designated group employees is shown, by occupational class, in Fig. $3^{5,6}$. The chart is based on the numbers shown in Tables 11 and 12, which also include a breakdown by occupation. Changes over each year represent the aggregate change in status of those changing jobs divided by the total number of persons who were employed at both the beginning and end of each year. The result is the average change in status for continuously-employed workers, regardless of whether they moved or remained in their jobs ${ }^{7}$. The three population groups for whom trends are shown in Fig. 3 male employees in the general population, female employees in the general population and all other designated group employees, both male and female - are also used for the subsequent analysis in this report.

Progress for both female employees from the general population and other designated group employees was greater than for male employees in both 1986 and 1987. In terms of the annual dollar value of change in job status, averaged over all employees in each group, female employees gained by nearly $\$ 100$ in each of the two years. For other designated groups, gains over the two-year period were about $40 \%$ greater and for female employees about twice the gains for male employees.

In 1988, progress by male employees increased to over $\$ 200$ in expected annual income, much greater than that of the other groups, more than eliminating their relative progress in the preceding two years. Other designated groups experienced a much greater decline relative to male employees than did female employees. In 1989, the three groups had very similar amounts of progress in job status at around $\$ 100$ in terms of expected income. Since female employees and other designated group employees had average status levels which were $89.4 \%$ and $85.9 \%$, respectively, of the levels of male employees, their proportionate increase in that year was actually above that of male employees. For the four-year period as a whole, male employees


#### Abstract

5 In Fig. 2 and the tables included in this report, the three population groups defined for analysis are referred to as male employees, female employees and designated group employees. It is to be understood that these designations pertain, respectively, to: male employees from the general population, viz., other than members of visible minorities, Aboriginal peoples and persons with disabilities; female employees from the general population; and members, both male and female, of visible minority, Aboriginal and persons with disabilities populations. Designated groups other than female employees are combined in this and the subsequent analysis primarily because attempts to obtain regression estimates for a finer breakdown yielded insufficient numbers of observations.


6 For this and the subsequent analysis presented in this report, a continuous scale representing the status of the occupation was constructed. The scale is in dollar terms and may be interpreted as the level of the hourly wage rate which may be expected by a worker in that occupation. The variable was constructed by calculating the mean value of the wage in each 4-digit category of the Standard Occupational Classification of Statistics Canada.

7 Most employees have a value of zero because they did not move. Others, relatively few in number, have a value of zero because they moved to a different job at the same level. Effects of year-to-year changes in the dollar value of the status associated with each job are netted out by including only within-year changes.

Fig. 3
Change in Status

gained in status by $\$ 428$, female employees by $\$ 362$ and members of other designated groups by $\$ 205$. Even adjusting for their lower starting values, the proportionate gain for female employees was somewhat less than, and for other designated groups was only about half, that of male employees.

One source of the differences between the designated group and male employees in their patterns of change over the four-year period is in their differing distributions among occupations. The three populations showed very similar patterns of change within individual groups across much of the range of occupations (Table 11). Employees originating in the generally lower-level service occupations - Clerical, Sales and Service - experienced steady positive growth in status. These occupations contain relatively large shares of female and other designated group employees. Employees in the higher-level occupations experienced declining status in most years and occupations. The patterns of change differed, however, between other designated group and male employees originating in the occupations associated primarily with processing. There was a mixture of gains and losses in status for female and other designated group employees; but among male employees there was uniformly positive growth except in Crafts and Trades, in which change was almost uniformly negative for all groups.

The direction of change for most occupational categories and years is reversed when the analysis is repeated with changes classified by ending, rather than starting occupation, as in Table 12. The higher occupational levels show positive signs, i.e., those moving into these jobs in these occupations gain in status. Employees moving into Clerical, Sales and Service jobs suffer losses. The processing occupations are mixed, except for Crafts and Trades, in which change is positive. There are no clear differences among population groups in these patterns.

## C. Starting Job Structure

The distribution of the population among jobs at the beginning of the representative year have been summarized in three sets of regression parameters, one set for each of the population groups. Jobs are characterized by a set of dimensions which are also used subsequently in the study in conjunction with the application of the model of job mobility. Estimates of the regression parameters are shown in Table 1. Following are the principal results.

Female employees:
are less likely, holding other job characteristics constant ${ }^{8}$, to be found in unionized than in non-unionized and in full-time than in part-time jobs;

[^2]are less likely to be found in very small establishments (less than 20 employees) than in large establishments;

- held a smaller share of jobs in 1987 than in 1986 but a larger share in 1988 and 1989;
- are least likely to be found in a job in British Columbia compared with other regions; and
- are more likely to be found in Banking or Other Service industries, slightly less likely to be found in the Communications sector and much less likely to be found in the Transportation and Non-Service sectors than in Government.

The effect of job status is especially interesting, since it summarizes the effect of occupational rank. For every increase of $\$ 1$ per hour in the expected wage rate associated with a job, the probability of its being occupied by a female employee declines by $2.5 \%$. Thus, e.g., the chances that a job at $\$ 13.10$, the mean value of job status for male employees, would be occupied by a female employee are $4.7 \%$ less than the chances of a job having status of $\$ 11.24$, the mean value for female employees.

Employees from other designated groups:

- are less likely to be found in unionized than they are in non-unionized jobs;
- are more likely to be found in full-time than they are in part-time jobs;
- are less likely to be found in very small than in very large establishments;
- held smaller shares of jobs in 1988 and 1989 than in 1986 and 1987;
- are most likely to be found in a job in British Columbia, followed by the Prairie Provinces, Ontario, Atlantic Canada and Quebec, in that order; and
- are more likely to be found in the Other Service sector than they are in Government.

Comparing the mean starting value over the four years of jobs held by members of other designated groups, $\$ 11.68$, with the corresponding value for male employees $\$ 13.10$, it would be expected that $0.4 \%$ fewer employees would be from the other designated groups at the higher figure, adjusting for other job characteristics. Members of other designated groups therefore suffer much less segregation into lower-status jobs than do women.

## III. THE MODEL

Three aspects of job mobility are embodied in the model equations:

- the rate of job leaving;
- for jobs filled during the period, the composition, by population group, of the workers filling them;
- the change in job status, for those making a move.

Each aspect is related, in the equations, to a set of explanatory variables, as follows.
The probability of employees leaving their jobs in a given period depends upon: age; industry of employment; whether the job is full-time or part-time; whether it is unionized; the size of the establishment; and the status of the job in the occupational hierarchy (job status).

- Rates of job leaving vary by Industry as a result of factors such as the projectorientation (as in the Construction industry), seasonality, spatial proximity of firms, etc.
- Full-time workers are expected to be more attached to their jobs, i.e., less mobile, than are part-time workers whose situations are more frequently temporary or at least marginal to their firms.
- Unionization is associated with greater job stability, hence lower rates of job leaving; however, because of the seniority provisions usually present in collective agreements, younger workers may actually have greater mobility than those in jobs not covered by such agreements.

Except for those who are self-employed or family relations of the proprietors (classes of workers not included in the regression analysis), rates of job leaving tend to vary by size of firm. Employment in smaller firms is usually associated with greater mobility. Larger firms typically have greater scope to "warehouse" labour during slack times and, in general, to alter the specific duties of the job to suit current requirements; however, the larger firms and establishments offer a greater range of alternative jobs within the firm, thereby reducing the costs of mobility.

As the level of job status increases, the rate of job leaving may be expected to decrease, because of the increasingly specialized nature of the employment resulting in higher search costs for the worker and greater costs for the employer of providing specialized training to increase the new jobholder's productivity.

The probability that those jobs filled during a given period will be filled by members of a particular population group (designated group or others), depends on: the industry in which the job is situated; whether it is full-time or part-time; whether unionized; establishment size; job status; and upon the share of the particular population group in the relevant labour pool.

Industries may vary in their likelihood of hiring members of designated groups as a result of differences in how well the skills possessed by members of those groups fit the actual skill requirements of the industry. In addition, members of the various population groups may tend to be more or less inclined than are members of the population generally to find a job in a particular industry because of non-content job requirements, e.g., geographic location, shift work, tolerance of noise and fumes, etc.

The full-time vs. part-time nature of the job may be important in relation to nonemployment time commitments, most frequently for those responsible for the care of children or other family members.

- Unionization may work in either of two directions. It may reduce outright discrimination by encouraging unbiased hiring practices; but, particularly in the trades, by making union membership a pre-condition to hiring, may inhibit change from traditional hiring patterns.
- Insofar as members of the designated groups are found disproportionately in nonstandard, i.e., other than full-time year-round, employment, they might also be expected to move to jobs where establishment size is smaller more than would those not in designated groups.
- Job status, or position of the job in the occupational hierarchy, is expected to have a negative influence for members of designated groups if we assert that these groups do not have equal access to the better jobs. The magnitude of this effect provides a single, quantitative measure of how far behind are members of the designated groups in the level of employment of jobs they are entering, taking into account the other factors included in the equation.
- The share of the particular population group in the relevant labour pool is included as an explanatory variable to adjust for the availability of members of the individual population groups with relevant experience for the type of job. The share of each group is defined as its share of employment in jobs closely related to the job in question. Inclusion of this variable allows the estimation of short-run hiring rates, i.e., rates conditioned by the existing structure of employment and reflecting costs of adjustment to demand and supply. Without the variable, rates estimated with the model may be interpreted as being consistent with the long run, i.e., a state of equilibrium in which the employment structure is fully adapted to demand and supply.

For those moving between jobs, the difference $I n$ status between old and new jobs depends upon the type of job normally occupied by the mover, i.e., the degree of success of the mover in increasing his job status via the move depends upon where in the overall structure of jobs he/she is located.

Two versions of this equation are tested. In one version, the characteristics of the pre-move (origin) job are used in predicting the status of the post-move job. In the other, the characteristics of the post-move (destination) job are used in predicting the status of the premove job ${ }^{9}$. In addition, one formulation has, as the dependent variable, the start or end job; a second has the difference in status levels of the two jobs ${ }^{10}$. These two formulations may be interpreted to represent somewhat different hypotheses. Change of status being determined by starting job characteristics could be consistent with previous job experience being viewed by the employer as a potential for marginal productivity in the job into which the employee is being hired (a supply-side explanation). Determination by the characteristics of the new job could be interpreted as reflecting variation in the degree to which employers are willing to "invest" in new workers, i.e., to anticipate greater marginal productivity resulting from the new hirees' acquiring job- and industry-specific training and experience (a demand-side explanation).

