CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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OPINIONS ON NATIVE ISSUES ☐ ILLEGAL DRUGS ☐ Ph.Ds

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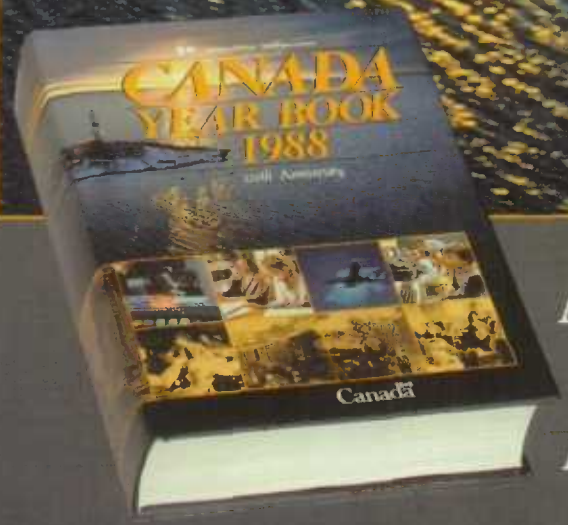

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Cover: ***Boy with Bread*** (oil on canvas 50.5 x 55.9 cm). Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:

Born at St. Hilaire, Quebec, **Ozias Leduc** (1864-1955) acquired much of his artistic training through observation and self-teaching. In his early twenties, he painted beautiful still life studies bathed in warm candle light or light from a distant window. Later in his career, his work was influenced by French impressionists but translated into his own unique style. O. Leduc is well known for his religious murals and paintings.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Illustrations — Les Ames, Bob Stephenson. Photos — Alcoholism and Drug Addiction Research Foundation; Photo Centre, SSC.
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, J. Hagey, I. Macredie, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
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Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $32 a year in Canada, $36 ($28 U.S.) elsewhere. Single issue $8 each in Canada, $9 ($7 U.S.) elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends**, 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. Extracts from this publication may be reproduced for individual use without permission provided the source is fully acknowledged. However, reproduction of this publication in whole or in part for purposes of resale or redistribution requires written permission from the Publishing Services Group, Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Canada, K1A 0S9. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

ISSN 0831-5698

A SELECT FEW: CANADA'S PH.D. POPULATION

by Brian Burke

A doctorate is the highest achievement in educational attainment. As such, earning a Ph.D. requires great determination and dedication on the part of recipients. For example, Ph.D. graduates spend close to 22 years in school, up to ten of them at the postsecondary level. There are significant advantages, though, in having a doctorate. The average income of Ph.D.-holders is considerably greater than that of other major educational groups; as well, unemployment is very low among those with a Ph.D.

Figures from the latest Census show that while very few people in Canada have an earned doctorate, their numbers have risen faster than the rest of the population in recent years. As well, roughly half of those with a Ph.D. in Canada are immigrants; however, the flow of immigrant Ph.Ds into Canada has slowed in the last decade.

The number of Ph.D.-holders growing

The last decade has seen a relatively large increase in the number of people in Canada with an earned doctorate. Between 1976 and 1986, the ranks of Ph.D.-holders rose 48% from 45,200 to 67,000. In the same period, the population aged 15 and over rose only 17%.

People with a Ph.D., however, make up only a small fraction of all adults living in Canada. In 1986, just 0.3% of the popula-

tion aged 15 and over had an earned doctorate. This was slightly below the proportion in the United States, where 0.4% of those aged 15 and over had an earned doctorate in 1984.

Most Ph.D.-holders are men. In fact, in 1986, 83% of those with an earned doctorate were male. Women's representation among Ph.Ds, however, has increased, rising from 12% in 1976 to 17% in 1986.

One result of the increase in the share of women with a Ph.D. in recent years is that the female Ph.D. population is younger than that of men. For example, in 1986, almost 38% of all women with an earned doctorate were under age 40 compared with 27% of male Ph.Ds.

The majority of Ph.D.-holders in Canada are immigrants.[1] In fact, in 1986, just over half (51%) of all those with a Ph.D. were born outside the country.

The flow of immigrant Ph.Ds into Canada, however, slowed in the last decade. Of the 34,000 immigrant Ph.Ds in Canada in 1986, almost 14,000, or 40%, arrived between 1967 and 1976. In comparison, just 6,500, less than 20% of the total, came in the 1977-1986[2] period.

Country of origin of immigrant Ph.Ds

Immigrant Ph.Ds are most likely to have come from either the United States or the United Kingdom. As of 1986, 40% of immigrants with an earned doctorate were born in one of these two countries, 30% originated in European countries other than the United Kingdom, 19% were from Asia, and 11% were from other countries.

There have been shifts, however, in the country of origin of immigrant Ph.Ds in the last decade. The proportion born in either the United States or the United Kingdom has dropped, while the share from Asia has risen.

There was a particularly sharp decline in the proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds from the United Kingdom. People born in the United Kingdom made up over 20% of all immigrant Ph.Ds who arrived in Canada before 1977, but only 14% of those who came between 1977 and 1986. The proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds from the United States also declined, but only from 20% of those who arrived before 1977 to 18% of those who came in the last decade.

In contrast, the proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds born in Asia rose from 18% of those who came to Canada before 1977 to 26% of those who arrived in the 1977-1986 period. Much of this upturn reflects an increase in the share of immigrant Ph.Ds from the Middle East.[3] People born in this region made up 9% of all immigrant Ph.Ds who came to Canada between 1977 and 1986, compared with only 2% of those who arrived before 1977.

Many fields of study

Canada's Ph.D.-holders earned their doctorates in a wide variety of disciplines. In 1986, 21% of them had specialized in mathematics/physical sciences and 20% had a degree in the social sciences. Humanities accounted for another 16% of all Ph.Ds, while 13% were in agriculture/biological sciences, 10% were in each of health sciences and engineering/applied sciences, and 7% were in education. There are differences, though, in the fields of specialization of male and female Ph.D.-holders. Almost one in four male Ph.Ds obtained their doctorate in mathematics/physical sciences (23%) and another 11% had a degree in engineering/applied sciences. In comparison, only 9% of women with a Ph.D. were in mathematics/physical sciences and just 2% were in engineering/applied sciences.

On the other hand, women were more likely than men to have specialized in the social sciences, humanities, and education. Almost 60% of women, compared with 40% of men, received their Ph.D. in one of these fields.

There are also differences in the fields of study of immigrant and non-immigrant Ph.Ds. In 1986, immigrants made up 65% of those with a Ph.D. in engineering/applied sciences and 56% of those in mathematics/physical sciences. Immigrants also made up just under half of Ph.D.-holders in the social sciences, humanities, health sciences, and agriculture/biological sciences. On the other hand, they made up only 33% of those with a Ph.D. in education.

The fields of study of immigrant Ph.Ds vary depending on their country of origin. For example, those born in the United States or the United Kingdom made up close to half of immigrant Ph.Ds in the humanities, education, social sciences, and agriculture/biological sciences. On the other hand, people from these countries represented considerably smaller proportions of Ph.D.-holders in mathematics/physical sciences, health sciences, and especially engineering/applied sciences. People from Asia make up the largest group of immigrant Ph.Ds in engineering/applied sciences. In fact, close to a quarter of all those with a Ph.D. in these fields were born in Asia.

High earnings, low unemployment

Doctoral degree-holders enjoy clear benefits in terms of employment and earnings. For example, their average employment income is well above that of other major educational groups[4]; as well, they have the lowest unemployment rate.

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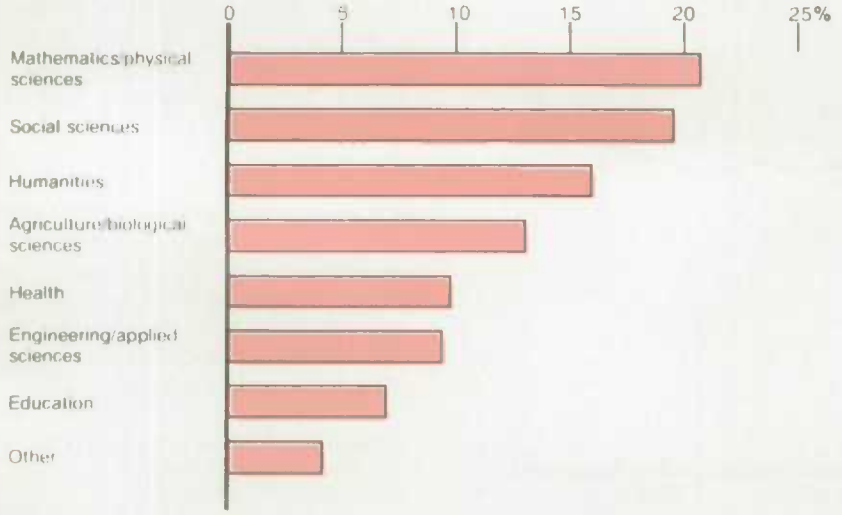
Field of study of people with a Ph.D., 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

[1] Immigrant Ph.Ds include those who had a doctorate when they immigrated to Canada, as well as those who earned their degree after they arrived.
[2] Includes only the first five months of 1986.
[3] Includes Turkey and Afghanistan.
[4] Does not include those with medical degrees.

Number of doctoral graduates rising

The number of earned doctorates granted by Canadian universities has risen in recent years from 1,715 in 1982 to almost 2,400 in 1987, the highest annual total ever recorded. This steady increase is a change from the previous decade when the annual number of Ph.Ds awarded fluctuated between 1,700 and 1,900.

The largest proportions of 1987 doctoral graduates earned degrees in the social sciences or mathematics/physical sciences. Both of these fields accounted for roughly 20% of all Ph.Ds awarded in 1987. Graduates in each of agriculture/biological sciences, engineering/applied sciences, and the humanities made up between 12% and 14% of 1987 Ph.D. recipients. Another 10% were in education, the same proportion as in health sciences.

Although women remain a minority among doctoral graduates, their numbers have increased much more rapidly than those for men since the early 1970s. Between 1971 and 1987, the number of women earning a Ph.D. rose 350% compared with a 15% increase for men. Much of this difference can be traced to the period from 1973 to 1982 when the number of women earning a doctorate increased while the number of male graduates declined substantially.

The relatively rapid growth in the number of women earning a doctorate has continued in recent years. In the 1982-1987 period, the number of female Ph.D. graduates rose 60%, almost double the 32% increase for men.

As a result of these trends, women made up 29% of all Ph.D. graduates in 1987, up from 9% in 1971. Female Ph.D. recipients, though, remained a minority in all fields of study, except education, where they slightly outnumbered men.

According to Statistics Canada's annual survey of doctoral graduates, 24% of those who received a Ph.D. in 1986 were temporary residents of Canada. The proportion of temporary residents ranged from 43% in engineering/applied sciences to 15% in humanities.

Of 1986 graduates who were temporary residents, 75% indicated that they intended to leave Canada. The main reason given was visa restrictions. At the same time, 19% of Ph.D. graduates who were either Canadian citizens or permanent residents also indicated they intended to leave the country. The lack of postdoctoral fellowships in Canada and better academic and employment positions elsewhere were the most frequently cited reasons why these graduates planned to leave.

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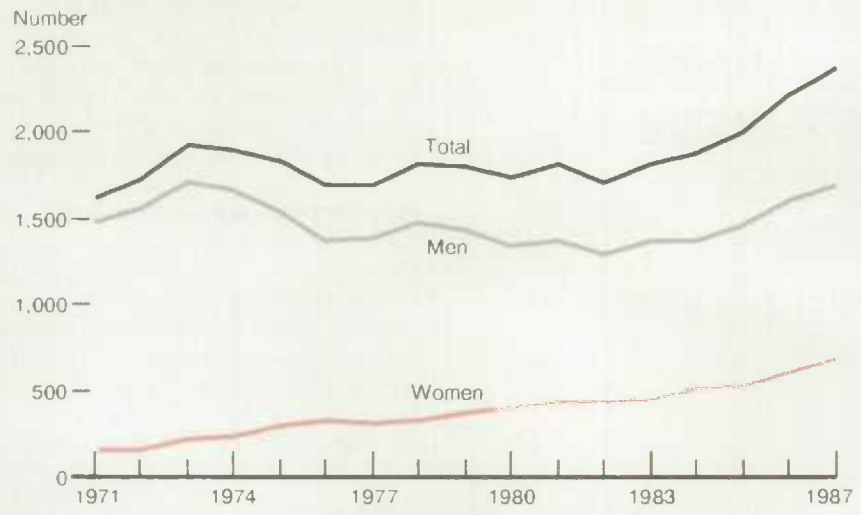
Ph.Ds granted, by sex, 1971-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 81-204 and 81-211, and Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

The average employment income of men with a Ph.D. employed full-time throughout 1985 was $52,000; this compared with $46,700 for master's degree-holders and $40,800 for those with a bachelor's degree. The comparable average employment income of all men aged 15 and over was $30,500.

Much the same pattern occurs among women, although their average employment earnings are considerably below those of men in all education categories, including Ph.D.-holders. Female Ph.D.-holders working full-time throughout 1985 averaged $39,900 in employment income compared with $34,800 for women with a master's degree and $28,400 for women with a bachelor's degree. The average employment income for all women aged 15 and over working full-time was $20,000.

There are also significant differences between the unemployment rates of people with a Ph.D. and those with lower academic qualifications. In 1986, the unemployment rate for Ph.D.-holders was just 2.6%. This compared with 4.7% for people with a master's degree and 6.1% for bachelor's degree-holders. For the labour force as a whole, the unemployment rate was 10.3%.

University teaching most common profession for Ph.D.-holders

A large proportion of people with a Ph.D. are university teachers. In 1986, 34% of those with an earned doctorate were teaching at the university level. In addition, 2% were university administrators and 6% had teaching or administrative positions in non-university educational institutions.

At the same time, 16% of Ph.D.-holders were in occupations related to mathematics, engineering, or science, 11% had management or administration positions outside education, and 6% worked in medicine or health professions.

The likelihood of Ph.D.-holders being employed as university teachers varies somewhat depending on their field of study. Those with a degree in the humanities, social sciences, or education are the most likely to be university teachers, while graduates in mathematics, science, and engineering are the most likely to be in scientific occupations.

Brian Burke *is a Senior Technical Officer with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Divison, Statistics Canada.*

ILLEGAL DRUG USE IN CANADA

by Holly Johnson

The level of illegal drug activity known to police has risen substantially in Canada since the early 1960s. Most of this increase, however, occurred during the 1960s and 1970s; in fact, the overall level of drug crime in 1987 was actually below the level in 1980. The one drug for which there has been a substantial increase in the number of offences in recent years, though, is cocaine.

Trends in drug offences

There were major increases in the incidence of drug offences in Canada throughout the 1960s and 1970s. The number of drug crimes recorded by the police rose from just 5 per 100,000 population in 1962 to over 309 in 1980.

In contrast, the incidence of drug crime known to the police declined in the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1986, the number of drug offences per 100,000 population fell 29% from 309 to 220. This downward trend was followed by a 10% increase in 1987, when the drug crime rate rose to 241. This figure, though, was still 22% below the rate in 1980.

