

CANADIAN

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**SOCIAL
TRENDS**

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WORKING WOMEN ☐ EATING OUT ☐ ETHNICITY



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Cover: Northwest Arm (1926) oil on canvas, 50.8 x 61.0 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Elizabeth Nutt was born on the Isle of Man in 1870. Her study of art began in England and continued in France and Italy. Upon her arrival in Canada, Ms. Nutt was appointed Principal of the Nova Scotia College of Art (1919). While in Canada, she was active in promoting art appreciation classes in Canadian schools. A member of the Nova Scotia Society of Artists, she exhibited her paintings with the Royal Canadian Academy and in solo shows at the Nova Scotia College of Art. In 1943, Ms. Nutt became ill and resigned her post at the College. She returned to England where she died in 1946.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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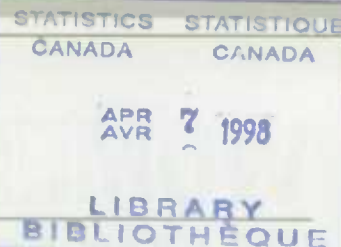
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WOMEN EMPLOYED OUTSIDE THE HOME

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament



One of the major social trends in Canada in recent decades has been the increasing proportion of women employed outside the home. By 1988, for example, over half of all women had jobs. Working women, however, remain concentrated in traditional female occupations such as clerical work, and their earnings are still well below those of men.

The increase in the employment of women has also brought about a number of related social concerns such as the need for child care.

Growing proportion of women with jobs

The percentage of women employed outside the home has continued to increase sharply since the mid-1970s. Overall, 53% of women worked outside the home in 1988 compared with just 41% in 1975. In fact, women accounted for two-thirds of all employment growth in Canada between 1975 and 1988. Consequently, the number of women with jobs, as a percentage of all employed people, increased from 36% in 1975 to 44% in 1988.

The proportion of women with jobs did drop slightly during the recession in the early 1980s; however, by 1984, it was back up to the 1981 level. Since then, the percentage of women working has risen by over one percentage point each year.

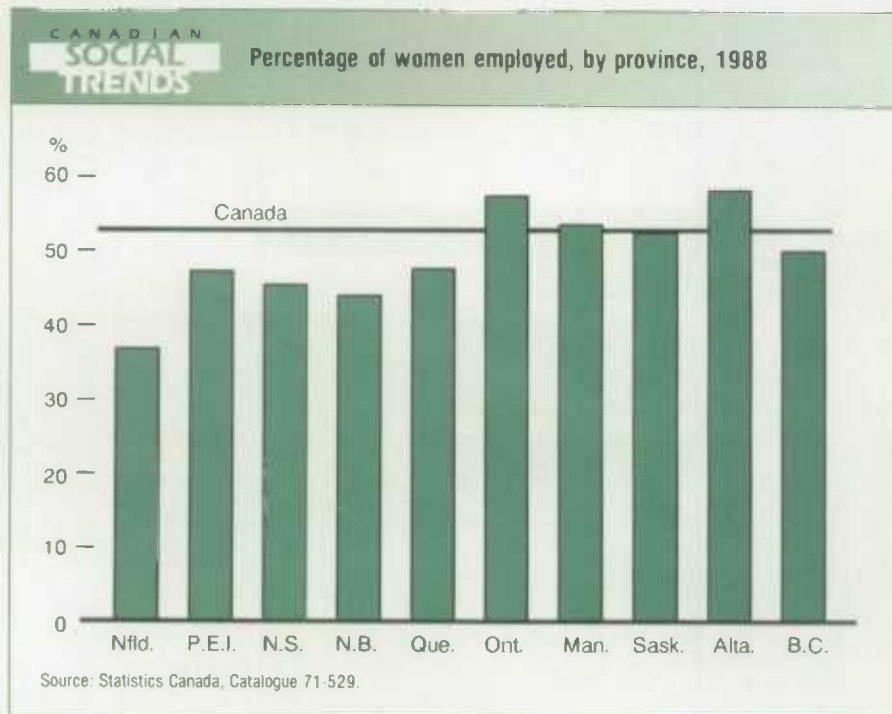
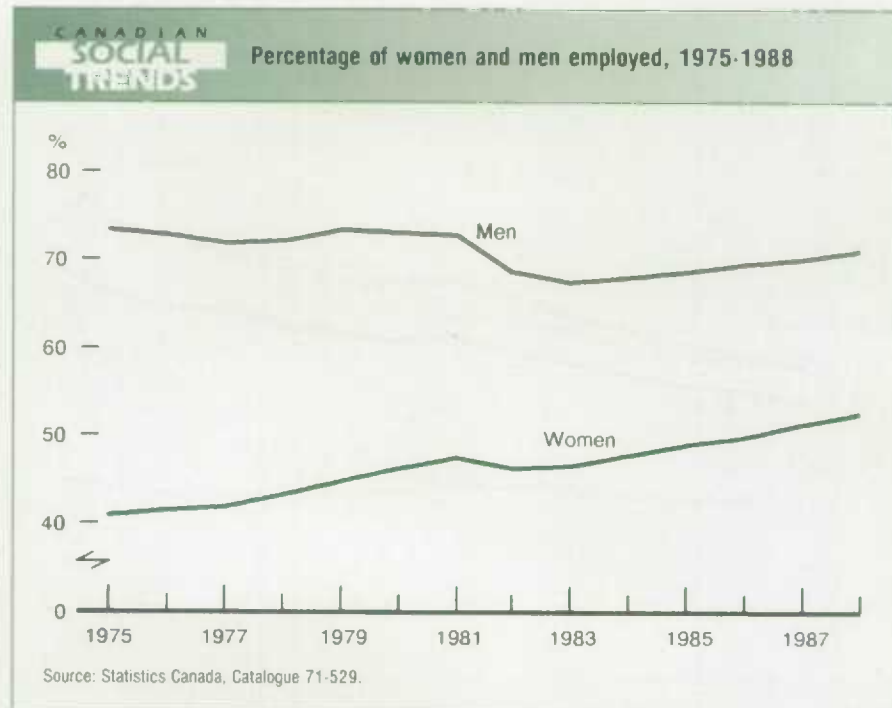
Trends in the employment of men have differed from those of women. The proportion of men with jobs hovered around 73% from 1975 until the recession. The recession, however, had a much greater impact on men's than women's employment. Between 1981 and 1983, for example, the proportion of men with jobs fell 5.4 percentage points. While the proportion of men with jobs has climbed since then, the 1988 figure (71%) was still below the pre-recession level. Still, in 1988, the percentage of men with jobs was about 18 percentage points higher than that for women, although this was down from a 33 percentage-point gap in 1975.

Provincial differences

The proportion of women with jobs varies considerably by province. In 1988, this measure ranged from a high of 59% in Alberta to a low of 37% in Newfoundland. At least half of women were also employed in Ontario (58%), Manitoba (54%), Saskatchewan (53%), and British Columbia (50%). On the other hand, fewer than half of women in Quebec (48%), Prince Edward Island (47%), Nova Scotia (46%), and New Brunswick (44%) had jobs.

Largest gains at ages 25-54

Employment rates of women increased for all age groups under 65, with the largest gains among 25-54-year-olds. Between 1975 and 1988, the percentage of women aged 25-44 employed outside

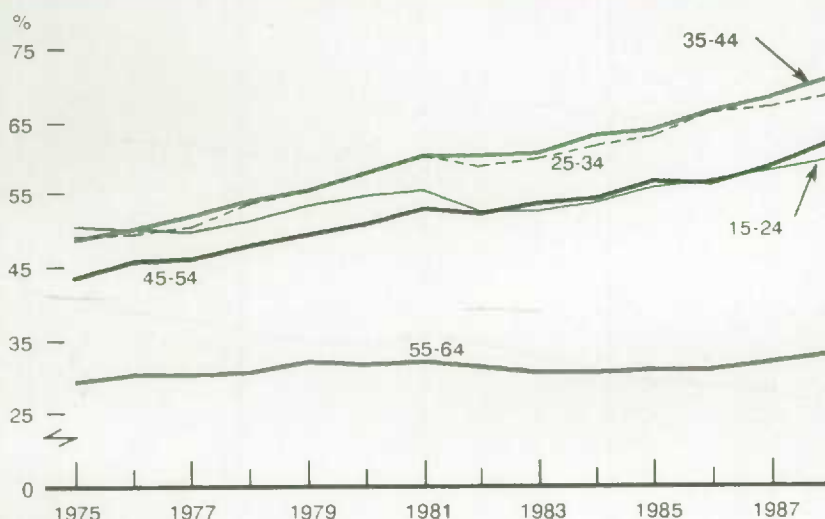


the home rose from just under 50% to about 70%; for women aged 45-54, the increase was from 44% to 62%.

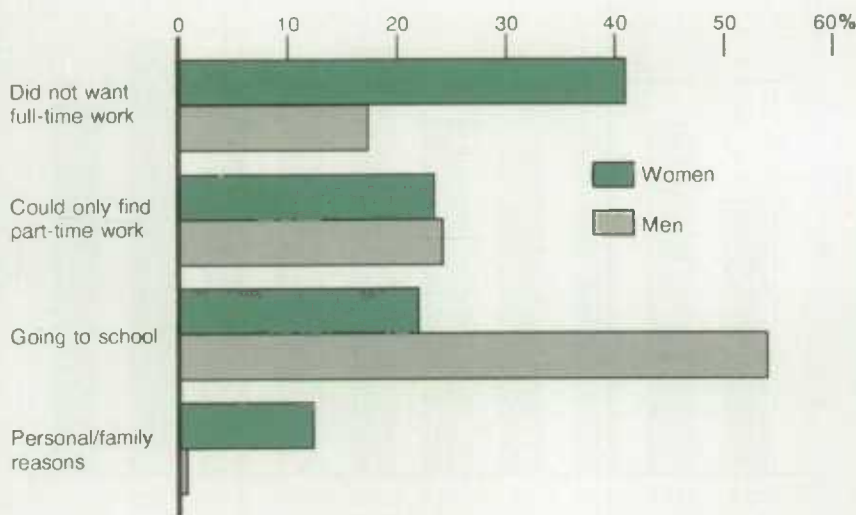
The percentage of 15-24-year-old women working outside the home also grew, but not as dramatically as for women aged 25-54. The proportion of employed women in this age range rose from 50% in 1975 to 60% in 1988. On the

other hand, there was only a small increase, from 29% to 33%, in the proportion of women aged 55-64 with jobs.

In contrast, employment rates dropped for most male age groups between 1975 and 1988. The decline among men aged 55-64, from 76% to 62%, was particularly sharp. In the same period, the share of men aged 25-54 with jobs fell between 2

**CANADIAN
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Percentage of women employed, by age, 1975-1988


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

**CANADIAN
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Reasons for working part-time, by sex, 1988


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

and 3 percentage points. Employment rates did rise among 15-24-year-old men; however, the increase was only about three percentage points.

More married women working

Employment growth was particularly substantial among married women. In 1988, 54% of these women had jobs com-

pared with 38% in 1975.

Nonetheless, married women are still less likely than their single counterparts to be employed outside the home. In 1988, 62% of single women had jobs, although this was up only modestly from 54% in 1975.

That single women are more likely than married women to be employed contrasts

Day care

The increase in the number of employed women has meant that a growing number of children live in families in which both parents are working. At the same time, the number of employed lone parents and the number of children in such families have also increased. The result has been a sharp upturn in need for non-parental care during the day or after school.

Between 1976 and 1986, the number of children under age 6 with either both parents working or an employed lone parent increased from just over 600,000 to 954,000. The majority of these children, about 90%, were in families in which both parents worked. The number of children aged 6-15 in families with both parents employed or with an employed lone parent also increased between 1976 and 1986, from 1.7 to 1.9 million. Over the same period, the total number of day-care spaces grew from 83,500 to 220,500.

with the situation among men. In 1988, for example, 75% of married men were working compared with 65% of single men.

Many more women with children working

There have also been major increases in the employment of women with children. In 1988, 57% of married women with children under age 6 whose husband was employed had jobs, up from 31% in 1976. In the same period, the proportion of married women with children aged 6-15 with jobs rose from 47% to 70%.

Female lone parents were somewhat less likely than mothers with employed husbands to have jobs outside the home. In 1988, just 42% of female lone parents with pre-school children and 63% of those with children aged 6-15 were employed. This is a reversal from the mid-1970s when a greater proportion of female lone parents than married women with children had been employed.

Rapid growth in female part-time employment

A considerable proportion of the increase in women's employment is attributable to part-time work. In fact, the increase in the

number of women working part-time accounted for about one-third of all growth in the employment of women from 1975 to 1988. In this period, the number of women employed part-time doubled from 678,000 to 1.4 million. As a result, by 1988, 25% of employed women were working part-time, compared to just 8% of men. Overall, 72% of part-time workers in 1988 were women, up slightly from 70% in 1975.

Young women are the most likely to work part-time, although part-time employment is common among women of all ages. In 1988, 37% of employed women aged 15-24 had part-time jobs, while the corresponding figures were 20% for 25-44-year-olds and 26% for women aged 45 and over.

The incidence of part-time work among men is also highest for those aged 15-24. In contrast to women, though, part-time work is rare among men over age 25. In 1988, while 29% of employed men aged 15-24 worked part-time, just 2% of men aged 25-44 and 5% of those aged 45 and over did so.

