

CANADIAN

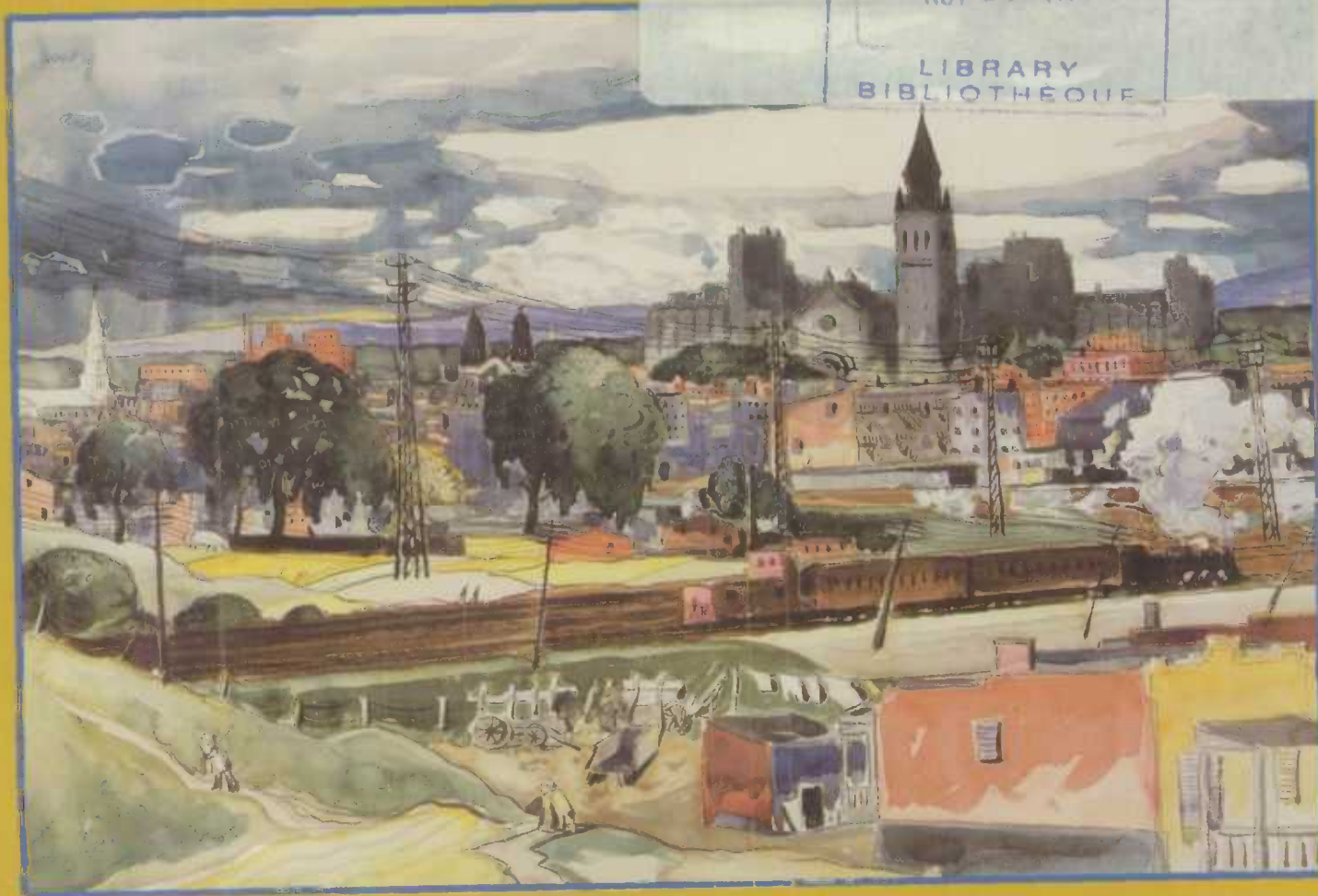
SOCIAL TRENDS

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About the artist:

Marc-Aurèle Fortin was born in Sainte Rose, just north of Montreal, in 1888. After studying art in Montreal in his late teens, he worked at odd jobs in Montreal and Edmonton to save enough money to study at the Art Institute of Chicago, and in New York and Boston. He exhibited his Canadian and European landscapes with their majestic trees not only in Canada, but also in England, Holland, Brazil and South Africa. In his late sixties, Mr. Fortin became ill and stopped painting for seven years. Confined to a wheelchair, he resumed painting before his death in 1970.

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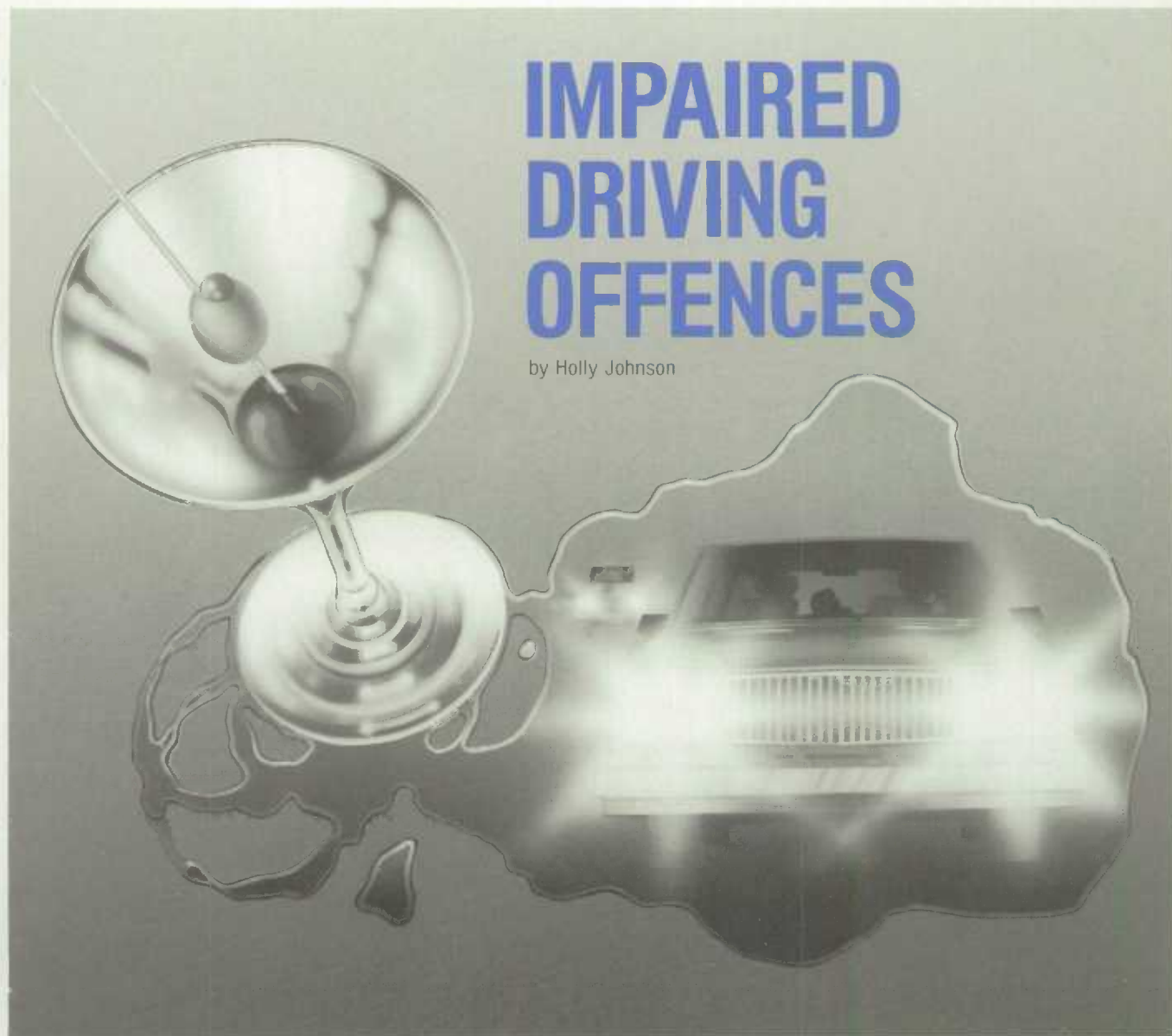
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IMPAIRED DRIVING OFFENCES

by Holly Johnson



There has been a major decline in the incidence of impaired driving offences in Canada in the 1980s.¹ In fact, the number of people charged with impaired driving offences in 1987 was the lowest total since data were first collected in 1974.

The recent decline in the incidence of impaired driving offences mirrors increased efforts by police, community groups, and government to curb this problem over the course of the last decade. According to police statistics, programs like roadside breathalyzers, and groups such as Mothers Against Drunk Driving, Students Against Drunk Driving, and Citizens Against Impaired Driving seem to have had the desired impact on the attitudes and behaviour of Canadians with respect to drinking and driving.

Despite the decline in the number of people charged with impaired driving in the 1980s, drinking and driving remains widespread, and continues to be a major cause of accident, injury, and death on the nation's roadways.

On the basis of roadside surveys, the Road Safety Directorate of Transport Canada estimates that one in four drivers on a typical weekend evening has been drinking, and that one in 20-25 is legally impaired by the effects of alcohol. The Traffic Injury Research Foundation estimates that 25-30% of all drivers injured in motor vehicle accidents are impaired and that almost half of all traffic fatalities involve someone who has been drinking.

The costs of impaired driving, though, go well beyond the health risks to those who drink and drive. For those charged

and convicted with impaired driving offences, additional costs may include the loss of income and employment, strain on families, and loss of status in the community. For victims of traffic accidents involving impaired drivers, the consequences may include lost productivity, emotional trauma, and sometimes serious injury and even death. For society as a whole, the consequences of impaired driving include the costs incurred by the criminal justice and health care systems,

as well as rising insurance premiums for other drivers.

Impaired driving offences declining

The incidence of impaired driving declined for the fourth consecutive year in 1987. That year, just over 128,000 people were charged by police with impaired driving offences. This was down about 1% from 1986, and 21% from 1981, when a high of 162,000 persons were charged with these offences.

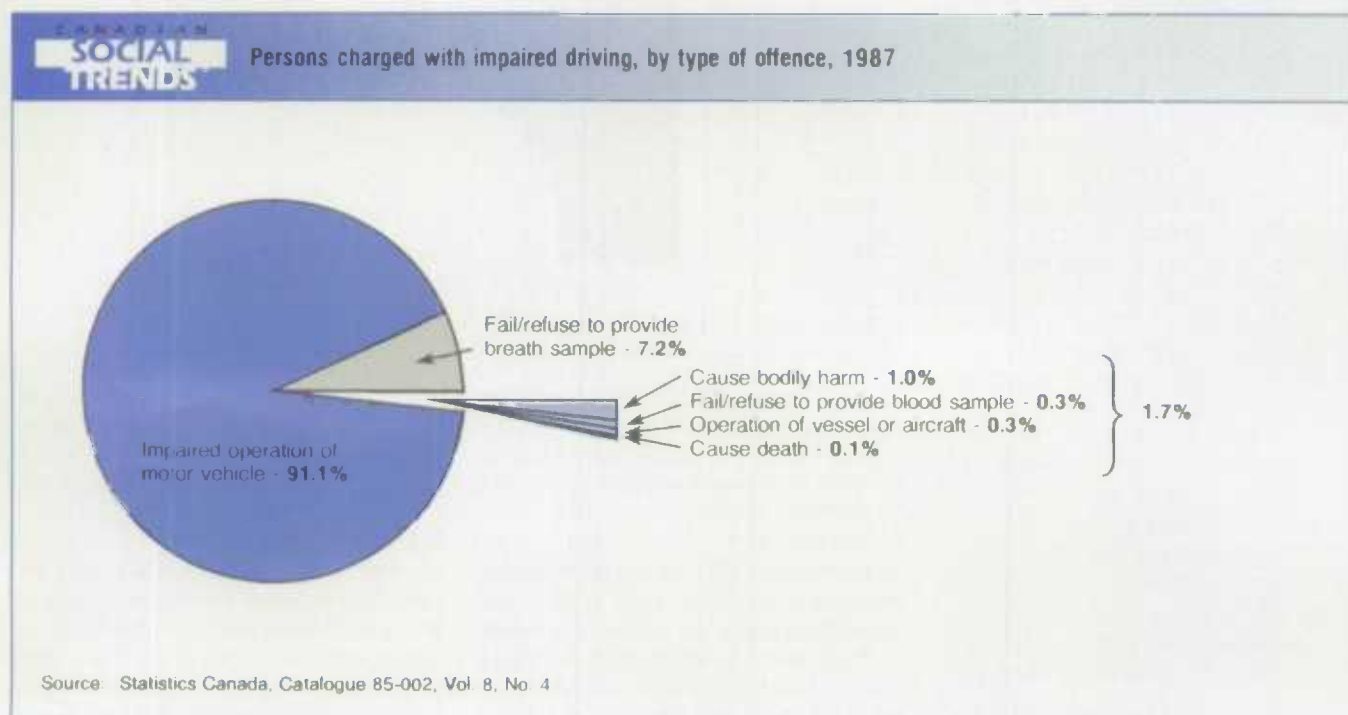
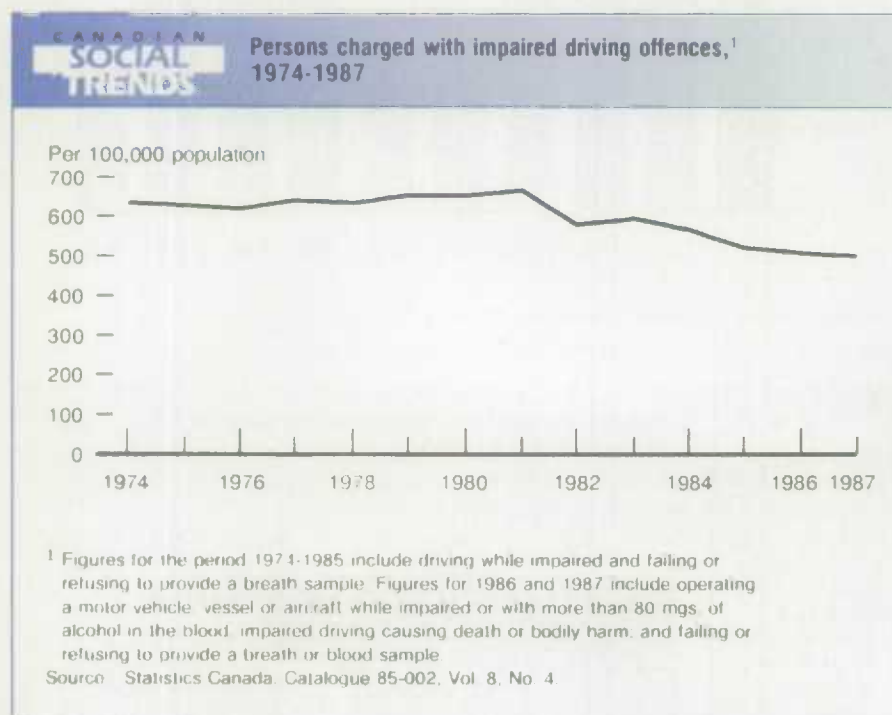
The decline in the incidence of impaired driving in the 1980s is even sharper when expressed on a per capita basis. In 1987, there were 500 people charged with impaired driving offences for every 100,000 Canadians, a decrease of 2% from 1986, and a drop of 25% from 1981.