Drug offences make up only a small proportion of criminal activity known to police in Canada. The 62,000 drug offences recorded by the police in 1987 represented less than 2% of all recorded offences that year. As well, this figure was down slightly from 1980, when drug offences made up 3% of all offences.

Cannabis offences falling, cocaine rising

Cannabis offences make up the vast majority of all illegal drug activity known to police. There has, however, been a marked decline in the incidence of these offences in the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of cannabis offences declined 34% from 65,000 to 43,000. Still, offences involving cannabis made up 70% of all drug offences in 1987, although this was down from 87% in 1980 and 90% in 1976.

The incidence of cocaine offences, on the other hand, has increased dramatically in recent years. The number of cocaine offences known to police rose almost 400% between 1980 and 1987, from 1,700 to 8,200. This includes a 22%

increase in 1987 alone. As a result of this growth, cocaine offences made up 13% of all drug offences in 1987, compared with 2% in 1980.

Only a small proportion of drug offences, just 1% in 1987, involve heroin. The incidence of these cases has remained stable at around 3 per 100,000 population since 1980.

The remaining drug offences involve other narcotics such as codeine, morphine, and methadone, as well as controlled and restricted drugs.[1] Overall, the incidence of other narcotic offences has increased in recent years while the rate for controlled and restricted drugs has fallen.

Between 1980 and 1987, the number of other narcotic offences rose 183% and their share of all drug offences climbed from 3% to 10%. In the same period, police recorded 32% fewer controlled or restricted drug offences. As a result, the share of all drug crime accounted for by these offences fell from 6% to 5%.

There has also been a decline in the amount of drugs either lost in transit or stolen. The Bureau of Dangerous Drugs at Health and Welfare Canada reported that 3,200 quantities of drugs were either lost in transit or stolen in 1985; this compared with 5,400 such incidents in 1981. Three-quarters of all these losses were from pharmacies, while the remainder were from hospitals, licensed dealers, such as pharmaceutic companies and manufacturers, and medical practitioners.

Most drug offences for possession

The majority of drug offences in Canada are for possession, although a significant proportion involve the more serious charge of trafficking.[2] In 1987, 67% of all drug offences were for possession, while 30% were for trafficking. The remaining drug offences involved either cultivation or importing.

The type of offence, though, varies depending on the drug. For example, most cannabis offences are for possession, while the largest proportions of cocaine and heroin offences involve trafficking.

In 1987, 72% of all cannabis offences were for possession, 25% were for trafficking, and the remainder were for

[1] Controlled drugs include speed, amphetamines, and barbituates; they are available through prescription but are illegal to sell. Restricted drugs include LSD, MDA, and psilocybin and are illegal both to possess and sell.

[2] Includes possession for the purpose of trafficking.

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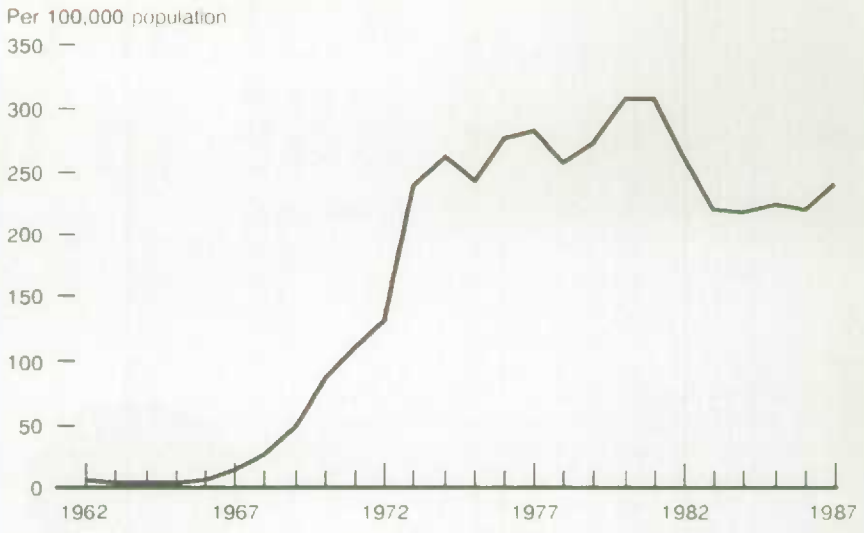
Drug offence rate, 1962-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

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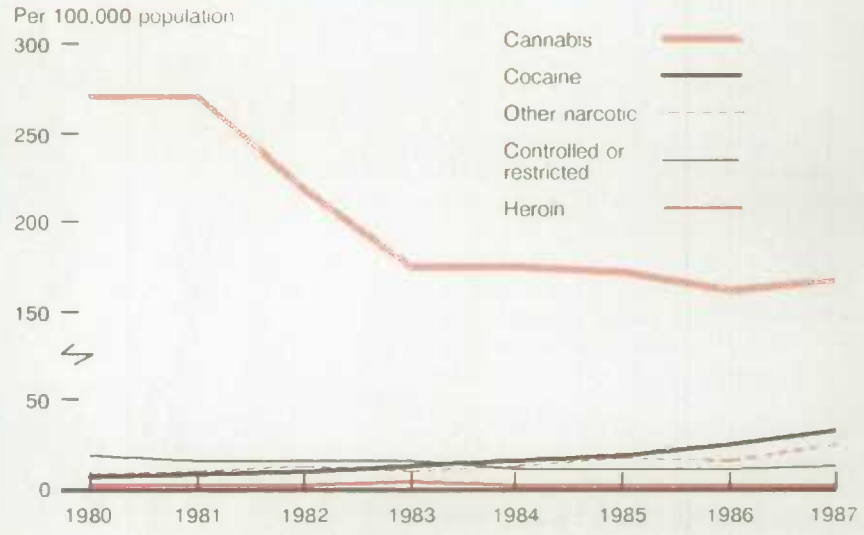
Drug offence rate, by type of drug, 1980-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

Drug usage declining

There is some evidence, in addition to police statistics, which indicates that overall drug usage has declined in the 1980s. According to the Ontario Addiction Research Foundation, the percentage of Ontario high school students using cannabis fell sharply from 32% in 1979 to 16% in 1987. The proportion using stimulants such as speed also declined from 12% in 1981 to 8% in 1987. At the same time, use of these drugs by adults remained constant.

The proportion of Ontario adults who have ever used cocaine, however, doubled in recent years from 3% in 1984 to 6% in 1987. In the same period, the proportion of students who have ever used cocaine remained stable at about 4%, although regular use of cocaine was higher among students than adults.

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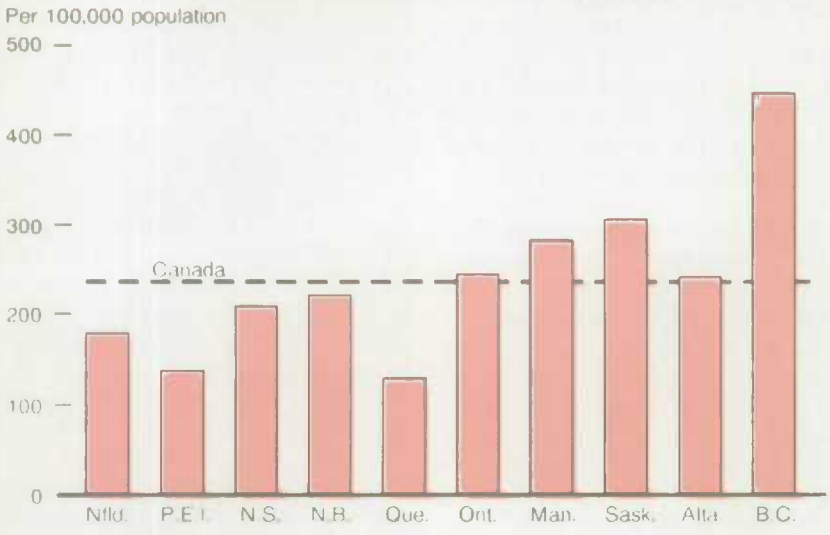
Drug offence rate, by province, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205.

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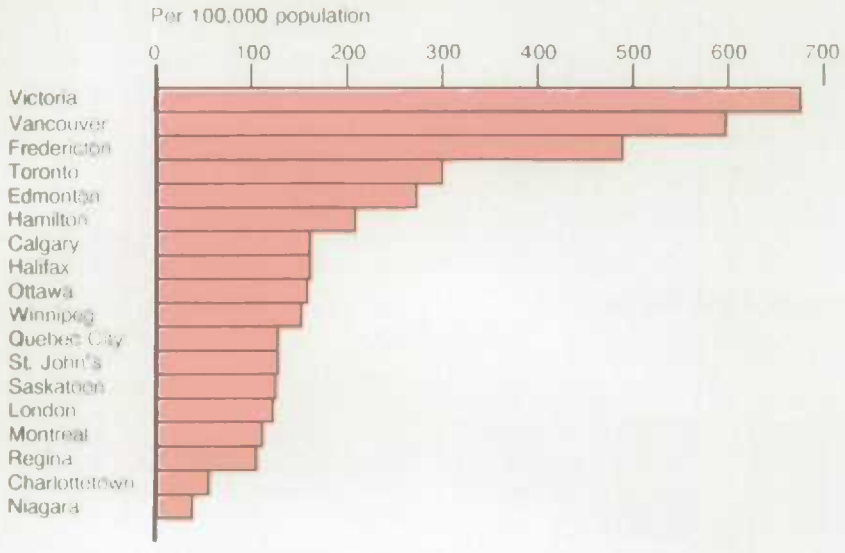
Drug offence rate, by major urban areas, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205.

cultivation and importing. In comparison, around half of all cocaine (51%) and heroin (47%) offences were for trafficking, while only 45% of cocaine and 40% of heroin offences were for possession. In addition, 12% of heroin offences and 4% of those involving cocaine were for importing.

Drug offence rates highest in the west

Levels of illegal drug activity known to police are generally higher in the western provinces than in central or eastern Canada. In 1987, there were 447 drug offences for every 100,000 people in British Columbia, 307 in Saskatchewan, 284 in Manitoba, and 244 in Alberta. In comparison, drug offence rates in the other provinces ranged from a low of 132 per 100,000 population in Quebec to a high of 247 in Ontario.

The incidence of drug offences fell in most provinces in the 1980-1987 period. There were particularly large declines, between 55% and 60%, in the drug offence rates in Alberta, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. At the same time, there were much smaller declines in Ontario, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Saskatchewan, while rates actually rose 9% in Quebec, 8% in Manitoba, and 6% in British Columbia.

Urban drug offence rates

The east-west pattern in the incidence of drug crime also holds for major metropolitan areas, although there are some exceptions. Victoria, with 676 offences per 100,000 population, and Vancouver, with 598, had the highest rates of illegal drug activity of any cities in Canada in 1987. The next highest rates, though, occurred in Fredericton (491) and Toronto (301).

Statistics on drug crime

Some caution must be used in interpreting trends in official drug crime statistics. Drug offences usually involve consenting parties and so are less likely than other types of crime to be reported to the police. Consequently, drug offences that come to the attention of police are, for the most part, those that they detect on their own. Because of this, variations in the number of drug offences recorded by the police in different jurisdictions, as well as changes in drug rates over time, may reflect changing priorities of police departments as they relate to the detection of these and other offences.

In addition, official drug crime statistics as measured by the Uniform Crime Reporting Survey do not represent a full count of the actual number of offences. As stated above, many such crimes are either not detected or not reported to police. As well, only the most serious offence is counted in incidents involving several violations of the law. For example, drug offences which occur in conjunction with more serious violent or property crimes will not be counted. In addition, when more than one drug offence occurs in the same incident, for example, trafficking in one drug and possession of another, only the most serious, in this case trafficking, will be recorded. Lastly, when one type of offence is committed more than once at the same time, for example, selling drugs to a number of different people, it is counted as only one incident.

On the other hand, the lowest urban drug crime rates in 1987 were reported in Niagara (41) and Charlottetown (57). The next lowest rate, though, occurred in Regina (106), which had a rate just below that in Montreal (112).

Generally, the larger the urban area, the higher the drug offence rate. In 1987, cities with more than 250,000 people had an average of 249 drug offences per 100,000 population; this compared with rates of 211 in cities between 50,000 and 250,000 people, 192 in cities between 10,000 and 50,000 people, and 203 in communities with less than 10,000 residents.

Dealing with drug offenders

Not surprisingly, given the overall decline in illegal drug activity known to police in the 1980s, the number of charges and convictions for drug offences also declined.

Between 1980 and 1987, the number of people charged with drug offences fell 30%, from a total of 62,000 to 43,000. Compared with other types of crime, though, a large proportion of drug offences result in charges. In 1987, charges were laid in three-quarters of all drug offence cases, whereas only about 45% of violent offences and around 20% of all other Criminal Code offences resulted in charges.

There has also been a significant decline in the number of convictions for drug offences.[3] In 1985, there were a total of 28,000 drug convictions, 43% less than in 1981.

The majority of drug convictions result in fines. In 1985, 58% of guilty charges for these offences resulted in fines. Another 23% resulted in jail sentences, while 19% either resulted in probation or were discharged.

The likelihood of being sent to jail varies for different drugs. In 1985, three-quarters of heroin convictions resulted in incarceration, as did 42% of those involving cocaine, 40% of those for controlled or restricted drugs, and 30% of those for other narcotics. On the other hand, just 20% of convictions for cannabis offences resulted in jail terms. Most cannabis convictions, about 60%, resulted in fines.

Overall, about 6% of all inmates in federal penitentiaries in 1987 were incarcerated for drug offences. At the same time, roughly 4% of all admissions to provincial jails involved these offences.

Drug charges in Canada and the United States

Levels of illegal drug activity are much higher in the United States than in Canada. As well, while rates have fallen in Canada in the 1980s, they have risen sharply in the United States.

In 1987, there were 385 drug crime arrests for every 100,000 people in the United States. This was more than double the comparable Canadian figure of 169 people charged with drug offences for every 100,000 people in this country. As well, while the American figure rose 49% between 1980 and 1987, the Canadian rate declined 34%.

The costs of drug abuse

The social and economic dimensions of drug abuse extend beyond the criminal justice system. The costs of drug abuse include lost productivity, accidental injuries and death, disruption to families and communities, and public expenditure needed to maintain health care and social systems.

In 1983, there were over 72,000 admissions to residential facilities in Canada for treatment of alcohol and drug problems. The same year, over 5,000 hospitalizations in psychiatric and general hospitals were for drug psychoses, drug dependence, or nondependent drug abuse. As well, these figures do not include the majority of drug abusers who receive treatment through outpatient services or who cause physical harm to themselves or others as a consequence of drug impairment.