Reasons for part-time employment

The primary reason women work part-time is that they do not want a full-time job. In 1988, 41% of women working part-time gave this as their reason for working part-time. Another 12% cited personal or family responsibilities, while 24% could only find part-time jobs, and 22% were going to school.

In comparison, the majority (54%) of men working part-time said they did so because they were going to school. Another 24% could only find part-time work, and 18% stated that they did not want full-time work. Just 1% gave personal or family responsibilities as their reason for working part-time.

Higher education, higher employment

Not surprisingly, women with the highest levels of education are the most likely to be employed. In 1988, 76% of women with a university degree, 69% with a postsecondary certificate or diploma, and 62% with some postsecondary training were employed. On the other hand, 52% of women with some high school education and just 22% with less than Grade 9 worked outside the home.

The pattern was the same among men; however, the gap between the proportions of women and men who are

employed narrows at successively higher levels of education. For example, in 1988, there was a 10 percentage-point difference between the employment levels of women (76%) and men (86%) with a university degree. The difference was 15 percentage points for those with a postsecondary certificate or diploma; 20

percentage points for those with some high school; and 24 percentage points for those with less than Grade 9.

Most women still in traditional jobs

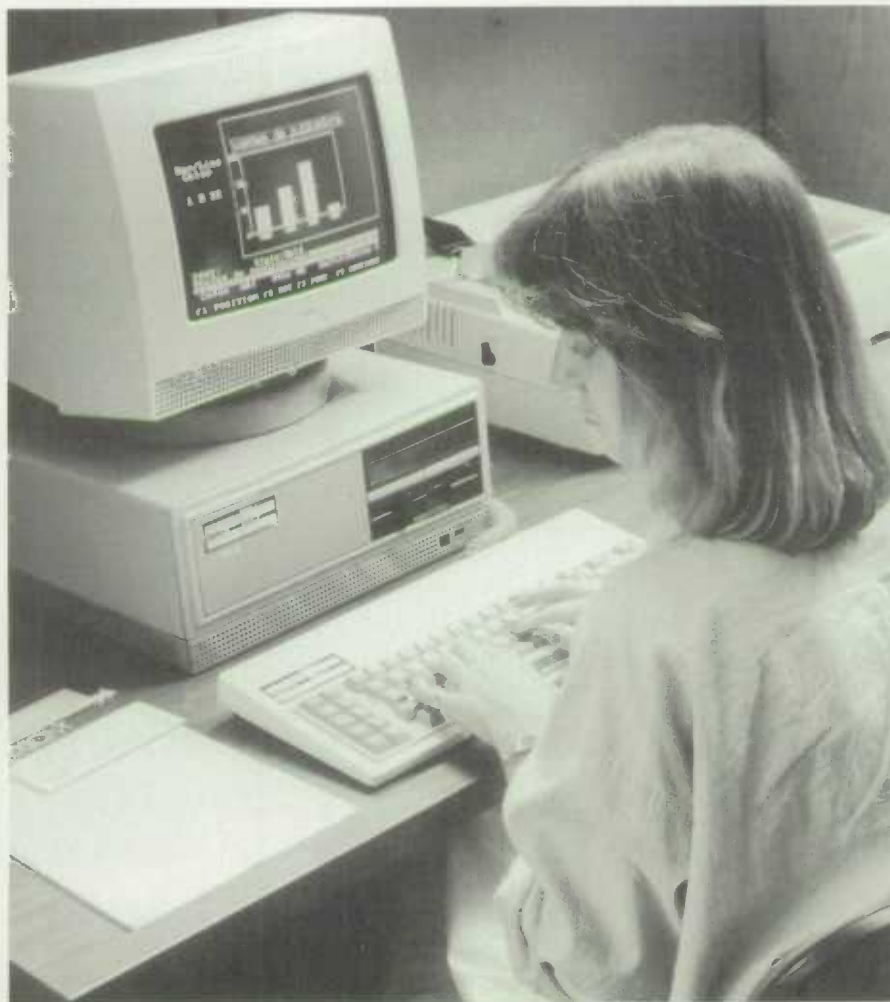
While the range of jobs held by women has grown in the last decade, the majority of working women are still concentrated



Employment statistics, 1975-1988

	Total employment		Percentage employed		Percentage employed part-time	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	000s		%			
1975	3,381	5,903	40.8	73.5	20.3	5.1
1976	3,513	5,964	41.4	72.7	21.1	5.1
1977	3,619	6,032	41.7	72.0	22.1	5.4
1978	3,830	6,156	43.3	72.2	22.6	5.5
1979	4,033	6,362	44.7	73.3	23.3	5.7
1980	4,249	6,459	46.2	73.0	23.8	5.9
1981	4,445	6,556	47.4	72.9	24.2	6.3
1982	4,382	6,236	46.1	68.5	25.1	6.9
1983	4,472	6,203	46.5	67.5	26.1	7.6
1984	4,624	6,308	47.6	68.0	25.7	7.6
1985	4,794	6,429	48.8	68.7	26.0	7.6
1986	4,964	6,567	49.9	69.5	25.7	7.8
1987	5,152	6,708	51.2	70.1	25.1	7.6
1988	5,368	6,876	52.6	70.9	25.2	7.7

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.



in a narrow range of traditional female occupations. In 1988, 73% of all working women were employed in either clerical, sales or service positions, teaching, or health services, mostly nursing. This figure was down only slightly from 78% in 1975, and it remains well above the proportion for men. In 1988, just 30% of men were employed in one of these occupations.

In terms of individual occupations, clerical positions still account for the largest share of working women. In 1988, almost 1 in 3 employed women (31%) had a clerical job, although this was down from 36% in 1975. Another 17% of employed women were in service positions; 10% were in sales; 9% were in health care occupations; and 6% were teachers.

Average earnings

The real average earnings of women employed full-time increased 8% between 1975 and 1987, while those of men actually declined slightly. Consequently, women's earnings as a percentage of men's rose from 60% in 1975 to 66% in 1987.

In 1987, women employed full-time earned an average of \$21,000, up from \$19,500 (in constant 1987 \$) in 1975. Over the same period, average earnings of men dropped from \$32,300 to \$31,900.

The difference between the earnings of women and men persists at all educational levels. Even women with a university degree, the highest-paid group, made only 70% of the average earnings of male graduates. However, this may be changing, as the figure was 80% among university degree-holders aged 25-34.

There are some groups, though, in which the earnings of women and men are similar. For example, there is almost no difference between the average earnings of comparable, never-married women and men.

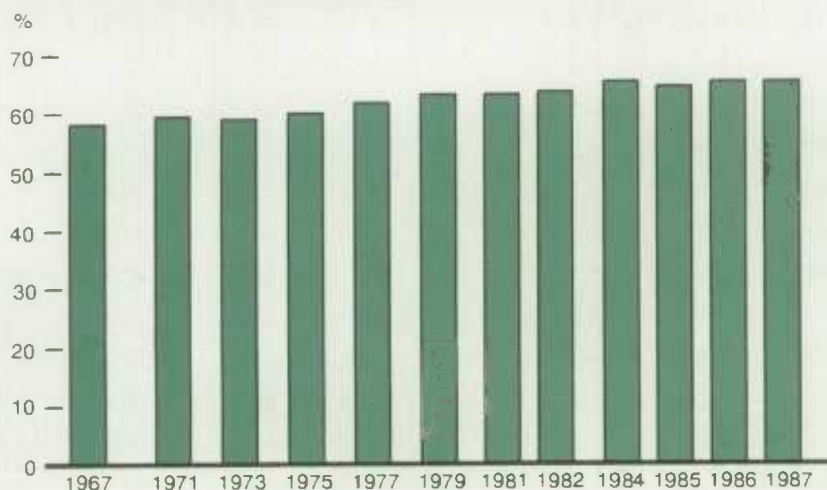
Jo-Anne B. Parliament is Associate Editor of *Canadian Social Trends*.

* For more detail on employment trends among professional women, see the Spring, 1989 issue of *Canadian Social Trends*.



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Women's earnings as a percentage of men's, 1967-1987¹



¹ Includes full-time, full-year workers.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.



EATING OUT

by Linda Robbins

Whether it's a candlelit dinner in a gourmet restaurant or a hamburger from a fast-food outlet, meals eaten or purchased away from home are increasingly popular with Canadians. In fact, according to a 1988 Gallup survey,¹ about seven out of ten adults had eaten out within the last week, and only 5% said that they never eat out at all.

As a result, eating out expenditures, including meals in table-service restaurants, fast-food establishments, and cafeterias, make up a rising proportion of food spending. In 1986, the average household spent more than a quarter of its total food budget on such meals, a substantial rise over 1969, when eating out accounted for 15% of the food dollar.

Trends in both household formation and labour force participation have contributed to the growing frequency of eating out. Two-income couples and one-person households often lack the time or

the desire to prepare meals at home, preferring instead to dine in a restaurant or buy take-out/delivery items.

Some population groups are more likely than others to have meals away from home. Affluent people, for example, eat out more often and spend a larger share of their food budget on these meals than do people in lower-income households. Similarly, households in which the wife is employed full-time, married couples without children, and people living alone are the most likely to patronize foodservice establishments.

Most Canadians eat out

The vast majority of Canadians eat out at least occasionally, and most do so regularly.

The 1988 Gallup survey reported that 69% of adults had been restaurant patrons during the previous week; of these, 46% had eaten out within the past three days.

A further 18% had eaten a restaurant meal one to four weeks earlier, while 7% had done so more than a month before. Only 5% of all adults said that they never eat out.

The likelihood of eating out is strongly associated with income. Whereas 59% of people whose household income exceeded \$40,000 had eaten out in the previous three days, the figure was just 31% for those in the less-than-\$20,000 category.

Young people were particularly likely to have eaten out recently. Close to two-thirds (63%) of 18-24-year-olds had eaten out within the last three days. This proportion fell in older age groups to just over a quarter (27%) of people aged 65 and over.

¹ Gallup Canada, Inc., and Canadian Restaurant and Foodservice Association, *Gallup on Eating Out*, September 1988, Vol. 2, No. 1.

Higher levels of education were also associated with the likelihood of eating out. Sixty-four percent of people with a university education had been to a restaurant in the last three days, compared with 44% of those with high school, and 30% who had not gone beyond public school.

Who spends the most?

Meals away from home accounted for 27% of the total food budget of Canadian households in 1986, up from 15% in 1969. Expenditures on eating out, however, vary for different groups.

Eating out makes up a particularly large proportion of food expenditures in high-income households. Meals away from home represented 35% of the food spending of households with incomes above \$60,000, but just 21% for those in the less-than-\$10,000 bracket.

Childless families spend proportionally more on eating out than do families with children. Fully 30% of the food expenditures of childless couples in 1986 were on meals away from home, compared with 22% for families with children. Somewhat surprisingly, the proportion of the food budget devoted to eating out was almost the same for lone-parent families and husband-wife families with children.

As well, in households where the wife had a full-time job, 30% of the food dollar was spent on meals away from home. If she worked part-time, eating out accounted for 25% of the household's food budget, and for households in which the wife was not employed, the proportion was just 20%.

As might be expected, single people spent considerably more of their food dollar on meals away from home than did families. In 1986, eating out represented half of the food expenditures of single men and 30% of those of single women. By contrast, the corresponding figure for families with children was 22%.

However, singles' spending on food away from home fell at older ages. While single men under age 45 spent 56% of their food dollar on restaurant meals (the highest percentage of any group), the corresponding figure for single men over age 65 was 27%. For single women, comparable shares were 45% and 17%, respectively.