The number of people charged with impaired driving as a proportion of all criminal offenders has also declined. In 1987, those charged with impaired driving offences made up 18% of all persons charged under the Criminal Code, down from 24% in 1981.

The decline in impaired driving charges in the 1980s represents a change from the previous decade when there was a slight increase in the incidence of these offences. Between 1974 and 1981, for example, the number of people charged with impaired driving offences increased from 631 per 100,000 population to 666, a rise of 6%.

The large majority of impaired driving charges are for operating a motor vehicle either while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood. In 1987, 91% of all people charged with impaired driving were charged with these offences. Failing or refusing to provide a breath sample was the second most common impaired driving offence, accounting for 7% of all persons charged. On the other hand, people charged with impaired driving causing death or bodily harm, or

¹ The data in this article describing impaired driving offences refer only to those incidents of impaired driving known to police.



failing to provide a blood sample, made up only small proportions of those charged with impaired driving offences.

Provincial rates vary

There is wide variation in the incidence of impaired driving offences across the country. In 1987, the provinces with the highest number of people charged with impaired driving offences per 100,000 residents were Alberta (830), Saskatchewan (821), and Prince Edward Island (765). The figure was also above the national average (500) in New Brunswick (659), Manitoba (600), Nova Scotia (577), and Newfoundland (538), while rates were considerably lower in British Columbia (489), Ontario (412), and Quebec (397). In fact, Quebec and Ontario have consistently reported the lowest impaired driving rates since 1974.

The incidence of impaired driving offences declined in all provinces between 1981 and 1987. The largest decrease

The law on impaired driving

As of 1985, impaired driving offences include operating a motor vehicle, vessel, or aircraft while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood; impaired driving causing death or bodily harm; and failing or refusing to provide a breath or blood sample.

Penalties for driving either while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood, or for failing to provide a breath or blood sample include a minimum \$500 fine and 3-month driving prohibition for the first offence; a minimum 14-day prison term and 6-month driving prohibition for the second offence; and a minimum 90-day prison term and 1-year driving prohibition for subsequent offences. The court may require the offender to undergo treatment for alcohol dependency in place of any of the above penalties.

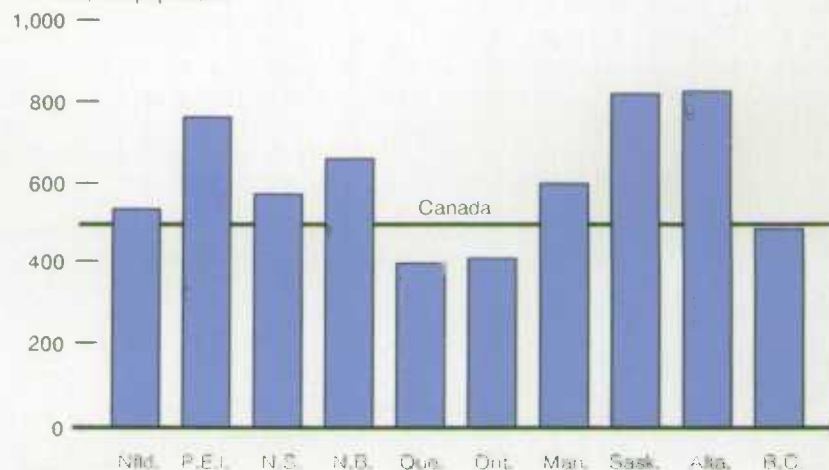
For impaired driving causing bodily harm, the penalties include a maximum 10-year prison term, 10-year driving prohibition, and fine of any amount. Impaired driving causing death brings a maximum penalty of 14 years in prison, a 10-year driving prohibition, and a fine of any amount.

In 1987, approximately 20,000 persons were sentenced to serve time in jail as a result of impaired driving.

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Persons charged with impaired driving offences, by province, 1987

Per 100,000 population

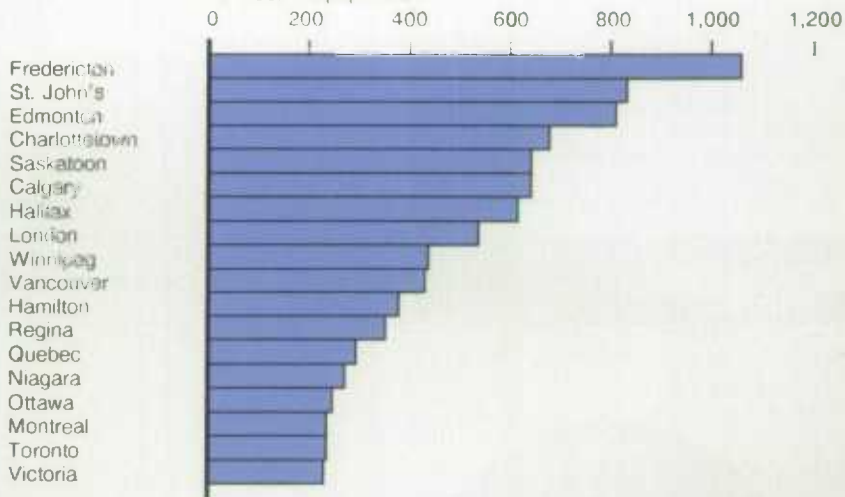


Source: Statistics Canada Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4.

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Persons charged with impaired driving offences, by selected cities, 1987

Per 100,000 population



Source: Statistics Canada Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4.

occurred in British Columbia where the number of persons charged per 100,000 population fell 46%. There were also large declines in Prince Edward Island (31%), Saskatchewan (28%), Alberta (25%), Newfoundland (25%), Ontario (24%), and Nova Scotia (23%). In comparison, the rate declined 14% in both Quebec and Manitoba and just 6% in New Brunswick.

There were, however, increases in the rate of impaired driving in five of the ten provinces between 1986 and 1987. There

was a particularly large increase of 20% in Newfoundland, while there were increases of 4% or less in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Saskatchewan.

Urban rates differ

As with the provinces, there is considerable variation in the incidence of impaired driving offences among major urban areas. In 1987, there were particularly large numbers of people charged with impaired driving offences per

100,000 population in Fredericton (1,061), St. John's (835), and Edmonton (814). In contrast, there were fewer than 300 persons charged with these offences per 100,000 people in Quebec City, Montreal, Niagara, Ottawa, Toronto, and Victoria.

Who drinks and drives

A significant proportion of Canadians drive after drinking. A 1985 survey conducted by Health and Welfare Canada estimated that 16% of all adults had driven after consuming alcohol at least once in the previous month.

Men are far more likely than women to drive while impaired. The Health and Welfare Canada survey estimated that 25% of men, compared with 8% of women, drove after drinking at least once the previous month. Not surprisingly, men make up the vast majority of people charged with impaired driving. In 1987, for example, 92% of all those charged were male.

Men between the ages of 25 and 44 are the most likely people to drink and drive. In 1985, 35% of men in this age range reported driving after drinking at least once the previous month. In comparison, the figure was around 20% for men aged 15-24 and aged 45-54; 17% for men aged 55-64; and 5% for men aged 65 and over.

Among women, those aged 35-44 were the most likely to drink and drive. In 1985, 11% of these women drove after drinking at least once the previous month, while the figure was 9% for those aged 15-34, and 7% for those aged 45-54.

A large proportion of all impaired driving incidents are accounted for by a small proportion of chronic offenders. In the 1985 Health and Welfare Canada survey, more than half of all drinking and driving incidents were accounted for by less than 3% of adults. These individuals reported driving while impaired on at least five occasions. Specific attention to this group may be a critical step in further reducing the incidence of this offence.

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

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PRIVATE TRANSPORTATION

by Mary Sue Devereaux

In 1987, Canadians owned more than 13 million private vehicles, about one for every two people in the country. Automobiles, vans, and trucks have become an integral part of the majority of households. Many Canadians, for example, depend on their vehicles for transportation to work, shopping, running errands, and vacation travel.

Currently, about eight out of ten households have at least one car, truck, or van. As well, recent years have seen particularly rapid growth in the proportion of households with more than one vehicle. Consequently, close to 40% of all households now have two or more.

But while cars, vans, and trucks are almost taken for granted as a necessary part of modern life, they are also associated with a set of problems. These include impaired driving, environmental degradation, urban congestion, and the need for public investment in road construction and maintenance.

Ownership rising

In 1987, the vast majority of Canadian households (83%) owned at least one vehicle. This was a considerable change from the early 1950s, when just over half of households had a vehicle.

Most of the increase in vehicle ownership took place in the 1950s and 1960s. Between 1953 and 1970, the percentage of households owning a vehicle rose from 52% to 78%. By contrast, the rise in ownership rates since 1970 has been much more gradual. Between 1970 and 1987, the proportion of households with a vehicle rose only five percentage points, from 78% to 83%.

On the other hand, ownership of more than one vehicle has risen sharply in recent years. In 1987, 39% of all households had two or more vehicles. This was up from 4% in 1953 and 17% in 1970.

Part of the recent growth in vehicle ownership rates is attributable to an increase in the proportion of households with vans and trucks. By 1987, 23% of households owned at least one of these vehicles, a rise from 20% in 1984, the first year for which this information was collected.

Provincial variations

Vehicle ownership rates vary somewhat across the country. In 1987, the proportion of households owning at least one vehicle ranged from 79% in both Newfoundland and Quebec to around 90% in Alberta (90%) and Prince Edward Island (88%). Ownership rates were also above the national average (83%) in British Columbia (87%), Saskatchewan (87%), Manitoba (85%), and New Brunswick (85%). Figures were close to the national level in Nova Scotia (82%) and Ontario (82%).

Provincial variation in the proportion of households with at least two vehicles was more pronounced. In 1987, more than half (53%) of all households in Alberta and Saskatchewan had more than one vehicle. On the other hand, just 29% of those in Newfoundland and Quebec were so equipped.

Provincial differences in the ownership of vans and trucks were also substantial. A relatively large proportion (43%) of Saskatchewan households had vans or trucks, possibly because these vehicles tend to be associated with agriculture, which is a major part of that province's economy. Van and truck ownership rates were also high in Alberta (40%) and Manitoba (32%). By contrast, comparatively few Ontario (18%) and Quebec (14%) households had these vehicles.

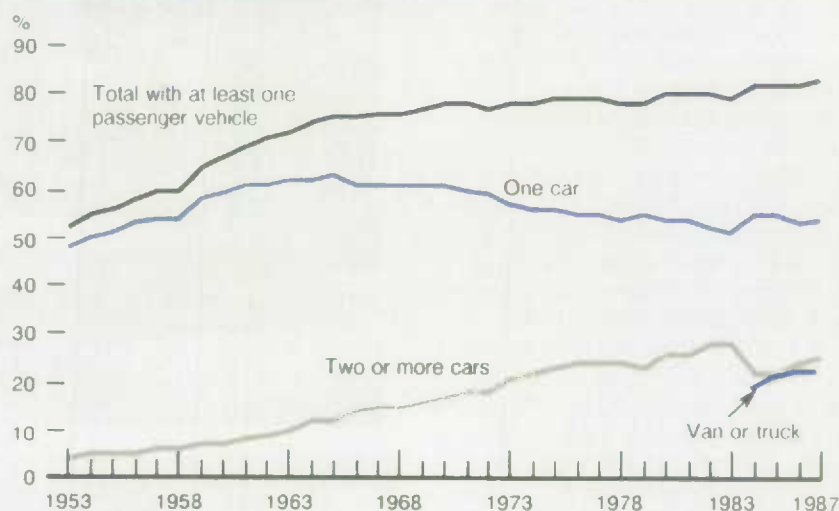
Vehicles more common in rural areas

Perhaps because of factors such as distance, relative isolation, and the lack of public transportation, as well as involvement in agriculture, rural households are more likely than those in large metropolitan areas to own vehicles. In 1987, 92% of rural households had a vehicle of some sort, compared with 80% in big cities.

Multiple-vehicle households were also more common in rural areas; over half (54%) of rural households had at least two vehicles, while the corresponding figure was just 35% in metropolitan areas.

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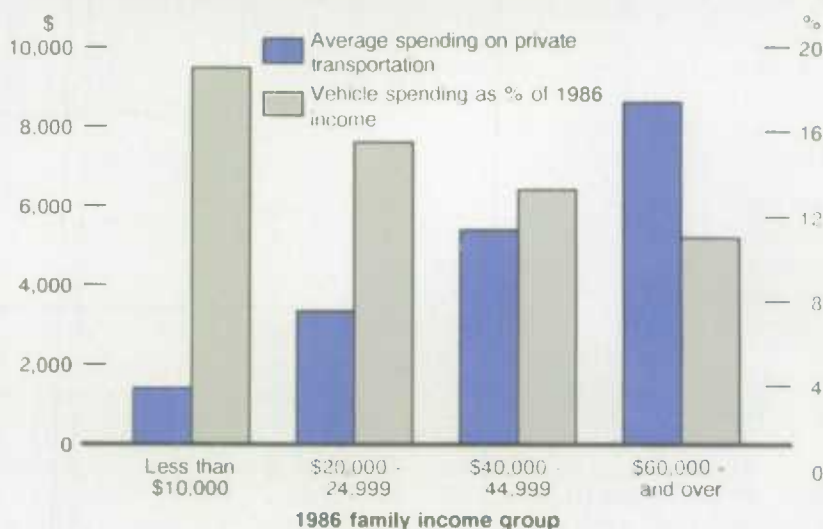
Proportion of households with passenger vehicles, 1953-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202

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Family expenditure on passenger vehicle purchase and operation, by selected 1986 income groups



Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, Family Expenditure Surveys Section.

Ownership high for traditional families

Almost all husband-wife families, especially those with children, own vehicles. Fully 95% of husband-wife families with children under age 18 owned at least one vehicle in 1987, and the majority (57%) had two or more.

Vehicle ownership rates were considerably lower among lone-parent families and people who lived alone. For example, 63% of lone-parent families had a vehicle in 1987, while the proportion

was 59% for one-person households. Elderly people who lived alone were the least likely to own a vehicle (39%).