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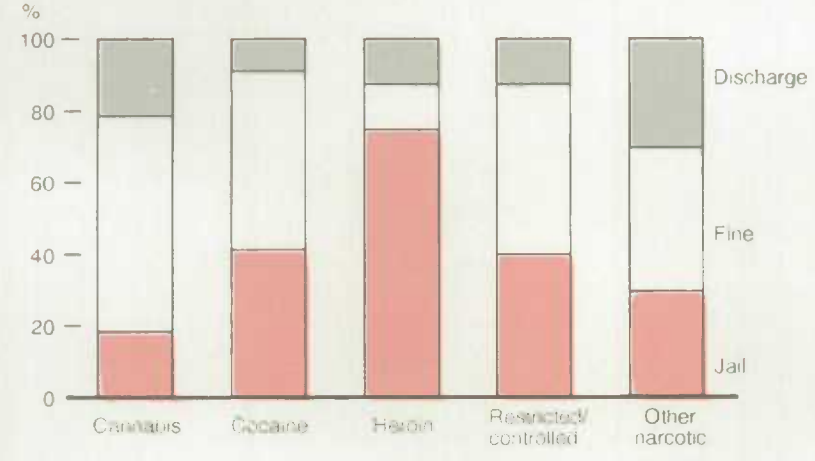
Disposition of persons convicted of drug offences, 1985



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Bureau of Dangerous Drugs, *Narcotic, Controlled and Restricted Drug Statistics, 1985.*

[3] Court statistics on convictions from the Bureau of Dangerous Drugs cannot be linked directly to police statistics on the number of offences. Court statistics measure the number of charges coming before the court, while police statistics count incidents which may involve more than one offence and result in more than one charge. In addition, offences known to the police may not result in a court appearance until the following calendar year.

Holly Johnson *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

PUBLIC OPINION ON ABORIGINAL PEOPLES' ISSUES IN CANADA

by J. Rick Ponting

SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

J. Rick Ponting is a Professor of Sociology at the University of Calgary. He is editor of *Arduous Journey* (McClelland and Stewart, 1986) and co-author of *Out of Irrelevance* (Butterworth, 1980), two books on Indians. The material in this article was originally presented as part of a Statistics Canada Lecture Series in 1987.

The Native Indian, Inuit, and Metis population has grown rapidly in recent decades to a position of increasing social, demographic, and constitutional prominence in Canadian society. In light of that growing stature, the attitudes of the larger non-Native society to Natives and contemporary Native issues are of general consequence. Those attitudes were the subject of a comprehensive survey undertaken for the University of Calgary by Decima Research Ltd. in 1986.

The survey results show that Canadians generally hold supportive attitudes toward Natives, although that support varies considerably from region to region and has eroded slightly since the mid-1970s.[1] Support drops significantly when Canadians perceive that special "privilege" is being conferred on Natives, with the exception of issues pertaining to land. Canadians seem to recognize Natives' special relationship with the land and up to a point, are willing to make accommodation for that.

While there is widespread support for the general notion of increased self-determination for Natives, levels of knowledge and awareness of aboriginal issues were found to be generally low.

Knowledge about Natives

From an estimated 225,000 Native persons living in what is now Canada just prior to the arrival of Europeans, the Native population declined to approximately half that number by the time of Confederation. However, by 1986, the Canadian Census found that the population reporting at least some Native origins had reached approximately three-quarters of a million or about 3% of the total population of Canada.

Despite the large number of people of Native origins, Canadians are not knowledgeable about the demographics of the Native population. For instance, in the 1986 survey, over one-third (37%), as compared to 46% in our similar survey in 1976, would not hazard a guess when asked what proportion of the total Canadian population is Native. An even greater proportion (41%) significantly overestimated the size of the Native population in that they perceived it to be in excess of 8% of the total Canada population.

Using this and several other questions which tapped knowledge about certain rudimentary aspects of Native affairs, an Index of Knowledge about Native Affairs was constructed on which scores could range from a low of 3 to a high of 7.[2]

The national average score was low at 4.36. Most of the population congregated near the low end of the knowledge continuum both in the 1986 survey and on a comparable index in the 1976 study. In

[1] See Roger Gibbins, "The 1976 National Survey," in J.R. Ponting and R. Gibbins, *Out of Irrelevance: A Socio-Political Introduction to Indian Affairs in Canada*, Scarborough, Ontario: Butterworth, 1980, pp. 71-93.

[2] Other questions used in the Index of Knowledge about Native Affairs included those dealing with knowledge of the existence of the Indian Act, the difference between Status and non-Status Indians, and two other demographic measures — the percentage of the respondent's province which is Native and the percentage of Indians living on reserves.

both years, residents of Quebec exhibited particularly low levels of knowledge and westerners exhibited comparatively high levels of knowledge.

As in 1976, a majority was unaware of the difference between Status and non-Status Indians, although the size of that majority declined over the decade. These and other data indicate some small increase in Canadian levels of knowledge over the ten-year period.

An important area of knowledge measured was a respondent's understanding of the term "aboriginal people". Without prompting, only a tiny fraction of interviewees correctly identified this term as encompassing the Indian, Inuit, and Metis peoples.

Without assistance from the interviewer, almost a third of Canadians failed to indicate even an approximate understanding of the term. Significantly, even when explicitly asked, "Would you include the Metis people [as aboriginal people]?", only a slight majority said "yes." Even when explicitly asked, about one in five Canadian adults does not consider Indians and Inuits to be aboriginal people.

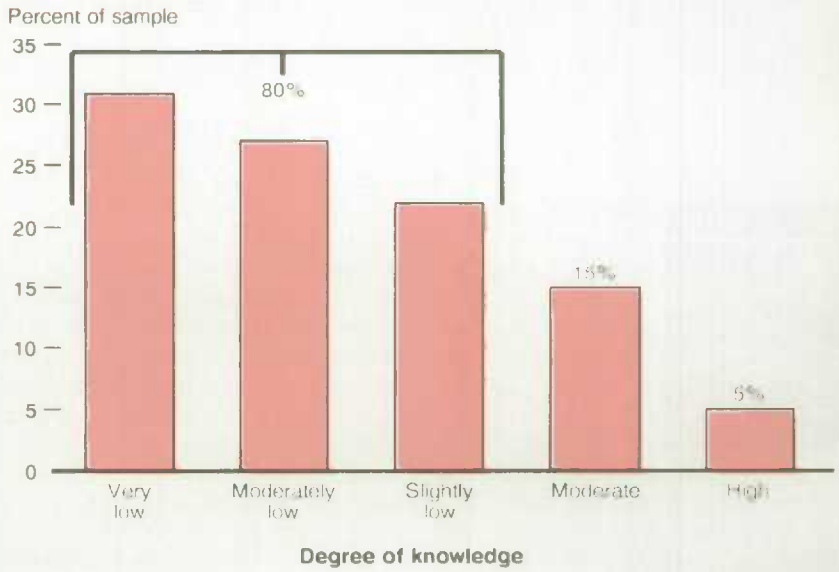
Familiarity with Native affairs

An Index of Familiarity with Native Events/Phenomena was also developed in both the 1976 and 1986 studies. The 1986 Familiarity Index was based on answers to a question in which respondents were given a list of seven events, organizations, or phenomena and were asked to indicate, on a three-point scale, how familiar they are with each one.[3] The national average score of 1.62 in 1986 was well below the mid-point (2.0) of the scale.

On all but two of the items a majority of respondents said they were "not at all familiar." Thus, a majority was unaware of such things as one of the most modern "treaties" (the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement of 1975), the existence of aboriginal rights in the constitution[4], and the Lyell Island controversy between

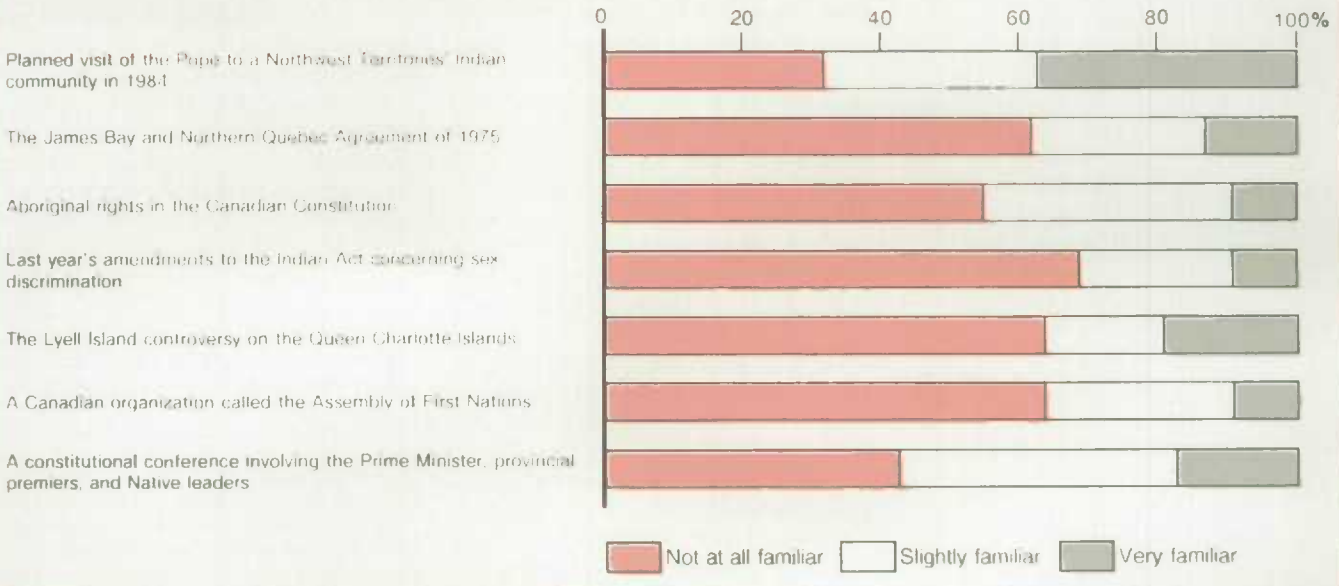
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadians' knowledge about Native affairs in 1986



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Components of the Index of Familiarity with Native Events/Phenomena, 1986



logging companies and Haida Indians in the Queen Charlotte Islands.

Only the two items involving well-known public figures received relatively high scores. These were "the planned visit of the Pope to a Northwest Territories' Indian community in 1984" and "a constitutional conference involving the Prime Minister, provincial premiers, and Native leaders."

Current measures of the Native population

According to the latest available data, the Native population of Canada can be described as follows:

The federal department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC) 1987 register count of Status Indians stood at 415,898 individuals. As of July 15, 1988, figures for those people applying for reinstatement as registered Indians under Bill C31 were: reinstatement applications completed 61,008; applications in process 21,331; applications still to be reviewed 21,794, for a grand total of 104,133.

In the 1981 Census of Canada, the count of non-Status Indians was 75,110.

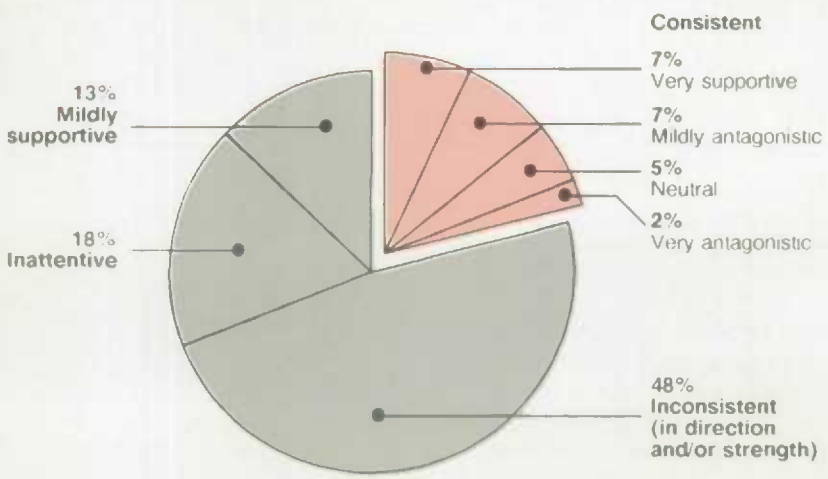
The 1986 Census of Canada showed the total population with aboriginal origins as follows:

• North American Indian	286,225	(40.22%)
• North American Indian and non-aboriginal	239,400	(33.64%)
• Metis	59,745	(8.39%)
• Metis and non-aboriginal	68,695	(9.65%)
• Inuit	27,290	(3.83%)
• Inuit and non-aboriginal	6,175	(0.87%)
• Other multiple responses with aboriginal origin(s)	23,995	(3.37%)
• Total population with aboriginal origins	711,720	(100%)

+ See also, Andrew Siggner, 'The Socio-demographic Conditions of Registered Indians,' **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1986, pp. 2-9.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Structure of the Canadian public on Native issues, 1986



These findings parallel results on comparable questions in the 1976 study. For instance, over 55% in both studies reported virtually no familiarity (in 1976, vague familiarity at best) with the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement. Similarly, in 1976, two-thirds reported no familiarity or only vague familiarity with "the 1974 Supreme Court of Canada decision rejecting an Indian woman's argument that the Indian Act violated the Canadian Bill of Rights," while in 1986 the same proportion reported no familiarity with "last year's amendments to the Indian Act concerning sex discrimination." The latter was the government's legislative response to the issue raised in the 1974 court case.

Structure of the public

In light of the low levels of knowledge and familiarity with Native matters, it comes as no surprise that the Canadian population is not rigidly divided into opposing camps, each exhibiting consistency of opinion on Native issues. For instance, across two six-item Indexes of Sympathy for Natives/Indians, only a small fraction (2%) of the sample consistently falls at the very antagonistic end of the spectrum, while 7% consistently fall at the opposite extreme as very supportive.

Almost half of Canadians hold inconsistent views in the strength or the direction of their opinion on Natives and Native issues. A further one in five Canadians is almost totally inattentive to Native issues, although he or she will often render an opinion when asked by an interviewer.

Overall, considering those persons whose views are consistent and which fall not just in the extreme categories but also in the neutral, mildly antagonistic, and mildly supportive ranges, one finds that those with favourable views toward Natives outnumber those who hold antagonistic views by a margin of about

[3] In 1986, the categories were "very," "slightly," and "not at all" familiar. In 1976, the categories were "quite," "somewhat," "vaguely," and "not at all" familiar. A respondent's score on the 1986 index was his/her average score over the seven items, where scores could range from 1.0 ("not at all familiar") to 3.0 ("very familiar").

[4] For instance, Section 35.1 of the Constitution Act, 1982, states: "The existing aboriginal and treaty rights of the aboriginal peoples of Canada are hereby recognized and affirmed."

two to one. Nevertheless, those who do not show attitudinal consistency (48%) outnumber those who do.

The structure of the public varies considerably from one region of Canada to another. For instance, a clear majority in each of the western provinces falls into the "inconsistent" category, and in Quebec, an unusually large portion of the population (about 30%) falls in the "inattentive" category.

General orientations: changes since 1976

The findings from the 1986 survey taken together with comparable measures from 1976 suggest that there has been a slight erosion in support for Natives over the ten-year period, to the extent that six questionnaire items included in both surveys are indicative of the general tenor of public opinion towards Natives. A comparative Index of Sympathy (or general supportive attitudes) for Indians was formed by combining scores from six individual questions. Examination of the distribution of Canadians on this Sympathy Index reveals that, relative to the 1976 curve, the 1986 curve is shifted slightly toward the unsupportive end of the continuum.[5]

However, it is important to bear in mind that despite that slight erosion of attitudinal support, the average in 1986 is almost exactly at the mid-point on the continuum. On average, Canadians do not tend to be markedly hostile nor markedly supportive in their attitudes toward Indians. Nor does either year's curve exhibit two "humps" that would indicate a sharply divided public.