- Change in status may vary by industry as the result of differences in job structure, e.g., the Other Services sector is composed of large numbers of sales, service and technical personnel relative to supervisory and other management personnel.
- The effect of the full-time vs. part-time nature of the job on the change in status may be either positive or negative. Insofar as part-time jobs are less likely to be related to a career progression, we might expect them to be associated with smaller changes in status than full-time jobs. Based on tabulations by the authors, workers leaving full-time jobs are most likely to be moving to another full-time job. Similarly, workers leaving part-time jobs are likely to be moving to another part-time job. We might thus expect persons either leaving or taking full-time jobs to have larger gains in status than those leaving or taking part-time jobs. When workers are laid off, however, they are less likely to have arranged in advance for another job of at least equal status or at least to assured themselves that such jobs would be available than would workers leaving voluntarily. They may take temporary work, full-time or part-time until they find

9 The regression parameters of the corresponding equations are thought to bracket the true values. Use of one or the other equation may lead to the well-know "regression fallacy." See, e.g., Friedman, "Do Old Fallacies Ever Die?, Journal of Economic Literature, 30(4), December 1992, pp. 2129-2132.

10 The version including either starting or ending status as an independent variable and either ending or starting status, respectively as the dependent variable allows for scaling the difference in status levels associated with the move, i.e., the magnitude of the change in status may vary by status level of the starting or ending job. The advantage of the form in which the difference in status is the dependent variable is the greater standard deviation of the dependent variable and hence greater precision of the parameter estimates on the remaining explanatory variables.
another position more in conformance with their long-term expectations. Part-time workers who are laid off may search longer to find a better alternative job, or may be more likely to have arranged such a job in advance (having more non-work time available for searching) than do full-time workers. Part-time workers may, if we follow this reasoning, have larger increments in status resulting from the move.

- Unionization is associated with stability of employment and a formalized wage structure, both of which may contribute to larger gains in status when a move is made, particularly an intra-firm move. Workers with little seniority in unionized establishments, especially younger workers, may, however, be very mobile among firms and between unionized and non-unionized jobs. Those moving from unionized to non-unionized jobs would be more likely than those moving between non-unionized jobs to suffer decreases in status if the effect of unionization is to make the progression in status over the working lifetime less steep. For those moving into unionized jobs, the converse would be true.
- Establishment size has been shown in a number of studies to be inversely related to wage rates. The relationship with status may be similar, given that a large share of the low-wage jobs are in sectors, especially services and resources, in which, given the method used in this study for constructing the status measure, most low-status jobs are also found.


## IV. RESULTS

## A. Job Leaving

Annual rates of job leaving for paid employees ${ }^{11}$ (Table 2) are higher for female employees and for other designated groups, at $27.0 \%$ and $27.7 \%$, respectively, than the rate of $23.4 \%$ for male employees.

Unionization, full-time employment and job status all reduce the rate of job leaving, for all three groups, holding other job characteristics constant. A negative effect on job leaving is equivalent to a positive effect on job stability. For female employees and employees from the other designated groups the effects are almost identical. For male employees, the effect of unionization is $12 \%$, compared with $16 \%$ for both other groups, indicating that unionization promotes stability and that the effect for the designated groups is greater than for the balance of the workforce.

The positive effect on job stability of full-time employment is much greater for male employees not in designated groups, at $27 \%$, than for either female or other designated group employees, at $18 \%$. This result suggests that women and members of the other designated groups are more likely to be laid off than are male, non-designated employees. Other factors are involved, however, including women's (possibly temporary) retirement from the labour force for child rearing.

The job leaving probability decreases by about $1 \%$ for all three groups with each $\$ 1$-per-hour increase in job status; but the rate is proportionately much greater for male employees not in designated groups than for either of the designated groups, at $1.2 \%$ compared with $0.9 \%$ for women and $1.0 \%$ for other designated groups. Thus, rising job status does not bring with it job stability for designated groups to the extent it does for other employees.

Rates of job leaving are highest for all groups in the smallest classes of firms, those with fewer than 100 employees. Compared with other employees in their own population groups, male and female employees from the general population initially employed at establishments in the 100500 -employee range and other designated group employees at establishments with 500 or more employees are least likely to move.

After an initial drop in rates of job leaving between 1986 and 1987, all groups experienced a peak in 1988.

[^3]Differences in region of employment do not appear to affect significantly the propensity to leave a job. The influence of industry sector, however, is significant for most industries and population groups. For employees from all groups, those in Banking and in Communications, in that order, are the least mobile. Compared with Government, rates for Transportation, Other Services and Non-Services are higher for male employees and other designated group employees but lower for female employees.

The regression analysis shows how the different groups respond to differences in job characteristics. It is possible, using these regression results, to estimate the impact on the individual groups of these differences in response rates, in terms of numbers and rates of job leavers. This additional analysis addresses the question: "If the designated groups had identical rates of response to job characteristics as do male employees in the general population, by how much would numbers and rates of job leavers differ from the actual amounts?" The results, shown in Table 3, are presented by occupational group as well as for the total.

Rates of job leaving for other designated group employees, adjusted for job characteristics, are so close to those of male employees that there would be very little overall impact on mobility if members of the former group moved at the same rates as did members of the latter group, the estimate being only $-1,700$ employees, or $-0.2 \%$ of the starting population of other designated group employees. All the individual occupational group impacts are well below $2 \%$. The actual difference in rates of job leaving between other designated group and male employees from the general population of $4.3 \%$, is due more to the difference between the two groups in the occupational composition of starting jobs than in their propensities to leave.

For female employees, the impact is greater, at $2.9 \%$ overall, or nearly 120,000 employees. Several of the larger occupational groups, including Clerical and Sales and Services, show positive impacts in the range of $3 \%-5 \%$, i.e., there is greater stability in these occupations among female than among male employees from the general population. At the higher occupational levels, including Mid-Level Managers and Professional employees, impacts are smaller, at $0.4 \%$ and $2 \%$ respectively, indicating that propensities to leave are not much different for men and women at these levels although, as in all other occupational groups, the propensity is lower for female than for male employees. Unlike the other designated groups, the higher overall leaving rate for female compared with male employees $-27 \%$ vs. $23.4 \%$ - is the result of differences in job characteristics more than compensating for a lower propensity for job leaving on the part of female employees. Women are found mainly in the low-status, highmobility occupations. In addition, women have a greater tendency than men to enter or leave employment in the course of the year.

## B. Hiring

Women and members of other designated groups are less likely to be hired into jobs that are unionized, have high job status levels and are in establishments of less than 100 employees, other job characteristics being held constant (Table 4). Women are less likely to be hired into
full-time than into part-time jobs, but members of other designated groups are more likely to be hired into part-time jobs. Job openings were more likely to be filled by women in 1989 than they were in 1986. There was a trend over the entire period to a decreasing probability of members of other designated groups being hired. Women are most likely to be hired in the Atlantic region and least likely in British Columbia. Members of other designated groups are least likely to be hired in Quebec. Women are most likely to be hired in Banking and least likely to be hired in Transportation, with Other Services, Government, Communications and Non-Service sectors falling between. For members of other designated groups there are no significant differences among sectors.

For women, changes in their share in the labour pool available for filling a job have a strong positive effect on the likelihood that they will be hired during the period. For every percentage point change in their share, the probability of their being hired into a job increases by $0.44 \%$. This ratio is almost exactly the proportion of female employees in total employment. Thus, for every percentage point increase in the share of female employees in the relevant labour pool, the proportion of women being hired increases by $1 \%$. This result indicates that whether a woman is hired for a particular job depends on whether it is a type of job in which a large proportion of women are found. By contrast, the effect for men is $0.37 \%$, or, adjusted for their relative numbers, $0.8 \%$, indicating a greater tendency to hire them into jobs for which they are in a minority of the labour pool. For other designated groups, the influence of their presence in the immediate labour pool is negative, at $-.16 \%$ (adjusted for relative numbers hired $=$ $-1.9 \%$ ), i.e., members of other designated groups are being hired differentially into jobs of types where they had formerly been present in relatively small proportions. This result indicates that a process of de-segregation is occurring for other designated groups.

Numbers of women hired into the Clerical and Professional categories are much larger - on the order of 100,000 and 40,000 , respectively - than would be expected on the basis of job characteristics (Table 5), assuming the size of the pool of female labour is adequate to fill all job openings. In general, the higher-status occupations show greater than expected numbers of hires for female employees, while the occupations associated with processing show smaller numbers. Accounting for differences in the labour pool available to each job type reduces the difference between actual and expected numbers of hires in almost all occupations, e.g., for Clerical the gap in numbers hired is reduced by about one-quarter. This result indicates that the existing structure of employment, with the associated skill configuration, acts as a constraint on entry of women to most occupations. For the Professional, Semi-Professional and Supervisory categories, however, availability of women with appropriate skills is not a constraint on hiring.

If female employees were, hired at the same rates as male employees relative to their numbers for jobs of the same type, there would be large additional numbers of female employees in MidLevel Management and Professional occupations - approximately 30,000 and 25,000, respectively, when job characteristics are accounted for - as well as the occupations associated with processing. The main loser, in terms of numbers of female employees hired, would be the Service Workers category.

Hirees in the other designated groups show very small differences between their actual distribution among occupations and the distribution predicted from the general equations, whether availability in the labour pool is included as an explanatory variable or not. The largest discrepancies are in the Clerical and Service Worker categories, in which fewer members of other designated groups are hired than would be expected. Proportionately, the Mid-Level Management and Professional occupations have the largest surpluses of actual hirees, adjusted for job characteristics. Hiring members of other designated groups on the same basis as male employees would bring large proportional increases to Mid-Level Management, Professional, Crafts and Trades and Semi-Skilled Worker categories.