Not unexpectedly, vehicle ownership is strongly associated with household income. In 1987, almost all (96%) households with incomes of \$55,000 and over had at least one vehicle, and the majority (71%) had two or more. By contrast, fewer than half (46%) of households with incomes below \$10,000 had a vehicle.

Spending on private transportation

The amount of money Canadians spend on motor vehicles is substantial. In fact, spending on private transportation, including the costs of buying vehicles, plus expenditures on parts, repairs, and operation, amounted to 11.7% of all personal expenditure in 1986.

Spending on private transportation, however, varies with household income. In 1986, for example, households with incomes over \$60,000 that operated vehicles spent an average of almost \$8,700 on them, about six times more than the \$1,400 spent by comparable households with incomes less than \$10,000.

Most of this difference is attributable to the fact that well-to-do households are much more likely than less affluent ones to have purchased a vehicle. Whereas 43% of households with incomes exceeding \$60,000 bought a vehicle in 1986, the comparable proportion was just 6% for those with incomes under \$10,000.

Nonetheless, vehicle purchase and operation expenditures represented a much larger share of the income of families whose incomes were relatively low than of families at higher income levels. While buying and operating vehicles amounted to 19% of the before-tax income of families in the less-than-\$10,000 range, the proportion was only about 10% for families in the \$60,000 and over bracket.

A new car

Currently, about one million new cars are purchased in Canada each year. The annual number sold, however, has fluctuated during the 1980s. Sales slumped drastically during the recession in the early years of the decade, dropping from more than a million in 1979 to 713,000 in 1982. A strong rebound in the immediate post-recession period brought total sales to a record 1,137,000 in 1985. In the next two years, though, sales declined, falling to 1,065,000 in 1987.

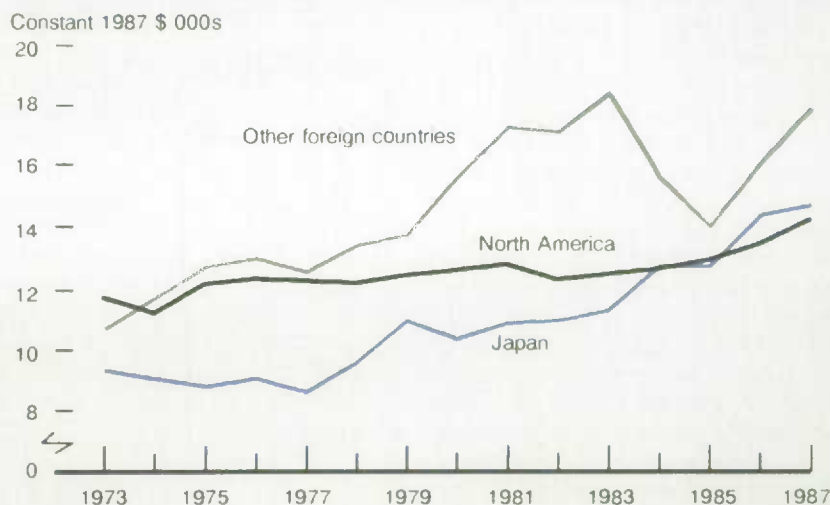
A growing proportion of automobiles purchased by Canadians are foreign.¹ In 1987, 34% of new cars sold in Canada were imported, up from 19% in 1973. About two-thirds of these foreign cars were from Japan.

As well, buyers paid more for new foreign cars in 1987 than they did for those built in North America. By 1987, the average price paid for North American cars was \$14,300, compared with \$14,700 for cars from Japan and \$17,800 for those built in other foreign countries. This was a change from the early 1970s, when



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Average price of new cars, by place of manufacture, 1973-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 63-007.

North American cars were more costly than imports.

In 1984 and 1985, the average price of cars imported from countries other than Japan dropped sharply. This decline reflected sales of relatively inexpensive cars from the Republic of Korea. As sales of these Korean vehicles tapered off, the average price of foreign cars increased.

Overall, the average 1987 selling price of a new car was \$14,800. In constant 1987 dollars, this was up 18% from 1980.

A spring thing

New-car buying in Canada tends to be seasonal, with people most likely to make a purchase in the spring. In 1987, more than 100,000 new cars were sold each month

from March to June; the highest figure (121,000) was reported in April.

By contrast, the number of new cars sold each month from December 1986 to February 1987 did not surpass 70,000. Sales were lowest in January at just 56,500.

¹ The origin of vehicles is determined by the countries where they are manufactured, not by the company that makes them. Thus, cars made in North America by a foreign company are considered North American, and cars made overseas for a North American manufacturer are considered foreign.

Mary Sue Devereaux is a Managing Editor with Canadian Social Trends.



LANGUAGE IN CANADA

by Luc Albert

Census data indicate that there have been several distinct trends in the linguistic make-up of Canada since 1971. Both the proportion of the population in provinces other than Quebec with English mother tongue,¹ and that with French mother tongue in Quebec have risen. As well, bilingualism has become more common, as a growing percentage of Canadians report they are able to conduct a conversation in both official languages.

English increasing outside Quebec

In the last decade and a half, the proportion of Canadians living outside Quebec with English mother tongue has increased. In 1986, 80.0% of people living in provinces other than Quebec reported English

as their mother tongue; this was up from 78.4% in 1971 and 79.4% in 1981. During the same period, the proportion of this population with French mother tongue fell from 6.0% in 1971 to 5.0% in 1986.

Other than Quebec, New Brunswick has by far the largest share of its population with French mother tongue. In 1986, 33.5% of residents of this province had French as their mother tongue, down slightly from 34.0% in 1971.

The proportion of people with French mother tongue was much lower in the remaining provinces. The figure was around 5% in Ontario, Manitoba, and Prince Edward Island; 4% in Nova Scotia; 2% in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia; and just 0.5% in New-

foundland. As well, the percentage of the population with French mother tongue fell in all these provinces between 1971 and 1986.

The proportion of Canadians outside Quebec whose mother tongue was neither English nor French has also declined. In 1986, 14.9% of this population had a mother tongue other than an official language, down from 15.6% in 1971.

There is considerable provincial variation in the percentage of people with a mother tongue other than English or French. In 1986, 22% of Manitoba

¹ Mother tongue is the language first learned and still understood.



residents, along with between 15% and 17% of those in Ontario, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, had a mother tongue other than English or French. In comparison, only 2% of people

in Nova Scotia and around 1% of those in the other Atlantic provinces had a mother tongue other than one of the official languages.

Francophone population increasing in Quebec

The proportion of Quebec residents with French as their mother tongue has increased steadily in the last decade and a half. In 1986, French was the mother tongue of 82.8% of the people living in

this province, up from 80.7% in 1971 and 82.4% in 1981.

There has also been a slight increase in the proportion of Quebec residents reporting a mother tongue other than English or French, from 6.2% in 1971 to 6.8% in 1986. In contrast, the percentage of people in Quebec with English mother tongue fell from 13.1% in 1971 to 10.4% in 1986.

The actual number of people in Quebec with English mother tongue also

Collection of language data

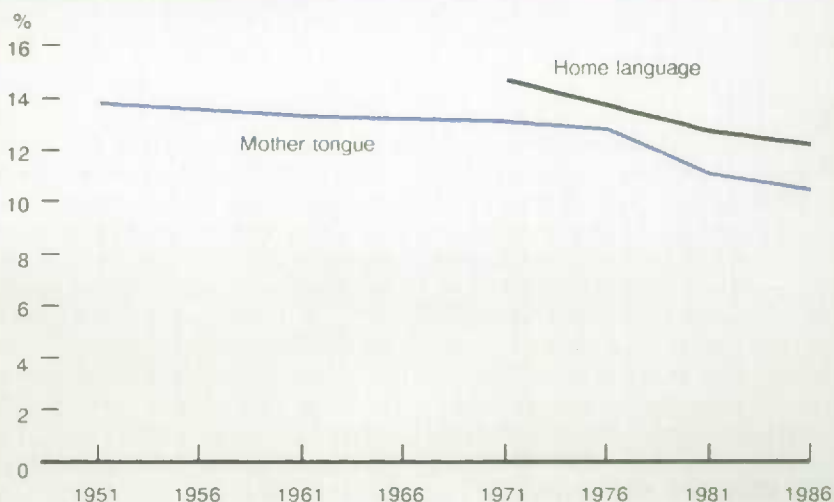
The language questions asked in the last two censuses were the same, but the instructions given to respondents were different. In 1981, respondents were asked to indicate only one mother tongue and one home language. Some people, however, reported more than one. When these responses were processed, only one language was tabulated.

To better reflect the linguistic reality in Canada, respondents to the 1986 Census could report more than one mother tongue if they had both learned these languages at the same time and had spoken them as frequently when they were children. Similarly, respondents could indicate more than one home language if they spoke these languages the same amount at home.

Not surprisingly, the number of multiple language responses was significantly higher in 1986 than in 1981. To facilitate comparison between the two censuses, multiple responses for 1986 were distributed among the component languages in the same proportions as in 1981.

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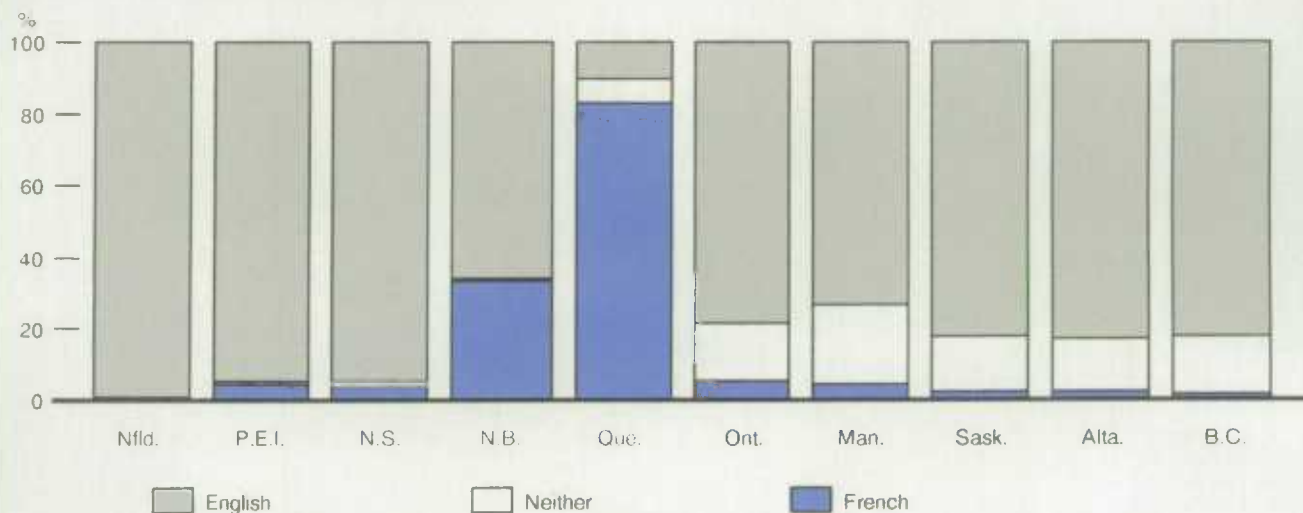
Proportion of Quebec residents with English mother tongue and home language, 1951-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

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Mother tongue, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

continued to decrease between 1981 and 1986, although the decline was smaller than in the previous five-year period. The number of anglophones in Quebec fell 4% between 1981 and 1986, compared with a 12% decline between 1976 and 1981.

Much of the decline in Quebec's anglophone population is attributable to the fact that the number of these people leaving Quebec for elsewhere in Canada far exceeds the number entering the province from other regions. Between 1981

and 1986, 41,000 more anglophones left Quebec for other parts of Canada than came to Quebec from other provinces. This was down significantly from a net loss of 106,000 during the 1976-1981 period.

English increasing, French declining across Canada

When figures from Quebec and the other provinces are combined, the results show that the proportion of all Canadians with

English mother tongue has risen, while the percentage whose mother tongue is French has fallen. Between 1971 and 1986, the percentage of people with English mother tongue rose from 60.2% to 62.1%, while the proportion with

Language transfers

For some Canadians, their mother tongue is not the language they speak most often at home. Such shifts, which are a major factor in determining the mother tongue of succeeding generations, have contributed to the growth of the English population in Canada. While 62.1% of Canadians reported English as their mother tongue in 1986, a considerably larger proportion, 68.9%, reported that this was the language they spoke most often at home.

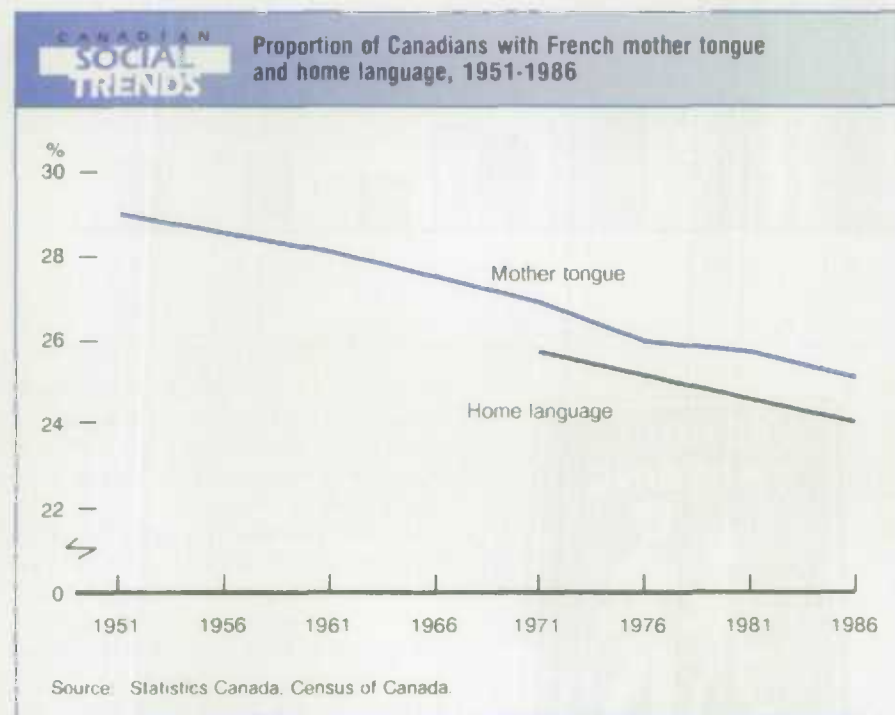
Even in Quebec, more people spoke English in their home (12.3%) than learned it as their mother tongue (10.4%). This occurred largely because, in the past, most Quebec residents whose mother tongue was neither French nor English who made language shifts adopted English.¹

The French-speaking community in Quebec has neither increased nor decreased as a result of language transfers. In fact, in 1986, the proportion of the Quebec population with French mother tongue (82.8%) was the same as that which spoke French most often at home.