Several other items from 1976 were also repeated in 1986. Among these was one which revealed that Canadians continue to attach low priority to the improvement of the social and economic situation of Natives.

Self-government and special status

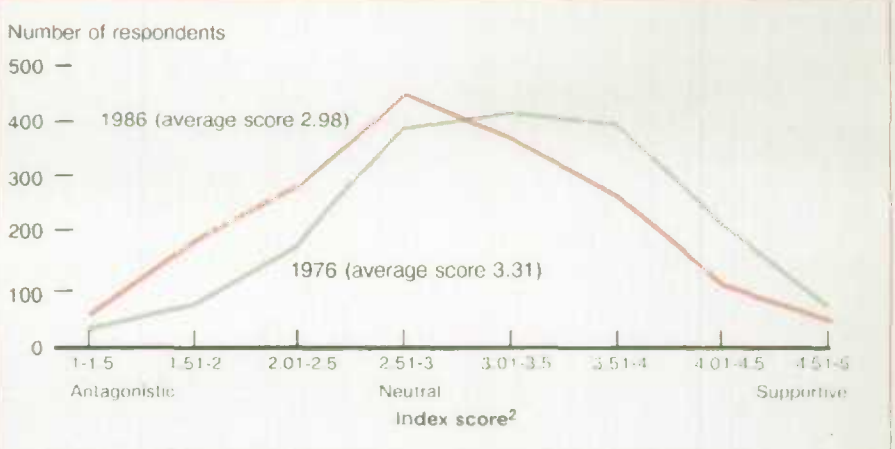
For several years, Native self-government has been the focus of the constitutional debate over Native rights. Significantly, "self-government" and "special status" for Natives elicit quite different responses from Canadians. Self-government is not viewed as a form of "special status" for Natives; instead, it is seen in a much more positive light.

There is a striking contrast between the curve depicting the distribution of the responses of Canadians on the Index of Support of Native Self-Government and the curve depicting the Index of Support for Special Status for Natives. Most Canadians fall on the unsupportive side of the mid-point (3.0) on the "special status" index, while the reverse is true on the "self-government" index.

The shapes of the two curves differ markedly. When the word "special" was

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

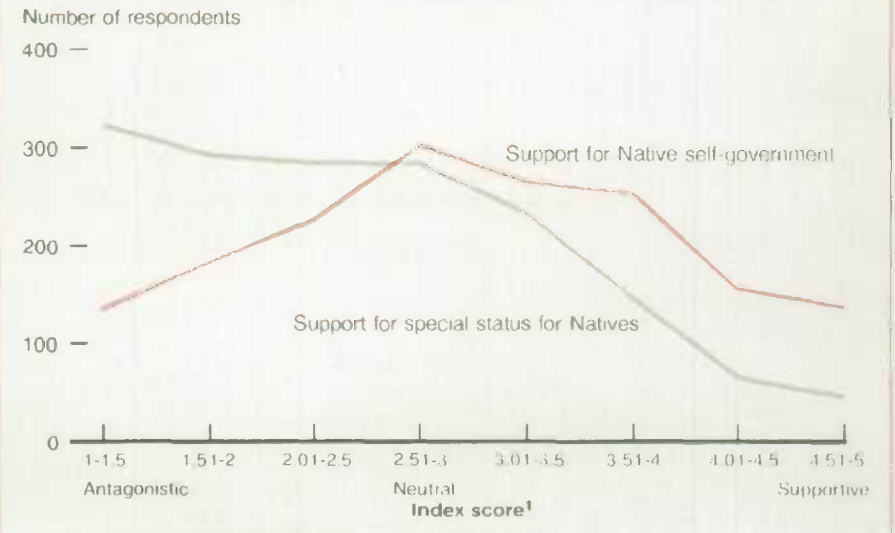
Index of Sympathy for Indians/Natives, 1976 and 1986[1]



[1]1976 data are weighted by province alone. 1986 data are weighted simultaneously by province, age, sex, and language most often spoken at home.
[2]Scores range from 1 (antagonistic) through 3 (neutral) to 5 (supportive) across the items answered (minimum 3 items).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Support for special status for Natives and for Native self-government, 1986



[1]Scores range from 1 (antagonistic) through 3 (neutral) to 5 (supportive) across the items answered.

[5] The social science literature leads us to expect an even lower level of support for Natives than was found in the 1986 study. Thus, the significance of the changes between 1976 and 1986 should not be over-emphasized, for they may merely be a slower-than-normal appearance of the normal evolution of public opinion on numerous social issues in advanced industrial societies. See Anthony Downs, "Up and Down with Ecology — The 'Issue-Attention Cycle'," *The Public Interest*, XVIII: pp. 38-50.

actually incorporated in a question, responses were even more antagonistic.

For instance, respondents were asked to choose which of the following two statements comes closer to their own view: "For crimes committed by Indians on Indian reserves, there should be special courts with Indian judges"; or "Crimes committed by Indians on Indian reserves should be handled in the same way as crimes committed elsewhere." Almost two-thirds chose the latter statement, while only about one-quarter chose the former statement. An almost identical ratio appeared on two other questions dealing with "special" arrangements in other institutional spheres.

It would seem that self-government is not viewed as a special privilege, but instead, as implementation of a basic democratic right of self-determination. Support for this interpretation is to be found in respondents' answers to a question which asked them to complete the following sentence: "One of the best things that could happen to Indians would be if the federal government_____." By a wide margin, the most frequently cited types of response were those which called for the government to "grant" Indians greater autonomy, self-

continued on page 15

About the survey

The national sample consisted of 1,834 non-aboriginal persons aged 18 and over living in the ten provinces, but excluding the very small populations of the Yukon and Northwest Territories. Within each household, a single respondent who had the next birthday closest to the date of the interview was selected. Households were selected at random by computer using Statistics Canada enumeration areas as the primary sampling unit. Clusters of seven interviews were conducted in each enumeration area selected.

Probability of selection was disproportionate by province, and within each province the sample was stratified by community size. A weighting scheme was used to bring the sample back into the proper proportions vis-à-vis the 1981 non-Native Census population (in the ten provinces). It simultaneously took into account age, sex, province, and language most often spoken at home.

In 19 out every 20 national samples of this size drawn in Canada, the results would fall within about plus or minus two percentage points of the results found here.

Data were collected through in-home, face-to-face interviews averaging seventy minutes in duration. The questionnaire contained two hundred questions, including sixty dealing explicitly with Native matters.

Sampling, translation, data collection, coding of closed-ended questions, and data entry were done under contract by Decima Research Ltd. The questionnaire was designed by the author.

A 1976 survey, comparative results of which are also presented here, was virtually identical in sample size and was very similar in sampling design. Roger Gibbins, a political scientist at the University of Calgary, was co-director of that study.

Components of the Index of Comparative Sympathy for Natives, 1976 and 1986

Year	Phraseology of item	% Agreeing	% Disagreeing	National average[1]
1976	The federal Department of Indian Affairs tends to be more concerned with bureaucratic red tape than seeing to the needs of the Indian people.	65	12	3.96
1986	Same	55	15	3.69
1976	Indians deserve to be a lot better off economically than they are now.	72	12	4.05
1986	Same	48	29	2.32
1976	Indians, as the first Canadians, should have special cultural protection that other groups don't have.	44	36	3.09
1986	Same	38	46	2.82
1976	Most Indian leaders who criticize the federal Department of Indian Affairs are more interested in improving their own political position than they are interested in improving the lot of their people.	29	36	3.12
1986	Native leaders who call for self-government for Native people are more interested in promoting their own personal career than in helping Native people.	30	41	3.18
1976	Indian people themselves, not the provincial government, should decide what Indian children are taught in school.	35	49	2.78
1986	Native schools should not have to follow provincial guidelines on what is taught.	22	67	2.18
1976	Where Indian principles of land ownership conflict with the white man's law, Indian principles should be given priority.	30	35	2.91
1986	Same	33	44	2.81

[1] The average can range from 1.0 to 5.0. The mid-point (neutral) is 3.0. For all items, in calculating the average, a response which is strongly supportive of Indians/Natives is scored as 5, a strongly antagonistic response is scored as 1, etc. Thus, on the first item agreeing responses were scored as supportive (4 or 5, depending on whether "strongly agree" or "moderately agree"), and disagreeing responses were scored as antagonistic (1 or 2), while on the fourth item the reverse was true. A score of 3 was assigned to respondents who chose the "neither agree nor disagree" category; while those who said "don't know/no opinion" were not given a score.

Opinions on specific issues: "special status" and self-government, 1986

Statement	Agree strongly	Agree moderately	Neutral	Disagree moderately	Disagree strongly	Don't know; no opinion	Total
				%			
Special status							
If Parliament and the elected leaders of the Native people agreed that some Canadian laws would not apply in Native communities, it would be all right with me.	15	23	10	19	25	9	101[1]
Native schools should not have to follow provincial guidelines on what is taught.	9	13	5	26	41	5	99[1]
Native governments should have powers equivalent to those of provincial governments.	13	18	10	24	27	8	100
Native governments should be responsible to elected Native politicians, rather than to Parliament, for the federal government money they receive.	11	17	15	19	25	13	100
Self-government							
It is important to the future well-being of Canadian society that the aspirations of Native people for self-government be met.	17	25	17	19	14	9	101[1]
Those provincial premiers who oppose putting the right to Native self-government in the Constitution are harming Native people.	17	21	17	21	13	12	101[1]
Most Native leaders who call for self-government for Native people are more interested in promoting their own personal career than in helping Native people.[2]	13	17	16	23	18	13	100
The Constitution of Canada should specifically recognize the right of Indians to self-government.	18	23	13	21	19	7	101[1]

[1] Totals may not add to 100% due to rounding.

[2] An agreeing response was treated in the analyses as indicative of an antagonistic toward self-government, and a disagreeing response was treated as supportive of self-government. For all other questions above, the respective interpretations were the reverse of those just cited.

determination, and responsibility over their own affairs.

Land claims

Noteworthy levels of support for Natives were also found on questions dealing with land claims and land use conflicts, particularly those involving natural resource development projects. For instance, the 1976 survey asked whether respondents regarded "all", "many", "few", or "no" Indian land claims as valid. A majority (61%) said "all" or "many," while about one-third (35%) said "few" or "none."

In 1986, on a different question concerning land claims, only about one-fifth (21%) of Canadians seemed to challenge the validity of Native land claims. A challenge was indicated by agreement with the position that the government should offer Natives neither land nor financial compensation when negotiating future land claim settlements with them. Fifteen percent favoured offering only more land, while 22% favoured offering "financial compensation for the lands lost," and 26% favoured offering both land and compensation.

Another important question on land claims in the 1986 survey asked respondents to choose which of three statements comes closest to their own view. The statements, with the percent choosing each, are: "Native land claims should not be allowed to delay natural resource projects at all" (19%); "Natural resources development companies should not be allowed to even set foot on land claimed by Natives until those Native land claims have been settled" (42%); and "I haven't given any thought to the matter of land claims and natural resource development" (30%).

Despite the high level of support for Native land claims found in the 1976 survey data, it was expected that the stark choice offered in the 1986 survey — with its implications of job creation — would produce a preponderance of opinion unfavourable to Natives. However, the reverse proved true, as support for Natives on land issues generally held firm over the ten years between the surveys.

Similarly, a slight majority agreed with the statement: "Where Natives' use of land conflicts with natural resource development, Native use should be given priority," while only about one-third of the sample disagreed.

However, there are limits to how far respondents are prepared to go in accommodating Natives on land matters. These limits are illustrated by responses to the statement: "Where Indian principles of land ownership conflict with the white man's law, Indian principles should be given priority." In both 1976 and 1986, those unwilling to make such a major compromise outnumbered those favouring such a compromise — 35% to 30% in 1976 and 44% to 33% in 1986. Average support on the question declined slightly from 2.91 to 2.81 (where scores could range from "1" to "5").

Regional variation

One of the main findings of the 1976 survey was that from one region of the

Glossary of terms

Native peoples: This term includes registered (also called Status) Indians, non-Status Indians, Metis and Inuit.

Native Indians: Usually refers to both Status and non-Status Indians.

The Indian Act: A piece of federal legislation first passed in 1876. The Act sets out the rules governing Indian reserves and outlining the powers held by Band Councils. The Act also sets out the criteria by which persons are or are not recognized as "Indians."

Indian Register: A list of all registered Indians (as defined in the Indian Act) which is kept by the federal department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC). Information on this list concerning the demographic characteristics of the Indian population is updated regularly by band officials and published as of December 31 of each year. The Register is intended to list all persons legally entitled to be registered as Status Indians rather than just those who may be ethnically defined as Status Indians (e.g., a non-Indian woman who marries a Status Indian man is legally entitled to be registered as a Status Indian, even if she is not of North American Indian ethnic origin).

Registered Indian: A person who is "registered as an Indian in the Indian Register."

Metis: There are at least two different views about the meaning of the term Metis. Some maintain that the term refers to those of aboriginal ancestry who are descended from the historic Metis community of Western Canada. Others say that Metis refers to anyone of mixed aboriginal and non-aboriginal ancestry who identifies themselves as a Metis, as distinct from Indian or Inuit.

Inuit: Formerly known as Eskimo, these Native peoples have traditionally resided north of the tree line in the Northwest Territories, Labrador, and along the northern coast of Quebec.

Indian bands: Groups of registered Indians recognized by the federal government, for whose common benefit and use, land has been set aside and monies held by the government..

Indian reserve: Land, the legal title to which is held by the federal government, that has been set apart for the use and benefit of an Indian band and that is subject to the terms of the Indian Act.

Off-reserve Indian population: The Indian Register defines an Indian as residing off-reserve if he or she has lived off-reserve for at least 12 consecutive months.

James Bay Agreement of 1975: The first major agreement between the Crown and Native people in Canada since the treaties of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. This agreement was reached after four years of negotiations, court cases, and bargaining following the 1971 announcement of plans to build a system of hydroelectric dams on the east coast of James Bay in the province of Quebec.

Bill C31 and the 1985 Amendments to the Indian Act: Bill C31 was designed to end many of the discriminatory provisions of the Indian Act, especially those which discriminated against Indian women. The Bill changed the meaning of the term "Status" and for the first time allowed for the reinstatement of Indians who had lost or were denied Status and/or band membership in the past. It also allows bands to determine their own band membership criteria.

country to another, there was often striking variation in orientation to, and knowledge about, Indians. In the 1986 data, the same observation can be made for Native people in general, and not just Indians.

On both general and specific measures of support for Indians or Natives, there is a pattern to the regional variation. Respondents in Quebec tended to be most supportive, while those in Ontario and Manitoba ranked close behind. Those in the three most westerly provinces (each considered separately) were least supportive, while those in the Atlantic provinces (combined) fall into an intermediate position, which is usually closer to western Canada than to central Canada.