## C. Turnover

It is possible to summarize and compare the impacts of individual job characteristics on the components of job turnover, viz., inflows to jobs by means of hiring and outflows from jobs by means of job leaving relative to the composition of employment, i.e., the initial distribution of employees among jobs. The analysis compares the regression coefficients for distribution among job types (Table 1) probability of job leaving (Table 2) and the coefficients of the probability of hire equation (Table 4) ${ }^{12}$, These impacts are shown, in terms of percentages of the pertinent population group's overall level of paid employment, in Table 13.

Unionization increases the share of male employees in total employment by $14.5 \%$ and decreases their rate of job leaving by $12.3 \%$, while the hiring rate is increased by $2.0 \%$. The net effect of job leaving and hiring ( $2.0 \%-(-12.3 \%)=14.3 \%$ ) is almost identical to the composition effect. Thus, if the other characteristics of jobs remained constant, male unionized employment would be maintained at a stable proportion of total jobs by a combination of slightly higher proportions of workers hired relative to non-unionized employment and a much larger relative retention rate (the negative of the rate of job leaving). For female employees, the small negative impact on hiring $(-2.4 \%)$ is more than offset by the large positive impact on retention ( $15.5 \%$ ), a net impact of $13.1 \%$ compared with a negative impact on composition of $13.8 \%$. Over time, therefore, the share of female jobs which are unionized would also remain stable. For other designated groups, there is a shortfall of $5.2 \%$ in hiring. The positive impact on retention rate, while high at $15.9 \%$, is not sufficient to stabilize or reduce the initial deficit of $18.3 \%$. The projected share of other designated groups in unionized jobs is therefore decreasing.

For male employees, the compositional surplus of full-time compared with part-time jobs of $11.7 \%$ may be compared with the positive impacts on the retention rate of $26.8 \%$ and the hiring rate of $6.5 \%$. Male employees tend to stay in their full-time jobs, requiring only a small proportion, relative to part-time jobs, of replacement workers. The large net inflow implied,

[^4]if these rates continue, means that male employees will increasingly be full-time employees. For female employees, the hiring shortfall of $8.2 \%$ is more than overcome by the high impact on the rate of job retention, $18.1 \%$, for an impact on net flow of nearly $10 \%$. The result is that, even though female differential rates of retention of and hiring into full-time versus part-time jobs are less than those of male employees, their shortfall in the proportion of full-time jobs, currently at $17.8 \%$ is tending to be reduced. For other designated groups, the large positive impact on employment of full-time work $20.3 \%$ is much greater than for the other groups. The impact of full-time employment on job retention is about the same as for female employees, at $18.3 \%$. While the estimated impact on hiring is not statistically significant, given the likely range of values it is to be assumed that the current high level of the impact on composition is being maintained for other designated groups.

As job status increases, the impact on composition is positive for male employees, at the rate of $5.7 \%$ of their numbers for each dollar per hour, but negative for female ( $-6 \%$ ) and for other designated groups $(-0.8 \%)$. The net impact on male employees of job leaving and hiring is approximately neutral, indicating a tendency away from an employment structure in which increasing status is associated with increasing male proportions. For female employees, conversely, the net impact of leaving and hiring, while slightly negative, is still less than the effect of composition, hence a tendency toward greater female representation with increasing status. For other designated groups, the net impact of leaving and hiring is nearly neutral, indicating, as with female employees, a lessening of the negative effect of job status. There is, in summary, a tendency toward convergence of the distributions of the three population groups with respect to their distribution over the range of job status levels.

It is possible to compare the components of turnover among industry sectors of male and female employees, but not those of other designated groups, for whom the much smaller numbers of observations have yielded non-significant estimates. As with job status, there is a tendency to convergence in the distributions of male and female employees among industries. For male employees, compared with the large positive impacts (relative to Government as the reference sector) on composition in the Transportation (44.8\%) and Non-Service ( $21 \%$ ) sectors and the large negative impacts in Banking ( $-44.2 \%$ ) and Other Services ( $-37.4 \%$ ), the net impacts of leaving and hiring are small, ranging from $-2.6 \%$ in Banking to $5.7 \%$ in Non-Service Industries. In Communications, the net flow impact of $8.3 \%$ is larger than the compositional impact of $4.3 \%$. For female employees, the net impacts of leaving and hiring are generally greater than for male employees, but much smaller than the compositional impacts. These larger flow impacts reflect a greater tendency to move between industries. Banking and Transportation with positive and negative compositional impacts, respectively, of about $53 \%$ have flow components of $27.7 \%$ and $-12.5 \%$, respectively. Other Services and Non-Service, with a compositional impacts of $41.7 \%$ and $-25.6 \%$, respectively, have relatively small flow impact rates of the same respective signs, while the flow impact in Communications is neutral, compared with a $\mathbf{- 5 . 1 \%}$ compositional impact. Hence, the overall effect of job changes is toward a more homogeneous industry employment structure for male and female employees.

## D. Change in Status: Movers by Starting Occupation

Among male employees from the general population changing jobs during the year, change in job status is less where their starting job is full-time, in smaller establishments, or located in Ontario than it is for other male movers, in at least one form of the model equation (Table 6) ${ }^{13}$. There is no clear influence of the industry sector.

For female employees from the general population, by contrast, the only consistently significant estimates relate to the industry sector. The largest gains were among those who started in the Banking sector and, to a lesser extent, in the Government, Other Services and Non-Service sectors. Transportation and Communication were associated with the smallest gains. Other estimates for one of the forms of model equation show greater gains for unionized than for nonunionized, for full-time than for part-time, for Ontario than for other and for small establishment than for large establishment employees.

For members of other designated groups, only the positive effect of unionization and the negative effects of location in Quebec and British Columbia are consistent in the regression results. Thus, other designated group employees are less likely to be hired into unionized jobs than are male employees, but those who are so hired are likely to realize a larger gain in status from a subsequent job move than are those hired into non-unionized jobs. The evidence for the same pattern among female employees is mixed, however.

The regression results have been used to compare actual change in status over the four-year period, measured in terms of the average change in expected annual wage income, with expected values based on job characteristics (Table 7). Calculations have been made for total job movers and separately for those moving within and between the 12 occupational categories. It is desired to estimate the additional impact on mobility of including in the analysis those employees moving within any of the 12 groups, since they have not been included in employment equity reporting heretofore.

Both for female employees and for employees from the other designated groups, numbers of workers moving between pairs of the 12 occupation categories exceed those moving within those categories by $13-15 \%$. Among the larger occupational categories, the ratios of interoccupational to intra-occupational movers are highest, for female employees, among Sales Workers and Services Workers. Employees in these groups have the most to gain by switching occupations. Among Clerical workers, the largest single occupation for both population groups, and among Professionals, the numbers of those moving within occupation exceed the numbers moving between occupations. These last two groups might therefore appear to have lower relative mobility in an analysis limited to the 12 -way classification.

[^5]Overall, female employees who moved gained an average of just over $\$ 1,000$, or $5 \%$, in job status, while other designated group employees gained less than $\$ 900$, or $4 \%$. While numbers of intra- and inter-occupational movers are of about equal orders of magnitude, for both groups the bulk of the gain in status is attributable to employees moving between pairs of the 12 occupational classes. Female employees who moved between classes gained more than $\$ 1,700$ while for those who moved within their occupation, job status increased by less than $\$ 300$ on average. Job status for other designated group employees moving within their occupation showed less than a $\$ 100$ increase, compared with over $\$ 1,500$ for those moving between categories. In the aggregate, $89 \%$, for female employees, and $94 \%$, for other designated group employees, of the total increase in job status was accounted for by those who moved between categories.

Female employees moving between occupational groups achieved gains in status amounting to about $\$ 500$ more in expected income than would be predicted on the basis of the characteristics of their starting jobs, while those moving within groups achieved gains amounting to about $\$ 500$ less. Somewhat surprisingly, therefore, the impact of assuming equal influence of the various dimensions of the starling job on male and female employees is nearly the same for intra- as for inter-occupational female movers. The figure is close to $\$ 1,700$ for both groups. Thus although the 12 -way classification appears to capture the bulk of actual progress of female employees ${ }^{14}$, it accounts for little more than half the potential progress, i.e., the progress to be expected if gains in status for male and female employees starting from the same jobs were equal.

For other designated group employees the gain in status for those moving between occupational groups is only slightly greater than what would be predicted on the basis of their starting job characteristics. For those moving within occupations, this difference is negative, i.e., the actual gain is less than the expected gain. The net gain in status for the former relative to the latter group is about $\$ 400$. The impact for those moving within occupations of assuming equality of other designated group and male response to the characteristics of the starting job is actually larger for those moving within than for those moving between occupations, at $\$ 3,300$ versus $\$ 2,000$. Thus, use of the 12 -way classification for measuring progress for the other designated groups overstates the average progress made by members of the group only slightly; but it understates by over $50 \%$ the gap in potential progress.

Among female movers, those moving from jobs in Supervisory and Services occupations showed the largest gains in status, at about $\$ 4,000$, the proportionate gain being much greater for the latter than for the former. Those in Middle-Level Management showed the greatest decline, followed by Professionals. For Service and Supervisory workers, the actual gains in status are $25 \%$ and $11 \%$, respectively, greater than the values that would be predicted on the basis of their starting job characteristics. Among other designated group employees, of the occupations with sufficient numbers of observations, the largest loss of job status, about $5 \%$, was in the

[^6]Professional category, while the largest increase, $23 \%$ was for Service workers. For both population groups, a positive change in status by starting occupation was associated with a predominance of inter-occupational moves while a negative change in status was associated with a predominance of intra-occupational moves.

If female movers had realized gains in job status equal to those of male employees with the same job characteristics at the start of the period, their average increase in status would have been an additional $10-12 \%$ in the Supervisory, Clerical, Sales and Services occupations. For other designated group employees the potential gains if rates of increase had been equal to those of male employees with the same job characteristics would have been large, at least in those occupations for which there are adequate numbers of observations. In Services the gain would have been $20 \%$ greater and in the Clerical and Other Manual Worker occupations 11-12\% greater.