Outside Quebec, though, the French-speaking community has declined as a result of language shifts. In 1986, French was the mother tongue of 5.0% of residents of provinces other than Quebec, but only 3.6% of this population reported it as the language they spoke most often at home.

The impact of language transfers in provinces outside Quebec has been greatest in the three westernmost provinces. The francophone population in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia has declined by over half as a result of language transfers. Such transfers also resulted in substantial proportional declines in the francophone populations in Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Ontario.

¹ A more comprehensive analysis of the 1986 Census is required to determine whether this process continued between 1981 and 1986.

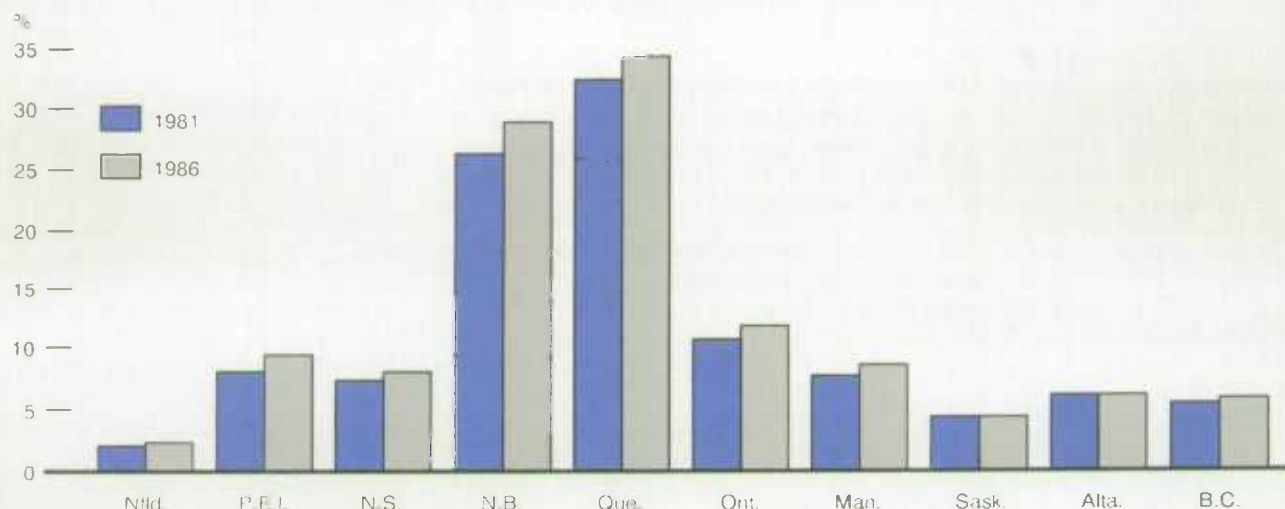


Proportion of people in provinces outside Quebec with French mother tongue and home language, 1971 and 1986

	French mother tongue		French home language	
	1971	1986	1971	1986
	%			
Newfoundland	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4
Prince Edward Island	6.6	4.7	3.9	2.8
Nova Scotia	5.0	4.1	3.5	2.9
New Brunswick	34.0	33.5	31.4	31.3
Ontario	6.3	5.3	4.6	3.8
Manitoba	6.1	4.9	4.0	2.8
Saskatchewan	3.4	2.3	1.7	0.9
Alberta	2.9	2.4	1.4	1.1
British Columbia	1.7	1.6	0.5	0.6
Total	6.0	5.0	4.3	3.6

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Proportion of people who are bilingual, by province, 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

French mother tongue declined from 26.9% to 25.1%.

Several factors have contributed to the overall decline in the proportion of Canadians whose mother tongue is French. These factors include low fertility in Quebec, the small proportion of immigrants who speak French, as well as the linguistic assimilation of French-speaking minorities outside Quebec, and the tendency of people with mother tongues other than English or French to adopt the English language.

On the other hand, there has been little overall change in the proportion of Canadians with a mother tongue other than French or English. In the 1971-1986 period, the share of people with another mother tongue remained stable at around 13%.

However, there were changes in the proportion of people with different mother tongues. There was strong growth in the number of people reporting languages associated with the birthplaces of recent immigrants, notably Spanish, and Asiatic languages such as Chinese, Vietnamese, Persian (Farsi), and Tamil. On the other hand, the proportion of people with mother tongues such as German and Ukrainian has fallen.

More Canadians bilingual

In 1986, more than four million Canadians reported they could conduct a conversation in both English and French. That year, 16.2% of the population was bilingual, up from 13.4% in 1971 and 15.3% in 1981.



Quebec has the highest proportion of population which is bilingual. In fact, slightly over half of all Canada's bilingual population in 1986 lived in this province. That year, 34.5% of Quebec residents reported they could conduct a conversation in either official language.

The most bilingual group within Quebec was anglophone. In 1986, more than half (54%) of these people were bilingual, as were almost half (47%) of Quebec residents whose mother tongue was neither English nor French. At the same time, about a third (30%) of Quebec francophones were bilingual.

In contrast, fewer than 6% of people residing outside Quebec with English, or a language other than English or French, as their mother tongue reported they were bilingual in 1986. However, the vast

majority of people outside Quebec with French mother tongue were bilingual. In 1986, almost four of every five (79%) of them were able to conduct a conversation in both official languages.

Outside Quebec, the most bilingual province was New Brunswick, where 29.1% of the population reported themselves as able to conduct a conversation in both official languages. In the remaining provinces, the proportion of the population which was bilingual ranged from around 12% in Ontario to less than 3% in Newfoundland.

Between 1981 and 1986, bilingualism increased in all provinces except Alberta, where the proportion reporting they were able to converse in both official languages was unchanged.

Youth more bilingual

Young Canadians are generally more likely than older people to be bilingual. In 1986, 20.5% of the population aged 15-24 could conduct a conversation in either English or French; this compared with 19.9% of those aged 25-44, 16.8% of those aged 45-64, and 12.4% of people aged 65 and over. This suggests that French immersion programs in Canadian schools have contributed to the growth of bilingualism.

Luc Albert is a senior analyst with the Household, Family, and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



WOMEN IN PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS: PROGRESS IN THE 1980s

by Katherine Marshall

One of the most fundamental changes in Canadian society over the past several decades has been the increased labour force participation of women. An important aspect of this trend has been the growing number of women employed in professional occupations.¹

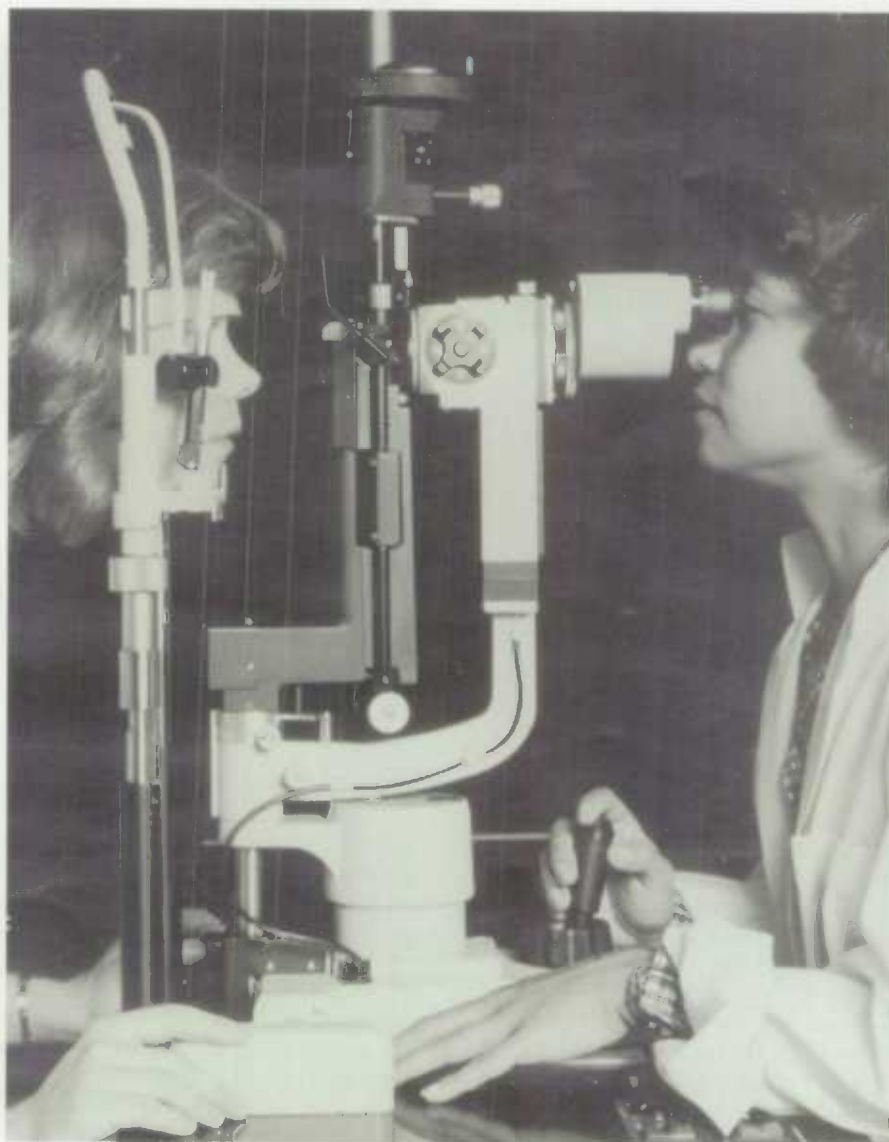
Women have made particularly substantial inroads into what have traditionally been male-dominated professions.² In fact, by 1986, the number of women employed in several of these occupations had grown such that the professions could no longer be considered male-dominated. Nonetheless, women continue to be significantly under-represented in most professions that have traditionally been male-dominated.

There are also differences in some of the employment characteristics of women and men in the professions. For example, the average income of women in professional occupations is considerably below that of comparable men, and there has been no reduction in the gap in recent years.

In addition, many of the family characteristics of women employed in professional occupations differ from those of other women and male professionals.

¹ Professional occupations are those in which 45% or more of people employed in that occupation in 1981 had at least a bachelor's degree. Overall, 46 occupational groups were classified as professional.

² A profession was considered male-dominated if 65% or more of the people employed in it in 1971 were men. Based on this criterion, 34 professions were classified as male-dominated.



These differences are especially pronounced among women in male-dominated professions, who are less likely than others to be part of a family, or if married, to have children.

Most new professionals women

Women were responsible for slightly more than two-thirds of all employment growth in professional occupations between 1981 and 1986. In this period, the number of women employed in the professions rose 18%, from 383,000 to 453,000. In comparison, the number of male professionals increased just 6%. As a result, in 1986, 45.1% of all professionals were women, up from 42.5% in 1981.

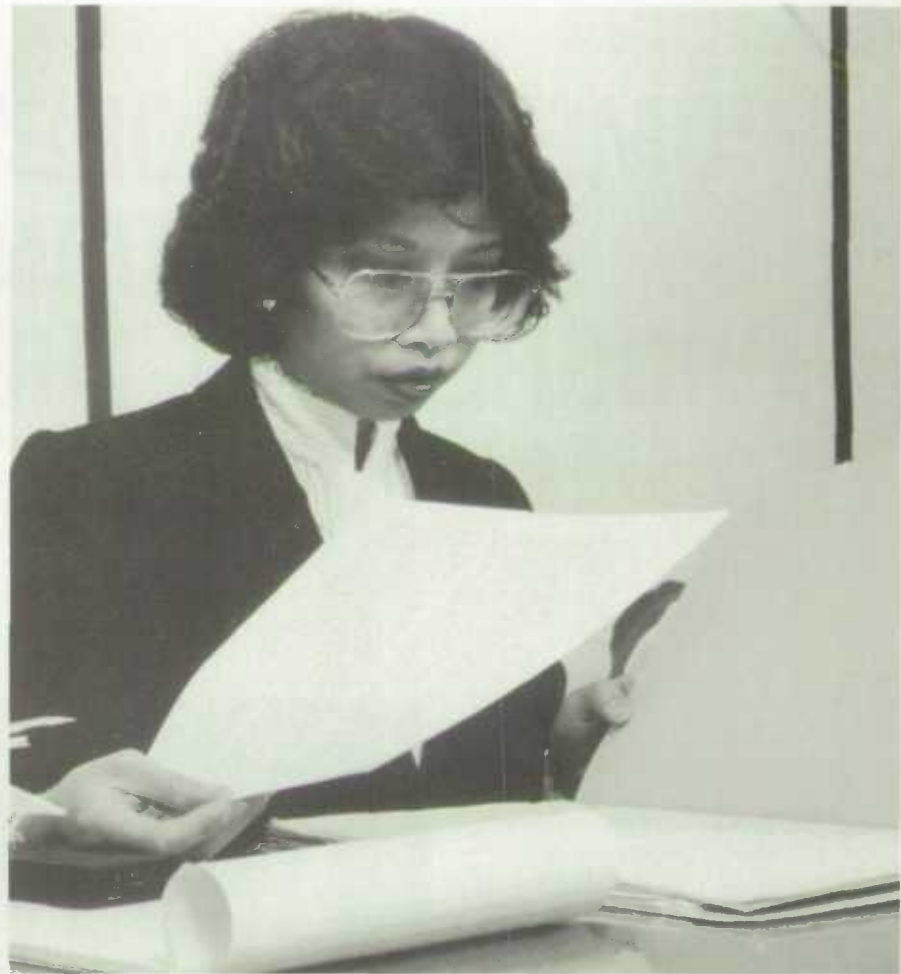
Rapid growth in male-dominated professions

There has been a particularly large increase in women's participation in male-dominated professions in recent years. The number of women in these professions rose 42% between 1981 and 1986, from around 83,000 to just over 118,000. Meanwhile, the number of men in these professions increased just 9%. Still, in 1986, women made up only 23% of those employed in male-dominated professions, though this was up from 11% in 1971 and 19% in 1981.

Between 1981 and 1986, women's share of employment increased in all but one of the male-dominated professions. In fact, in more than half of these occupations, women accounted for the majority of employment growth, and in several, almost all growth was attributable to women.

Women were responsible for all employment growth among veterinarians between 1981 and 1986, as the number of women in this field increased about one and a half times, while the number of men actually declined slightly. Somewhat the same pattern occurred among sociologists and anthropologists. As well, women accounted for 91% of employment growth among pharmacists in this period, while the figure was 87% for optometrists, 86% for managers in the social sciences, 81% for biologists, and 77% for administrators in teaching.

As a result, women's share of employment in these professions increased dramatically. The percentage of veterinarians who were women doubled from 17% in 1981 to 35% in 1986, while the figure among optometrists rose from 18% to 32%. There were also increases from 48% to 58% for managers in the social sciences, from 39% to 48% for socio-



logists and anthropologists, from 42% to 50% for pharmacists, from 25% to 31% for administrators in teaching, and from 32% to 37% for biologists.