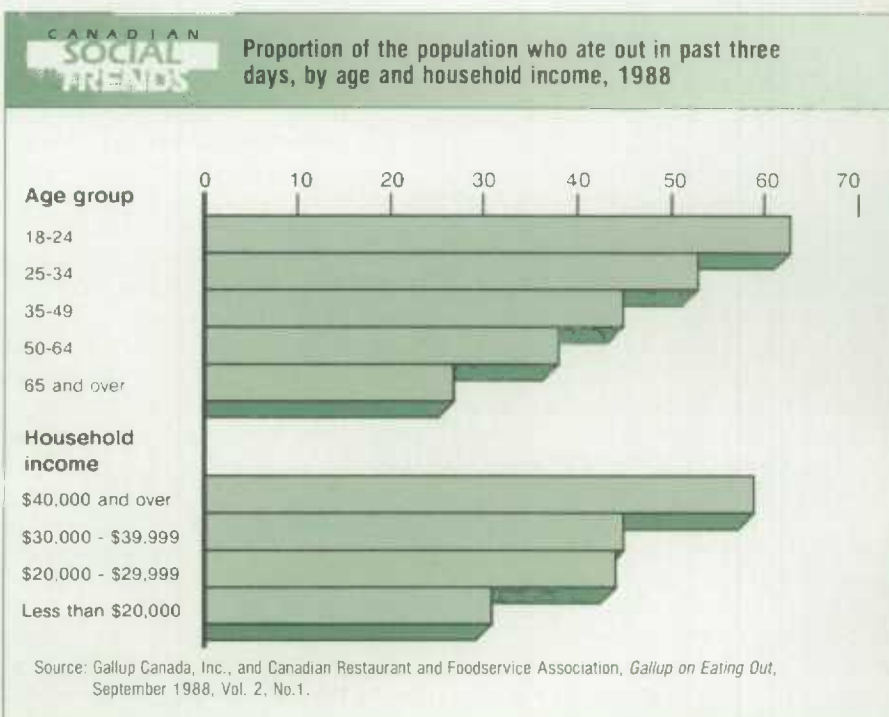
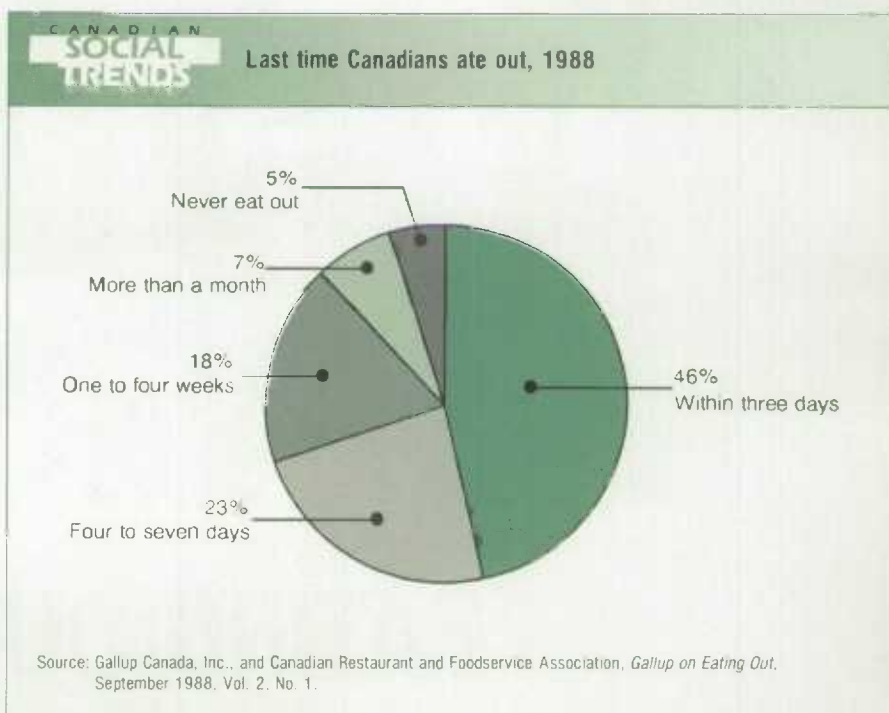
Meals away from home also make up a much larger proportion of the food budget of city households than of those in rural areas. Eating out accounted for 29% of the food expenditures of households in large cities (population 500,000 and over), compared with 21% for rural households.

The percentage of food expenditures allocated to eating out varies in different provinces, with proportionate spending generally higher in Ontario and the west than in Quebec and the Atlantic region. Ontario and Alberta households spent the greatest share of their food dollar on meals away from home (29%), while the figure was 28% in Saskatchewan, and 27% in both British Columbia and Manitoba. Percentages in the other provinces were below the national average (27%); Quebec

(25%), Prince Edward Island (23%), New Brunswick (22%), and Nova Scotia (20%). Newfoundland households spent just 13% of their food dollar on eating out, the smallest share in any province.

Where we eat

In 1987, there were almost 35,000 food-service establishments in Canada, with total receipts of more than \$12.0 billion. This compared with around 32,000 establishments in 1981, with receipts of



\$10.7 billion (constant 1987 dollars).

The largest share of Canadians' eating out expenditures — 58% in 1986 — was in table-service restaurants. Fast-food restaurants received another 25% of the away-from-home food dollar, with take-out/delivery outlets and eat-in/drive-in restaurants accounting for 13% and 12%, respectively. Another 10% of spending on meals away from home was in cafeterias, and the remaining 7% was in other kinds of restaurants.

Something different

During 1988, about 80% of Canadian adults tried at least one restaurant where they had never eaten before. This proportion included 39% who had been to 1-3 new places, 17% who had tried 4-6, and 24% who had eaten at 7 or more.

The most common reason for trying a new restaurant, mentioned by 34% of patrons, was curiosity about the food. Recommendations prompted another 28% to try a new place.

Type of meal

Overall, dinner accounted for about half of all expenditures on meals away from home, and lunch, about a third. Another 7% of eating out spending was for breakfast, while the remaining 11% was spent between meals.

Microwave ovens

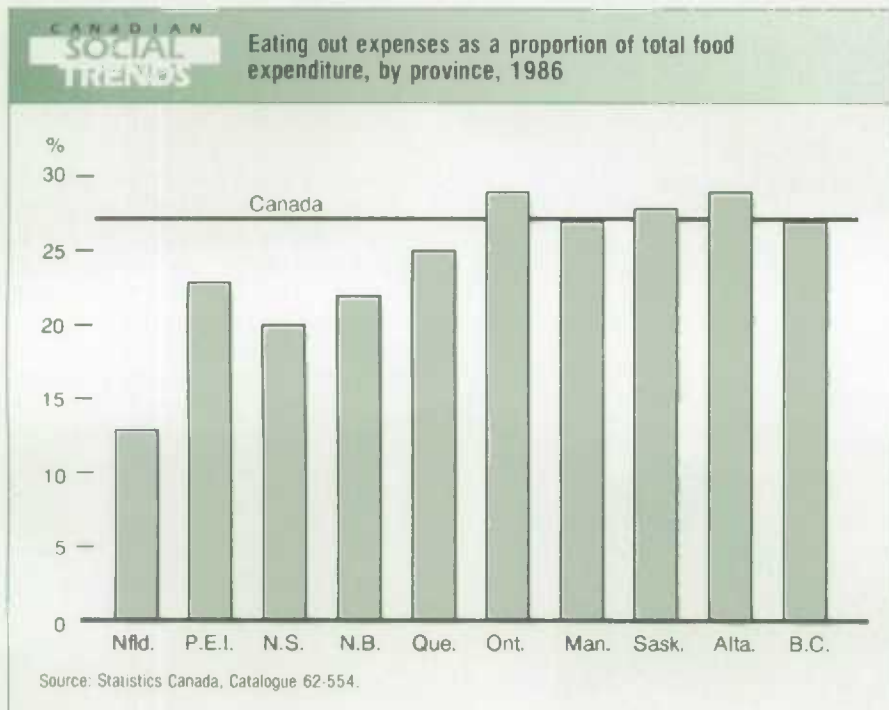
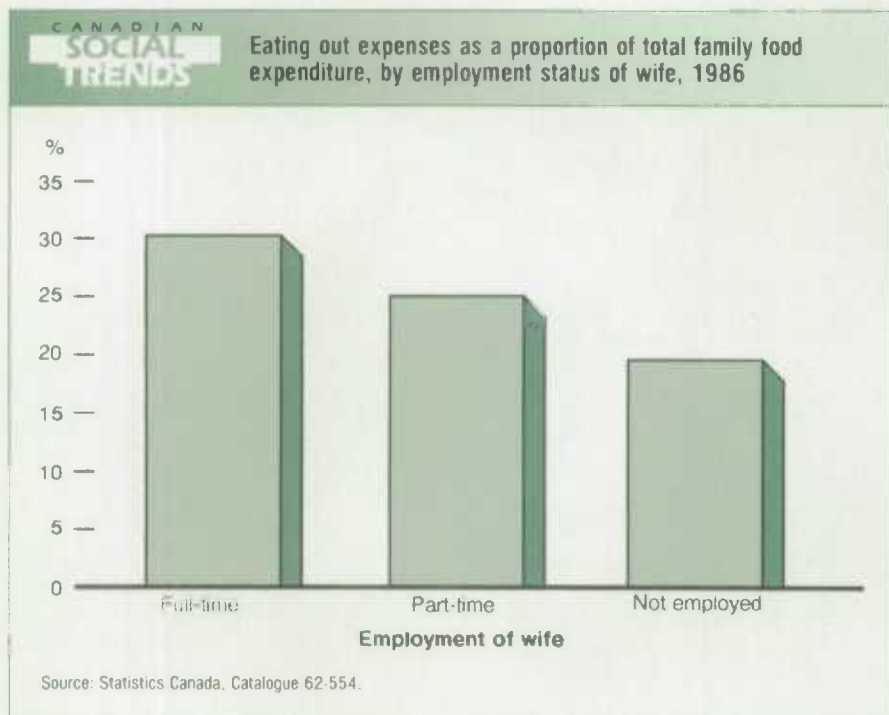
Eating out is the ultimate solution for people who do not want to be bothered with time-consuming meal preparation. The next best thing, however, may be a microwave oven. In fact, the number of Canadian households with microwave ovens has risen steeply during the 1980s. By 1988, 54% of all households were equipped with these appliances, up from 8% in 1981, and just 1% in 1975.

Vending machines

In 1986, Canadians spent over \$285 million buying beverages and food from almost 137,000 vending machines. Beverages, mostly coffee and soft drinks, accounted for about two-thirds of these sales. The food purchased from vending machines tended to be snack items such as chocolate bars, candies, and potato chips.

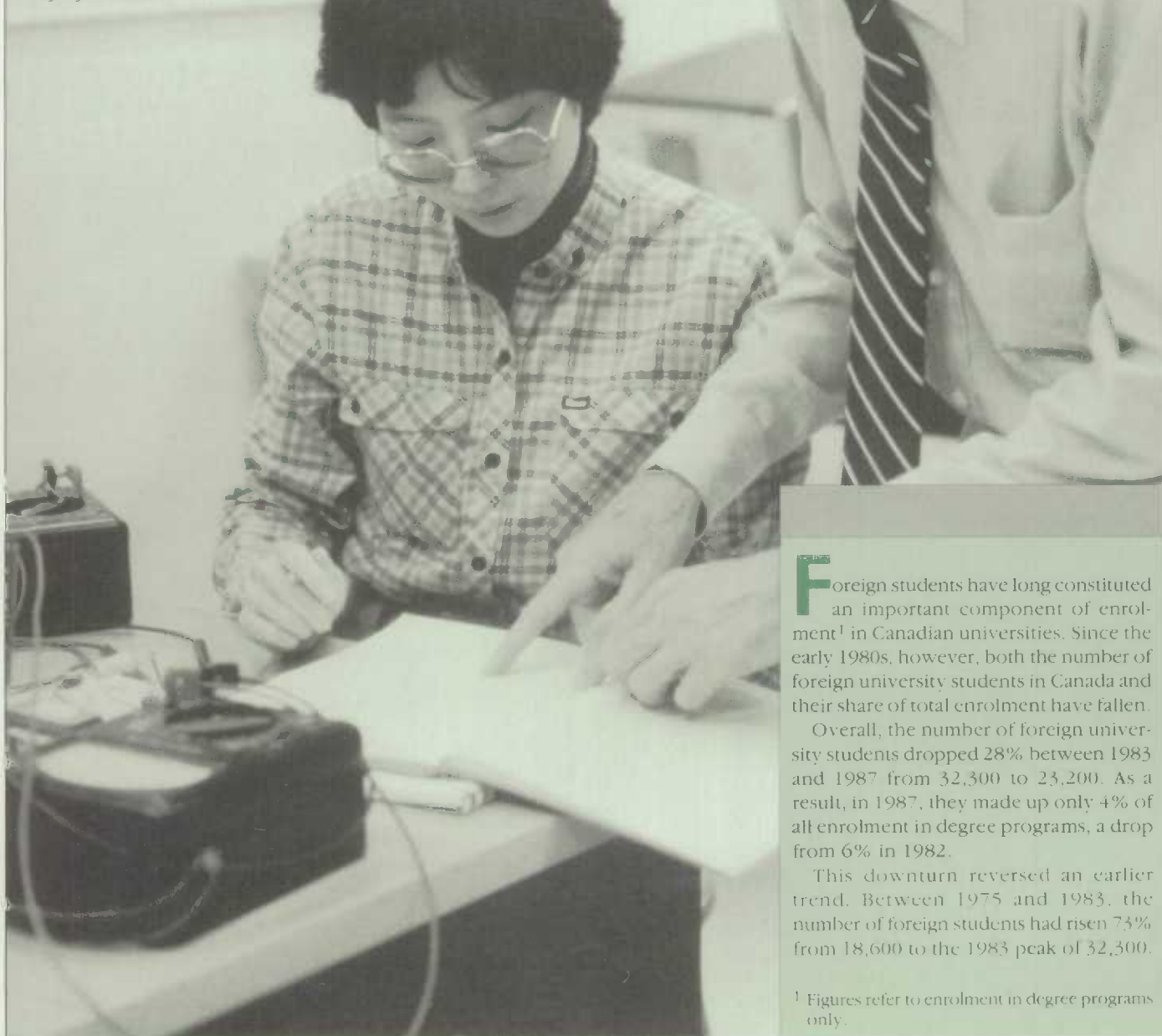
More than half (53%) of all vending machines were located in industrial plants or business offices. Another 10% were in institutions such as hospitals, universities, and schools, and almost as many (9%) were in hotels, motels, restaurants, and taverns. The rest were in a variety of outlets such as service stations, theatres, and bowling alleys.

Linda Robbins is a research home economist with the Food Markets Analysis Division, Agriculture Canada.