The distribution on the 1986 Index of Sympathy for Indians[6] illustrates this pattern well. On this scale, where scores can range from a low of "1" to a high of "5" and the mid-point is "3," the national average is 3.29, which is well to the sympathetic side of the mid-point. The average score for Quebec is 3.44, while Ontario and Manitoba are close behind at 3.40 and 3.39, respectively.[7] There is a large gap between these three provinces and the Atlantic region, whose average score is 3.08. Alberta, British Columbia, and Saskatchewan exhibit average scores of 3.08, 3.04 and 2.91, respectively.

Another illustration of regional variation is provided by a question which asked respondents which of three "things" Canadian Indians need most — more money from government, less control by government, or more rights in the Constitution. Nationally, 7%, 33%, and 45% chose these three, respectively, while the remaining 16% were undecided. The proportion choosing "more rights in the constitution" ranged from 33% in Vancouver (and 37% in the rest of British Columbia) to 52% in Toronto and Quebec-outside-Montreal. (Forty-three percent of Montrealers and 46% of Ontarians-outside-Toronto chose this option.) Support for "less control by government" ranged from about 21% in Quebec to about 46% in British Columbia.

Other determinants of opinions

Province of residence was not the only factor to show a significant effect in the formation of attitudes toward aboriginal people. As might be expected, there were numerous other factors which play contributing roles in the formation of public attitudes toward Native peoples and their concerns. Unfortunately, space does not allow an extended discussion of these other contributing factors, and they can only be mentioned in passing here.

For example, support for multiculturalism was found to be associated with many measures of support for Natives. Political party identification at the federal level, as well as strong adherence to the "small-c" conservative philosophy, were also related to views on Native matters. Language spoken was related to both levels of support and knowledge. Francophones tended to be more supportive of, but less knowledgeable about, Natives than were Anglophones.

Two other factors emerge with striking regularity as being particularly important in determining Canadians' orientations toward Natives. These factors were: a person's assessment of the competence of Native people in managing their own affairs and a person's perceptions of whether or not Natives are presently receiving an excessive or an inadequate amount of financial assistance from government.

[6] This Index is slightly different from the previously discussed comparative (1976-1986) Index of Sympathy, because that index excluded some items that form part of the 1986 sympathy scale only.

[7] On some indexes or individual questions, there is also considerable variation within Quebec and/or within Ontario, as between the dominant city and the rest of the provinces.

Canadians who perceive Natives to be receiving too much financial assistance from government are highly likely to be **unsupportive** of Natives on all four of the indexes examined here. In contrast, if a respondent holds the view that adequately funded Native governments are able to meet the needs of individual Natives better than governments can, then that person is highly likely to be **supportive** of Natives on all four indexes.

Among factors showing little effect on attitudes were: age, sex, level of formal education, family income, labour union membership, religious affiliation, size of community of residence, disposition to support underdogs, and having experienced a declining standard of living (or its opposite).

One final note on the determinants of attitudinal support for Natives is in order. Despite assessing over two dozen factors in attempting to explain why people hold supportive or unsupportive views, it did not prove possible to account for more than 40% of the variation observed. Thus, our current understanding of the factors leading to the formation of views on Native issues is at best modest.

Summary

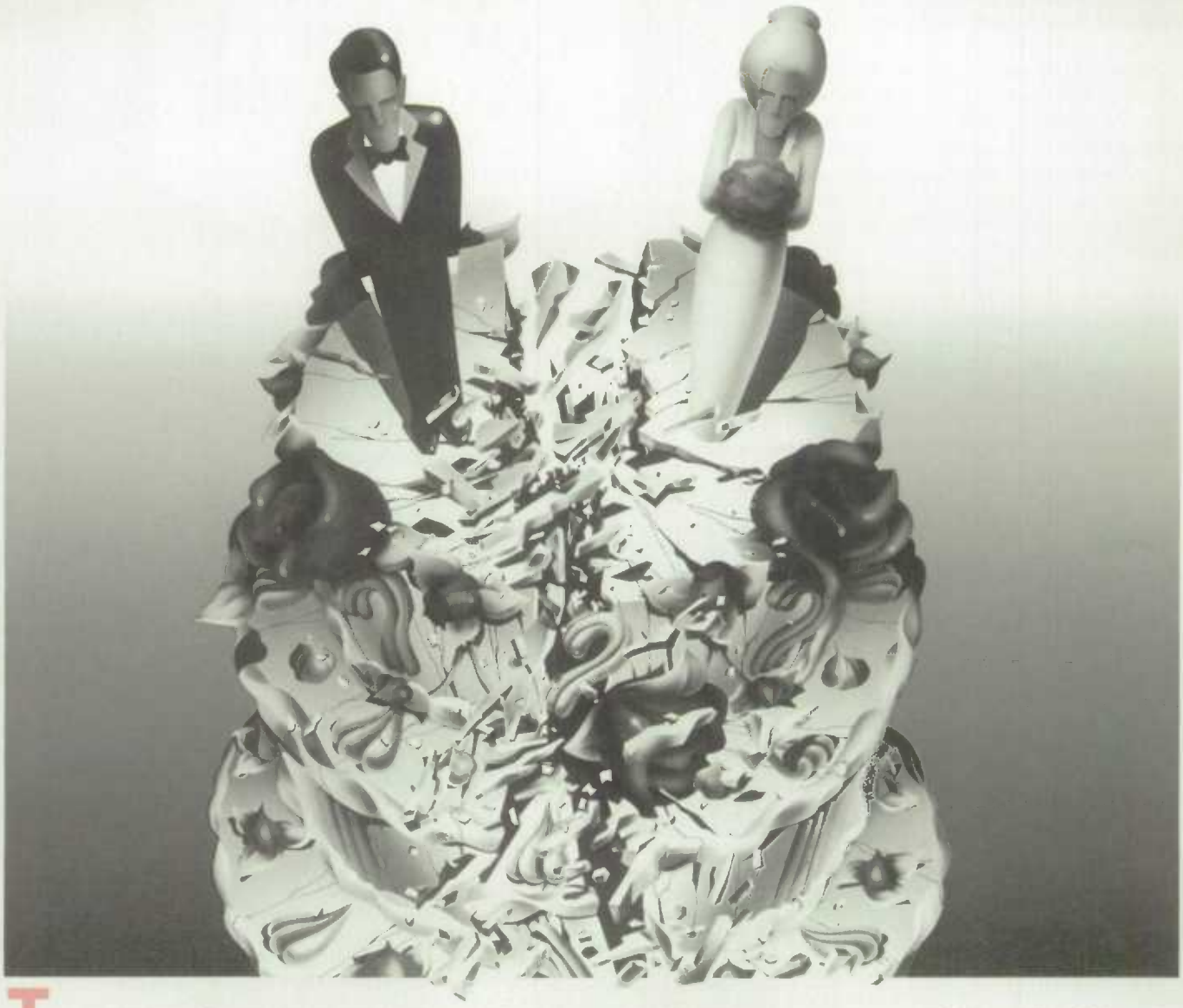
When surveyed, Canadians tend to be generally supportive of Natives' aspirations for self-government and their land claims, but are wary of arrangements which connote special privileges. Over a ten-year period ending in 1986, attitudes and opinions toward Natives and Native issues changed very little from their generally supportive levels. This support was not based on extensive knowledge of Native issues; knowledge levels remained low.

Important also is the fact that the Canadian public is not rigidly divided into two opposing camps on Native issues. Canadians' views on Natives and Native issues are **not** tightly interwoven with larger philosophical views. However, in the absence of such linkages between Native issues and wider concerns, those Native issues remain on the periphery of Canadians' consciousness.

The assistance of Marion Jones in providing the "Glossary of terms" and "Current measures of the Native population" is gratefully acknowledged.

DIVORCE RATES IN CANADA

by Owen Adams



The annual divorce rate in Canada has increased dramatically over the last two decades. This occurred largely because of the easing of legal restrictions on marital dissolution as a result of the 1968 Divorce Act and the Divorce Act, 1985.

The most recent legislation, the Divorce Act, 1985, was followed by a sharp increase in the divorce rate, which reversed a three-year downward trend. The number of divorces per 100,000 married women rose 25% in 1986, to an all-time high of 1,255. In comparison, the rate had fallen 14% between 1982 and 1985, from 1,164 to 1,004.

Most of the period since the 1968 Divorce Act was passed, however, has been characterized by steadily increasing divorce rates. Shortly after passage of the Act, the rate more than doubled, rising from 235 divorces per 100,000 married women in 1966 to 557 in 1969. Then, during the 1970s, the rate almost doubled again.

Divorce rates highest in Alberta and British Columbia

Divorce rates vary widely across the country. In 1986, there were 1,646 divorces per 100,000 married women in Alberta and 1,514 in British Columbia. This contrasted with 469 in Newfound-

land and 637 in Prince Edward Island. Divorce rates in the other provinces ranged from just under 1,000 in New Brunswick and Saskatchewan, to around 1,100 in Manitoba, and 1,200 in Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario.

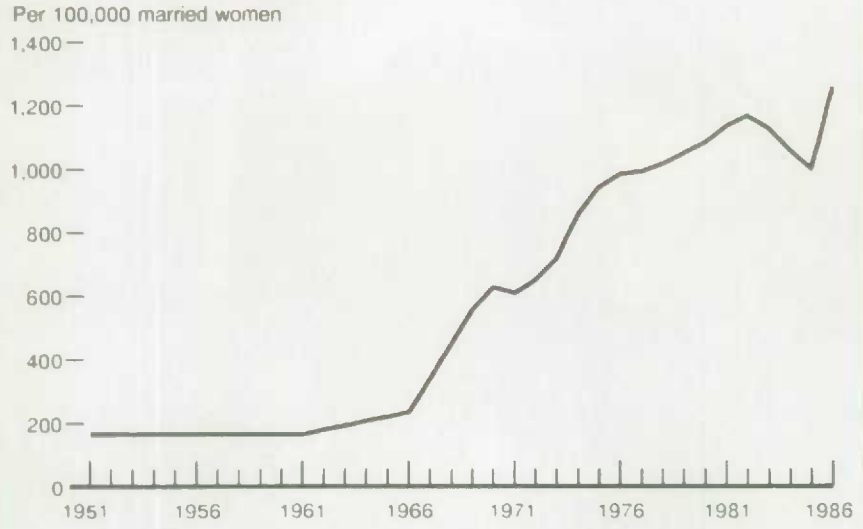
The divorce rate rose in all provinces except Prince Edward Island in 1986. The largest increases occurred in Ontario and British Columbia, where rates rose 35% and 33%, respectively. Increases in Manitoba (25%), Saskatchewan (25%) and New Brunswick (24%) were similar to the national average, while there were somewhat smaller increases in Quebec (16%), Alberta (15%), Newfoundland (9%), and Nova Scotia (8%). On the other hand, the divorce rate fell 12% in Prince Edward Island.

Shorter duration of marriage

The duration of marriage before divorce has become shorter, particularly for people divorcing under the new Act.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

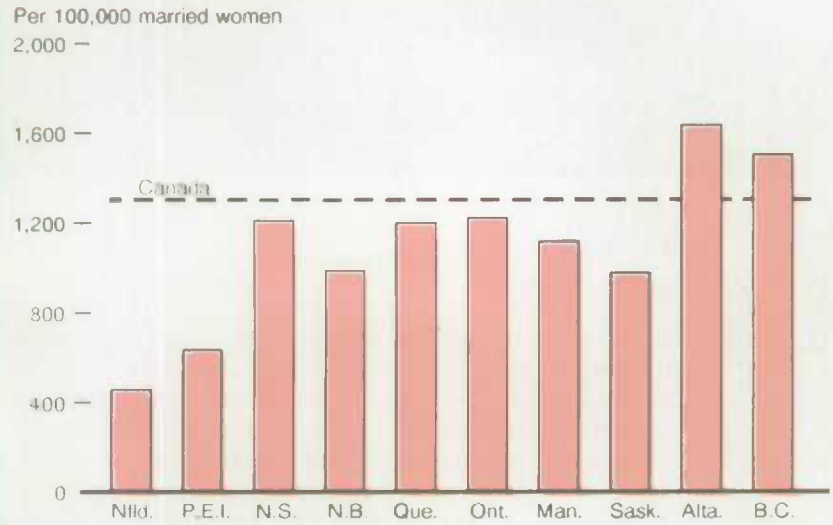
Divorce rate, 1951-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, and Census of Canada

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Divorce rate, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205.

Legislative changes

Before 1968, a divorce was difficult to obtain in Canada. Divorces were granted only if one of the spouses was proven to have committed adultery. Under the 1968 Divorce Act, however, divorce was permitted for either of two main reasons, or a combination of both. The first was that one of the spouses had committed a matrimonial offence, such as adultery or physical or mental cruelty. The second reason was that permanent marriage breakdown had occurred because of desertion or imprisonment, or because the spouses had lived apart for at least three years.

The Divorce Act, 1985, made marriage breakdown the sole ground for divorce. Under this Act, there are four reasons for marriage breakdown: separation for not less than one year, adultery, physical cruelty, and mental cruelty. Separation for at least one year was cited in 91% of divorces obtained under the new law in 1986.

Couples who divorced in 1986 under the new law had been married a median of 9.1 years, while the figure was 11.2 years for those who divorced that year under the old law. By contrast, in 1969, the median duration of marriage before divorce was almost 15 years.

Fewer children involved

Divorces granted under the new law in 1986 were also less likely to involve children than those granted under the old law. Of divorces obtained in 1986, children were involved in just one-third (34%) granted under the new Act, compared with more than half (52%) obtained under the old Act.

Under the new Act, as was the case under the old Act, wives are most likely to be awarded custody of the children after divorce. Wives received custody of 75% of the children in divorces granted under the new Act for which there was a custody order. The husband won custody of 12% of the children, while joint custody was ordered for 11%. For the remaining 2%, custody was awarded to someone other than the husband or wife.

Owen Adams *is a senior analyst with the Health Division, Statistics Canada.*

THE DECLINE OF UNPAID FAMILY WORK

by Doreen Duchesne

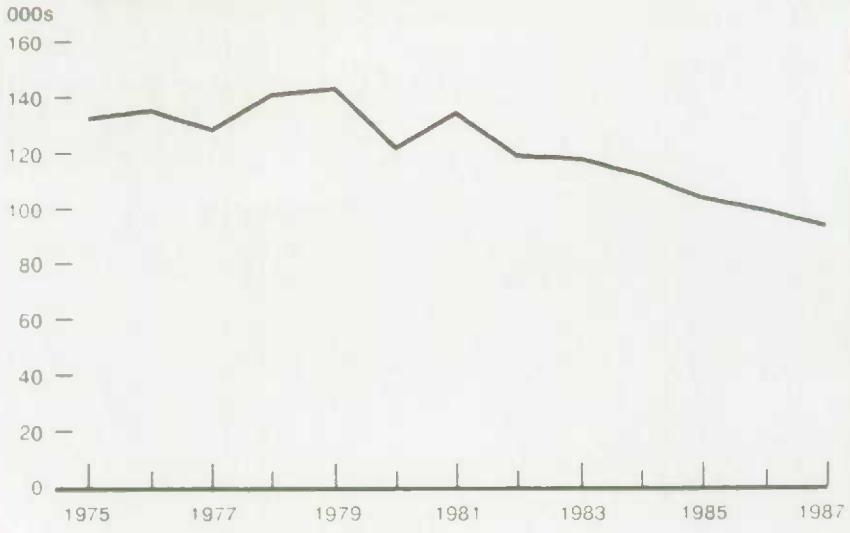
At the turn of the century, when Canadian society was mostly rural, unpaid family workers were an important part of the Canadian workforce. Their numbers, however, declined sharply as the economy industrialized and they now make up only a small fraction of total employment in Canada.