Women's share of employment also rose significantly among economists, chemists, and agriculturists in the 1981-1986 period.

Because of these trends, a number of professions can no longer be considered male-dominated. In 1986, women actually outnumbered men among both pharmacists and managers in the social sciences. As well, they made up over 35% of those employed in six other professional groups identified as male-dominated in 1971. These included sociologists and anthropologists, mathematicians and statisticians, veterinarians, biologists, community college teachers, and university instructors such as non-tenured professors and lecturers, and teaching and laboratory assistants.

Women also continued to make steady gains in the more high-profile professions such as medicine, dentistry, and law, accounting for close to half the employment growth in each between 1981 and 1986. As a result, women's share of

employment rose from 17% to 21% among doctors, from 8% to 14% among dentists, and from 16% to 22% among lawyers.

Women also made up almost half the increase in the number of university professors in the 1981-1986 period. However, because overall employment growth in this profession was relatively slow, the proportional representation of women in this field increased only slightly.

A number of professions continue to be heavily male-dominated, with women still representing less than 10% of total employment in ten of the 34 professions identified as male-dominated in 1971.

A particularly small proportion of people employed in engineering are women. In 1986, only 5% of all engineers were women, although this was up from 3% in 1981.

Women also made up only 9% of managers in the natural sciences and just 8% of physicists in 1986, though, as with engineering, these figures were up slightly from 1981. In addition, just over 10% of architects, meteorologists, geologists, ministers, and judges and magistrates in 1986 were women.

Women employed in professional occupations, 1971-1986

	Total number of women			Per- centage increase 1981- 1986	Women as a	Women as a	
	1971	1981	1986		% of total growth in profession 1981-1986	% of total employment in profession	
Male-dominated professions							
Management occupations, natural sciences and engineering	70	800	1,225	53.1	23.8	6.6	8.8
Management occupations, social sciences and related fields	760	3,805	6,090	60.1	85.9	48.2	57.7
Administrators in teaching and related fields	6,445	9,120	12,425	36.2	76.7	25.0	30.5
Chemists	895	1,975	3,080	55.9	63.5	20.4	27.0
Geologists	145	795	1,005	26.4	35.6	10.3	12.1
Physicists	45	65	95	46.2	*	5.0	7.9
Meteorologists	40	90	120	33.3	24.0	9.0	10.7
Agriculturists and related scientists	330	1,220	2,420	98.4	37.6	13.2	19.5
Biologists and related scientists	830	2,330	3,000	28.8	80.7	31.9	36.9
Architects	125	560	850	51.8	48.7	7.7	10.8
Chemical engineers	65	340	560	64.7	62.9	5.9	9.2
Civil engineers	235	980	1,490	52.0	*	3.0	4.6
Electrical engineers	205	1,000	1,655	65.5	14.4	3.7	5.2
Mechanical engineers	100	380	710	86.8	8.6	1.9	3.0
Metallurgical engineers	15	50	100	100.0	*	2.8	6.1
Mining engineers	20	105	155	47.6	*	2.9	4.3
Petroleum engineers	15	225	285	26.7	*	1.1	6.5
Nuclear engineers	--	40	70	75.0	*	4.8	9.5
Other architects and engineers	140	1,640	2,640	61.0	36.8	12.2	16.3
Mathematicians, statisticians, and actuaries	1,010	2,070	2,305	11.4	54.0	34.7	36.0
Economists	640	2,570	4,345	69.1	62.2	20.5	28.3
Sociologists, anthropologists, and related social scientists	170	540	685	26.9	290.0	39.0	47.7
Judges and magistrates	75	220	320	45.5	27.4	10.5	12.0
Lawyers and notaries	860	5,390	9,410	74.6	51.2	15.5	22.0
Ministers of religion	900	1,785	2,590	45.1	65.7	7.6	10.5
University teachers	5,190	9,785	11,470	17.2	48.7	26.5	28.4
Other university teaching and related occupations	1,525	6,170	8,640	40.0	44.1	45.8	45.3
Community college and vocational school teachers	3,280	13,770	16,945	23.1	57.1	41.6	43.8
Physicians and surgeons	3,150	7,255	10,175	40.2	47.3	17.4	21.2
Dentists	330	860	1,670	94.2	44.1	8.1	13.5
Veterinarians	75	605	1,510	149.6	114.6	17.2	35.1
Osteopaths and chiropractors	80	340	520	52.9	25.7	14.9	17.5
Pharmacists	2,540	6,090	8,755	43.8	91.1	41.8	50.1
Optometrists	105	365	840	130.1	87.2	17.7	32.2
Total male-dominated professions	30,410	83,340	118,155	41.8	52.1	18.6	22.9
Other professions							
Psychologists	2,035	4,600	7,075	53.8	79.6	52.6	59.7
Social workers	7,230	21,020	31,005	47.5	78.5	63.5	67.7
Supervisors in library, museum, and archival sciences	600	1,440	1,700	18.1	85.2	62.1	64.8
Librarians and archivists	6,120	13,575	15,315	12.8	80.6	80.9	80.9
Educational and vocational counsellors	1,690	3,050	4,285	40.5	84.0	49.3	55.9
Elementary and kindergarten teachers	140,500	152,335	163,505	7.3	79.0	81.5	81.3
Secondary school teachers	56,615	63,320	62,745	-0.9	*	43.8	45.7
Postsecondary school teachers	5,730	4,445	3,850	-13.4	*	63.9	74.1
Teachers of exceptional students	4,420	15,315	18,710	22.2	97.7	72.1	75.7
Physiotherapists, occupational and other therapists	5,895	12,525	16,855	34.6	86.0	85.0	85.2
Dietitians and nutritionists	2,010	3,280	4,250	29.6	100.0	94.3	95.5
Translators and interpreters	1,395	4,340	5,175	19.2	92.8	61.9	65.4
Total other professions	234,240	299,250	334,470	11.8	9.7	66.2	68.6
Total all professions	264,650	382,590	452,610	18.3	68.5	42.5	45.1

* Total employment in this profession declined between 1981 and 1986.

-- Amount too small to be expressed.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.



Women in other professions

Women's share of total employment in the 12 professions not classified as male-dominated also has risen. In 1986, 68.6% of people employed in these professions were women, up from 66.2% in 1981. This increase is a change from the 1971-1981 period when women's representation in these professions declined slightly.

However, the proportion of all female professionals working in the non-male-dominated sector has fallen. In 1986, 74% of professional women were in non-male-dominated occupations, down from 78% in 1981. This occurred largely because overall employment growth in these other professions was considerably slower than in the male-dominated sector. Between 1981 and 1986, total employment in the male-dominated professions increased 15%, compared with just an 8% rise in the other professions.

The slow overall employment growth in the non-male-dominated professions was largely attributable to slow growth in education. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of teachers increased only 2%, compared with a 29% rise in employment in other non-male-dominated professions.

As a result, the proportion of all female professionals in teaching-related professions has declined substantially, although teaching still accounts for more than half of all professional women. In 1986, 55%

of women in professional occupations were teachers, down significantly from 79% in 1971 and 62% in 1981.

Women make up well over half of those employed in all but one of the non-male-dominated professions. The exception was secondary school teachers, just under half (46%) of whom were women. In the remaining occupations, women's share of employment ranged from 56% of educational and vocational counsellors to 96% of dietitians and nutritionists.

Professional income: women still make less

Women in professional occupations have considerably higher employment incomes than other women. However, their average incomes remain well below those of comparable men, and the gap has not closed in recent years.

In 1986, the average employment income of women in male-dominated professions was almost \$35,000, while those in the other professions made just over \$30,000. In comparison, the figure for other women was under \$20,000.

However, the average employment income of women working full-time in a male-dominated profession was just 71% that of comparable men, while the figure was 83% in the other professions. As well, for both groups, the ratios were virtually unchanged from 1981.

Part of the difference in the employment income of women and men in professional occupations occurs because women tend to be younger, and as a result, have less seniority and lower earnings. Even so, women aged 25-34 in male-dominated professions had an average employment income that was only 81% that of their male counterparts in 1986.

Family and career

Working in the professions often involves considerable commitment and a demanding work schedule. As a result, many women entering these fields have different characteristics than other women and men in terms of blending family and career responsibilities. This is particularly true for women employed in male-dominated professions.

For example, in 1986, 24% of women aged 25 and over in male-dominated professions and 19% of those in other professions did not live in a family. In comparison, the figure was around 15% for both other women and men in the professions. Similarly, just 63% of married women in male-dominated professions had children, compared with over 70% of other women and male professionals.

Katherine Marshall is an analyst with the Toronto Regional Office, Statistics Canada.





SELF-EMPLOYMENT IN CANADA

by Gary L. Cohen

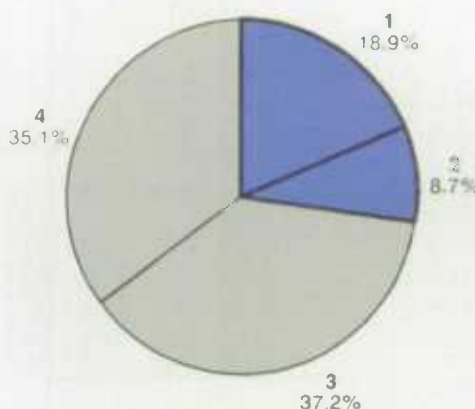
The self-employed¹ make up a vital and growing segment of the labour market in Canada; in fact, the rise in their numbers has been a major component of employment growth over the last decade.

Between 1975 and 1987, the total number of self-employed people in Canada rose 60%, from 1.0 to 1.6 million. In the same period, the number of paid workers rose only 26%, from 8.1 to 10.2 million. Overall, the growth in the number of self-employed persons represented almost a quarter (23%) of total employment growth in this period. As a result, in

¹ The self-employed include primarily those people who own and operate an incorporated or unincorporated business, farm, or professional practice. The self-employed also include some people who do not own a business, for example, independent salespersons and babysitters. On the other hand, a person who owns a business, but does not operate it, is considered to be an investor and not self-employed.

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The self-employed, 1987



- 1 Own-account women
- 2 Employers-women
- 3 Own-account men
- 4 Employers-men

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

1987, almost one out of every seven workers (14%) in Canada was self-employed, up from one in nine (11%) in 1975.

Just over half (54%) of the self-employed are own-account workers, that is, they do not usually employ paid help. The remaining 46% are employers.

However, the number of employers rose somewhat faster than the number of own-account workers in the last decade. From 1975 to 1987, the number of employers increased 73%, compared with a 50% rise among own-account workers.

Industry patterns vary

There is considerable variation in the incidence of self-employment by industry. Self-employment is most prevalent in fishing and trapping industries, where it makes up 66% of employment, and in agriculture, where 56% of workers are self-employed. Self-employment is also a major component of total employment in other services, including amusement and recreational services and personal and household services (34%); construction (28%); and business services (24%). As well, 22% of real estate operators and insurance agents are self-employed. On the other hand, self-employment is much less prevalent in manufacturing (4%); mining (3%); communications (3%); education services (2%); and finance and insurance industries (1%).

However, because total employment differs widely by industry, for example, there are more than two million workers in wholesale and retail trade, but fewer than 40,000 in fishing and trapping industries, the majority of self-employed workers are actually concentrated in just four industries. In 1987, almost two thirds of the self-employed worked in either trade industries (21%), other services (17%), agriculture (16%), or construction (12%).

Men more likely to be self-employed

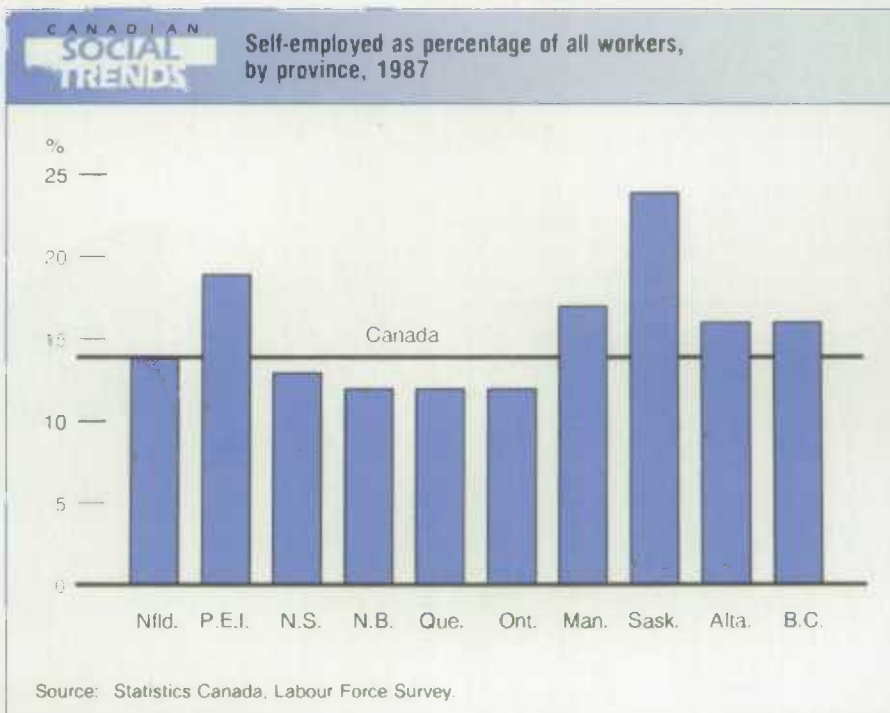
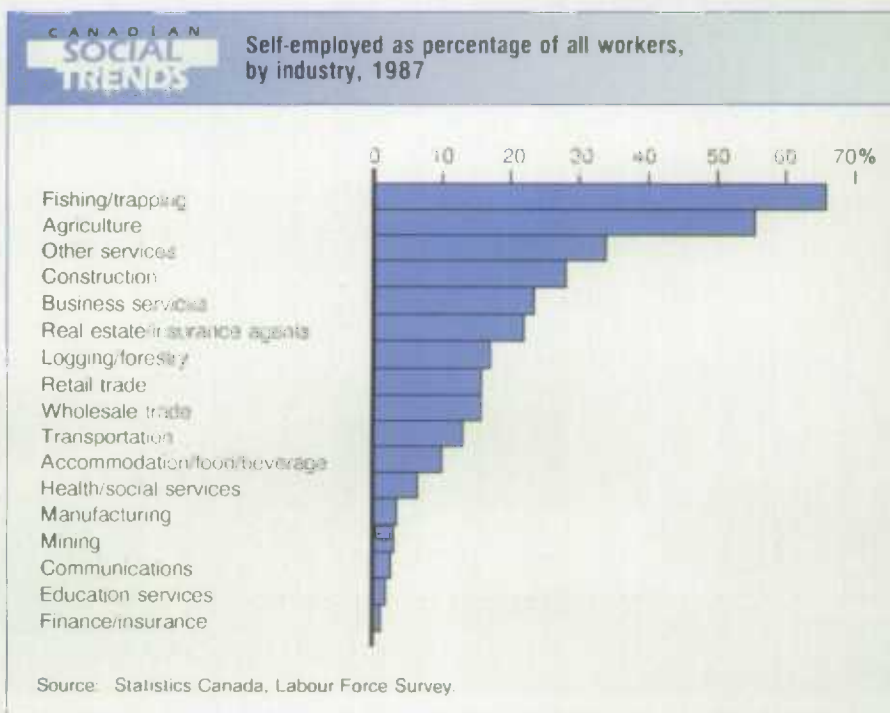
Men are more likely than women to be self-employed, although the number of self-employed women has increased more rapidly than the number of self-employed men in the last decade. In 1987, 17% of all employed men were self-employed, whereas self-employed women made up only 9% of all employed women.