FOREIGN STUDENTS AT CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

by Lynn Barr



Foreign students have long constituted an important component of enrolment¹ in Canadian universities. Since the early 1980s, however, both the number of foreign university students in Canada and their share of total enrolment have fallen.

Overall, the number of foreign university students dropped 28% between 1983 and 1987 from 32,300 to 23,200. As a result, in 1987, they made up only 4% of all enrolment in degree programs, a drop from 6% in 1982.

This downturn reversed an earlier trend. Between 1975 and 1983, the number of foreign students had risen 73% from 18,600 to the 1983 peak of 32,300.

¹ Figures refer to enrolment in degree programs only.

Fewer foreign undergraduates

Almost all of the recent drop in foreign enrolment occurred at the bachelor's and first professional degree level. From 1983 to 1987, the number of foreign students at this level declined 40% from 24,000 to 14,400. Consequently, foreign students' share of total bachelor's enrolment fell from over 5% in 1982 to less than 3% in 1987.

Stable graduate enrolment

By contrast, the number of foreign graduate students rose slightly (7%) from 8,300 in 1983 to 8,800 in 1987. This rate of increase almost matched that of Canadian graduate enrolment. As a result, the proportion of master's and Ph.D. students who were foreign remained around 11% throughout the period.

Most foreign students Asian

Since the mid-1970s, the relative representation of different national origins among foreign students has changed dramatically. The proportion of students from Asia and Africa has increased, while percentages from the United States and Europe have fallen.

In 1987, more than half (54%) of all foreign students in Canada were Asian, up from just over a third (34%) in 1975. This proportion, however, has declined somewhat from a high of 57% in 1983.

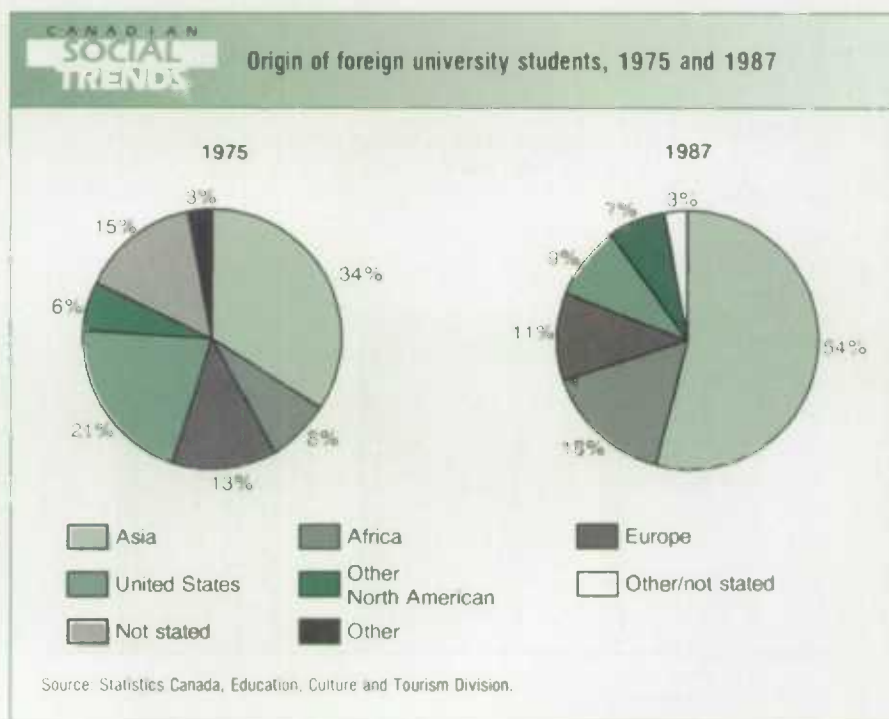
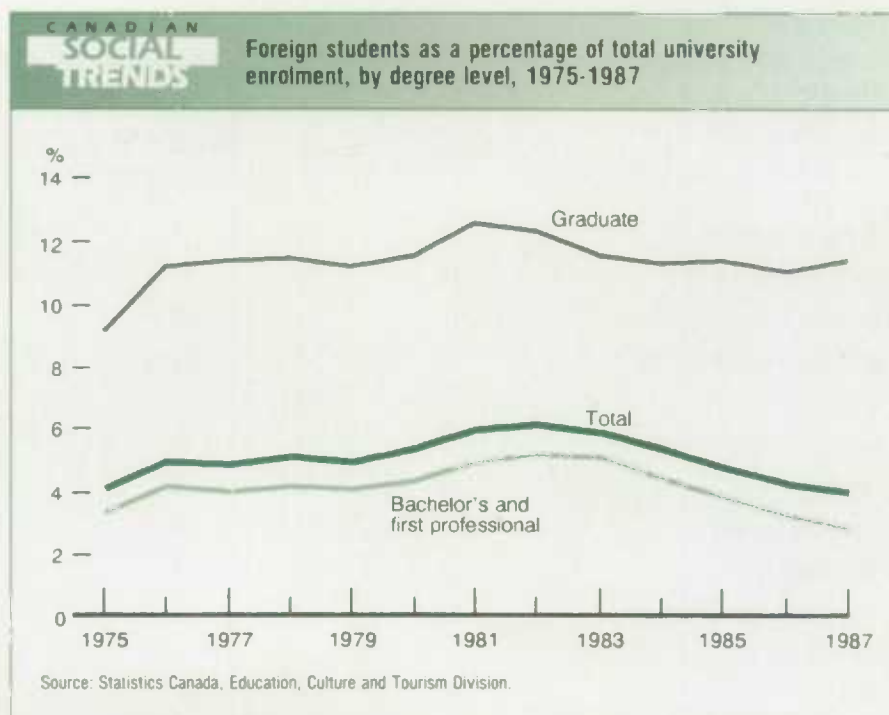
The single largest source of Asian students is Hong Kong. In fact, in 1987, almost 6,000 students, representing 25% of all foreign enrolment, were from Hong Kong. Another 7% of foreign students were from China, and 5% were from Malaysia.

The share of foreign enrolment from Africa has also increased substantially. In 1987, about 16% of foreign students, double the proportion in 1975 (8%), were African. Three countries — Kenya, Morocco, and Tunisia — accounted for more than a third of all African students in 1987.

On the other hand, the proportions of students coming from the United States and Europe have fallen. In 1987, 9% of foreign students were from the United States, down sharply from 21% in 1975. During the same period, the proportion from Europe fell from 13% to 11%.

Program choices differ

The fields of study chosen by foreign university students differ from those of their Canadian counterparts. In 1987, at the bachelor's and first professional degree level, foreign students were more



likely than Canadian students to enroll in mathematics/physical science, business/commerce, and engineering/applied science. Almost 50% of foreign undergraduates were in one of these programs, compared with just over a quarter (26%) of Canadian undergraduates. On the other hand, foreign students were much less likely than Canadian students to enroll in education, fine and applied arts, humanities, and health professions.

At the graduate level, the concentration

of foreign students in relatively few fields was even greater than at the bachelor's level. More than half (54%) of foreign graduate students were enrolled in one of three scientific/technical fields (engineering/applied science, mathematics/physical science, and agriculture/biological science), compared with just 22% of Canadian students. And in contrast to the bachelor's level, a much smaller proportion of foreign graduate students than Canadians were in business/commerce.

Field of study of foreign and Canadian university students, by degree level, 1987

Field of study	Bachelor's and first professional		Graduate	
	Foreign	Canadian	Foreign	Canadian
	%			
Business/commerce	19	12	7	14
Social science	18	19	15	20
Mathematics/physical science	17	6	20	7
Engineering/applied science	14	8	24	9
Humanities	7	10	11	16
Agriculture/biological science	5	6	10	6
Education	2	12	6	19
Health professions	2	6	6	6
Fine/applied arts	2	4	1	2
General arts and science	14	17	--	--
Not reported	1	1	--	--
Total	100	100	100	100
Total number of students	14,400	497,700	8,800	66,800

-- amount too small to be expressed.

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

Foreign students in Canada

The 23,200 foreign students in degree programs at Canadian universities in 1987 represented less than half (43%) of all foreign enrolment in Canada that year. Foreign enrolment also included about 4,000 students in university diploma or certificate programs. As well, close to 16,800 foreign students were enrolled at the elementary-secondary level, and about 10,000 were in community colleges or trade schools.

Differential fees

Differential fees, that is, higher tuition costs imposed on foreign students, may account for part of the recent decline in foreign undergraduate enrolment at Canadian universities.

In 1987, for example, full-time tuition for foreign undergraduates attending Quebec universities was about ten times higher than that paid by their Canadian counterparts, while in Ontario, foreign undergraduates were charged almost three and a half times more. The only two provinces that do not impose differential fees are Manitoba and Newfoundland.

New work regulations introduced in early 1988 may help offset the financial problems associated with differential fees. Foreign students may now accept on-campus employment during their study period. Also, they are permitted to work full-time for up to one year after graduation in a field related to their area of specialization.

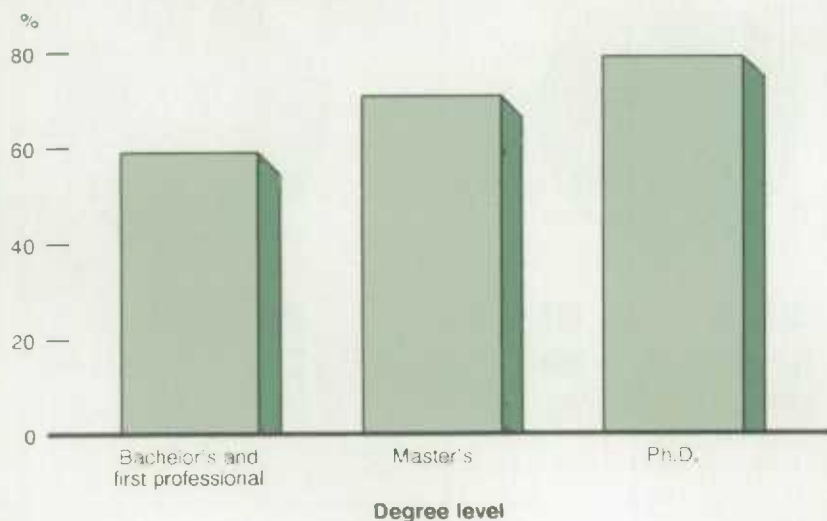
degree students, 71% of students at the master's level, and 79% at the doctoral level. These proportions were higher than corresponding figures for Canadians: 46% of students at the bachelor's degree level, 52% at the master's level, and 60% at the Ph.D. level were men.

Lynn Barr is a research assistant with Canadian Social Trends.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Men as a percentage of foreign university students, by degree level, 1987



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

Men in the majority

The majority of foreign university students are men. In 1987, close to two-thirds (65%) of all foreign students at Canadian universities were men.

The proportion of men, however, varies according to their country or region of origin. Men made up just over half (51%) the university students from the

United States, 62% of those from Hong Kong, and 65% from Europe. Men accounted for considerably higher proportions of students from China (75%) and Africa (81%).

Male domination of the ranks of foreign students increases at higher levels of study. In 1987, men comprised 59% of foreign bachelor's and first professional

ETHNIC ORIGINS OF THE CANADIAN POPULATION

by Pamela M. White

At the turn of the century, the Canadian population was made up largely of people representing two major ethnic groupings: British and French. However, successive waves of immigrants from many different countries have resulted in a much more ethnically diverse country. During the first decades of this century and after the Second World War, large numbers of immigrants came to Canada from Western and Eastern Europe, as well as from Scandinavia. In the 1960s, a growing proportion of immigrants came from Southern Europe and the United States; in the 1970s and 1980s, immigrants have come primarily from Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and Central and South America.



Ethnic origin

Ethnic origin refers to the ethnic or cultural group (or groups) to which Canadians belong; it pertains to the ancestral roots or origins of the population and should not be confused with other variables such as citizenship or nationality.

To better reflect the ethnic diversity of Canada, respondents to the 1986 Census were permitted to report that they had more than one ethnic origin. That year, 28% of Canadians reported more than one ethnic background; of these, 17% reported two origins, 7% gave three origins, and 4% reported four or more.

The current ethnic composition of the population represents a combination of the Canadian-born descendants of the various waves of immigrants, recent arrivals, and the Aboriginal population. By 1986, people with British or French backgrounds still made up the largest ethnic communities; however, neither group accounted for a majority of the population. At the same time, nearly one in four Canadians reported an ethnic background that did not include British or French origins.

Most Canadians British or French

In 1986, people with British and French ethnic backgrounds were the largest ethnic groupings in Canada. People with British backgrounds, that is, those who reported either English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh, or some combination of British origins, made up 34% of the population. Those who reported a French background made up 24% of all Canadians.

In addition, another 5% of people reported a combination of British and French ethnic backgrounds, while 13% reported some combination of British and/or French and other origins.

Many with non-British, non-French roots

People whose ethnic backgrounds do not include either British or French roots also make up a major component of the population. In 1986, 25% of all Canadians reported that they had neither British nor French ethnic origins.

People with European backgrounds have traditionally comprised the largest groups having neither British nor French

origins. Overall, in 1986, people reporting a single European background other than British or French made up 16% of the total population. Those reporting German, Italian, and Ukrainian ancestry¹ were the largest of these groups, accounting for 3.6%, 2.8%, and 1.7%, respectively, of all Canadians.