In 1987, for example, only 93,000 people were employed as unpaid family workers and they made up just 0.8% of all Canadians with jobs. These figures are down from 1975, when 132,000 unpaid workers made up 1.4% of total employment.

An unpaid family worker is a person who works without pay on a family farm or in a business or professional practice owned and operated by a related member of the same household. Although this type of worker does not receive a formal wage or salary, he or she is considered to benefit financially from the family enterprise.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

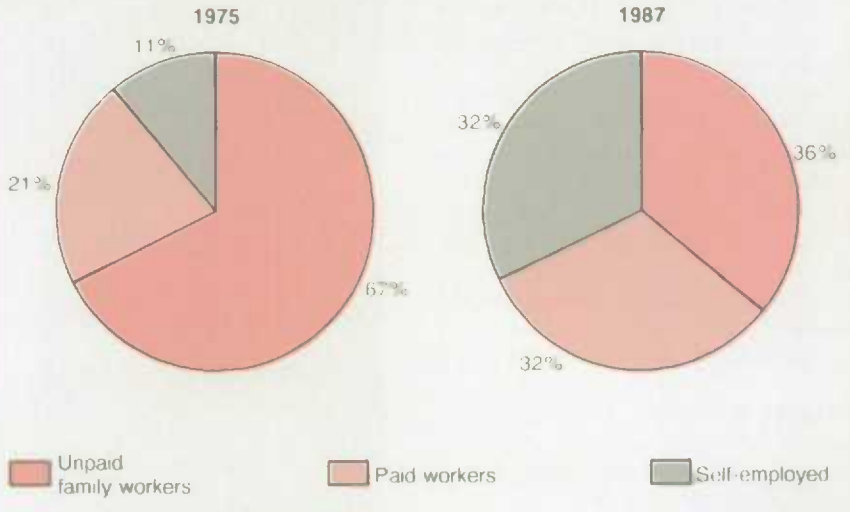
Unpaid family workers, 1975-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Married women aged 25 and over in agriculture, by class of worker, 1975 and 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

Most in agriculture

The majority of unpaid family workers are employed in agriculture. In 1987, 59,000 unpaid family workers, 64% of the total, worked in this industry. Their numbers have declined from 92,000 in 1975.

Unpaid family workers continue to be an important source of labour in agriculture, accounting for 12% of all people employed in this industry in 1987. This was down, though, from 19% in 1975.

The remaining third of unpaid family workers are employed in non-agricultural industries. In 1987, there were 34,000 such workers, 14% fewer than in 1975. Most of these workers are employed in retail trade or in community, business and personal service industries.

Married women the main source of unpaid family work

Most unpaid family workers are married women aged 25 and over. In 1987, these women made up 70% of the unpaid family work force. A further 18% of these workers were single 15-19-years-olds.

The number of unpaid family workers in each of these groups has declined. Between 1975 and 1987, the number of married women fell 23% from 84,000 to 64,000, while the number of teenagers dropped 51% from 34,000 to 17,000.

Much of the decline among married women occurred in agriculture. Between 1975 and 1987, the number of married women aged 25 and over working without pay in agriculture dropped 25% from 53,000 to 39,000.

Many of these women, however, were not moving out of agriculture. Rather, they were shifting into paid work and self-employment in this industry. For example, between 1975 and 1987, the number of wives aged 25 and over employed as paid workers in agriculture doubled to 35,000, while the number who were self-employed almost quadrupled to 34,000.

The shift from unpaid to self-employment possibly resulted from recent developments in matrimonial property law. These changes may have played a role in encouraging women to enter formal partnerships with their husbands in order to gain legal recognition for the value of the labour they contribute to the family business.

Changes in taxation law may have encouraged the shift to paid work. Since 1980, owners of unincorporated businesses have been allowed to claim a spousal employee's income as a tax deduction.

Doreen Duchesne *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

• For further information on unpaid family workers, see: *The Decline of Unpaid Family Work in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-535, No. 2.

TRENDS IN SUICIDE

by Renée Beneteau

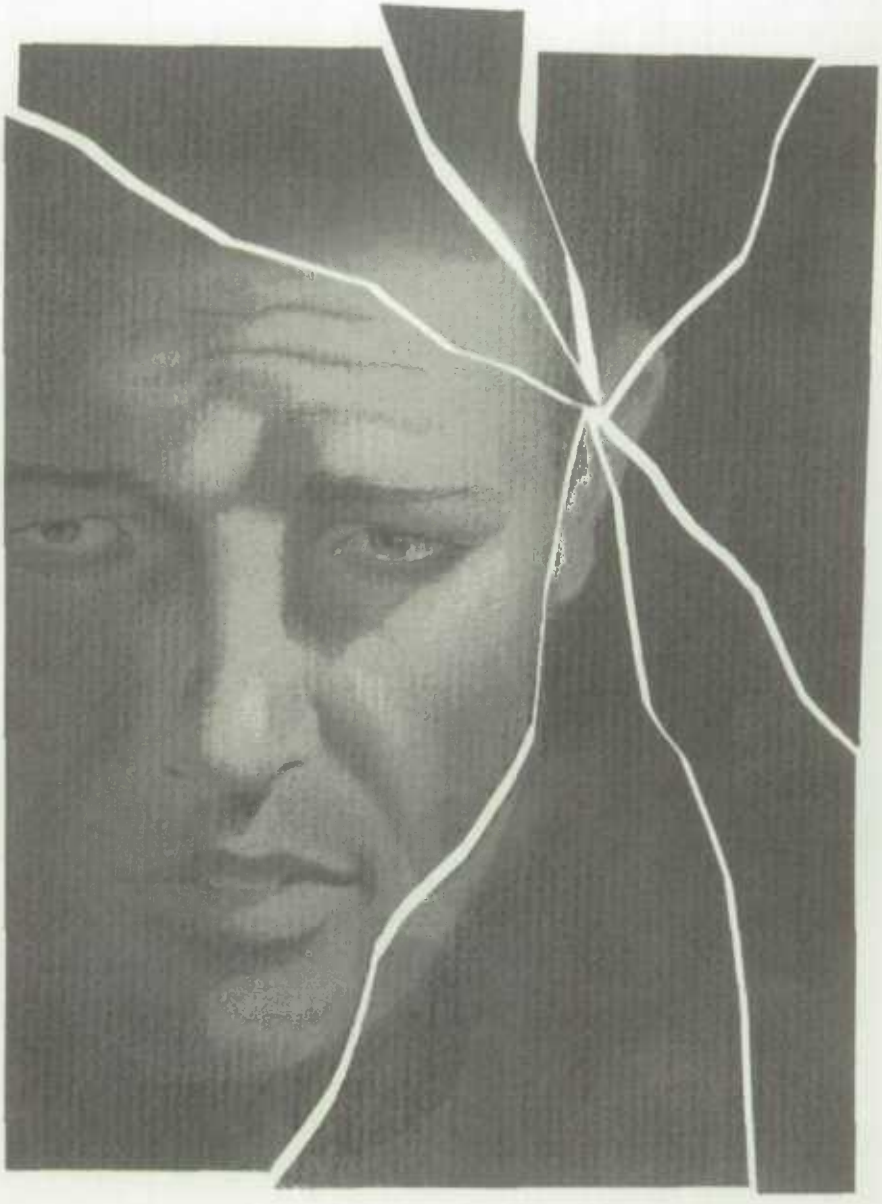
As a result of major increases in the Canadian suicide rate in the 1960s and 1970s, suicide rates during the 1980s have been the highest in history. During the last decade, the suicide rate has been about double what it was throughout most of the period from 1921 to 1961; as well, it has remained considerably above previous highs recorded during the Depression of the 1930s.

There were particularly large increases in the incidence of suicide among young adult men. By the mid-1980s, men in their twenties had one of the highest suicide rates of any age group. This is a change from the past when older men were generally the most likely to take their own lives. Suicide rates have also increased among women, although their rates remain well below those of men.

Increases in suicide

In 1986, the deaths of almost 3,700 Canadians were reported as suicides.[1] This represented 14.6 suicides for every 100,000 people, nearly double the rate that prevailed during most of the period from the early 1920s to the early 1960s. During the latter period, for example, there were around 7.5 suicides per 100,000 population. As well, the 1986 figure was well above the previous historical highs of just under 10 suicides per 100,000 population recorded in the early 1930s.

[1] The actual number of suicides in Canada may be underreported. A death is only certified as a suicide by medical and legal authorities when the victim's intent is clearly proven.



Almost all the increase in the suicide rate since 1960 occurred during the 1960s and 1970s. Between 1960 and 1978, the rate rose from 7.6 suicides per 100,000 population to 14.8. During the 1980s, the suicide rate has been relatively stable, ranging from a high of 15.1 suicides per 100,000 population in 1983, the highest rate ever recorded in Canada, to a low of 13.7 in 1984.

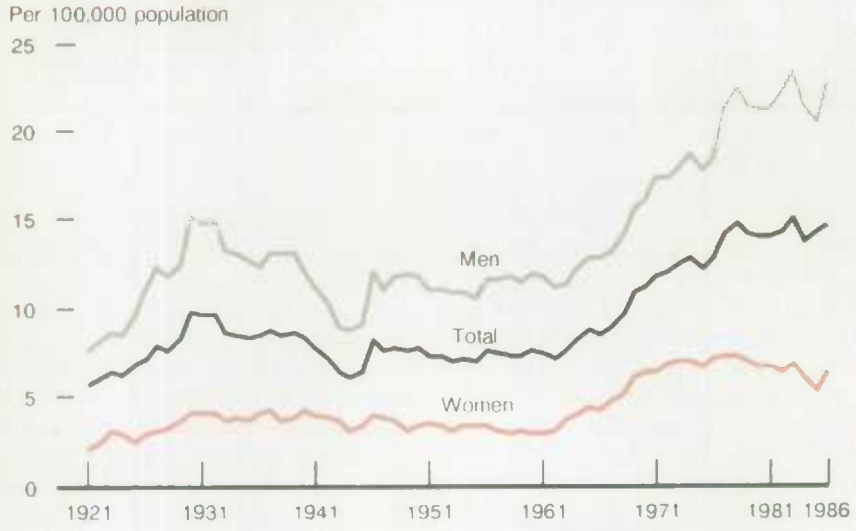
Suicide has accounted for roughly 2% of all deaths in Canada annually since the late 1970s. This proportion has risen over the last several decades from 1% in 1960 and 1.5% in 1970. In 1921, just 0.5% of all deaths were recorded as suicides.

Suicide largely a male phenomenon

The suicide rate for men is much higher than for women. In 1986, there were 22.8 suicides for every 100,000 men compared with 6.4 for every 100,000 women. Overall, almost 80% of all suicide victims in 1986 were men.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

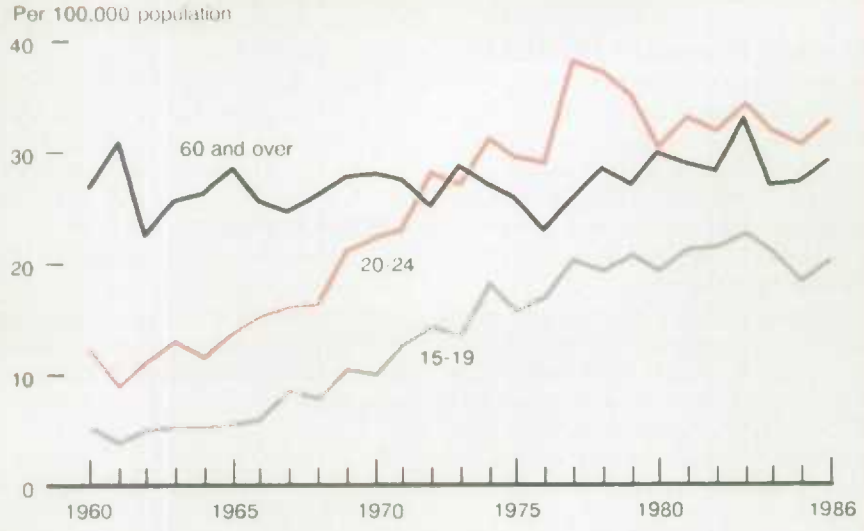
Suicide rate, by sex, 1921-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 84-202, 84-206 and 84-528

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Suicide rate for men aged 15-24 and 60 and over, 1960-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 84-206 and 84-528

Suicide rates have nearly doubled for both men and women since the early 1960s; however, the growth patterns have varied. In particular, since the late 1970s, the rate for men has increased, while that for women has fallen.

Largest increases among young adult men

The largest increases in suicide have occurred among younger men. The suicide rate for men aged 15-19 rose from 5.3 per 100,000 population in 1960 to 20.2 in 1986. The rate for men in this age group, though, remains somewhat below rates for men aged 20 and over.

The suicide rate for men aged 20-24 also rose substantially from 12.3 in 1960 to 32.8 in 1986. In the same period, rates for men aged 25-44 nearly doubled. As a result, 1986 suicide rates for men aged 20-44 were generally either equal to, or greater than, those for older men. This is in sharp contrast to the early 1960s when rates for men aged 45 and over were considerably greater than those for men under age 45.

The suicide rate for men in their twenties is particularly high. In 1986, there were around 33 suicides per 100,000 men in this age range, the highest rate for any age group except men aged 70 and over.

Suicide rates, though, remain high for older men. In 1986, there were 34.9 suicides per 100,000 men aged 70 and over, the highest rate for any age group.