From 1975 to 1987, however, the number of self-employed women rose more than three times faster than the number of self-employed men. During this period, the number of self-employed women increased 135%, while the

number of self-employed men rose just 42%. As a result, in 1987, women made up 28% of all self-employed workers, up from 19% in 1975.

There are also differences in the type of self-employment of men and women. For example, self-employed men are much more likely to be employers than are self-employed women. In 1987, about half (51%) of self-employed men were employers, compared with only about a third (31%) of self-employed women.

As well, there are differences in the industries in which self-employed men and women are concentrated. Both sexes are strongly represented in the trade industries; in 1987, 21% of both self-employed men and women worked in wholesale or retail trade. However, about 40% of self-employed women worked in other services, mainly personal and household services, whereas more than a third (35%) of self-employed men were in either agriculture or construction.



Older workers predominate

Older workers are generally more likely than younger workers to be self-employed. In 1987, nearly half (48%) of all workers aged 65 and over, and 20% of those aged 45-64, were self-employed. In comparison, the figure was 13% for workers aged 25-44 and just 5% for those aged 15-24.

This age pattern likely reflects the fact that the experiences, skills, resources, and opportunities necessary for self-employment are more readily available to older workers. The high incidence of self-employment among older workers also reflects the fact that most paid workers have retired by age 65.

Provinces differ

The proportion of workers who are self-employed varies substantially by province. In 1987, self-employment was most prevalent in Saskatchewan, where 24% of all workers were self-employed. This high rate of self-employment reflects the importance of agriculture in Saskatchewan.

High rates of self-employment also occurred in Prince Edward Island (19%), Manitoba (17%), Alberta (16%), and British Columbia (16%). On the other hand, only about 12% of the work forces in New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario were self-employed, while the figure was 13% in Nova Scotia and 14% in Newfoundland.

Urban/rural differences

People who live in metropolitan areas are somewhat less likely to be self-employed than those who live in smaller urban centres or rural areas. In 1987, 11% of workers in metropolitan areas were classified as self-employed, whereas in non-metropolitan areas, 13% of non-agricultural workers and 18% of all workers were self-employed.

Self-employment is relatively more common in smaller urban centres and rural areas because it is most typically associated with small business and farming endeavours, activities that generally form a more prominent part of the labour market in these areas.

Work schedules

For both men and women, employers are more likely than either paid workers or own-account workers to work full-time, that is, to usually work 30 or more hours per week. Among men, in 1987, 98% of employers worked full-time, compared with 92% of paid workers and 88% of own-account workers.

The difference was even more pronounced among women. In 1987, 83% of female employers worked full-time, compared with 76% of paid workers and just 56% of own-account workers.

In addition, among full-time workers, the self-employed put in substantially longer hours than paid workers. In 1987, self-employed full-time workers worked an average of 45.8 hours per week, compared with 36.3 hours for paid workers.

On the other hand, self-employed part-time workers worked fewer average hours per week than paid workers: 11.4 hours compared with 15.2.

Job tenure

Self-employed workers have higher levels of job tenure than paid workers as they generally have been with the same business longer.² In 1987, average job tenure was 11.8 years for self-employed men and 6.4 years for self-employed women. By comparison, the average tenure of paid workers was 7.8 years for men and 5.7 years for women.

Multiple jobholding

Self-employment is especially prevalent among people who have two or more jobs or businesses at the same time. In 1987, there were 494,000 multiple jobholders in Canada, nearly half (46%) of whom were self-employed in at least one of their jobs.

² Job tenure for paid workers measures the period of time with the same employer, although not necessarily in the same job. Self-employed persons with a business maintain their tenure as long as they consider that their business has not been formally closed, even though it may not currently be active. On the other hand, those own-account workers, such as babysitters, who do not own a business break their "tenure chain" whenever they cease work.

Gary L. Cohen is a senior analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

- For more information on this topic see: *Enterprising Canadians: The Self-employed in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-536.

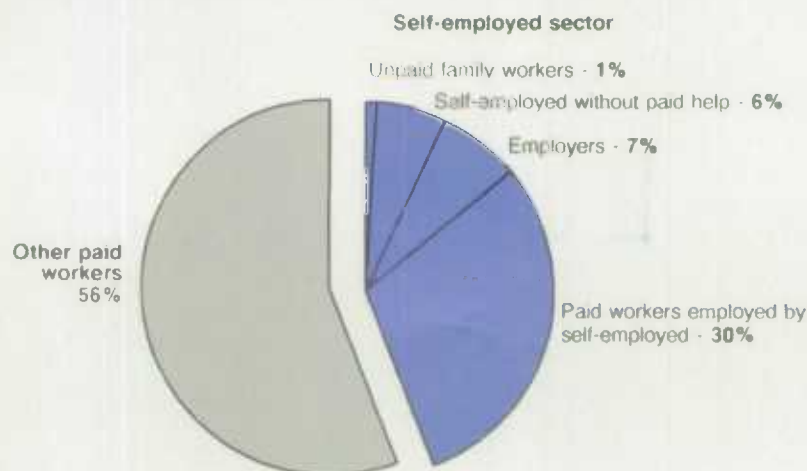
The self-employed sector

In November 1986, 44% of all Canadian workers were in the self-employment sector of the labour market. They included those who were employers, the paid workers they employ, self-employed persons without paid help, and unpaid family workers. The remaining 56% of the

work force was made up of paid workers employed by firms with widely-held ownership or in which the owner did not operate the business, and public sector workers, including those in government and in education and health institutions.

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The self-employment sector, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-535, No.3

THE SERVICE SECTOR IN THE 1980s

by Colin Lindsay

The postwar period has been characterized by dramatic growth in the share of employment accounted for by service sector workers. While some Canadians regard service sector jobs as being inferior to those in the goods-producing sector, the service sector includes a wide variety of career-oriented occupations in the professions, education, business, and government.

Service sector growth in the 1980s

In 1987, 71% of all employment in Canada was in the service sector, up from 67% in 1980. This also represents a major change from the early 1950s, when less than half of all employment was in this sector.

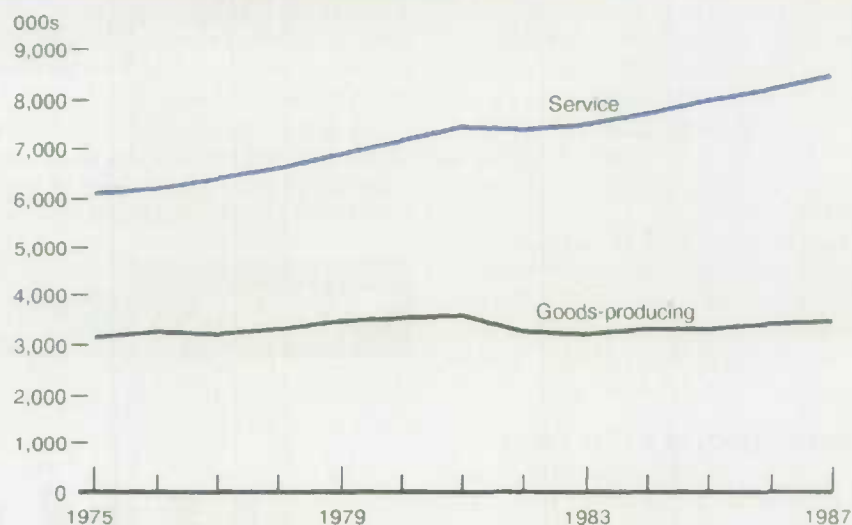
The increase in the share of total employment in the service sector in the 1980s occurred because of significant growth in employment in this sector, combined with a small decline in employment in the goods-producing sector. Between 1980 and 1987, total service sector employment rose 18%, while the number of people employed in the goods-producing sector declined 1%.

The lack of growth in the goods-producing sector in the 1980s was attributable largely to the effect of the 1981-82 recession on employment, which was much greater in this sector than in the service industries. Between 1981 and 1983, service sector employment rose, albeit by only 1%, whereas employment in the goods-producing sector fell 10%.



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Employment, by sector, 1975-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001 and 71-529.

Employment has grown in both sectors since the end of the recession, with service sector growth slightly outpacing that in the goods-producing sector. Between 1983 and 1987, employment rose 13% in the service sector and 9% in the goods-producing industries.

Service sector jobs changing

The majority of people working in the service sector are employed in clerical, sales, or service jobs. However, the proportion of service sector workers in these occupations has fallen in the 1980s, while that in managerial and professional positions has risen.

In 1987, 50% of all service workers were in clerical (20%), sales (13%), or service (18%) jobs. This was down, however, from 54% in 1980. Over the same period, the proportion of service workers in managerial or professional occupations rose from 29% to 35%.

Different industries growing

There was considerable variation in growth rates of different industries within the service sector. Increases were particularly large in the number of people providing services to business management and in employment in health and welfare services. Employment in services to business, such as accounting, engineering, and legal and management consulting, rose 38% between 1980 and 1987. In the same period, the number of people working in health and welfare services rose 33%.

Employment in consumer services, such as accommodation and food, amusement and recreation, and personal services, also rose substantially. The number of people working in each of these industries was up more than 20% over the 1980-1987 period.

Employment growth was somewhat slower in education, wholesale and retail trade, and finance, insurance and real estate. The number of people employed in these industries rose by around 15% between 1980 and 1987.

For the purpose of this review, the economy is divided into two main components, the service sector and the goods-producing sector.

The service sector includes distributive services such as transportation and storage, communications, utilities, and wholesale and retail trade; consumer services such as accommodation and food services, personal services, and amusement and recreational services; producer services such as services to business management, and finance, insurance and real estate; and non-commercial services such as education, health and welfare services, religious organizations, and public administration.

The goods-producing sector includes agriculture, manufacturing, construction, mining, forestry, and fishing.

On the other hand, there was only a 10% increase in the number of people working in public administration. Employment growth in federal public administration was particularly slow. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of people employed in federal public administration increased by just 5%. As a result of this slow growth, federal public administration's share of all employment in Canada declined from 2.5% in 1980 to 2.3% in 1987.

Employment in local and provincial administration grew at a somewhat faster rate than did federal public administration. However, at around 12% for each, growth in these industries was still below that for the service sector overall.

Women majority in service sector

Women make up the majority of service sector workers in Canada. In 1987, 51% of people employed in this sector were women; in contrast, women made up just 23% of goods-producing workers. A clear majority of both men and women, though, work in the service sector. In 1987, 84% of women with jobs outside the home and 61% of all male workers were employed in this sector.

There are significant differences in the types of service jobs held by men and women. In 1987, 63% of female service workers compared with 37% of men were in clerical, sales, or service occupations. In fact, almost one in three (31%) female service sector workers compared with just 8% of men was in a clerical position.

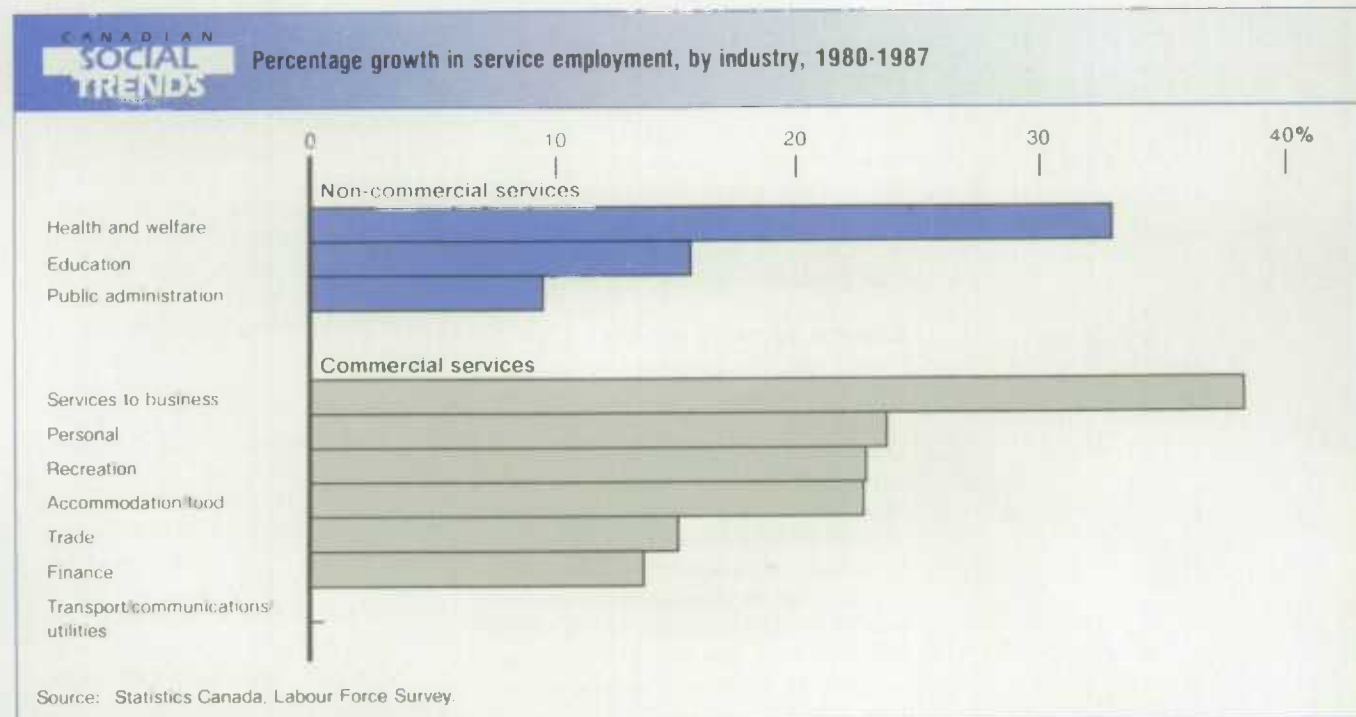
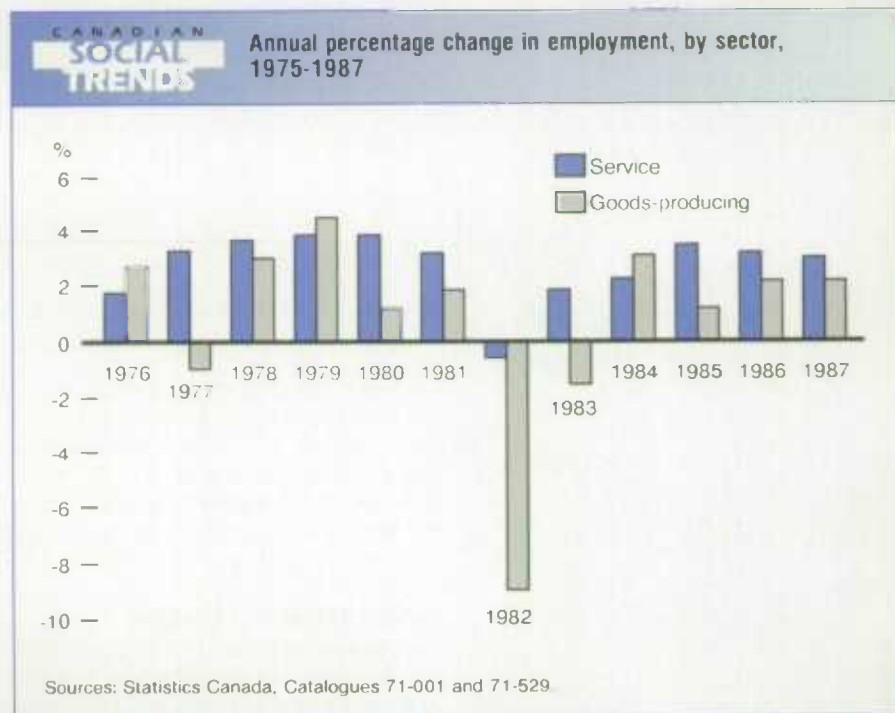
Overall, there was little difference in the proportion of male and female service sector workers with managerial and professional jobs. In 1987, 36% of men and 34% of women held such positions. However, within this category, a greater proportion of women than men were in professions such as nursing and teaching.