However, as a result of increasing levels of non-European immigration in the 1970s and 1980s, a significant proportion of the population now reports non-European,

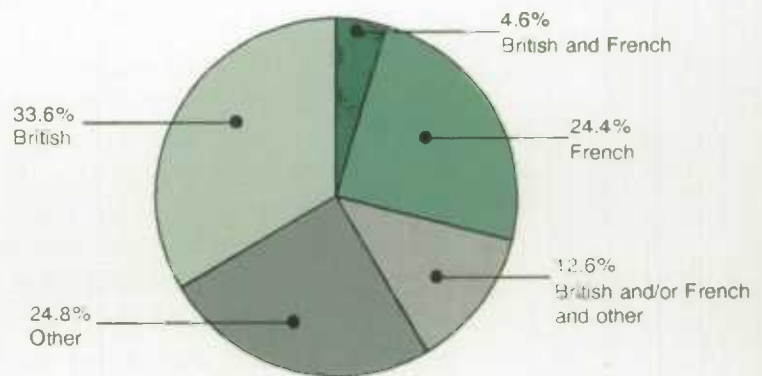
particularly Asian, backgrounds.

People reporting a single Asian background made up 4% of the overall Canadian population in 1986. Of these, 1.4% reported Chinese origins, while people with South Asian backgrounds, primarily Asian Indians, made up another 1.1%.

The largest single non-European ethnic group, however, are North American Aboriginals. In 1986, over 3/4 of a million people, 3% of the total population, reported some Indian, Inuit, or Métis

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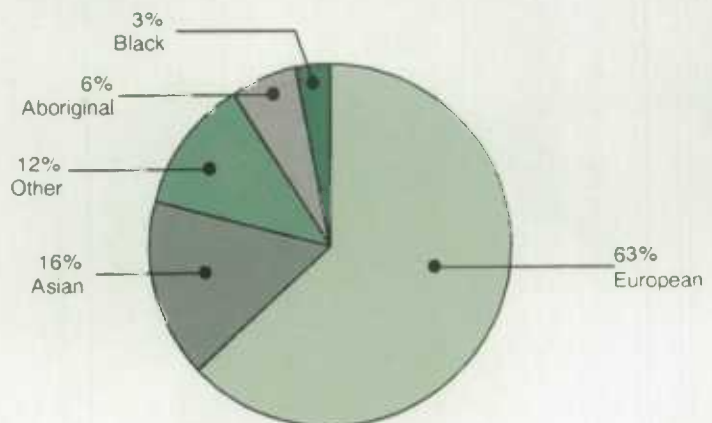
Ethnic origins of Canadians, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN
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Ethnic origins of the non-British, non-French population, 1986



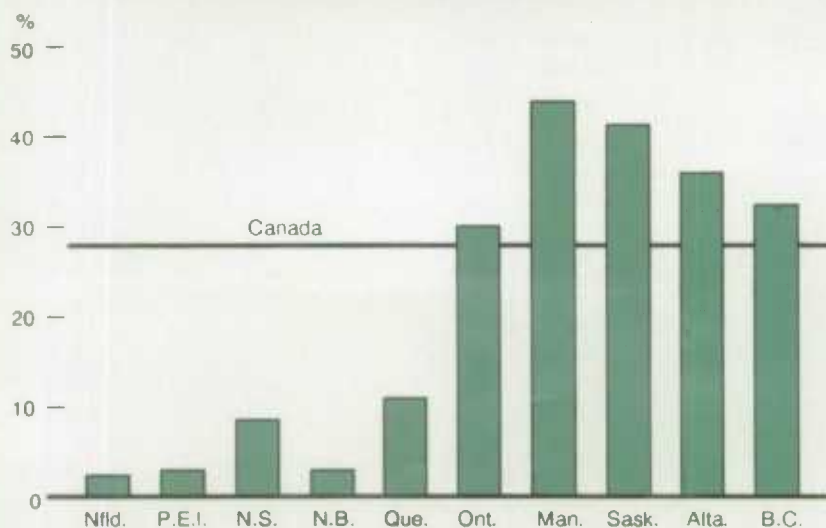
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

¹ Includes only those giving a single ethnic response.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of the population with non-British, non-French ethnic origins, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

ancestry. Of these, about half reported a mix of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal origins.

Wide regional variation in ethnicity

The ethnic make-up of the population varies considerably across Canada. While people with British origins made up the largest proportion of the population in all provinces except Quebec, the size of this group ranged from almost 90% of the population in Newfoundland to only 30% in Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

Not surprisingly, most of the population in Quebec, almost 80% in 1986, reported French as their ethnic origin. People with French ancestry also represented about a third of the population of New Brunswick. The proportion of the population reporting French origins was much smaller in the other provinces, ranging from 9% in Prince Edward Island to just 2% in British Columbia and Newfoundland.

There was also wide variation in the proportion of the provincial populations

with origins other than British or French. This grouping made up over 40% of the population in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, over 35% in Alberta, and over 30% in Ontario and British Columbia. By contrast, just 11% of people in Quebec, 9% in Nova Scotia, 3% in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, and 2% in Newfoundland reported other ethnic affiliation.

The composition of the population with neither British nor French ethnic origins also varies considerably by province. In the Prairie Provinces, people of German

and Ukrainian ancestry were the largest of these ethnic groups. In fact, people giving a single ethnic origin of either German or Ukrainian represented 19% of the population in Saskatchewan, 17% in Manitoba, and 12% in Alberta.

People of German ancestry were also the second largest ethnic group in British Columbia. People of Asian descent, however, made up the next largest ethnic group in this province: 4.0% of British Columbia residents said they had Chinese roots and 2.4% were South Asian in origin.

The western provinces also have relatively large Aboriginal populations. People reporting native ancestry as their only ethnic origin made up 6% of Saskatchewan residents, 5% in Manitoba, and 2% in Alberta and British Columbia. People of Italian descent were the largest non-British, non-French ethnic group in both Ontario and Quebec. Those reporting Jewish ancestry and Aboriginals made up the next largest ethnic groups in Quebec, while in Ontario, people of German and Dutch ancestry were the next most numerous groups.

People giving German ancestry as a single ethnic response made up just under 3% of Nova Scotia residents, while those of Dutch descent represented about 1% of residents of both Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. As well, just under 1% of Nova Scotia residents reported they were black, the highest provincial figure for this group.

People of Aboriginal descent were the largest ethnic group other than British or French in both Newfoundland and New Brunswick. However, at just over 0.5% of the population, they made up only a small proportion of the residents in each province.

Pamela M. White is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family, and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

Ethnic origins of the population, by province, 1986

	British	French	British and French	British and/or French and some other	Other	Total	Main other groups (single ethnic responses as a percentage of total population)	
	%							%
Newfoundland	89.0	2.0	4.3	2.4	2.3	100.0	Aboriginal	0.7
							German	0.2
Prince Edward Island	69.1	8.9	12.1	6.7	3.2	100.0	Dutch	1.0
							German	0.4
							Aboriginal	0.3
Nova Scotia	62.7	6.2	9.3	13.1	8.6	100.0	German	2.5
							Dutch	1.1
							Black	0.9
New Brunswick	46.9	33.3	10.0	6.6	3.2	100.0	Aboriginal	0.6
							German	0.5
							Dutch	0.4
Quebec	5.9	77.8	2.7	2.7	11.0	100.0	Italian	2.5
							Jewish	1.3
							Aboriginal	0.8
Ontario	43.8	5.9	5.7	14.3	30.2	100.0	Italian	5.1
							German	3.2
							Dutch	1.9
Manitoba	29.6	5.3	3.4	17.7	44.0	100.0	German	9.2
							Ukrainian	7.6
							Aboriginal	5.3
Saskatchewan	29.8	3.4	2.8	22.5	41.5	100.0	German	12.9
							Ukrainian	6.1
							Aboriginal	5.6
Alberta	34.4	3.3	3.9	22.3	36.1	100.0	German	7.8
							Ukrainian	4.6
							Dutch	2.4
British Columbia	41.8	2.4	3.7	19.6	32.5	100.0	German	5.2
							Chinese	4.0
							South Asian	2.4
Canada	33.6	24.4	4.6	12.6	24.9	100.0	German	3.6
							Italian	2.8
							Ukrainian	1.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

YOUNG ADULTS LIVING IN THEIR PARENTS' HOMES

by Monica Boyd and Edward T. Pryor

Recent decades have brought unanticipated turns in family composition and living arrangements among both the young and old. More elderly Canadians are living alone, while, until recently, the young have been leaving their parents' homes at increasingly early ages. In Canada, this latter tendency emerged as a growing trend for young adults to establish their own households, thus emptying the parental nest. Between 1971 and 1981, the percentages of unmarried adults who lived at home declined.

However, recent evidence from the Canadian Census has shown a reversal of this trend between 1981 and 1986. The percentage of unmarried young adults who were living with parents rose over the period 1981-1986.

The shift is particularly noteworthy for unmarried people aged 20-29 in respect to the choices they made between living as unattached individuals (that is, alone or with non-relatives) or living in a family household. As of 1986, six out of ten of these women aged 20-24 were living with one or both parents. Seven out of ten men aged 20-24 were still living with parents. Even by their late twenties, over four out of ten unattached or unmarried men and three out of ten women were living at home.

The increasing percentages of young adults in their twenties who are living at

home have contributed to an aging of the entire population of children aged 15-34 living at home. In 1971, slightly more than one-quarter of the young women who lived at home and one-third of the young men were aged 20-29. By 1986, nearly 40% of the unmarried women and nearly half of the unmarried men living with parents were aged 20-29. Not only is a higher percentage of the unattached or unmarried young adult population living at home, but they are also more likely to be older than young adults living at home in previous decades.

The reasons for interest in adult children living with parents are manifold, but two aspects are obvious: (1) recent trends in the living arrangements of young adults go against the grain of the previous long-term momentum of the young to make an early departure from their parents' homes, and (2) the underlying question of explaining such a reversal and its consequences for the understanding of contemporary family life.

In part, the reversal of the previous pattern has been masked by other changes in household formation patterns of Canadians such as living alone, the increase in forms of cohabitation not based on a marriage, and increases in family breakdown.

While each has contributed to a proliferation of residential types and patterns, which taken together have tended to

reduce average household size, delayed leaving of the family household and subsequent returns to it have apparently emerged as a countervailing tendency, possibly reflecting changes in marriage patterns and the economic conditions facing young adults today.

Factors in leaving or staying in parental homes

Census data provide the overall pattern with respect to delayed marriage. The percentage of Canadians who had been married by a given age declined between 1976 and 1986, indicating a delay in the timing of marriages. Delayed marriage leaves the other residential options of (1) leaving the parental household for other independent living arrangements either alone or with others or (2) remaining in or returning to the parental home during the years that in previous decades might have been spent in a separate household in the married state.

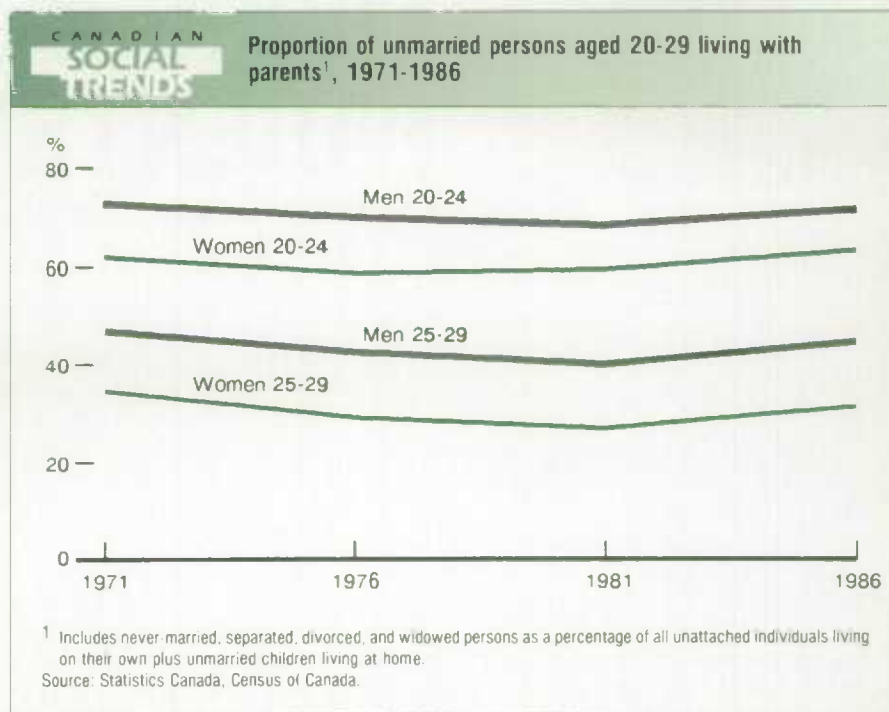
It appears that an increasing number of unmarried young adults have chosen the second option. They remain in their parents' homes at a time in the family life cycle when parents might once have expected to be freed of direct parental responsibilities. The nest may still be emptying, but the process now extends over a longer transitional period.