An international perspective

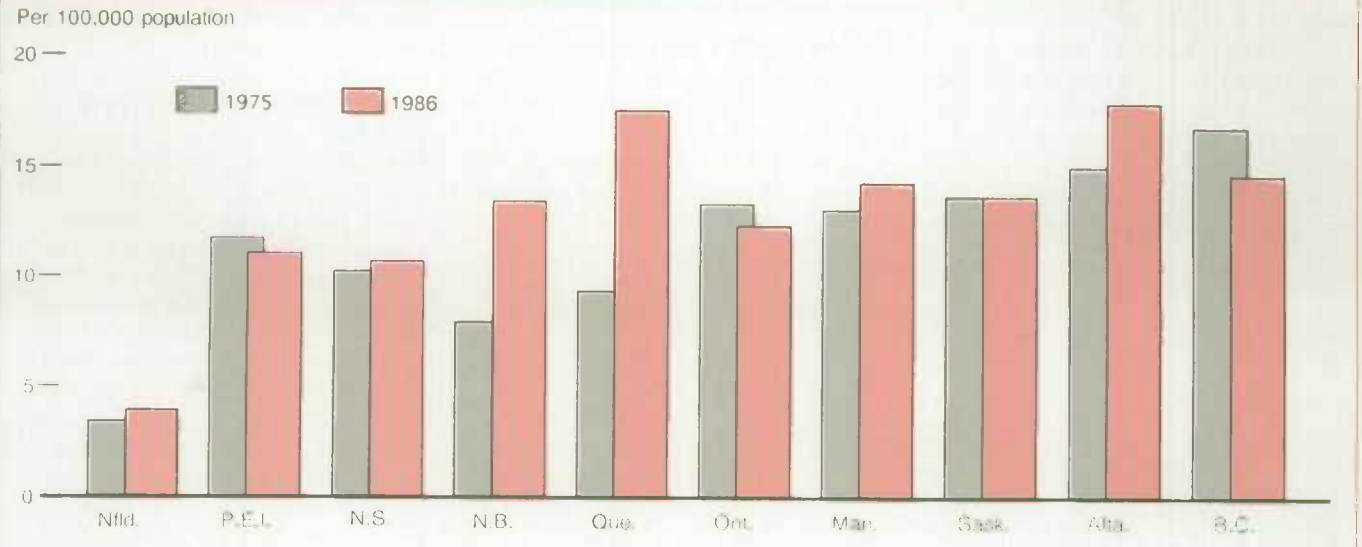
The suicide rate in Canada is similar to that in the United States. According to the World Health Organization, the age-standardized (to the world population) suicide rate in Canada in 1985 was 11.3 per 100,000 population. This was just slightly greater than the figure of 10.7 reported for the United States in 1984.

On the other hand, the Canadian suicide rate is generally below those in most European countries. For example, the Canadian rate was below those in Finland (22.6*), Austria (22.3*), Denmark (22.0), Switzerland (18.1*), France (17.5), Sweden (14.5), West Germany (14.0*), and Norway (12.5). The Canadian rate, though, was above those in England and Wales (7.1) and the Netherlands (9.3).

*Figure is for 1986; other figures are for 1985.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Suicide rate, by province, 1975 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-206.

The suicide rate for other male groups over age 45 ranged from 24.6 for men aged 65-69 to 30.0 for those aged 50-54.

There has, however, been little change in suicide rates among men aged 45 and over since the early 1960s. There were small increases in rates for men aged 45-54 and 70 and over, while rates for men aged 55-69 actually declined.

The age distribution of women who commit suicide differs from that of men, though for all age groups the female suicide rate is well below that for males.

The highest female suicide rate in 1986 occurred among women aged 50-54. That year, there were 12.9 suicides for every 100,000 women in this age range. Rates for other groups in the 30-69 age range varied from 7.9 for women aged 55-59 to around 10 for women aged 45-49 and 60-64.

In contrast to the situation with men, suicide rates among women aged 20-29 and 70 and over were relatively low. In 1986, there were fewer than 7 suicides per 100,000 women in these age ranges.

The suicide pattern among women aged 15-19 was similar to that for men of the same age. The incidence of suicide among women in this age group increased substantially in the 1960-1986 period, though their 1986 suicide rate was still below that for all groups of women aged 20 and over.

Male suicides more violent

Men generally employ more violent means than women to commit suicide. In 1986, 38% of male suicides involved firearms and another 27% were by hanging or strangulation. In contrast, only 12% of female victims used firearms, while 19% either hanged or strangled themselves.

Female suicide victims, on the other hand, were more likely than male victims to use drugs, pills, or other medication. In 1986, more than a third of all female victims (37%) compared with just 9% of men used these methods.

Another 13% of male and 10% of female suicides involved poisoning by gas, usually motor vehicle exhaust. The remaining 14% of male suicides and 23% of female suicides were committed by other methods such as drowning, jumping from high places, or stabbing.

Narrowing of provincial differences

Suicide rates have historically been higher in the west than in the eastern or central provinces. These differences, however, have diminished in recent years, primarily because of large increases in the incidence of suicide in Quebec and New Brunswick.

Alberta had the highest suicide rate in Canada in 1986 with 17.9 deaths per 100,000 population. The second-highest rate (17.6) was reported in Quebec. This was a major change from earlier years when Quebec's rate was among the lowest in Canada. For example, in 1975, there were just 9.3 suicides per 100,000 population in Quebec, the third lowest rate in the country.

The incidence of suicide also increased substantially in New Brunswick from 8.0 suicides per 100,000 population in 1975 to 13.5 in 1986.

Suicide rates in the remaining provinces were either stable or declined in the last decade. As a result, rates in Ontario and the other eastern provinces in 1986 were just below those in British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. The exception to this was Newfoundland, where there were only 4.0 suicides per 100,000 population.

Suicide high among Native Canadians

Suicide rates are especially high among Native people. In 1986, there were 56.3 suicides for every 100,000 Native men, almost 2.5 times the rate for all men (22.8). At the same time, the rate for Native women (11.8) was almost double the rate for all women (6.4).

The incidence of suicide is particularly high among young Native men. In 1986, there were more than 100 suicides for every 100,000 Native men aged 15-29.

Suicides in prisons

The suicide rate is also very high in federal penitentiaries and provincial prisons. In 1986, 17 inmates in these institutions committed suicide; this represented a rate of more than 60 suicides per 100,000 prison population.

Renée Beneteau *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE, CANCER AND LIFE EXPECTANCY

by Dhruva Nagnur and Michael Nagrodski

One way of measuring the effect of any specific disease is to estimate the number of years that would be added to life expectancy if deaths from that disease were deleted.[1] When these estimates are calculated for all causes of death in Canada, the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease and cancer[2] result in, by far, the largest gains in life expectancy. In fact, the total gains to life expectancy that would result if deaths from these two diseases were deleted is much greater than that for all other diseases combined.

The deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease alone would result in the largest estimated gains in life expectancy of any disease. However, the number of years that would have been added to the average life expectancy of Canadians through the deletion of deaths due to this disease has declined slightly in recent years.

On the other hand, gains in life expectancy that would occur as a result of the deletion of deaths due to cancer have continued to increase, although they are still much smaller than those for cardiovascular disease.

Cardiovascular disease

The deletion of cardiovascular disease deaths would have added an estimated

[1] The assumption is made that all causes of death operate independently of one another.

[2] Cardiovascular disease refers to all diseases in Chapter VII of the 9th revision of *International Classification of Diseases*; cancer includes all diseases in Chapter II.

13.1 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981 and 8.7 years to that of men. This would have raised the total life expectancy of women to 92 years, and that of men to 81 years.

The potential number of years of life that would be gained by the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease, though, has fallen in recent decades. For example, the estimated increase for women was highest in 1971 when almost 15 years would have been added to female life expectancy. For men, the peak year was 1961, when over 11 years would have been added to their life expectancy.

Current estimates of gains in life expectancy that would occur if cardiovascular disease deaths were deleted, however, are still well above those recorded in the early part of the century. In 1921, the elimination of deaths due to cardiovascular disease would have added just 4 years to the life expectancy of both men and women.

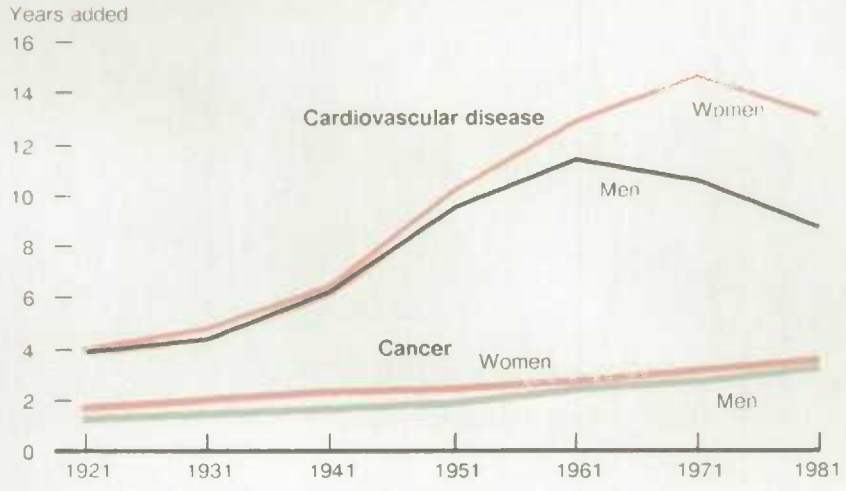
Cancer

The deletion of deaths due to cancer would also add significantly to estimates of life expectancy in Canada, although these gains are considerably smaller than those for cardiovascular disease. But while gains in life expectancy attributable to the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease have declined in recent decades, those for cancer have continued to increase.

Eliminating cancer deaths would have added 3.5 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981, and 3.2 years to that of men. Ten years earlier, the gains would have been 3.1 years for women and 2.7 for

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Years added to life expectancy if cardiovascular disease and cancer deaths were deleted, 1921-1981



Source: Nagnur, D. and M. Nagrodski, *Cause-deleted Life Tables for Canada (1921-1981)*. Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Research Paper No. 13.

Cardiovascular disease and cancer: leading killers

There have been major shifts in the leading causes of death in Canada since the early 1920s. While cardiovascular disease has been the leading cause of death for both men and women since early in the century, the proportion of all deaths attributable to this cause was much larger in 1986 than in 1921.

In 1986, deaths from cardiovascular disease made up 45% of all deaths of women and 41% of those of men; this compared with fewer than 20% of deaths of both sexes in 1921. The percentage of deaths due to cardiovascular disease, however, has dropped in recent decades, from peaks of 51% for women in 1971 and 49% for men in 1961.

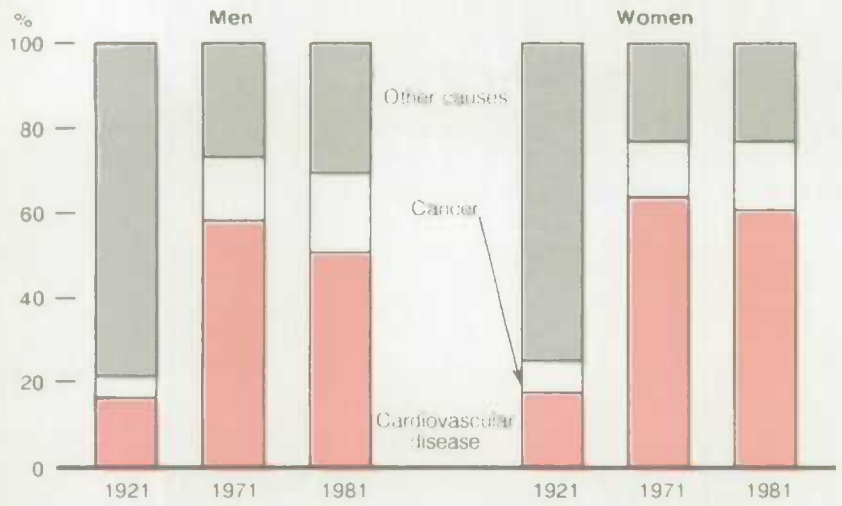
Cancer has been the second leading cause of death of women since 1931 and of men since 1941. In 1986, cancer accounted for 26% of all deaths of both men and women; this compared with 9% of female deaths and 7% of male deaths in 1921.

Unlike cardiovascular disease, though, the share of deaths attributable to cancer has continued to grow in recent years. For example, in 1971, 21% of all female deaths and 19% of those of men were due to this disease.

A number of other diseases which accounted for large shares of all deaths in the early part of the century are now almost unheard of as causes of death. Infectious and parasitic diseases, including tuberculosis, accounted for almost 15% of deaths in 1921; in 1986, however, only about half of one percent of all deaths were the result of these diseases. Similarly, certain diseases of infancy were responsible for almost 10% of deaths in 1921 compared with fewer than 1% in 1986.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of total years added to life expectancy by the deletion of major causes of death, 1921, 1971 and 1981



Source: Nagnur, D. and M. Nagrodski, *Cause-deleted Life Tables for Canada (1921-1981)*, Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Research Paper No. 13.

men, while in 1921, the gains would have been 1.7 years for women and 1.2 for men.

Cardiovascular disease, cancer and other diseases

The deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease and cancer would have added a total of 16.6 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981, whereas the deletion of all other causes of death combined would have added just 4.9 years. The difference was not quite as large for men; still, the estimated gain in male life expectancy as a result of the deletion of cardiovascular disease and cancer (11.9 years) was over twice that of all other causes of death combined (5.2 years.)

Of other causes of death, the elimination of accidental and violent deaths (excluding motor vehicle accidents) would have added the most to the life expectancy of both men and women. The elimination of this cause of death would have added 1.4 years to the life expectancy of men born in 1981 and 0.7 years to that of women. Increases to overall life expectancy of both men and women were very small for all other causes of death.

Conclusion

Cardiovascular disease and cancer far outweigh all other causes of death in their impact on life expectancy. As well, it is probable that this will be the case over the next several decades, particularly as the proportion of the population aged 65 and over continues to rise. Health care priorities will inevitably continue to be affected by these two diseases, especially the growing importance of cancer as a cause of death.

Both authors are with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada; **Dhruva Nagnur** *is a senior demographer and* **Michael Nagrodski** *is a technical officer.*

PART-TIME ADULT TRAINING

by Mary Sue Devereaux and Douglas J. Higgins

In today's rapidly changing work environment, education does not necessarily end once people leave school and settle into a job. For many workers, education is a lifelong process. Because of work or family responsibilities, however, few adults are able to go back to school full-time. As a result, many people seeking to improve job-related skills, increase earnings, or expand employment opportunities enroll in part-time courses. In 1985, 1.3 million Canadians, or more than 8% of the population aged 17-65, participated in such programs.

People who are already relatively well-educated, who are working full-time, or who are employed in a professional or technical occupation are also the most likely to continue their education through part-time training. On the other hand, much smaller proportions of those with little formal education, who work in blue collar jobs, or who are unemployed or not in the labour force enroll in part-time courses.

Wide provincial variations

Participation in part-time training varied across the country. About 11% of people aged 17-65 in Alberta took at least one course in 1986, while the figure was around 9% in British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario. Participation rates in the remaining provinces ranged from 7% in Saskatchewan and Quebec to just 3% in Newfoundland.

Training most common at ages 25-44

People aged 25-44 were the most likely to enroll in part-time training courses. In 1985, 12% of 25-34-year-olds and 10% of 35-44-year-olds took at least one such course. Participation in training was much less common among younger and older age groups. For instance, only 6% of people aged 17-24 or 45-54 took a part-time training course, while the figure was just 2% for 55-65-year-olds.

At most ages, men were more likely than women to take a training course. Among 25-34-year-olds, for example, 13% of men and 11% of women took a course, while for those aged 35-44, the participation rate was 11% for men and 9% for women. The exception to this pattern occurred in the 17-24 age group where 8% of women compared with 5% of men took at least one part-time course.

Married men, single women

There was also a contrast between the part-time training activity of men and women depending on their marital status. In 1985, 10% of married men, compared with 7% of separated/divorced men and 6% of those who were single, took a course. The trend for women was just the reverse. Close to 10% of both single and

separated/divorced women participated in a training program, compared with only 7% of married women.

These tendencies are related to the fact that married men are more likely than men in other marital categories to be in the labour force, while the opposite is the case for women. Since training, by definition, is undertaken for job-related reasons, training rates are highest among married men and lowest for married women.