At the same time, men employed in the service sector were far more likely than women to be in other service industry jobs. In 1987, 27% of male service sector

workers compared with just 3% of women were in occupations such as transportation, processing, and material handling.

Young most likely to have service sector jobs

Young adults are the most likely people to work in the service sector, although the majority of workers in all age groups are employed in this sector. Among 15-24-year-olds employed in 1987, 64% of men



and 87% of women had service sector jobs. For men, the proportion employed in the this sector fell to around 60% for those aged 25 and over. For older women, the percentage ranged from 84% for those aged 25-44 to 78% for those aged 65 and over.

Growth industry in all regions

People employed in the service sector make up the majority of workers in all regions of Canada, though this sector's

share of employment varies across the country.

The service sector's share of total employment was highest in British Columbia where it accounted for 76% of all employed people in 1987. Alberta and Atlantic Canada also have relatively large service sectors; 73% of workers in each of these areas had service jobs.

Ontario has the smallest proportion of its workforce employed in the service sector. In 1987, just 68% of people

employed in this province were service workers. However, service sector growth has been much stronger in Ontario than in any other region in the 1980s. The number of people employed in Ontario's service sector rose 23% between 1980 and 1987 compared with an average of 15% in the other regions. As a result, Ontario accounted for almost half (47%) of all growth in service employment in Canada during the 1980s.

Part-time work a service phenomenon

In 1987, 89% of all part-time workers were in the service sector. That year, 19% of service sector workers were employed part-time compared with just 6% of goods-producing workers.

The incidence of part-time work varies widely in different service industries. Almost one-quarter of those employed in both community, business and personal services (24%), and wholesale and retail trade (23%) worked part-time in 1987. In comparison, the percentages working part-time in finance (11%), public administration (7%), and transportation, communications and utilities (6%) were much lower.

Female service sector workers are more likely than men to work part-time. In 1987, 28% of women employed in the service sector compared with 10% of men worked part-time. As well, part-time employment is relatively common among female service workers of all ages, whereas men aged 15-24 make up the vast majority of male part-time service workers.

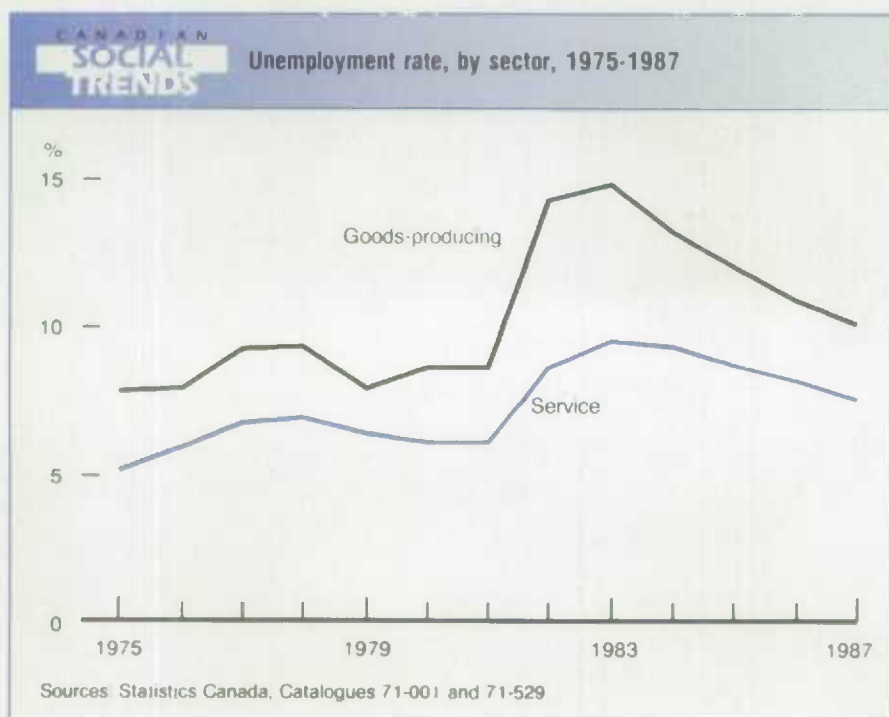
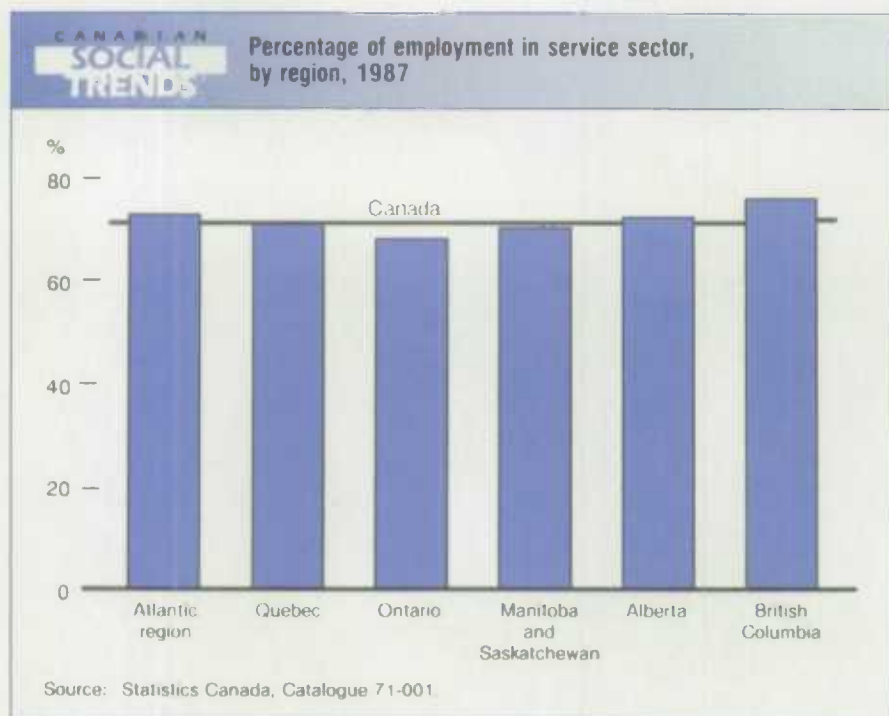
In 1987, 73% of people employed part-time in the service sector worked part-time because they were going to school, had personal or family responsibilities, or did not want full-time work. Still, that year, 434,000 service sector workers, almost double the number in 1980, worked part-time because they could not find a full-time job.

Unemployment rate lower

The level of unemployment in the service sector is considerably below that in the goods-producing sector. The service sector had an unemployment rate of 7.5% in 1987 compared with 10.0% in the goods-producing industries.

Within the service sector, the unemployment rate ranged from just over 8% in community, business and personal services to less than 5% in finance.

Colin Lindsay is a Managing Editor of Canadian Social Trends.



DUAL-EARNER FAMILIES: THE NEW NORM

by Maureen Moore

As a growing proportion of women have entered the paid labour force, the number of families in which both husband and wife have wage and salary incomes has increased.¹ Between 1967 and 1986, the number of dual-earner families rose from about 1.3 million to around 3.4 million. In fact, by 1986, they made up the majority of husband-wife families in Canada.

Traditional pattern replaced

In 1986, both spouses had earned incomes in 62% of all husband-wife families, up sharply from 34% in 1967. By contrast, the percentage of traditional families, those in which the husband was the sole earner, declined from 61% to 27%.

Families in which the wife was the sole earner or in which neither spouse had earnings have also increased over the last two decades, the former from 1% to close to 4%, and the latter from 4% to 7%. The

¹ This article refers only to husband-wife families in which at least one spouse was under age 65. Total figures include the earnings of family members other than husbands and wives, which amounted to 5% of dual-earner family income and 8% for traditional families.



majority of spouses in these families, particularly the husbands, were aged 55 or over.

Staying on top

A second income has become an important element in the maintenance of family income. The average income of dual-earner families was almost \$50,000 in 1986, compared with just under \$40,000 for families in which the husband was the sole earner. That year, the earnings of

wives in dual-earner families averaged \$14,000, about 29% of their families' total income.

The importance of the second paycheck is magnified when income quintile and low-income data are examined. In 1986, 81% of families in the upper fifth of the income distribution were dual earners, in contrast to just 35% of those in the bottom fifth.

The share of dual-earner family income provided by wives, however, is relatively

the same for all income quintile groups. In 1986, wives' earnings amounted to 29% of the income of dual-earner families in the top fifth of the income scale, just slightly more than that (26%) for dual-earner families in the bottom fifth.

At the same time, only 4% of dual-earner families, compared with 13% of traditional families, had incomes below Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs. Without wives' earnings, however, about the same proportion of dual-earner (14%) families would have been classified as having low incomes.

Social characteristics

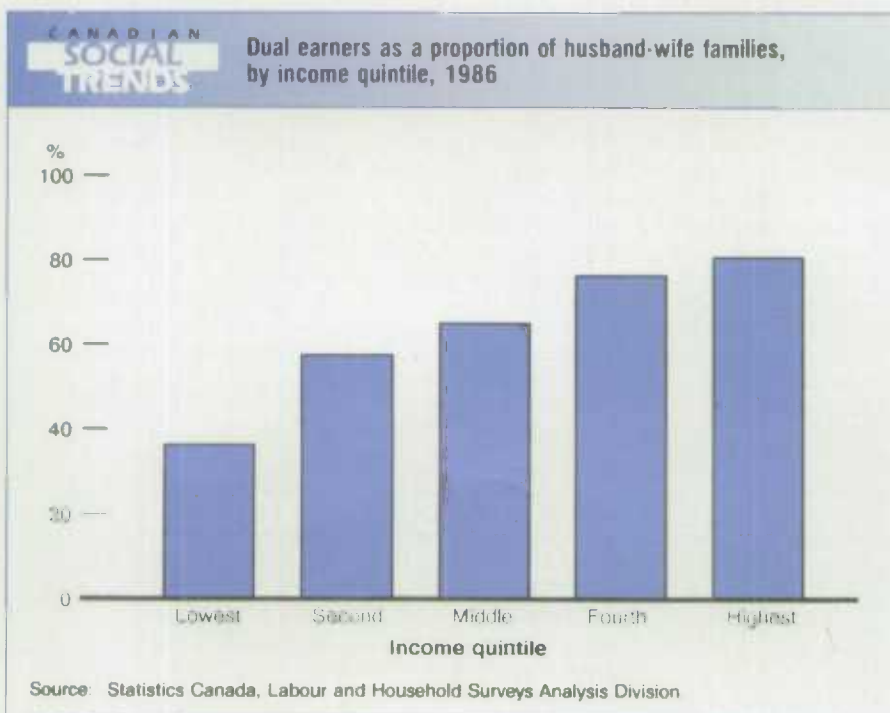
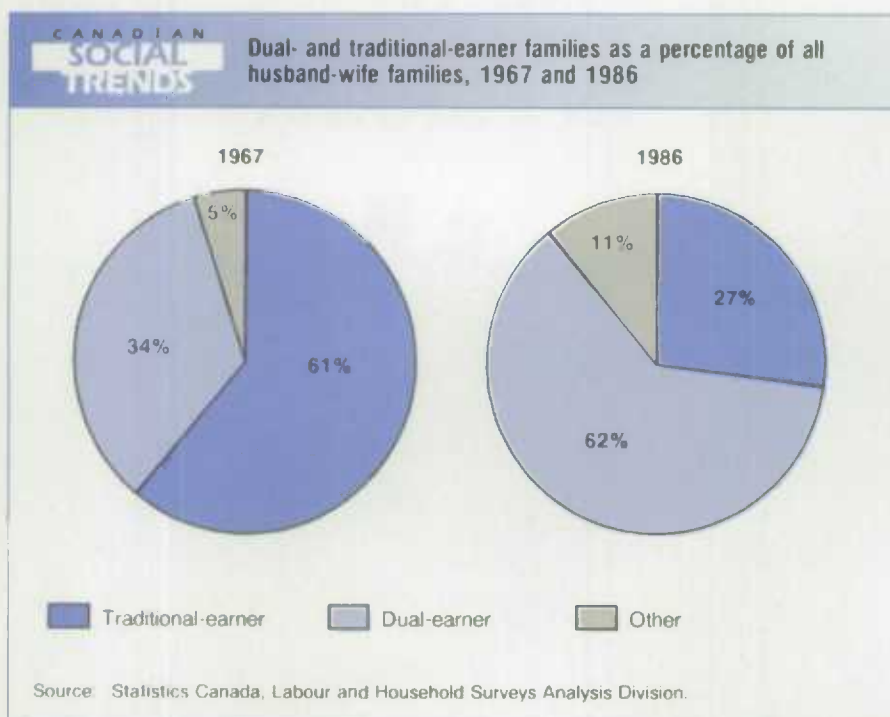
Several characteristics of dual-earner families set them apart from couples in which the husband alone has an earned income. Spouses in dual-earner families are relatively young. They tend to have more formal education than other couples, and as a result, a higher proportion are employed in managerial or professional occupations. They are also less likely than traditional families to have children at home.