## E. Change In Status: Movers by Ending Occupation

For male employees from the general population, the same general pattern of influences on change in status prevails from the point-of-view of the job of destination as was observed for the job of origin. The main exceptions are industry sector and unionization. The influence of each of unionization, presence in small and medium-sized relative to very large establishments and presence in the Banking sector relative to Government is to decrease the gain or increase the loss in status and in most cases is consistent between the two forms of the equation employed to derive the estimates. This result indicates that male employees moving to new jobs with these characteristics are less likely to have large gains in status as the result of a move than are those moving to jobs that are non-unionized or in very large establishments. Few of the parameter estimates other than the end-of-year job status are significant in the equation for predicting the start-of-year status; but unionization and location in the Banking sector are significant and have signs consistent with those in the difference form.

As in the case of male employees from the general population, the difference form of the equation for female employees shows somewhat better results for the individual explanatory variables when these variables pertain to the end-of-year or post-move job compared with the equation containing start-of-year or pre-move job characteristics. This result gives some slight support to the hypothesis of wage-change determination being a demand side phenomenon (see discussion in Section III, above).

For female employees, being hired into full-time jobs increases the size of change in expected wage rate relative to being hired into part-time jobs, as does being hired into small-to-medium size firms relative to large firms.

For employees from the other designated groups, there are significant and negative effects on change in status where the destination job is unionized, in establishments of less than 100 employees or located in Central Canada. For full-time jobs, the effect is positive.

Female employees entering the Clerical and Service occupations and members of other designated groups entering Sales and Service jobs suffer large declines in status, particularly in the Service occupation (Table 9). By contrast, female employees moving to Mid-Level Management, Professional and Semi-Professional occupations and members of other designated groups moving to Mid-Level Management jobs appreciate large gains in status.

For female employees, the impact of adjusting for job characteristics is to exaggerate the gap between the high and low status occupations, possibly revealing the importance of the demandside and the price of human capital. The impact of applying across occupation categories in dollar terms, hence greater in percentage terms in the lower-status occupations. This result shows that the degree of disadvantage for female employees due to lack of job access is proportionately greater in the lower-status than in the higher-status occupations.

For other designated groups, a comparison of impacts among occupations is not possible because of the small numbers of observations available.

## v. CONCLUSIONS

Rates of job leaving and of job change for other designated group employees are very close to those of the remainder of the population, i.e., men not in any designated group. If members of designated groups, discouraged at their lesser prospects for advancement within the firm, are more likely to change jobs to achieve such advancement, their response is not evident from the overall rates. It may be, however, that some portion of the lower employment rates observed for members of the Aboriginal and persons with disabilities populations, in particular, is due to the prospect of lesser access to employment. Moreover, where only the population of paid employees is considered, rates of job leaving are higher for female and other designated group employees than for male employees.

In any period as short as one year, the extent of adjustment in the overall structure of employment toward equality of status in employment equity is limited, since the great majority of employed persons remain in the same job throughout the year.

Women tend to be hired or promoted into types of job in which large proportions of women are employed, reinforcing the existing concentration in relatively few occupations. By contrast, for men there is a greater tendency to be hired or promoted into jobs for which they are in a minority of the relevant labour pool. For members of other designated groups, a process of desegregation is occurring.

The chances of being hired or promoted into a full-time job are less for both women and other designated groups than are their chances of being in a full-time job initially; however, taking into account female employees' low rate of job leaving, their incidence of full-time job holding is approaching that of male employees, other dimensions of the employment structure being held constant.

If the hiring and promotion patterns which prevailed during the period 1986-1989 continue, the profiles of status in the job hierarchy of male, female and other designated group employees will converge, although slowly, over the coming years.

If the other characteristics of jobs remained constant, male and female unionized employment would be maintained, in future, at close to the present proportions of total jobs, while the proportion of other designated groups would decrease.

If employment equity goals had been attained, female employees changing jobs would have achieved higher-status jobs than they did - by approximately $\$ 1,700$ in terms of expected annual wage income, on average. For the other designated groups, the gain is evaluated at about \$1,900.

The gap in the extent to which female employees changing jobs are able to improve their job status relative to male employees is about the same over the range of occupations; hence, for lower-level occupations the gap is proportionately greater.

The 12 -way classification used in employment equity reporting appears to capture the bulk of actual progress in job status of female employees; but it accounts for lime more than half the potential progress. Use of the 12 -way classification for measuring progress for other designated groups overstates slightly the average progress made by members of the group; but it understates by over $50 \%$ the gap in potential progress.

## APPENDIX 1

## GLOSSARY

## Population

Designated groups: Under the Employment Equity Act, four population groups have been designated for whom the objective of greater access to employment has been set. These groups are: women, Aboriginal peoples, visible minorities and persons with disabilities. In most of the discussion of this report, distinctions are drawn among three groups, referred to, for ease of exposition, as male, female and other designated groups. The term "other designated groups" denotes both male and female members of the Aboriginal, visible minorities and persons with disabilities populations.

General population pertains to that portion of the total population not in the Aboriginal, visible minorities and persons with disabilities populations.

## Labour market characteristics

Job status refers to the position in the hierarchy of jobs. In order to compare status levels among jobs, a scale was created to represent the expected wage for an occupation, i.e., the wage level experienced by the typical worker in that occupation. The set of values was derived by calculating the mean value of reported wages in each detailed (4digit level in the Standard Occupational Classification) occupational category or grouping of categories.

Mobility is a general term pertaining to change of labour force or employment status and encompasses entry to and exit from the labour force or employment, and change of jobs in the internal (same employer) or external (change of employers) labour market. The model as implemented in this study deals with a period of one calendar year. Thus, e.g., a job change is defined by the individual's having a different job on December 31 than the one held on January 1 of the same year.

The employed population are those occupying at least one job.
Non-employed individuals have no job, either because they are in the labour force but unemployed or because, although of labour force age, they are not in the labour force.

Job leavers are those persons with a job at the start but no or a different job at the end of the year.

Hirees are employed at the end of the year, but either were non-employed or employed in a different job than at the start of the year.

Movers are employed at both the beginning and end of the year, but in different jobs. Included are those who received promotions or experienced other job change for the same employer.

## APPENDIX 2

## PROCEDURES

Data files on individuals constructed from the results of the Statistics Canada Labour Market Activity Survey (LMAS) for the four years were pooled for the present analysis. The records used for the regression analysis were subsets of the initial working file. The pooling was performed for two main reasons. First, it was intended to perform analysis related to job mobility, which involves in any one year only a fraction of the population employed. In addition, it was intended to apply the analysis to designated groups, which, with the exception of female employees from the general population, are also small in size relative to the total population. In order to obtain enough observations for the analysis, therefore, portions of the four annual and two-year longitudinal files were merged into a series of working files. Second, it was intended to examine whether the relationships formalized in the model had shifted with the passage of time. In particular, it was desired to find whether there had been progress toward the goals of employment equity, as revealed by these quantified relationships. In the context of regression analysis, it is possible to introduce a "shift" variable corresponding to each year. The time-period in question is of particular interest, since it corresponds approximately with the first four years of operation of the federal programs under the Employment Equity Act.

For the estimation of regression parameters, observations were excluded for a particular year for persons who were self-employed at either the beginning or end of the year or for whom, for any other reason, complete job information was not available.

The regression analysis was performed by means of weighted least squares, using the SAS statistical package.

## APPENDIX 3

## TABLES

## Notes on Tables

The job distribution of the population by designated groups at the beginning of the representative year have been summarized in the three sets of regression parameters, one set for each population group, shown in Table $1^{15}$. The dependent variables are the proportions of the total population who are, respectively, male employees in the general population, female employees in the general population and all other designated group employees, both male and female ${ }^{16}$. In Table 1 and in the succeeding tables in this appendix, these three groups are compared in terms of the effects of a variety of possible influences on, respectively, their location in the job structure and on several dimensions of mobility.

Most of the explanatory variables are expressed as classes. Their coefficients may be interpreted as the difference in the probability between being in a job in that category and a job in the excluded, or reference, category, shown by "--" in Table 1, all other variables held constant. For example, and referring to the coefficients labelled " A ", the chance that a job will be filled by a male employee, holding other characteristics of the job constant, in 1988 is $1.77 \%$ less than in 1986, by a female employee $3.14 \%$ greater and for other designated group employees $1.37 \%$ less. For each of the classes for all discrete variables, the coefficients sum to zero across population groups. The one continuous variable among the set of explanatory variables is Job Status. Its coefficient is to be interpreted as the change in probability of a job being occupied by a member of that population group for each additional dollar of expected hourly wage. The

[^7]16 The equations may be used to calculate the probability that a job will be occupied by an employee from one of the three population groups by adding to the intercept term the coefficients corresponding to the characteristics of the job. Thus, e.g., for a job which is non-unionized, part-time, with an hourly wage of $\$ 10$, in an establishment with 100-500 employees, in the year 1987 in the Atlantic Region and in the Banking sector, the chances of its being occupied by a male employee from the general population is $\mathbf{1 8 . 4 \%}$ $(0.049+0+0+0.287-0.005+0.024+0.050-0.221)$, by a female employee from the general population is $73.2 \%$ and by an employee from another designated group is $18.4 \%$. The predicted values shown in the tables in the body of this report were calculated in this way. There is one redundant equation in Table 1, since the predicted values are forced, by the nature of linear regression analysis, to sum to 1.0 and the coefficients for each of the explanatory variables to sum to zero. All three are shown in order to be able to examine the significance of the estimates for each of the three groups.
sets of coefficients labelled " B " are the same coefficients divided by the respective mean values of the dependent variables, which are equal to the proportion of each group in the population of paid employees. The resulting coefficients represent the impacts of the individual explanatory variables adjusted for differences in size of the three population groups. Thus, the proportion of male employees filling a job in 1988 is $3.45 \%(1.77 \% / 5002)$ less than in 1986, etc.

Results of the regression analysis of the probability of leaving, during the year, a job held at the beginning of the year are shown in Table 2. The dependent variable is measured as the proportion of employees in the specific population group, rather than as the proportion of employees in all groups, as in Table 1.