Many other factors contribute to a decision to leave a parent's home and to establish a new household. Factors associated with the choice between living at home and establishing a separate household are: sex of the adult children, membership in particular ethnic groups, education level attained, labour force participation, and individual income. Some factors are enabling (e.g., high employment income makes household formation feasible, as does higher educational attainment, which often translates into desirable employment), while other factors are retarding (full-time enrolment in higher education).

Compared with people in their twenties living unattached, unmarried persons in their twenties who were living at home in 1981 were more likely to live in a rural area, to have French as the home language, to have lower levels of educational attainment, to be attending school, to be unemployed or not in the labour force, and to have lower incomes. In 1981, nearly one-quarter of the young unmarried men in rural areas were residing with parents, compared with slightly over 11% of unattached men aged 20-29. For young unmarried women living at home, nearly 30% were in settings in which French was the home language, compared with slightly more than 20% of the unattached population. Over one-third of unmarried

people living with parents were attending school, in contrast to the lower school attendance of young adults living alone or with non-relatives. One-quarter of the unmarried-living-at-home population was unemployed or not in the labour force, compared with fewer than 15% of unattached individuals in their twenties. Con-

sistent with the patterns of school attendance and employment, over one-third of the unmarried men and nearly 50% of the unmarried women living with parents had incomes of less than \$5,000 in 1980. Approximately two out of ten unattached young women and men had incomes below \$5,000.



Unmarried¹ persons aged 15-34 living with parents, by sex and age, as a percentage² of unattached individuals and unmarried persons living in families, 1971-1986

	Men					Women				
	1971	1976	1981	1986	Difference 1986-81	1971	1976	1981	1986	Difference 1986-81
%										
Percentage of unmarried living with parents										
15-19	93.3	92.7	91.9	92.0	0.1	91.5	90.6	90.5	91.4	0.9
20-24	72.4	70.0	68.1	71.2	3.1	62.1	58.9	59.3	63.3	4.0
25-29	46.8	42.8	40.0	44.6	4.6	34.5	29.0	27.2	31.6	4.4
30-34	35.1	32.7	27.8	28.8	1.0	24.7	20.0	17.1	17.7	0.6
Total 15-34	78.4	75.7	71.2	69.8	-1.4	74.4	70.2	66.1	63.9	-2.2
Age profile of unmarried population living at home										
15-19	62.2	61.5	57.4	49.1	-8.3	71.9	71.0	66.2	57.5	-8.7
20-24	28.7	28.7	31.0	34.5	3.5	21.6	22.3	25.8	30.9	5.1
25-29	6.6	7.2	8.4	12.0	3.6	4.5	4.7	5.6	8.4	2.8
30-34	2.5	2.6	3.2	4.4	1.2	2.0	2.0	2.4	3.2	0.8
Total 15-34	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-

¹ Includes never married, separated, divorced, and widowed.

² The population at risk (the denominator) consists of all unattached individuals and unmarried persons in economic families. Married people are excluded.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The cluttered nest

When all factors are considered together, there was an increased tendency in the mid-1980s for young adults in their twenties who were not currently married to live continuously in their parents' homes or to return to them. The increase occurred largely between 1981 and 1986, a period that encompassed a severe economic recession and increased time spent in pursuing higher education. The percentage of people in the age group 18-24 enrolled full-time in postsecondary educa-

tion rose gradually from 19.8% in 1976-77 to 24.5% in 1985-86.

Using 1981 Census data, co-residency with parents rather than living as unattached individuals is seen to be related to low educational attainment, having French as a home language, being unemployed or not in the labour force, and with having a low income. School attendance was also an important factor. Some young adults may be effectively trapped in their parents' homes because of the high costs of establishing a separate

household, particularly in large urban areas where the costs of accommodation are conspicuously higher than average.

What the effects on family life of delayed leaving, willing or unwilling, may ultimately prove to be are unknown. These findings do raise the possibility that contemporary young adults, unlike their predecessors in the late 1970s, will spend more time in a homelife over which they exert less than full control, possibly in the process adopting their parents' behaviour patterns more thoroughly. Whether as a

Characteristics of unmarried¹ persons aged 20-29 living with parent(s) and as unattached individuals², by sex, 1981

	Unmarried living at home		Unattached individuals	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
	%			
Rural/Urban				
Rural	24.9	20.0	11.2	6.2
Urban	75.1	80.0	88.8	93.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Home language				
English	63.8	63.7	77.4	76.9
French	29.7	29.6	20.7	20.6
Other	6.5	6.7	1.9	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education				
Less than grade 9	5.9	4.2	3.3	2.2
Grades 9-13	41.6	35.7	35.5	30.6
Non-university certificate or diploma	27.7	30.8	29.4	32.7
University	24.8	29.3	31.8	34.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Attending school				
Not attending	66.0	60.9	76.1	71.0
Full-time	25.8	29.3	12.2	12.3
Part-time	8.2	9.7	11.7	16.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employment				
Employed	74.3	72.8	87.3	88.2
Unemployed	13.2	10.6	6.8	5.1
Not in the labour force	12.5	16.6	5.9	6.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Income				
Less than \$2,500	20.6	29.0	9.2	11.8
\$2,500-4,999	16.9	20.3	8.8	12.1
\$5,000-7,499	14.5	14.1	10.6	12.9
\$7,500-9,999	11.7	12.4	9.8	12.6
\$10,000-14,999	20.0	18.0	22.7	28.7
\$15,000 and over	16.3	6.2	38.9	21.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Includes never married, separated, divorced, and widowed.

² Persons living alone or with non-relatives.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

Population ever married at selected ages, 1976, 1981, 1986

Age	1976	1981	1986
	%		
19	14	11	8
21	34	29	20
26	75	71	63
31	88	86	82
36	92	91	89

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

by-product of pursuing higher education, or because of the relatively low salaries available to the young in the late 1980s, many seem destined to remain in their parents' homes considerably longer than was previously expected. This possibility could indicate a fundamental alteration in the living arrangement patterns of young Canadians relative to previous generations.

But the permanence of this trend is questionable. Continued improvement in economic conditions, were it to be passed on to young adults, might again reverse the growing tendency to stay in one's parents' home; or alternatively, higher levels of enrolment in postsecondary education for longer programs of study could reinforce the existing trend by keeping children at home for even longer periods of time.

Monica Boyd is a Professor in the Sociology and Anthropology Department at Carleton University and was a Visiting Fellow at Statistics Canada in 1987-88; **Edward T. Pryor** is Director-General of the Census and Demographic Statistics Branch, Statistics Canada.



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LOSING GROUND: WAGES OF YOUNG PEOPLE, 1981-1986

by Ted Wannell

The long-term decline in Canada's birth rate and the aging of the baby boom generation have caused several demographic shifts. One of these is the decrease of the population aged 16-24. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of Canadians in this age group dropped from 4.2 million to 3.8 million. Consequently, the share of the total population accounted for by 16-24-year-olds fell from 17.4% to 15.0%.

It might be expected that reduced labour force competition resulting from a smaller population, combined with rising educational attainment, would tend to increase youth wages. But instead, the inflation-adjusted¹ average hourly wage of young workers was considerably lower in 1986 than in the early part of the decade.

Wages of young workers falling

The average real wage of workers aged 16-24 in 1986 was down almost \$1.50 per hour, or 17%, from 1981. In 1986, people in this age bracket earned an average of \$7.23 per hour, compared with \$8.69 in 1981.

The average hourly wage of 25-34-year-olds was also lower in 1986 than in 1981, although the drop was not as sharp as that for the 16-24 age group. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wage of workers aged 25-34 slipped 5%, from \$11.88 to \$11.28.

¹ All figures in constant 1986 dollars.



In contrast, average wages for workers aged 35 and over were higher in 1986 than in 1981. The hourly wage of 35-49-year-olds went up almost 6% from \$12.62 to \$13.33, while the figure for those aged 50-64 rose 8% from \$12.03 to \$12.97.

Thus, the disparity between the average wage of younger and older workers was wider in 1986 than in 1981. As a result, in 1986, the average hourly wage of workers aged 16-24 was 63% of the national average, compared with 76% in 1981.

Most young workers affected

Average youth wages dropped for both men and women, although the decrease was somewhat greater among men than among women. From 1981 to 1986, the average hourly wage of 16-24-year-old men fell 18% from \$9.35 to \$7.70, while for women the decline was 15% from \$7.83 to \$6.67. Consequently, the wage gap between young men and women narrowed slightly. In 1986, the average hourly wage of women aged 16-24 was

87% that of men, compared with 84% in 1981.

Wage rates also declined for young workers at all levels of education. The drop, however, was somewhat smaller among those with postsecondary qualifications. The average wage of postsecondary graduates aged 16-24 fell 15% between 1981 and 1986, while the decline was 19% for those with a high school education, and 17% for those with less than Grade 12.

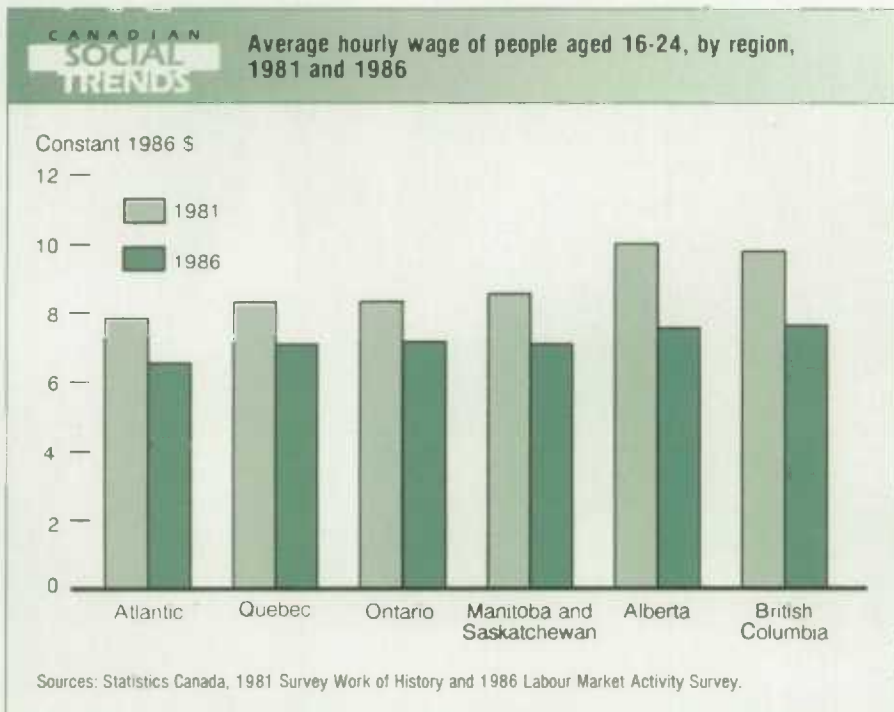
Youth wages fell in all regions. The largest declines were in Alberta and British Columbia, although wages of young people in these provinces remained the highest in the country. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wages of 16-24-year-old workers dropped 24% in Alberta and 21% in British Columbia. At the same time, young workers' wages fell 17% in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and the Atlantic provinces, and 14% in Quebec and Ontario.

Part-time work increasing

Some of the drop in youth wages is attributable to the rising incidence of part-time work. In 1986, 15% of all youth employment was part-time, up from 10% in 1981. Because part-time workers are generally paid less than their full-time counterparts, the growth of part-time work tends to reduce overall wage rates. In 1986, for example, part-time workers aged 16-24 averaged \$5.83 per hour, compared with \$7.47 for full-time workers in this age category.

Industrial restructuring

Changes in the structure of the economy also explain some of the decline in young



The data

The 1981 data are from Statistics Canada's Survey of Work History; the 1986 data are from the Labour Market Activity Survey. Both surveys collected information on the pay and hours worked in all jobs respondents held during the survey year.

The data have been calculated to reflect full-time equivalent jobs. One full-time equivalent job equals 2,080 hours or the number of hours in a 40-hour-per-week job during a year. For example, a 10-hour-per-week job held for a full year was counted as a quarter of a full-time equivalent job, while a 40-hour-per-week job lasting six months was counted as half a full-time job.

workers' wages. In the 1980s, youth employment shifted away from several high-paying industries toward those with lower wages, particularly in the service sector. Perhaps even more important, average youth wages fell in all industries.²

Between 1981 and 1986, the proportions of young workers employed in four of the five industries with the highest average wages declined. The share of full-time youth employment³ in natural resource industries, the highest-paying sector for young people, fell from 9% in 1981 to 6% in 1986. At the same time, the proportion in manufacturing dropped from 19% to 15%. There were also declines of around one percentage point in the proportion of youth employment accounted for by each of distributive and public sector service industries. The exception to this pattern was construction, the third-highest-paying sector for workers aged 16-24, where the share of youth employment rose slightly from 6% to 7%.

At the same time, there was a large increase in the proportion of youth employment in consumer services, the second-lowest-paying sector for young workers. Between 1981 and 1986, consumer services' share of youth employment rose from 26% to 36%.

In all industries, however, youth wages declined. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wage of 16-24-year-olds fell 19% in construction and 18% in natural resource industries. In addition, hourly wages of young workers decreased 15% in both agriculture and consumer services.



Declines in the remaining industries ranged from 12% in manufacturing to 7% in business services.