Training for the well-educated

People were more likely to enroll in part-time training if they already had a high level of formal education. In 1985, 18% of university graduates and 14% of college graduates took a course, compared with just 5% of those who had not gone beyond high school and fewer than 2% of people with less than Grade 9.

Full-time workers most likely to enroll

Because training is work-related, participation rates were highest among people who were employed, especially those with full-time jobs. In 1985, almost 12% of full-time workers enrolled in a part-time training course. In comparison, the figure dropped to 8% for part-time workers, 6% for the unemployed, and just 2% for those not in the labour force.

A professional activity

Participation in part-time training was also closely related to occupation. People in white collar jobs, especially professional and technical positions, were more likely than other workers to take a course. Professional and technical personnel, however, are also more likely than those in other jobs to have a postsecondary education, which, as noted earlier, is associated with high participation rates in part-time training.

In 1985, 16% of people employed in professional and technical occupations took a part-time training course. This compared with 10% of those in clerical positions, 8% in sales, and 6% of blue collar workers.

Full-time training

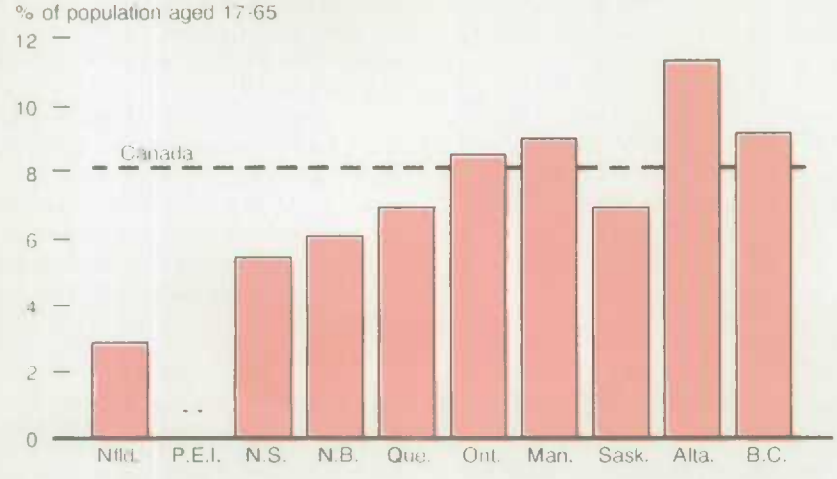
In addition to the 1.3 million adults who took part-time training courses in 1985, another 570,000 were enrolled in full-time programs. These courses involved instruction for most of each working day for a month or more.

Most people in full-time programs (79%) attended educational institutions such as universities, community colleges, or trade schools. The others were enrolled in either apprenticeships (12%) or employer-organized programs (9%).

While most people in full-time programs were completing the requirements for a university degree, community college diploma, or trade certificate, about 5% took upgrading or orientation courses in basic skills such as reading and writing, elementary mathematics, or job readiness.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Participation rate in part-time adult training, by province, 1985



- - amount too small to be expressed

Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Training Survey, February, 1986.

Service sector higher

Training was more common among people employed in the service sector than among those working in goods-producing industries. In 1985, about 10% of service sector workers, compared with 7% of goods-producing employees, enrolled in a part-time training course.

Within the service sector, participation in part-time training was particularly high in non-commercial services such as education, health and welfare, and public administration, each of which has a high concentration of well-educated, professional personnel. In 1985, 14% of workers in these industries took at least one part-time training course. In contrast, only 8% of those employed in commercial services took a course.

Business and commerce courses most popular

The largest proportion of part-time adult training courses were in business and commerce. In 1985, 22% of all courses were in these areas. Technology/trades and data processing each accounted for another 10% of courses, while 8% were in medical/dental subjects, 7% were in each of the humanities and social sciences, 6% were in mathematics/science/engineering, and 5% were in secretarial science.

While business and commerce courses were the first choice of both men and women, there were differences in the other types of training chosen by each sex. While a relatively high percentage of men enrolled in technology/trades (18%), few women were attracted to this field. Alternatively, 10% of women, but virtually no men, took courses in secretarial science. Much of this variation, though, likely reflects differences in the occupational distribution of men and women.

Employers leading providers

A large proportion of part-time training was provided by employers. In 1985, 34% of all those who took a course participated in an employer-sponsored program. Another 21% took community college courses, 17% took university courses, and 11% enrolled in courses given by unions or professional associations. The remaining 17% attended courses at other institutions including vocational, commercial, and private schools.

The likelihood of taking employer-sponsored courses increased with the size of the firm. Of course-takers working in firms with more than 500 employees, close to half (49%) participated in employer-sponsored programs; this

The Adult Training Survey

The Adult Training Survey was sponsored by Employment and Immigration Canada and conducted by Statistics Canada in February 1986. Because this survey was the first of its kind, comparable time series are not available.

Training was defined as formal educational activity in which participants enrolled for employment-related reasons such as improving job opportunities and skills, increasing earnings, or promoting career development. Educational activities taken out of personal interest or to obtain academic accreditation without any clear job-related purpose were not considered training.

Part-time training included instruction taken daily for most of the working day for less than one month, as well as courses taken a few hours a day, or a few days a week, over any period of time.

compared with just 15% of course-takers employed in firms with fewer than 20 workers.

Paying the price

The majority of part-time training courses, about 70%, required tuition, while the remaining 30% were free. Courses offered by employers were the most likely to be free; just under 70% of these courses entailed no fees. By contrast, 95% or more of all university and community college courses required payment.

For courses which did require tuition, 60% were paid for by the participants, while employers paid for 36%, and the remaining 4% were funded by other sources.

Employers were most likely to finance the training of full-time workers. They paid for 44% of the courses taken by those who worked full-time, compared with only 14% of courses taken by part-time workers. The overwhelming majority (88%) of training participants who were unemployed or not in the labour force paid their own way.

Employer-sponsored courses shorter

The median duration of part-time training courses was 39 hours. The length of courses, though, varied for different providers. Courses sponsored by employers, as well as those supplied by unions and professional associations, had a median duration of 24 hours. University and community college courses tended to be longer, with median durations of 48 and 45 hours, respectively.

The variation in course length is related to the type of training provided by different sponsors. Employers, unions and professional associations usually offer highly job-specific training, whereas many university and community college courses are more theoretical and hence, last longer.

Part-time courses taken by men and women, 1985

Course	Men	Women	Total
		%	
Business/commerce	23	22	22
Technology/trades	18	2[1]	10
Data processing	11	8	10
Medical/dental	6	11	8
Humanities	6	9	7
Social sciences	5	8	7
Mathematics/science/engineering	7	5	6
Secretarial science	..	10	5
Safety	6	..	3
Upgrading/orientation	2[1]	2[1]	2
Other	12	20	17
Don't know/not stated/not applicable	3	2[1]	3
Total	100	100	100
Total number of participants	**707,000**	**635,000**	**1,342,000**

[1] Data are subject to considerable sampling error and should be used with caution.
.. Data are based on too small a sample to be statistically reliable.
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Training Survey, February 1986.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor of* Canadian Social Trends *and* **Douglas J. Higgins** *is Chief of the Projections and Analysis Section, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,923.3[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	2.2[p]
Immigration[1]	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	150,804[p]
Emigration[1]	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,440[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634	11,955
- goods sector (000s)	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417	3,489
- services sector (000s)	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217	8,465
Total unemployment (000s)	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236	1,167
Unemployment rate	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6	8.9
Part-time employment (%)	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.2
Women's participation rate	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1	56.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1986 $	37,855	36,923	35,420	34,862	34,828	35,455	36,042	*
% of families with low income	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	.	63.6	64.0	.	65.5	64.9	66.0	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.5[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.9[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,383
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,095.8	28,808.6	28,950.0	29,475.2	28,980.6	31,112.5	29,675.3	30,227.9
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*
- women	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	.	36.7	.	34.0	.	33.1	30.8	*
- women	.	28.9	.	28.3	.	27.8	25.8	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	24,416.9	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	28,488.5	30,599.6	31,035.1	31,858.1
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	648	666	685	692	714	749	808	856
- property	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731
- homicide	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1987 $000,000)	118,984.6	121,628.9	130,173.0	136,395.7	138,037.3	144,847.0	145,563.9	147,237.4
- as a % of total expenditures	57.5	57.0	58.0	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	60.0
- as a % of GDP	24.7	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.5	26.7
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9
DAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+1.5	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4
Urban housing starts	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340

. Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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- Impaired driving offences
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Corrections: Autumn 1988 Issue (p. 34) – In the table Percentage of households with new necessities, 1987, the last line should read:

	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada
Total households (000s)	168	43	313	246	2,530	3,451	405	378	872	1,149	9,556

In the chart (p. 34), Percentage of selected family households with new necessities, 1987, the legend for lone-parent households should be blue, and for other family households, it should be grey.

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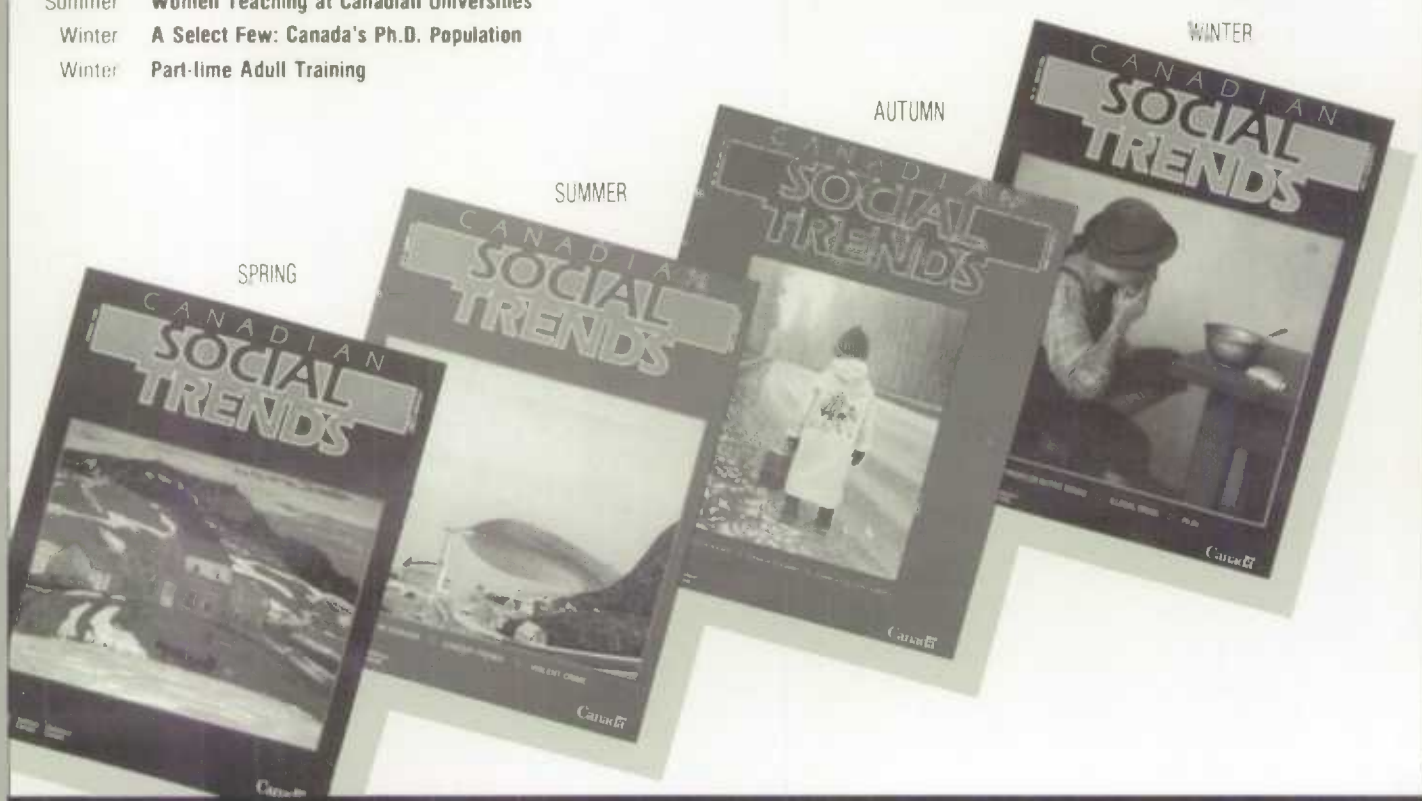

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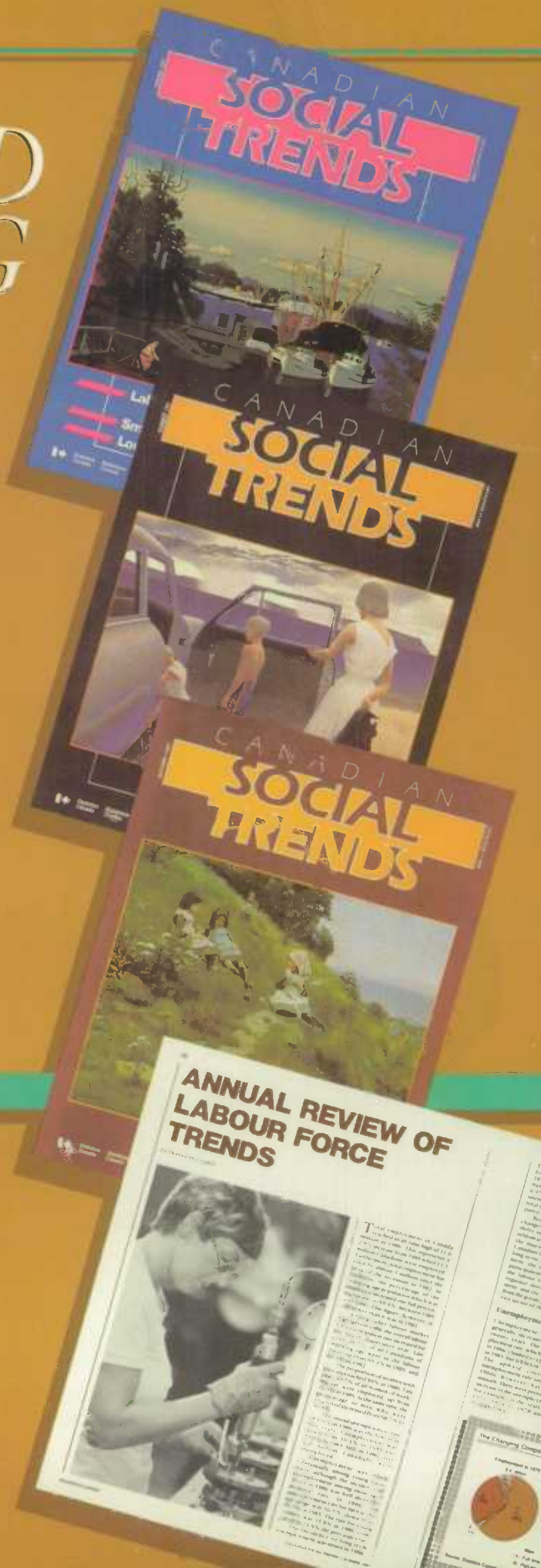

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