In Table 3, numbers and rates (relative to the starting population) of job-leavers for female and for other designated group employees are shown for each of the 12 employment equity occupation groups. The counts and rates are annual averages over the four years. In addition to the numbers obtained directly from the sample data, two sets of estimates have been simulated, using the regression coefficients shown in Table 2. These estimates are, respectively, the numbers of employees calculated using the coefficients of their own population group ("own coefficients") and using the coefficients of male employees ("male coefficient") ${ }^{17}$. The actual numbers leaving their jobs by occupation may be adjusted for differences in the characteristics (unionization, size of firm, etc.) of the starting job by comparing them with the predicted change shown in the "own coefficients" row. The difference between the predicted "male coefficient" and "own coefficient" values is the impact. The impact may be interpreted as the difference in numbers of employees leaving their jobs if their propensity to leave were identical to that of male employees with the same set of job characteristics. Alternatively, a positive impact may be seen as the deficiency, or, if negative, the excess in numbers who actually did leave their jobs compared with what those numbers would have been if their propensity to leave were identical to that of male employees with the same set of job characteristics. The advantage of calculating the impact in this way, compared with simply applying the overall male rate of job leaving is that it accounts for differences between the population groups in the structure of employment, thereby eliminating the influence of differences in mobility by job type.

The estimated regression coefficients for hiring of new entrants and job movers are shown in Table 4 under the " A " headings. Each equation predicts the probability, for one of the population groups, of being hired into a job with the stated set of characteristics during the year. As in Table 1, the table also includes an alternative set of coefficients, for ease of comparison across groups. They are derived from the original coefficients by dividing each by the proportion of hires accounted for by the particular population group, e.g., by 0.4647 in the case of the equations for male employees. Thus, according to the unadjusted equations ("A"), the probability that a job will be filled, e.g., by a male employee is $13 \%$ greater if it is full-time rather than part-time, equivalent (equation "B") to $28 \%$ of male employees.

[^8]For each group there are two sets of explanatory variables - one with and one without the labour pool variable. This variable represents the proportion of the subject population group in the labour pool available for that particular class of job. The labour pool is represented by those employees found in the broad industry and occupation categories in which the subject job is situated ${ }^{18}$. The two versions of the equation are shown in order to gauge the effect of availability of female and other designated group employees on their chances of being hired. This definition of availability is more specific than the one generally employed in discussions of employment equity, in which total numbers of employees from a particular designated group are counted as being available for any type of job.

Table 5 shows the counts, actual and predicted, of employees being hired into jobs during a representative year, by occupation, for those occupations for which there were sufficient observations. The predicted counts are derived from the proportions, shown in the lower portion of the table, which are calculated using the estimated parameters of Table 4. The impact for each population group, summed over all occupations is forced to zero, since it is assumed that total numbers of hires for each group are not affected, but only the distribution among occupations.

The set of regression equations used in predicting the change in job status for Movers is shown in Table 6. Two forms of the equation are shown. In one, the change over the year in job status, in terms of expected hourly wage, is the dependent variable. In the second, the end-ofyear value of job status is regressed upon the same set of explanatory variables plus the start-ofyear value of job status ${ }^{19}$. The latter form is equivalent to the former when the coefficient of the start-of-year job status variable is constrained to a value of 1.0 . In both forms, the explanatory variables pertain to the starting job, i.e., the one held at the beginning of the year ${ }^{20}$.

18 The variable is constructed as the proportion of the population group in the same industry and occupation as the subject job. For this purpose, a set of nine occupation categories, defined by the divisions of the Standard Industrial Classification and 11 occupations defined by the employment equity groupings was constructed.

19 The equation form in Table 6 in which end-of-year status is the dependent variable is used in calculating the predicted value of end-of-year status while its equivalent from Table 8 is used to calculate the predicted value of beginning-of-year status. The difference in the predicted values are used for the simulations shown in Tables 7 and 9.

20 The two forms of the equation may be interpreted as representing different hypotheses about the relationship between job status and mobility. The difference form may be interpreted as stating that the change in status consequent on a move is related to the individual's potential level of status which is, in turn a function (in this case a linear combination) of age, education and the explanatory variables. The equation would be consistent, e.g., with the hypothesis that there is some threshold cost which is an increasing function of starting job status which must be overcome by an increase in expected ending status in order to precipitate a move. The alternate equation form could be interpreted as expressing a proportional-adjustment model, according to which the change in status is a fraction of the difference between potential status, as represented by the explanatory variables other than starting status, and the starting status.

The regression results of Table 6 have been used to compare actual change in status over the four-year period, measured in terms of the average change in expected annual wage income, with expected values based on job characteristics. These calculations are shown in Table 7 for total job movers and separately for those moving within and between the 12 occupational categories. Where there are sufficient numbers of observations, the analysis is shown by employment equity occupational category. As in Tables 3 and 5, there are two sets of predicted values for each category. They are obtained by multiplying the characteristics of the individual observations against the parameters, respectively, for the corresponding population group and for male employees, in this case using the predictive equations shown in Table $6^{21}$. The values of change in status are the differences between the predicted end-of-year status and the actual status at the beginning of the year.

The regression equations, the parameter estimates for which are shown in Table 8, are similar to those of Table 6, except that the equation form in which the dependent variable is job status (rather than change in job status) pertains to the start of the year and the explanatory variables pertain to the job held at the end of the year. The equations therefore may be employed to predict the change in job status for movers according to the characteristics of the job into which they are hired. Consistency between equation forms in parameter estimates requires that the signs be opposite, e.g., if the influence of a variable on change in status (defined as ending value minus starting value) is positive, then, holding the ending value of job status constant, the effect is to make the starting value less. Like signs could be interpreted as consistent, however, if the "reaction coefficient" of the proportional-adjustment model is allowed to be negative, an assumption which would imply, in this context, that the more an individual's status, in the destination job, falls short of the expected value for jobs in that class, the smaller the gain in status he would have appreciated with the move and conversely, the more by which actual status exceeds expected status, the greater the gain would have been.

Table 9 is based upon the same data and calculations as Table 7, but it is organized by ending, rather than starting, occupation. As in Table 7, the values of change in status are the differences between the predicted (from the regression results shown in Table 6) end-of-year status and the actual status at the beginning of the year.

Table 10 shows population counts by labour force and employment status throughout, or change of status during, the year. Tables 11 and 12 show, for movers, the change of status evaluated in dollar terms by, respectively, starting and ending occupation.

In Table 13, the impacts of the individual explanatory variables on each of the population groups are shown. These values are constructed from the regression coefficients of Tables 1, 2 and 4, dealing, respectively with the employment structure, job leaving and hiring. All impacts are expressed as a percentage of the individual sub-population of paid employees. The coefficients

[^9]of the probability-of-hire equations were transformed for this purpose both to be specific to the employed population in each group and to take account of the lower numbers for hires than for job leavings, i.e., the coefficients were adjusted to be consistent with a "steady state" - equality between the two flows for each population group.

| TABLE 1 <br> Probablity of Being in a Population Group: Regression Results |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | 0.0491 * | 0.7887 * | 0.1622 * |
| Unionization Unionized Non-Unionized | $\begin{gathered} 0.0726 \\ \ldots \end{gathered}$ | -0.0579 * | $\begin{gathered} -0.0147 \text { * } \\ \ldots \end{gathered}$ |
| $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \text { Full-Time/Part-time } \\ \text { Full-time } \\ \text { Part-time } \end{array}$ | $0.0584 \text { * }$ <br> -- | -0.0747* | 0.0163 - |
| Job Status | 0.0287 * | -0.0252* | -0.0035 * |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Size of establishment } \\ & 1-19 \\ & 20-99 \\ & 100-500 \\ & 500+ \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.0010 \\ 0.0103 \\ -0.0058 \\ - \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.0136 \text { * } \\ -0.0075 \\ 0.0095 \text { * } \\ -- \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.0146 * \\ -0.0028 \\ -0.0037 \end{gathered}$ |
| Year 1986 1987 1988 1989 | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0249 \text { * } \\ -0.0177 \text { * } \\ -0.0334 \text { * } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} -0.0421^{*} \\ 0.0314^{*} \\ 0.0458{ }^{*} \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0172 * \\ -0.0137 * \\ -0.0125 * \end{array}$ |
| Region <br> Atlantic <br> Québec <br> Ontario <br> Prairies <br> British Columbia | $\begin{gathered} 0.0503 \text { * } \\ 0.0476 \text { * } \\ -0.0001 \\ -- \\ 0.0159 * \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.0053 \\ 0.0123 * \\ 0.0090 \\ -- \\ -0.0306 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} -0.0556^{*} \\ -0.0599^{*} \\ -0.0089^{*} \\ --{ }^{*} \\ \hline 0.0147 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
| Sector Banking Transportation Communications Other Services Non-Service Government | $\begin{array}{r} -0.2211 * \\ 0.2243 \text { * } \\ 0.0214 \text { * } \\ -0.1869 \text { * } \\ 0.1050 \text { * } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.2228 * \\ -0.2206 * \\ -0.0212 * \\ 0.1748 * \\ -0.1073 * \\ - \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.0017 \\ -0.0037 \\ -0.0002 \\ 0.0120{ }^{\star} \\ 0.0023 \\ -- \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| Adjusted $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ Dependent Mean No. of Observations <br> * - Significant at 5\% level | $\begin{array}{r} 0.1395 \\ 0.5002 \\ 130,536 \end{array}$ | 0.1273 0.4195 130,536 | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0090 \\ 0.0803 \\ 130,536 \end{array}$ |