A legacy of the recession

To some extent, the overall drop in youth wages during the 1980s is also a lingering effect of the 1981-82 recession, which was particularly hard on young workers. For example, in 1983, unemployment among 15-24-year-olds was 22% for men and 17% for women; by contrast, for both men and women aged 25 and over, unemployment that year was just above 9%.

Although the economy subsequently recovered, unemployment remained relatively high among 15-24-year-olds. In 1986, 17% of men and 14% of women in this age range were unemployed. These rates compared with around 8% for both men and women aged 25 and over.

Moreover, the recession was the impetus behind much of the industrial and occupational redistribution of employment that put an increasing proportion of young workers in low-wage sectors. The recession also placed roadblocks in the careers of the baby boom population. In fact, youth wages had started falling in the mid-1970s when this large generation began to crowd the labour market. By slowing their advancement, the recession prolonged the labour market congestion for younger people.

On the other hand, the reduction of youth wages in this period may have helped 16-24-year-olds get jobs more quickly than if wages had not declined. By 1988, youth unemployment in Canada had dropped to pre-recession levels, unlike the situation in some Western European economies, where the wages of young people did not fall.

Proportion of full-time employment and average hourly wages of people aged 16-24, by industry, 1981 and 1986

	Distribution of full-time jobs		Average hourly wage	
	1981	1986	1981	1986
	%		Constant 1986 \$	
Natural resources	9.3	5.6	11.47	9.42
Distributive services	10.2	9.3	9.41	8.54
Construction	6.4	7.3	10.54	8.52
Public sector services	14.7	14.1	9.38	8.33
Manufacturing	19.4	15.2	9.08	7.97
Business services	10.7	9.8	8.45	7.84
Consumer services	26.4	35.7	7.26	6.20
Agriculture	2.8	3.0	6.14	5.22
Total	100.0	100.0	8.86	7.47

Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981 Survey of Work History and 1986 Labour Market Activity Survey.

² For more detail on the relative effects of shifts in employment patterns between industries and wage changes within industries, including the methodology used, see Myles, J., Picot, G., and Wannell, T., *Wages and Jobs in the 1980s: Changing Youth Wages and the Declining Middle*. Statistics Canada, Analytic Studies Branch, Research Paper #17.

³ This section includes only full-time jobs.

Ted Wannell is a research analyst with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada.

MARRYING AND DIVORCING: A STATUS REPORT FOR CANADA

by Owen Adams and Dhruva Nagnur

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, patterns of marriage and divorce in Canada have changed. During this period, the number of marriages has declined, while the number of divorces has risen. In addition, Canadians are now older when they first marry and are less likely to remarry after divorce or widowhood. As well, the tendency to live common-law is increasing. In 1986, for example, 8% of all people in couples were in common-law relationships.¹

As a result of these trends, Canadians now spend a smaller proportion of their lives in a marriage than was the case just a decade ago. The vast majority of adults, however, still marry and most Canadians continue to live in some kind of family setting.

¹ People living common-law were not included among those who were married.



Fewer, later marriages

Generally, Canadians are waiting longer before they marry. In 1986, the average age at first marriage was 28 years for men and 26 years for women. For both, this was an increase of 3 years since the early 1970s.

In addition, a growing proportion of Canadians never marry. An analysis completed in 1985 suggested that, at that time, 17% of men and 14% of women would never marry. These figures were up from

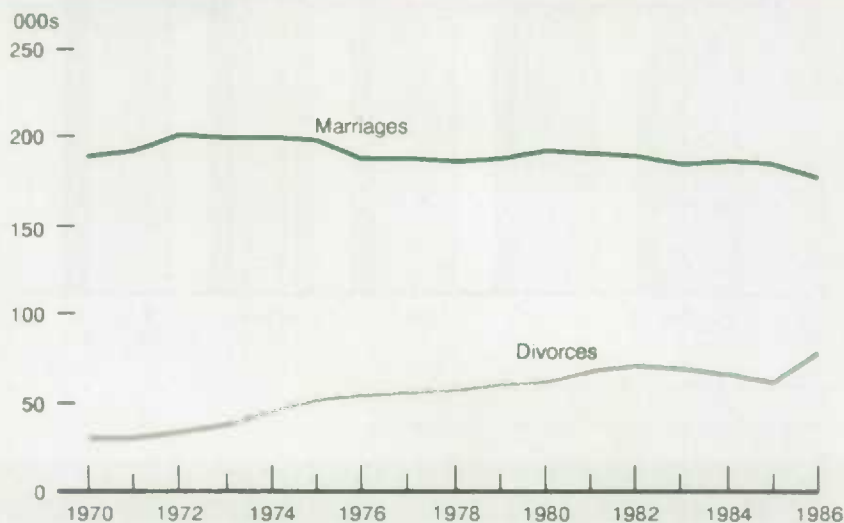
10% and 8%, respectively, in 1971.

Nonetheless, the vast majority of Canadians still get married. It was projected in 1985 that about 85% of the population would marry sometime during their lives; this was down, however, from 91% in 1971.

Overall, the annual number of marriages fell from 200,000 in 1972 to 176,000 in 1986. This decline occurred despite the coming of age of the postwar baby boom generation.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

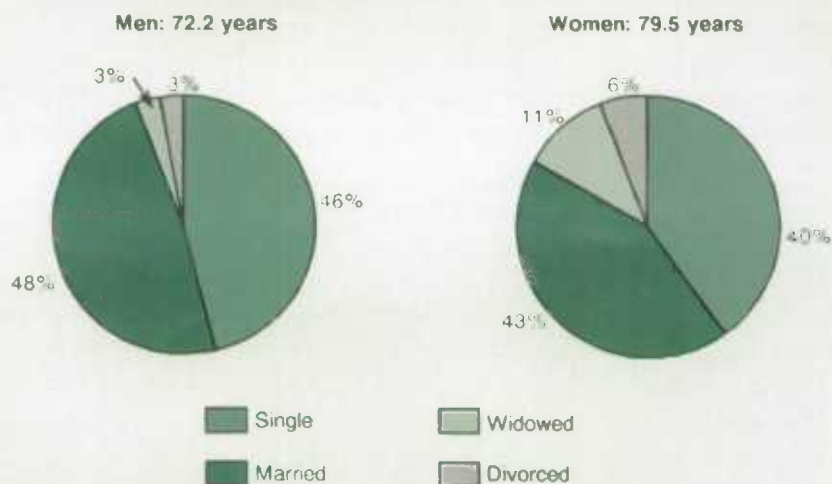
Marriages and divorces, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of total life spent in different marital statuses, by sex, 1984-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.

As well, marriages do not last as long as they did in the past. In 1985, the average length of marriage was 31 years, down from 35 years in 1971.

When second and subsequent marriages are included, Canadians spend about 45%

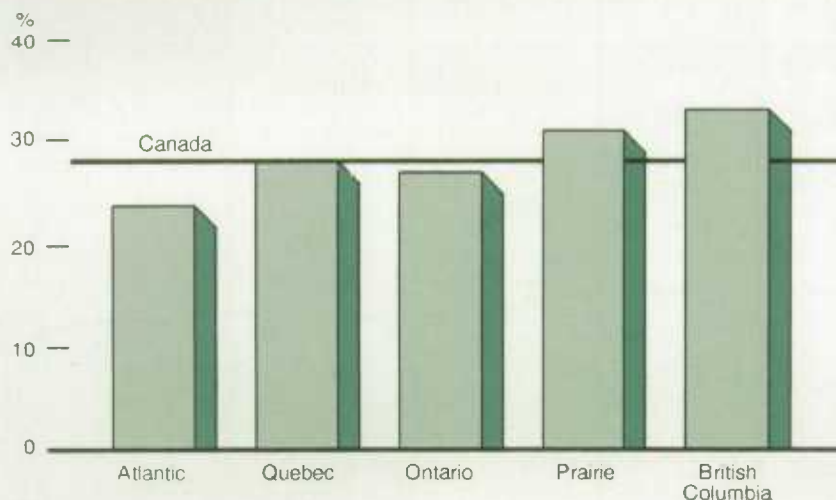
of their lives in a marital relationship, a drop from an estimated 55% in the early 1970s.

The average proportion of life spent married differs for men and women. Men can expect to be married for close to half

(48%) their lives, compared with 43% for women. This discrepancy occurs largely because women tend to outlive men by a considerable margin, and as a result, spend more years alone after their husbands have died.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of marriages ending in divorce, by region, 1984-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.



Marriage and divorce in Canada and the United States

Although Canada and the United States share many cultural influences, marriage and divorce statistics in the two countries differ significantly. While roughly the same percentage of Canadians and Americans marry, a much higher proportion of American marriages, 44% compared with 28% in Canada, end in divorce. As well, the average length of marriage in the

United States is 24 years compared with 31 years in Canada.

Nevertheless, Americans can expect to live in a marriage almost as long as Canadians, although they will marry more often to do so. Remarriage rates for both men and women are higher in the United States than in Canada.

Divorce and remarriage

Although marriage has traditionally been perceived as a lifelong commitment, a growing proportion of married couples divorce. In 1971, about one in five marriages was expected to end in divorce; by the mid-1980s, this figure was nearly one in three. In 1986, there were over 78,000 divorces in Canada, up from 30,000 in 1971.

Although divorce is more frequent than in the past, many divorced people remarry. In 1985, for example, at least one partner in 27% of all marriages was divorced.

However, remarriage after divorce is now less likely than in the early 1970s. An estimated 76% of divorced men in 1985 could expect to remarry, down from 85% in 1971. For women, the figure fell from 79% to 64% in the same period.

The increasing proportion of marriages ending in divorce and the decline in the likelihood of remarriage mean that people spend more years divorced. It was estimated in the mid-1980s that women would be divorced for an average of 5 years and men for 3 years. For both, the estimated average length of divorce has increased since 1971, when the figures were just over 2 years for women and 1 year for men.

Till death do us part

While 30% of couples eventually divorce, 70% remain married until one partner dies. Given that women are usually younger than their husbands and because women's life expectancy is longer than that for men, it is the husbands that most often die first. As a result, women tend to be widowed for considerably longer periods than men. As of 1985, women spent an average of 8 years, or 11% of their lives widowed compared to an average of just 2 years, or 3% of their lives, for men.

Both widows and widowers are now less likely to remarry than in the past. In 1985, 5% of widows could expect to remarry, compared with 9% in 1971. For widowers, the corresponding proportions were 14% in 1985 and 24% in 1971.

Moreover, widows and widowers who remarry tend to be relatively young. On average, widows who remarry are 11 years younger than all widows, while for widowers the difference is 9 years.

Marriage and divorce trends in Canada (1984-1986) and the United States (1983)

	Men		Women	
	Canada	United States	Canada	United States
	%			
Population ever marrying	83	84	86	88
Marriages ending in divorce	28	44	28	44
Widowed persons remarrying	14	19	5	7
Divorced persons remarrying	76	85	64	76

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.

Regional variations

Trends in marriage, divorce, and remarriage are fairly uniform across the country, although there are some notable exceptions. In particular, there are several sharp differences between Quebec and the rest of Canada. For example, while an estimated 15% of all Canadians will never marry, the figure exceeds 23% in Quebec. As well, Quebec residents tend to wait longer than people in the rest of the country before marrying; both men and women remain single nearly five years longer in Quebec than in any other region.

As well, people in Quebec are considerably less likely to remarry after divorce than are residents of other regions. For Quebec, 62% of divorced men and 47% of divorced women could expect to remarry, whereas the figures for Canada overall were 76% for men and 64% for women.

The incidence of divorce also varies by region. Estimates of the proportion of marriages that would end in divorce ranged from fewer than a quarter in the Atlantic provinces to almost a third in British Columbia.

Both authors work at Statistics Canada. Owen Adams is a senior analyst with the Health Division, and Dhruva Nagnur is a senior demographer with the Social and Economic Studies Division.

• More information on this topic is available from Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536, *Marriage, Divorce and Mortality*.

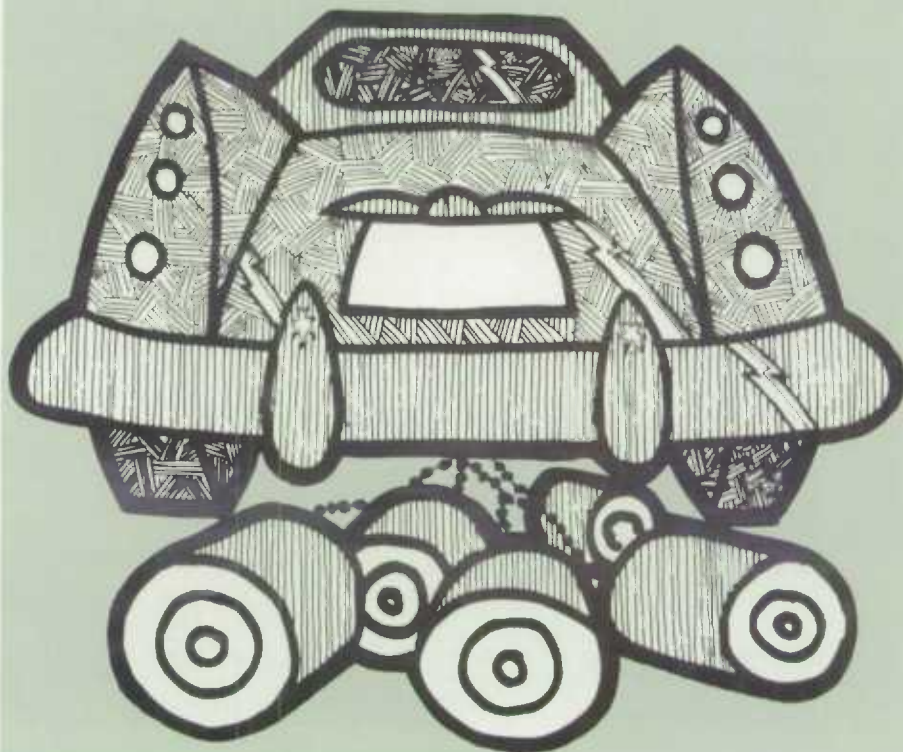
HERE'S THE BEST WAY TO LOOK AT

Vital Stats

IT'S CALLED MARRIAGE, DIVORCE AND MORTALITY: A LIFE TABLE ANALYSIS FOR CANADA AND REGIONS.