Dual earning is most common among young families. In 1986, 74% of families in which the husband was under age 45 had two earners, compared with 48% of families in which the husband was aged 45 and over.

In addition, wives' contribution to total family income was higher among young dual-earner couples than among older ones. Wives' earnings made up nearly a third (31%) of the total income of dual-earner families in which the husband was under age 45; this compared with about a quarter (26%) of the income of dual-earner families where the husband was older than 45.

Spouses in dual-earner families, particularly the wives, tend to have more education than those in traditional families. This is not surprising, since women with high educational attainment are more likely than others to be in the labour force. In 1986, 14% of wives in dual-earner families had a university degree, compared with 6% of those in traditional families. The gap between husbands' education was not as wide: 18% of husbands in dual-earner families were university graduates, compared with 14% of husbands in traditional families.

The percentage of income provided by wives in dual-earner families is also related to their education. Women who had a university degree provided the largest share: in 1986, it represented 35% of their families' total income. On the other hand, the proportion provided by dual-earner



wives with less than eight years of formal education was 23%.

Largely as a result of their higher level of education, spouses in dual-earner families are more likely than those in traditional families to have managerial or professional jobs. Whereas around 30% of both husbands and wives in dual-earner families worked in managerial or professional occupations, the proportion was just 24% for husbands in traditional families.

Spouses are more likely to be dual earners if the husband works full-time. While 71% of families in which the husband had a full-time job were dual earners in 1986, the figure was only 61%, if the husband had been unemployed sometime during the year.

However, wives' contribution to total dual-earner family income was greater if their husbands did not work full-time. For example, women whose husbands were unemployed for more than 27 weeks provided 37% of family income, while their share was 33% if the husband was unemployed 13-27 weeks, and 30% if he was out of work for less than 13 weeks. By contrast, wives' earnings amounted to 28% of total family income in dual-earner families where the husband worked full-time.

Overall, dual-earner families are slightly less likely than traditional families to have children at home. In 1986, 68% of dual-earner families had children, compared with 72% of traditional families.

The difference, however, was much sharper among young families. Only 32% of dual-earner families in which the wife was under age 25 had children, whereas the figure was 77% for traditional families. Among families in which the wife was aged 25-34, 70% of dual earners had children, compared with 95% for families in which the husband was the sole earner.

Regional differences

Dual-earner families are most common in the Prairies and Ontario. In 1986, 68% of husband-wife families in the Prairie provinces were dual earners, as were 66% of those in Ontario. By contrast, fewer than 60% of families in both Quebec (57%) and the Atlantic region (58%) had two earners, while the figure in British Columbia was 62%.

Maureen Moore is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.



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1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

CHANGES IN LIVING ARRANGEMENTS



While the majority of the population still lives in families, results from the 1986 Census show ongoing changes in the living arrangements of Canadians. For example, increases in the number of lone-parent families, common-law couples, and one-person households have been particularly large. At the same time, average family size continues to decline.

Smaller proportion in families

In 1986, 84% of Canadians lived in families. This was down slightly from 85% in 1981 and continued a decline that began in 1966, when more than 88% of the population lived in families.

Although the proportion of Canadians living in families has dropped, the actual number of families rose 6% from 6.3 million in 1981 to 6.7 million in 1986. This increase, however, was much smaller than those of earlier years. For example, the number of families grew 13% between 1971 and 1976, and 10% between 1976 and 1981.

Varying growth rates

Over the 1981-1986 period, the number of lone-parent families and common-law unions increased much faster than traditional husband-wife families. During these five years, the number of lone-parent families rose 20% from 714,000 to 854,000, and common-law unions grew 37% from 357,000 to 487,000. In comparison, the number of traditional husband-wife families increased only 3% from 5.3 million to just under 5.4 million.

Consequently, lone parents and common-law couples accounted for a larger proportion of all families in 1986 than in 1981. Lone-parent families represented 13% of the total in 1986, up from 11% in 1981. At the same time, common-law unions as a percentage of all families rose from less than 6% to more than 7%. In contrast, the proportion accounted for by traditional husband-wife families fell from 83% to 80%.

Lone-parent families

The majority of lone-parent families (eight out of ten) were headed by women in 1986. More than half (57%) of these women were separated or divorced; 28% were widows; and 15% were unmarried mothers. This distribution was almost unchanged from 1981, but differed substantially from 1961, when 63% of female lone parents were widowed; 35% were separated or divorced; and just 2% were single mothers.

The relatively rapid growth in the number of lone-parent families is of concern because these families, particularly those headed by women, are likely to face a variety of social and economic difficulties. For instance, in 1986, 44% of all female-headed lone-parent families had incomes that fell below Statistics Canada's low income cut-offs.

Also, a growing proportion of Canadian children are living in lone-parent families.

In 1986, about 1.2 million children, or over 14% of all children in Canada, were members of lone-parent families; the corresponding proportion in 1961 was 6%.

Family size dropping

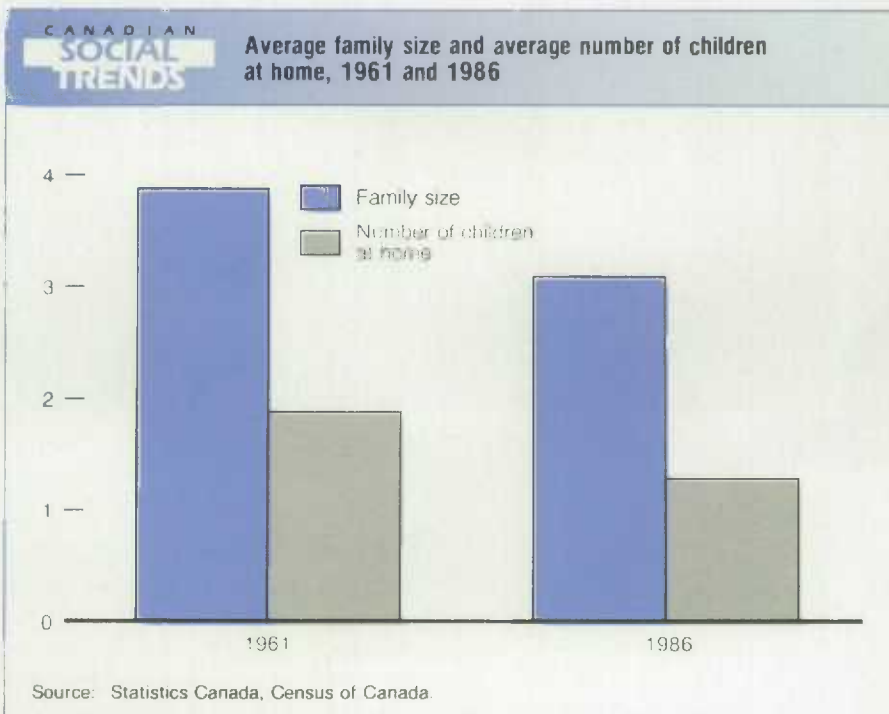
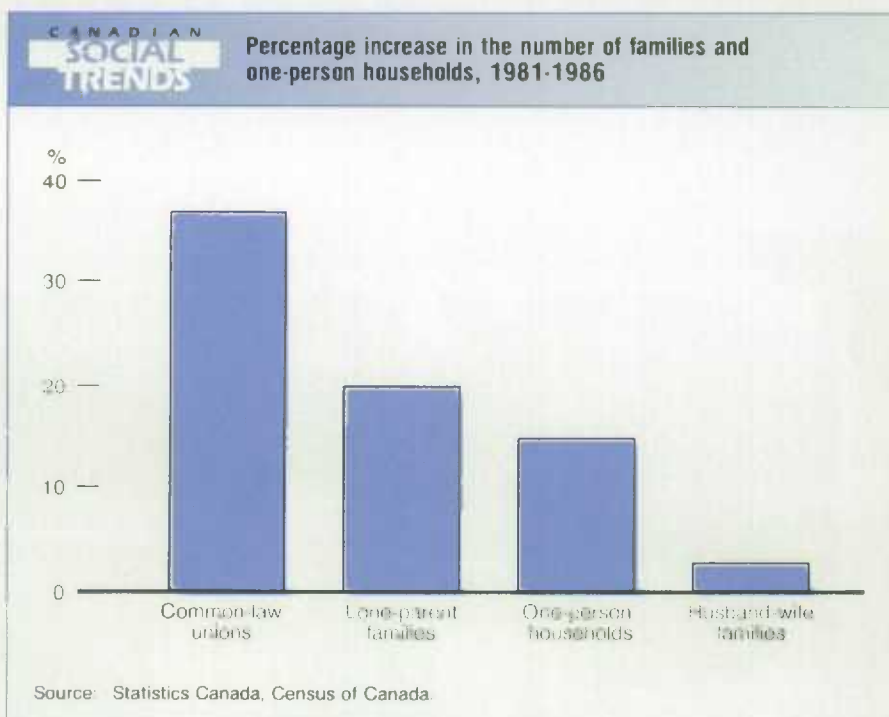
The average size of Canadian families is falling. In 1986, there were an average of 3.1 people in each family, down from 3.3 in 1981, and 3.9 in 1961.

Most of the decrease in family size is a result of the drop in the number of

children per family, which is attributed largely to declines in fertility. The average number of children in each family fell from 1.9 in 1961 to 1.3 in 1986.

The increasing number of lone-parent families has also contributed to smaller family size. Lone-parent families averaged 2.6 people in 1986, compared with 3.2 for husband-wife families.

As well, the number of families with no children at home has grown. In 1986, the 2.2 million families that were either



childless or whose children had left home represented 33% of all families, up slightly from 32% in 1981 and 29% in 1961.

Despite the increase in the number of families without children, close to 70% of Canadian families, a total of 4.5 million, had children at home in 1986. Also, about 1.5 million of these families had at least one child under age 6.

Solitary living

One of the fastest-growing groups of Canadians consists of people who live alone. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of one-person households rose 15%. By 1986, the 1.9 million Canadians living alone accounted for 10% of the population aged 15 and over, an increase from 9% in 1981, and from 4% in 1961.

The age distribution and marital status of people in one-person households differ substantially from those of the total adult population, with the elderly, particularly elderly widowed women, the most likely to live alone.

In 1986, 25% of people aged 65 and over were living alone; however, more than three-quarters (77%) of them were women. In fact, 34% of all elderly women were living alone. Most of these women, about eight out of ten, were widows. By contrast, just 14% of elderly men, half of them widowed, lived alone.

Differences in life expectancy, with women living longer than men, combined with the tendency for men to marry women somewhat younger than themselves, result in the large number of elderly widows left on their own.

At younger ages, the proportions of people in one-person households are comparatively small. Also, younger people living alone tend to be single, divorced, or separated rather than widowed. Fewer than 4% of 15-24-year-olds lived alone in 1986, and virtually all of them (96%) were unmarried. At ages 25-44, almost 8% of the population were living alone, and again, the majority (70%) were single. By ages 45-64, close to 10% of people were living alone. The most common marital status for this group was divorced or separated (43%), although single (29%) and widowed (28%) people made up substantial proportions.



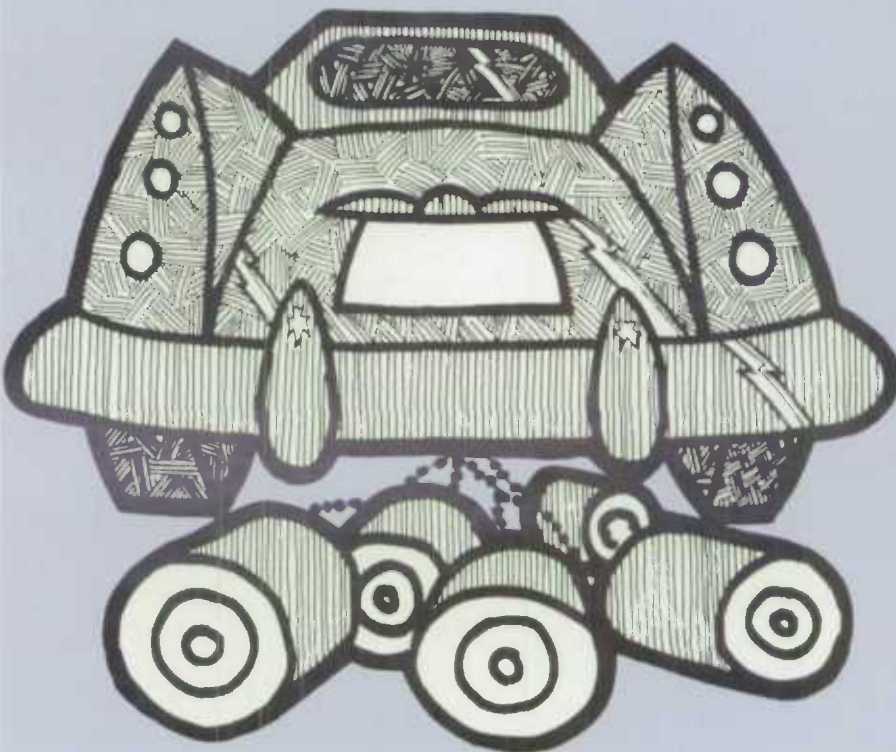
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ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1988

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participa- tion rate (%)	Unem- ployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950 ¹	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966 ²	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6

¹ Includes Newfoundland beginning in 1950.

² Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.



SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,625.1	25,923.3 ^P
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2 ^P
Immigration ¹	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	123,076	150,804 ^P
Emigration ¹	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,090	41,440 ^P
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,001	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244
- goods sector (000s)	3,711	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693
- services sector (000s)	7,290	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550
Total unemployment (000s)	898	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031
Unemployment rate	7.5	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8
Part-time employment (%)	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4
Women's participation rate	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1987 \$	27,838	29,731	30,896	32,167	34,736	36,858	38,851	*
% of families with low income	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	12.6	11.8	11.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	65.8	65.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	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)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.2	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	*
Government expenditure on education (1987 \$000,000)	28,808.6	28,950.0	29,475.2	28,980.6	31,112.5	29,675.3	30,227.9	*
HEALTH								
Stroke rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*	*
- women	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)	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	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	*
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1987 \$000,000)	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	57.0	58.0	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	60.0	*
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.5	26.7	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	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)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 \$) - annual % change	+3.7	-3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- 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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