## TABLE 2

Probablity of Leaving a Job: Regression Results

|  | GENERAL POPULATION |  | DESIGNATED GROUPS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | 0.5846 * | 0.5449 * | 0.4283 * |
| Unionization |  |  |  |
| Unionized | -0.1227 * | -0.1552* | -0.1586 * |
| Non-Unionized | -- | -- | -- |
| Full-Time/Part-time |  |  |  |
| Full-time | -0.2675 * | -0.1808* | -0.1826 * |
| Part-time | -- | -- |  |
| Job Status | -0.0120* | -0.0093* | -0.0104 * |
| Size of establishment |  |  |  |
| 1-19 | 0.0531 * | 0.0156 * | 0.0559 * |
| 20-99 | 0.0099 * | 0.0071 | 0.0237 |
| 100-500 | -0.0232* | -0.0158* | 0.0332 . |
| $500+$ | -- |  | - |
| Year |  |  |  |
| 1986 | - | - | -- |
| 1987 | -0.1830* | -0.0987* | -0.1089 * |
| 1988 | 0.0513 * | 0.0616 * | 0.1319 * |
| 1989 | 0.0364 * | 0.0221 * | 0.0832 * |
| Region |  |  |  |
| Atlantic | 0.0119 | 0.0106 | 0.0580 |
| Québec | 0.0152 * | -0.0105 | 0.0085 |
| Ontario | 0.0053 | 0.0020 | 0.0010 |
| Prairies | -- | -- | -- |
| British Columbia | 0.0178* | -0.0122 | 0.0303 |
| Sector |  |  |  |
| Banking | -0.0729 * | -0.1643* | -0.1415* |
| Transportation | 0.0012 | -0.0475* | 0.0691 * |
| Communications | -0.0308* | -0.0684* | -0.0515 |
| Other Services | 0.0324 * | -0.0241* | 0.0421 * |
| Non-Service | 0.0135 * | -0.0441 * | 0.0286 |
| Government | 0.013 | 0.044 | 0.028 |
| Adjusted R2 | 0.1265 | 0.0793 | 0.0923 |
| Dependent Mean | 0.2336 | 0.2696 | 0.2774 |
| No. of Observations | 65,379 | 56,769 | 8,388 |
| * - Significant at 5\% level |  |  |  |

1. The occupational categories do not sum to Total because of the omission of: Upper Level Management; and Foreman/Forewoman.

|  | TĀB̄LE 4 <br> Conditional Probability of Being Hired: Regression Results (Without Labour Pool) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | A | B' | A | $B^{1}$ | A | B ${ }^{1}$ |
| Intercept | -0.0357 | -0.0768 | 0.8475 * | 1.8817 * | 0.1882 * | 2.2167 * |
| Unionization Unionized Non-Unionized | 0.0557* | 0.1199 - | -0.0407* | -0.0904 * | -0.0160* | -0.1885 ${ }_{\text {- }}$ * |
| Full-Time/Part-time Full-time Part-time | 0.1294 * | 0.2785 ${ }^{\text {* }}$ - | -0.1364 * | -0.3028 * | 0.0070 | 0.0824 |
| Job Status | 0.0255 * | 0.0549 * | -0.0229* | -0.0508* | -0.0026 * | -0.0306 * |
| Size of establishment |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1-19 | 0.0577 * | 0.1242 * | -0.0197 | -0.0437 | -0.0380* | -0.4476* |
| 20-99 | 0.0803 * | 0.1728 * | -0.0553 * | -0.1228* | -0.0250* | -0.2945* |
| 100-500 | 0.0166 | 0.0357 | 0.0008 | 0.0018 | -0.0174* | -0.2049* |
| $500+$ | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Year |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1986 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 1987 | 0.0371 * | 0.0798 * | -0.0263* | -0.0584* | -0.0108* | -0.1272* |
| 1988 | 0.0184 | 0.0396 | 0.0011 | 0.0024 | -0.0194 | -0.2285 |
| 1989 | 0.0082 | 0.0176 | 0.0180 | 0.0400 | -0.0263* | -0.3098* |
| Region |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Atlantic | 0.0139 | 0.0299 | 0.0306 | 0.0679 | -0.0445* | -0.5241* |
| Québec | 0.0330 * | 0.0710 * | 0.0234 | 0.0520 | -0.0564* | -0.6643 * |
| Ontario | -0.0114 | -0.0245 | 0.0178 | 0.0395 | -0.0064 | -0.0754 |
| Prairies | - | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| British Columbia | 0.0443 * | 0.0953 * | -0.0546 * | -0.1208* | 0.0103 | 0.1213 |
| Sector |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Banking | -0.1974* | -0.4248* | 0.1880 * | 0.4174 * | 0.0094 | 0.1107 |
| Transportation | 0.0274 * | 0.0590 * | -0.2894* | -0.6425* | 0.0150 | 0.1767 |
| Communications | 0.1025 * | 0.2206 * | -0.1094* | -0.2429* | 0.0072 | 0.0848 |
| Other Services | -0.0833* | -0.1793* | 0.0782 * | 0.1736 * | 0.0050 | 0.0589 |
| Non-Service | 0.1409 * | 0.3032 * | -0.1379* | -0.3062* | -0.0033 | -0.0389 |
| Government | . - | -- |  |  |  |  |
| Adjusted $\mathrm{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$ | 0.1123 | 0.1123 | 0.1037 | 0.1037 | 0.0068 | 0.0068 |
| Dependent Mean | 0.4647 | 1.0000 | 0.4504 | 1.0000 | 0.0849 | 1.0000 |
| No. of Observations | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 |
| * - Significant at 5\% level |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Divided by Dependent Mean

TĀB̄LE 4
Conditional Probability of Being Hired: Regression Results (With Labour Pool)

GENERAL POPULATION
Male
Female
A B1 A

|  | A | B1 | A | B' | A | B' $^{1}$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | $-0.1359 *$ | $-0.2924 *$ | $0.5480 *$ | $1.2167 *$ | $0.2010 *$ | 2.3675 * |

Unionization

| Unionized | $0.1473^{*}$ | $0.3170^{*}$ | $-0.0300^{*}$ | $-0.066 *^{*}$ | $-0.0152 *$ | $-0.1790^{*}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Non-Unionized | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |

Full-Time/Part-time

| Full-time | $0.0979 *$ | $0.2107 *$ | $-0.1006 *$ | $-0.2234 *$ | $0.0082 *$ | 0.0966 * |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Part-time | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |


| Labour Pool | 0.0037 * | 0.0080 * | 0.0044 * | 0.0098 * | -0.0016 * | -0.0188 * |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Job Status | 0.0201 * | 0.0433 * | -0.0163* | 0.0362 * | -0.0028 | 0. |

Size of establishment

| $1-19$ | $0.0470^{*}$ | $0.1011^{*}$ | -0.0086 | -0.0191 | $-0.0379^{*}$ | $-0.4464 *$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $20-99$ | $0.0778^{*}$ | $0.1674 *$ | $-0.0400 *$ | $-0.0888^{*}$ | $-0.0251^{*}$ | $-0.2956 *$ |
| $100-500$ | 0.0181 | 0.0389 | 0.0034 | 0.0075 | $-0.0175^{*}$ | $-0.2061 *$ |
| $500+$ | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |

Year

| 1986 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1987 | 0.0042 | 0.0090 | 0.0126 | 0.0280 | -0.0100 | -0.1178 |
| 1988 | 0.0172 | 0.0370 | 0.0044 | 0.0098 | -0.0153 | -0.1802 |
| 1989 | -0.0252 | -0.0542 | $0.0584 *$ | $0.1297 *$ | $-0.0225^{*}$ | -0.2650 * |

Region

| Atlantic | -0.0020 | -0.0043 | 0.0524 * | 0.1163 * | -0.0440* | -0.5183* |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Québec | 0.0281 * | 0.0605 * | 0.0307 * | 0.0682 * | -0.0566* | -0.6667* |
| Ontario | -0.0109 | -0.0235 | 0.0197 | 0.0437 | -0.0064 | -0.0754 |
| Prairies | - - | -- |  |  |  |  |
| British Columbia | 0.0323 * | 0.0695 * | $-0.0380^{*}$ | -0.0844 * | 0.0105 | 0.1237 |

Sector

| Banking | -0.1765* | -0.3798* | 0.1630 * | 0.3619 * | 0.0103 | 0.1213 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Transportation | 0.2226 * | 0.4790 * | -0.2201* | -0.4887* | 0.0149 | 0.1755 |
| Communications | 0.0875 * | 0.1883 * | -0.0771* | -0.1712* | 0.0090 | 0.1060 |
| Other Services | -0.0539* | -0.1160* | 0.0441 * | 0.0979 * | 0.0047 | 0.0554 |
| Non-Service | 0.1315 * | 0.2830 * | -0.1170* | -0.2598* | -0.0028 | -0.0330 |
| Government | -- | - - | -- | -- | - - | -- |
| ted $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$ | 0.1357 | 0.1357 | 0.1330 | 0.1330 | 0.0072 | 0.0072 |
| ndent Mean | 0.4647 | 1.0000 | 0.4504 | 1.0000 | 0.0849 | 1.0000 |
| of Observations | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 | 23,583 |
| ignificant at 5\% lev |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Divided by Dependent Mean

| TABLE 5 <br> Hirees: Group Share of Total |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| FEMALE EMPLOYEES | MLM | PROF. | S-PROF | SUPER. | CLC | SW | SVCW | C\&T | SSW | OMW | TOTAL' |
| COUNTS            <br> Actuad <br> Predicted <br> (Labour Pooi)  63,965 123,144 48,879 14,809 287,161 93,573 135,610 6,322 12,099 651 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | 47,910 | 86,573 | 42,738 | 13,305 | 181,629 | 80,767 | 148,103 | 28,234 | 48,014 | 104,870 | 856,339 |
| Male general coefficients | 78,248 | 111,411 | 41,404 | 10,898 | 183,938 | 94,641 | 73,618 | 59,303 | 67,302 | 115,650 | 856,339 |
| Impact | 30,338 | 24,838 | -1,334 | -2,407 | 2,309 | 13,874 | -74,485 | 31,069 | 19,288 | 10,780 | 0 |
| Predicted <br> (No Labour Pool) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | 46,731 | 88,021 | 47,121 | 13,505 | 166,867 | 79,093 | 158,085 | 33,030 | 56,874 | 118,549 | 856,339 |
| Male generai coefficients | 86,743 | 119,962 | 45,341 | 10,602 | 171,667 | 94,441 | 62,742 | 72,791 | 80,668 | 128,510 | 856,339 |
| Impact | 40,011 | 31,941 | -1,780 | -2,903 | 4,800 | 15,349 | -95,343 | 39,761 | 23,794 | 9,961 | 0 |
| RATES (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | 43.5 | 53.9 | 47.8 | 54.9 | 76.2 | 48.7 | 54.8 | 5.4 | 7.9 | 23.7 | 45.1 |
| Predicted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (Labour Pool) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | 32.6 | 37.9 | 41.8 | 49.3 | 48.2 | 42.0 | 59.8 | 24.1 | 31.3 | 41.1 | 45.1 |
| Male general coefficients | 53.2 | 48.8 | 40.5 | 40.4 | 48.8 | 49.3 | 29.7 | 50.7 | 43.9 | 42.2 | 45.1 |
| Impact | 21 | 11 | -1 | -9 | 1 | 7 | -30 | 27 | 13 | 1 | 0.0 |
| Predicted ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (No Labour Pool) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | 31.8 | 38.6 | 46.0 | 50.1 | 44.3 | 41.2 | 63.8 | 28.2 | 37.1 | 43.3 | 45.1 |
| Male general coefficients | 59.0 | 52.6 | 44.3 | 39.3 | 45.6 | 49.2 | 25.3 | 62.2 | 52.6 | 46.9 | 45.1 |
| Impact | 27.2 | 14.0 | -1.7 | -10.8 | 1.3 | 8.0 | -38.5 | 34.0 | 15.5 | 3.6 | 0.0 |
| MLM: MID-LEVEL MANAGER PROF: PROFESSIONAL | S-PROF: SEMI-PROFESSIONAL SUPER: SUPERMSORY |  |  |  |  |  |  | SVCW: SERVICE WORKERS |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | SSW: SEMI-SKILLED WORKERS |
|  | SUPER: SUPERVISORY |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | W: OTHER | MANUAL WO | RKERS |

1. The occupational categories do not sum to Total because of the omission of: Upper Level Management; and Foreman/Forewoman.

2. Difference in expected wage
3. Ending expected wage


|  | Change | Status o <br> GENERA <br> ale | ABLE 8 vers to: R <br> OPULATIO Fe | gression <br> nale | DESIGNA | ED GROUPS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $A^{1}$ | $\mathrm{B}^{2}$ | $A^{1}$ | B2 | $A^{1}$ | B2 |
| Intercept | 3,297 * | 11,901 * | 708 * | 12,259 | 3,828 * | 4,159 |
| Unionization |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Unionized | -492 * | 1,005 * | 1,137 | 5* | -888* | 1,270 |
| Non-Unionized | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Full-Time/P art-time |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Full-time | -673* | -472* | 2,046 * | -3,912* | 745* | -1,951 |
| Part-time | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Job Status | -- | 874* | -- | 903 | - | 1,158 * |
| Size of establishment |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1-19 | -1,744* | -607* | -562* | -1,834 | -2,601* | 2,184 |
| 20-99 | -1,402 | 19 * | -548* | -1,191 | -1,160* | 1,367 |
| 100-500 | -1,222 | 418 * | -446* | -724 | -1,077 | 1,541 |
| 500+ | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Year |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1986 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 1987 | 725 | 341 * | . 346 * | 710 | 44 | 362 |
| 1988 | 1,468 | 1,019* | -808* | 2,464 | -517* | 3,297 |
| 1989 | 1,707 * | 1,597 * | -11* | 2,834 | 1,437 | 2,502 |
| Region |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Atlantic | 192 | -66 | 334 | -226 | -641 | 2,404 |
| Québec | 246 | -517 | -42 | 197 | -3,646* | 2,718* |
| Ontario | 712 | -477 | 395 | 197 | -1,743* | 1,678 * |
| Prairies | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |  |
| British Columbia | 942 | -617 * | 646* | -1,238 | -3,570* | 3,256* |
| Sector |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Banking | -4,741* | 4,939 * | 1,343 | -1,712* | -2,175 | -56 |
| Transportation | -1,081 | -68 | -9* | 419 | 1,716 | -1,593 |
| Communications | -1,038 | 1,006 | 2,088 | -2,983* | 1,575 | 178 |
| Other Services | -2,928 | 744 * | -476* | -270 | -1,494 | -65 |
| Non-Service | -1,137 | 317 * | 306 | -834 | -162 | -435 |
| Government | - - | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Adjusted R ${ }^{2}$ | 0.0226 | 0.2449 | 0.0182 | 0.3411 | 0.058 | 0.4273 |
| Dependent Mean | 1,499 | 24,018 | 1,057 | 21,406 | 864 | 21,922 |
| No. of Observations | 6,092 | 6,092 | 5,520 | 5,520 | 776 | 776 |
| * - Significant at 5\% level |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Difference in expected wage
2. Starting expected wage
3. The occupational categories do not sum to Total because of the ornission of: Upper Level Management; Foreman/Forewoman; and Crafts and Trades.

| TABLE 9 <br> MOVERS: Change in Status by Ending Occupation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DESIGNATED GROUP EMPLOYEES | MLM | PROF. | S-PROF | SUPER. | CLC | SW | SVCW | SSW | OMW | TOTAL' |
| COUNTS | 7,786 | 7,787 | - | - | 18,500 | 8,387 | 12,198 | - | 10,381 | 81,860 |
| Between Occupations | - | - | - | - | 9,021 | - | - | - | - | 43,763 |
| Within Occupations | - | - | - | - | 9,479 | - | - | - | - | 38,097 |
| CHANGE IN STATUS (\$) <br> Total |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | 4,825 | 3,666 | - | - | 15 | -1,502 | -1,414 | - - | -249 | 864 |
| Predicted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | -275 | -2,059 | - | - | 1,681 | 1,157 | 2,022 | - | 1,377 | 863 |
| Male general coefficients | 1,083 | -2,376 | - | - | 3,929 | 3,386 | 4,961 | - | 3,744 | 2,725 |
| Impact | 1,358 | -317 | - | - | 2,248 | 2,229 | 2,940 | - | 2,367 | 1,862 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | - | - | - | - | 251 | - | - | - | - | 1,539 |
| Predicted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | - | - | - | - | 1,932 | - | - | - | - | 1,281 |
| Male general coefficients | - | - | - | - | 4,005 | - | - | - | - | 3,229 |
| Impact | - | - | - | - | 2,072 | - | - | - | - | 1,948 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | - | - | - | - | -210 | - | - | - | - | 87 |
| Predicted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | - | - | - | - | 1,441 | - | - | - | - | 382 |
| Male general coefficients | - | - | - | - | 3,857 | - | - | - | - | 2,147 |
| Impact | - | - | - | - | 2,416 | - | - | - | - | 1,764 |
| CHANGE IN STATUS (\%) <br> Total |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 19.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Predicted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | -1.1 | -6.5 | - | - | 8.4 | 5.5 | 11.9 | - | 7.0 | 3.8 |
| Male general coefficients | 4.3 | -7.5 | - | - | 19.6 | 16.2 | 29.3 | - | 19.1 | 12.4 |
| Impact | 5.4 | -1.0 | - | - | 11.2 | 10.6 | 17.3 | - | 12.0 | 8.6 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | - | - | - | - | 1.3 | - | - | - | - | 7.3 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | . - | - | - | - | 9.8 | - | - | - | - | 6.5 |
| Male general coefficients | - | - | - | - | 20.2 | - | - | - | - | 15.0 |
| Impact | - | - | - | - | 10.5 | - | - | - | - | 8.5 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Actual | - | - | - | - | -1.0 | - | - | - | - | 0.4 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Own coefficients | - | - | - | - | 7.1 | - | - | - | - | 0.9 |
| Male general coefficients | - | - | - | - | 19.0 | - | - | - | - | 9.4 |
| Impact | - | - | - | - | 11.9 | - | - | - | - | 8.5 |
| MLM: MD-LEVEL MANAGER PROF: PROFESSIONAL | S-PROF: SE <br> SUPER: SUP | ROFESSIO ORY |  | LERICAL ALES WOR |  | SERVICE <br> EMI-SWL | ERS ORKERS | : OTH | NUAL WO |  |

[^10]TABLE 10
Labour Force and Job Mobility, 1986-1989 (annual average)
Male Employees

|  | Visible Minority | Aboriginal | Disabilities | Others | TOTAL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Same Employer, Change Occupation | - | - | - | 49,104 | 53,145 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.63 | 0.61 |
| Same Employer, Change Industries | - | - | - | 13,930 | 15,626 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.18 | 0.18 |
| Same Employer, Change Both | - | - | - | 85,124 | 91,647 |
|  | . - | - | - | 1.09 | 1.06 |
| Same Employer, No Change | 187,277 | 28,532 | 50,762 | 3,147,827 | 3,414,398 |
|  | 39.96 | 30.24 | 16.17 | 40.46 | 39.36 |
| Different Employer, Change Occupation | - | - | - | 33,014 | 35,477 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.42 | 0.41 |
| Different Employer, Change Industries | - | - | - | 54,695 | 61,584 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.70 | 0.71 |
| Different Employer, Change Both | 15,538 | - | - | 247,393 | 270,126 |
|  | 3.32 | - | - | 3.17 | 3.11 |
| Different Employer, No Change | - | - | - | 59,878 | 65,081 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.77 | 0.74 |
| Into Employment | 29,459 | - | 10,690 | 479,041 | 526,133 |
|  | 6.29 | - | 3.41 | 6.14 | 6.07 |
| Into Non Employment | 70,241 | 14,647 | 21,099 | 1,110,476 | 1,216,463 |
|  | 14.99 | 15.52 | 6.92 | 14.24 | 14.02 |
| Non Employed | 146,093 | 36,823 | 224,813 | 2,517,309 | 2,925,038 |
|  | 31.18 | 39.01 | 71.61 | 32.28 | 33.72 |
| TOTAL | 468,613 | 94,344 | 313,922 | 7,797,790 | 8,674,719 |
|  | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

TABLE 10
Labour Force and Job Mobility, 1986-1989 (annual average)
Female Employoes

|  | Visible Minority | Aboriginal | Disabilities | Others | TOTAL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Same Employer, Change Occupation | - | - | - | 50,589 | 53,117 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.63 | 0.59 |
| Same Employer, Change Industries | - | - | - | 14,235 | 15,153 |
|  |  | - | - | 0.18 | 0.17 |
| Same Employer, Change Both | - | - | - | 69,513 | 75,082 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.87 | 0.84 |
| Same Employer, No Change | 152,314 | 21,634 | 40,481 | 2,525,129 | 2,739,558 |
|  | 31.47 | 20.37 | 12.02 | 31.55 | 30.68 |
| Different Employer, Change Occupation | - | - | - | 47,726 | 29,648 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.60 | 0.33 |
| Different Employer, Change Industries | - | - | - | 49,947 | 53,399 |
|  | - | - | - | 0.62 | 0.60 |
| Different Employer, Change Both | 8,772 | - | - | 214,752 | 231,422 |
|  | 1.81 | - | - | 2.68 | 2.59 |
| Different Employer, No Change | - | - | - | 54,651 | 60,011 |
|  | - | - | - | 6.91 | 6.86 |
| Into Employment | 37,014 | 7,747 | 13,398 | 539,292 | 597,450 |
|  | 7.65 | 7.29 | 3.98 | 6.74 | 6.69 |
| Into Non Employment | 65,690 | 11,869 | 19,180 | 1,032,731 | 1,129,469 |
|  | 13.57 | 11.17 | 5.69 | 12.90 | 12.65 |
| Non Employed | 204,225 | 59,110 | 257,779 | 3,425,485 | 3,946,594 |
|  | 42.20 | 55.65 | 76.52 | 42.80 | 44.19 |
| TOTAL | 483,991 | 106,226 | 336,886 | 8,003,799 | 8,930,901 |
|  | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | -100 |


| TABLE 11. CHANGE IN STATUS(\$): Starting Occupation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Designated Group Employees |  |  |  | Female Employees |  |  |  | Male Employees |  |  |  |
| OCCUPATION | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 |
| Upper Level Manager | - | - | - | - | -428 | -1,047 | -265 | -601 | -712 | -13 | -433 | -139 |
| Mid Level Manager | -479 | 20 | 289 | -399 | -358 | -245 | -291 | -310 | -154 | -19 | -49 | -129 |
| Professional | -178 | -27 | -373 | 207 | -159 | -120 | -249 | -80 | -139 | -243 | -152 | -74 |
| Semi-Professional | -294 | 52 | -108 | -277 | -35 | 174 | -198 | 62 | -108 | -9 | 144 | -280 |
| Supervisors | 358 | 207 | 460 | 835 | 15 | 183 | 666 | -13 | 147 | -169 | 150 | 63 |
| Foremen/Forewomen | -257 | 0 | -126 | -197 | -220 | 0 | -212 | 0 | -182 | -59 | -99 | 11 |
| Clerical Workers | 450 | 170 | 66 | 122 | 189 | 160 | 182 | 189 | 334 | 173 | 694 | 198 |
| Sales Workers | 360 | 66 | -252 | 200 | 350 | 198 | 239 | 341 | 508 | 183 | 1,215 | 580 |
| Senvice Workers | 477 | 480 | 326 | 272 | 674 | 553 | 548 | 463 | 567 | 583 | 1,056 | 1,049 |
| Crafts and Trades | -260 | -100 | 15 | 0 | -207 | -116 | -520 | -1,183 | -158 | -31 | -148 | -59 |
| Semi-Skilled Workers | 142 | -29 | -168 | -42 | -101 | 13 | -464 | 369 | 44 | 58 | 70 | 205 |
| Other Manual Workers | 166 | -104 | -123 | 84 | -28 | -27 | 84 | 154 | 55 | 207 | 331 | 119 |
| TOTAL | 85 | 59 | -27 | 88 | 95 | 97 | 63 | 107 | 36 | 66 | 212 | 114 |


| TABLE 12. CHANGE IN STATUS(\$): Ending Occupation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Designated Group Employees |  |  |  | Female Employees |  |  |  | Male Employees |  |  |  |
| OCCUPATION | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 |
| Upper Level Manager | - | - | - | - | 1,672 | 633 | 357 | 447 | 525 | 20 | 2,210 | -24 |
| Mid Level Manager | 982 | 116 | 258 | 380 | 675 | 373 | 448 | 591 | 290 | 114 | 272 | 156 |
| Professional | -20 | 132 | 17 | 338 | 299 | 365 | 277 | 344 | 289 | 155 | 623 | 380 |
| Semi-Professional | -2 | 225 | 516 | 74 | 263 | 124 | 246 | 129 | -192 | 198 | 239 | 204 |
| Supervisors | 949 | 143 | -1,463 | -704 | 22 | 84 | 9 | -197 | -490 | 203 | 10 | 13 |
| Foremen/Forewomen | 504 | 107 | 65 | 0 | 0 | 299 | 443 | 263 | 196 | 35 | 127 | 96 |
| Clerical Workers | -263 | 178 | 7 | 133 | -46 | -38 | -103 | 11 | -293 | 33 | -67 | -13 |
| Sales Workers | -222 | -215 | -274 | 50 | -27 | 201 | 10 | -96 | -378 | -99 | 13 | -152 |
| Service Workers | -174 | 25 | -271 | 63 | -284 | -220 | -367 | -280 | -163 | -129 | -287 | -357 |
| Crafts and Trades | 557 | 191 | 51 | 0 | 284 | 71 | 15 | 374 | 237 | 223 | 282 | 202 |
| Semi-Skilled Workers | -63 | 49 | 91 | -266 | -84 | 190 | 271 | 259 | -45 | -14 | 238 | 286 |
| Other Manual Workers | 82 | -95 | -27 | - 17 | -3 | -26 | 197 | 101 | -51 | 21 | -8 | -10 |
| TOTAL | 85 | 59 | -27 | 88 | 95 | 97 | 63 | 107 | 36 | 66 | 212 | 114 |

TABLE 13
Compositional and Flow

| Unionization | Male |  |  | Female |  |  | Designated Groups |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Comp. | Leave | Hire | Comp. | Leave | Hire | Comp. | Leave | Hire |
| Unionized | 14.5 | -12.3 | 2.8 | -13.8 | -15.5 | -2.4 | -18.3 | -15.9 | -5.2 |
| Non-Unionized | ... | -. | .-. | -.- | -. - | -.- | ... | -. | -.- |
| Full-Time/PartTime |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Full-time | 11.7 | -26.8 | 6.5 | -17.8 | -18.1 | -8.2 | 20.3 | -18.3 | 2.3 |
| Part-Time | -.- | -.- | -. - | -.- | -.. | .-. | ... | --. | -.. |
| Job Status | 5.7 | -1.2 | 1.3 | -6.0 | -0.9 | -1.4 | -4.4 | -1.0 | -0.8 |
| Sector |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Banking | -44.2 | -7.3 | -9.9 | 53.1 | -16.4 | 11.3 | -•• | -.- | --- |
| Transportation | 44.8 | 0.1 | 1.4 | -52.6 | -4.8 | -17.3 | --- | $\cdots$ | -.- |
| Communications | 4.3 | -3.1 | 5.2 | -5.1 | -6.8 | -6.5 |  | --- | --- |
| Other Services | -37.4 | 3.2 | -4.2 | 41.7 | -2.4 | 4.7 | --- | --- | --- |
| Non-Service | 21.0 | 1.4 | 7.1 | -25.6 | -4.4 | -8.3 | --- |  | --- |
| Government | -. - | -. - | --. | -. - | --- | --- | --- | --- | - |

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[^0]:    1 Several of the terms used in this study are defined in the Glossary (Appendix 1).

[^1]:    4 This conclusion does not rule out the possibility, however, that, when adjusted for labour force characteristics, members of designated groups may be more mobile than persons in the remainder of the population. This possibility is investigated and reported in a later section.

[^2]:    8 Regression analysis allows us, in the following discussion, to evaluate the partial effects of individual characteristics, i.e., their effects holding other job characteristics constant. Thus, e.g., the effect of an individual's being in a unionized job is evaluated by comparison with other individuals in non-unionized jobs whose other job characteristics - location, size of establishment, etc. - are the same as those for the individual in question.

[^3]:    11 The lower rates represented by the mean values of the dependent variables in Table 2 compared with the text table shown in the section reflect the exclusion from the sub-sample used in the regression analysis of the self-employed and those whose records do not contain complete job information. Both of the excluded sub-populations have relatively high rates of job leaving.

[^4]:    12 The coefficients of the probability-of-hire equations were transformed for this purpose both to represent rates relative to the numbers employed in each group and to take account of the lower numbers for hires than for job leavings, i.e., the coefficients were adjusted to be consistent with a "steady state" - equality between the two flows for each population group.

[^5]:    13 Some of this effect is due to general increases in wage rates, since the expected wage associated with each job was calculated separately for each year.

[^6]:    14 Based upon female inter-occupational movers as representing $53 \%$ ( $244.8 / 458.5$ ) of total female movers the calculated gain, in terms of expected income, for all female movers would be $\$ 937$ ( $1,057 \mathrm{X} 0.53$ ) compared with the actual figure of $\$ 1,057$.

[^7]:    15 The regressions of Table 1 and of all other tables in this report are based upon four years of data generated from observations on two samples from the labour force age population - one used for 1986 and 1987 and the other for 1998 and 1989. Consequently, the job characteristics for most persons were counted twice, since most persons remained in the same job for the two years they were in the sample. Consequently, the degrees of freedom shown in Table 1 are somewhat larger than they should be. Given the large number of degrees of freedom as stated, however, tests of significance based upon even as few as half that number would yield the same results as those shown.

[^8]:    17 In the simulations, the characteristics of each of the sample respondents having a job at the beginning of the year are multiplied by the corresponding regression coefficient, summed and multiplied by the sample weight.

[^9]:    21 The "B" form of the equations, i.e. with end-of-year status as the dependent variable, was employed for the simulation.

[^10]:    1. The occupational categories do not sum to Total because of the omission of: Upper Level Management; Foreman/Forewoman; and Crafts and Trades.