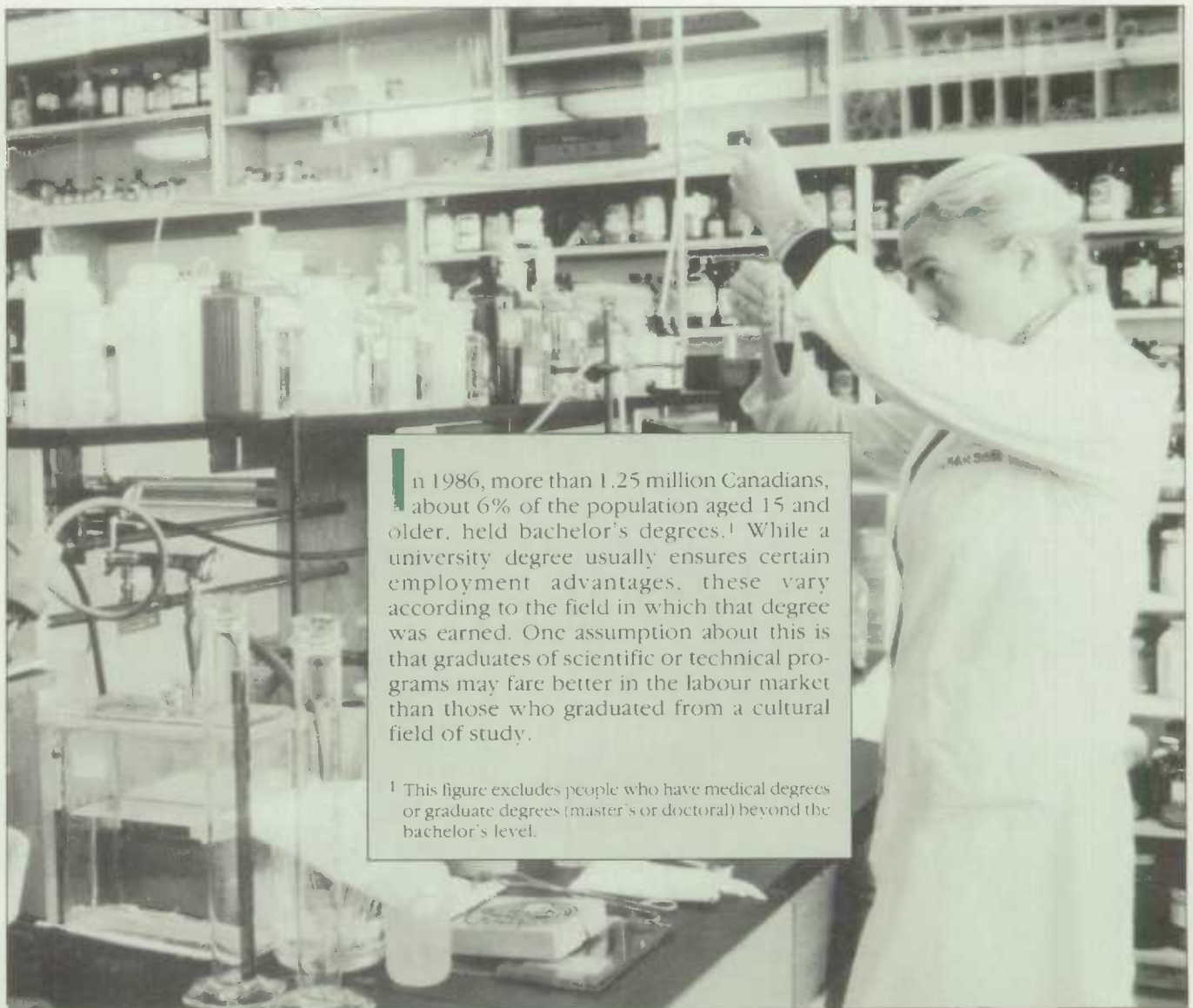
Inside you'll find the methods used to construct marital status life tables fully explained. And the tables themselves will allow actuaries, demographers and social scientists to put life table techniques to work to answer questions such as ☐ *What are the chances that a single man or woman will marry sometime during their life?* ☐ *that those who marry will eventually get divorced?* ☐ *that those who divorced or widowed will eventually remarry?* ☐ We've also included a summary text, backed up with charts and tables showing ☐ Canadian trends since the early '70s ☐ provincial/regional comparisons ☐ international comparisons among eight nations including the U.S., France, Sweden and Japan

Marriage, Divorce and Mortality, Catalogue No. 84-536 is available for \$35 per copy (in Canada), \$36 per copy (other countries) and can be ordered by writing or mailing the enclosed order form to ☐ Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6 ☐ For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call 1-800-267-6677 ☐ All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications. For more information about other Statistics Canada publications, contact a Regional Office near you.



EMPLOYMENT OF HUMANITIES AND SCIENCE GRADUATES

by Glenn Wheeler



In 1986, more than 1.25 million Canadians, about 6% of the population aged 15 and older, held bachelor's degrees.¹ While a university degree usually ensures certain employment advantages, these vary according to the field in which that degree was earned. One assumption about this is that graduates of scientific or technical programs may fare better in the labour market than those who graduated from a cultural field of study.

¹ This figure excludes people who have medical degrees or graduate degrees (master's or doctoral) beyond the bachelor's level.

This is confirmed when employment outcomes for bachelor's degree-holders in mathematics/physical science² (a relatively technical group of disciplines) are compared with outcomes for graduates in the humanities³ (disciplines that tend to be more cultural).

Data from the 1986 Census show that mathematics/physical science graduates were generally more likely to be employed, and had higher earnings than humanities graduates. However, bachelor's degree-holders in both humanities and science had better employment outcomes than did the population as a whole.

High employment rate for science graduates

Overall, in 1986, the proportion of people with bachelor's degrees in mathematics/physical science who were employed was higher than the corresponding proportion of humanities graduates.

Among men, 90% of science graduates aged 25-34 were employed, compared with 87% of humanities graduates in the same age group. The corresponding figures for men aged 35-44 and 45-54 were

higher, but the gap persisted: 95% of science graduates and 92% of those with humanities degrees were employed.

The pattern was similar among women under age 45, as the proportion of science graduates with jobs exceeded the corresponding proportion of humanities graduates. However, at ages 45-54, the trend reversed, and the employment level of women with humanities degrees (76%) was above that of science graduates (73%).

Nonetheless, employment levels among people with bachelor's degrees in either science or humanities were substantially above those of the total population. For instance, in 1986, 81% of humanities and 87% of science graduates aged 25-34 were employed, compared with 75% of all 25-34-year-olds.

Lower unemployment among science graduates

Science bachelor's degree-holders also tended to have lower unemployment rates than did humanities graduates.

In 1986, 6.2% of male science graduates aged 25-34 were unemployed, compared with 8.2% of humanities graduates. Unemployment rates dropped at older ages, but the difference remained, with lower rates among science than among humanities degree-holders.

As well, among women younger than 45, unemployment was lower for those with science degrees than for humanities degree-holders. This pattern did not hold at ages 45-54, as female science graduates had a higher unemployment rate than did

Recent graduates

In 1987, about 11,000 people graduated from Canada's universities with a bachelor's degree in the humanities, and another 7,600 earned a degree in mathematics/physical science. Since 1980, however, the number of mathematics/physical science graduates increased much faster (up 75%) than did the number of people earning bachelor's degrees in the humanities (up 17%). As a result, although humanities graduates still outnumbered science degree recipients, the latter accounted for a larger proportion of all bachelor's degree graduates in 1987 than they did in 1980: 7% compared with 5%. At the same time, the proportion of humanities graduates remained almost constant at close to 11%.

In both 1980 and 1987, the majority of mathematics/physical science graduates were men, while the majority in humanities were women. Women made up 28% of people who received bachelor's degrees in mathematics/physical science in 1987, the same proportion as in 1980. In humanities, however, women's representation increased from 60% of all graduates in 1980 to 63% in 1987.

² Includes mathematics, actuarial science, applied mathematics, mathematical statistics, chemistry, geology, metallurgy and materials science, meteorology, oceanography and marine sciences, physics, and general science.

³ Includes history, English language and literature, French language and literature, philosophy, religious studies, mass media studies, library and records science, classics, and other humanities.

Percentage of science and humanities bachelor's degree-holders employed, compared with total population, by age and sex, 1986

Age and sex	Degree-holders in		Total population
	Mathematics/ physical science	Humanities	
		%	
25-34			
Men	90.3	87.2	85.8
Women	80.4	76.1	65.4
Total	87.2	80.6	75.5
35-44			
Men	94.7	91.6	88.7
Women	77.0	75.1	65.9
Total	90.2	82.5	77.3
45-54			
Men	94.8	92.5	85.8
Women	73.0	76.3	57.6
Total	90.1	84.0	71.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.



women with humanities degrees: 6.0% compared with 4.0%.

At all ages, however, unemployment was less prevalent among both humanities and science graduates than in the labour force as a whole. For example, while 6.5% of people aged 25-34 with science degrees and 8.5% of those with humanities degrees were unemployed in 1986, the figure for all 25-34-year-olds was 10.3%. Unemployment rates were lower at older ages, but the disparity persisted.

Science graduates earn more

The employment income of science graduates who worked full-time all year was higher than that of humanities graduates.

Average 1985 earnings of men aged 25-34 with bachelor's degrees in the humanities (\$28,300) were 82% of what their contemporaries with science degrees (\$34,700) earned. The difference was slightly less at ages 35-44, with humanities graduates earning \$37,700 or 86% of the \$44,000 earned by men with science

degrees. However, at ages 45-54 the gap widened: humanities graduates earned just 80% of what men with science degrees did—\$40,100 compared with \$50,400.

The earnings' discrepancy was not as great among women as among men. Average 1985 earnings of women aged 25-34 with a bachelor's degree in the humanities were 84% of those of women with science degrees: \$24,500 compared with \$29,200. For women over age 35, the gap closed considerably. Female humanities graduates aged 35-44 averaged \$31,600 or 94% of the \$33,500 earned by science graduates. At ages 45-54, humanities graduates averaged \$32,400 or 95% of what science graduates were earning (\$34,100).

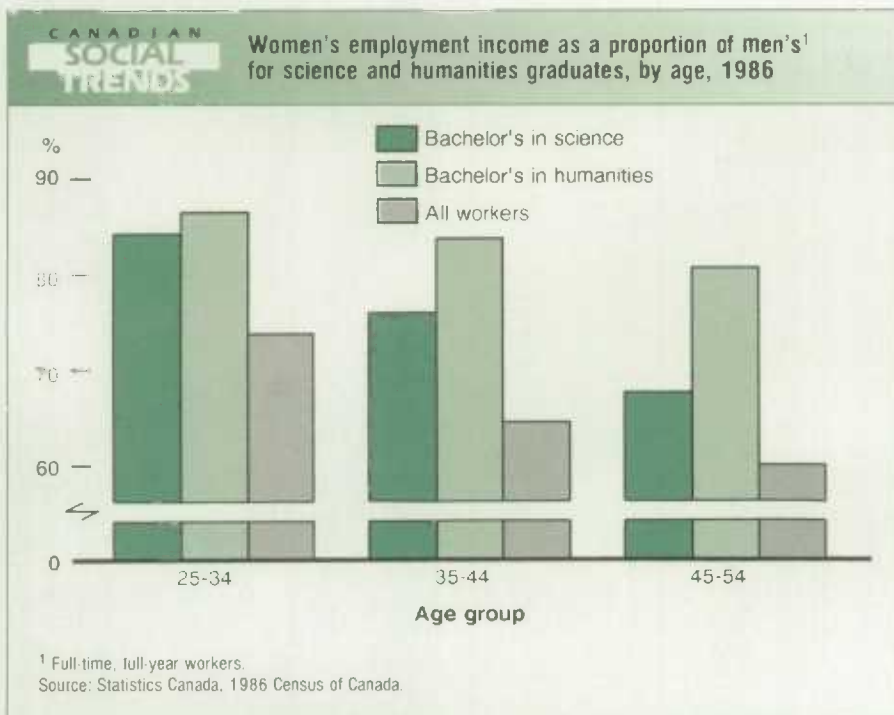
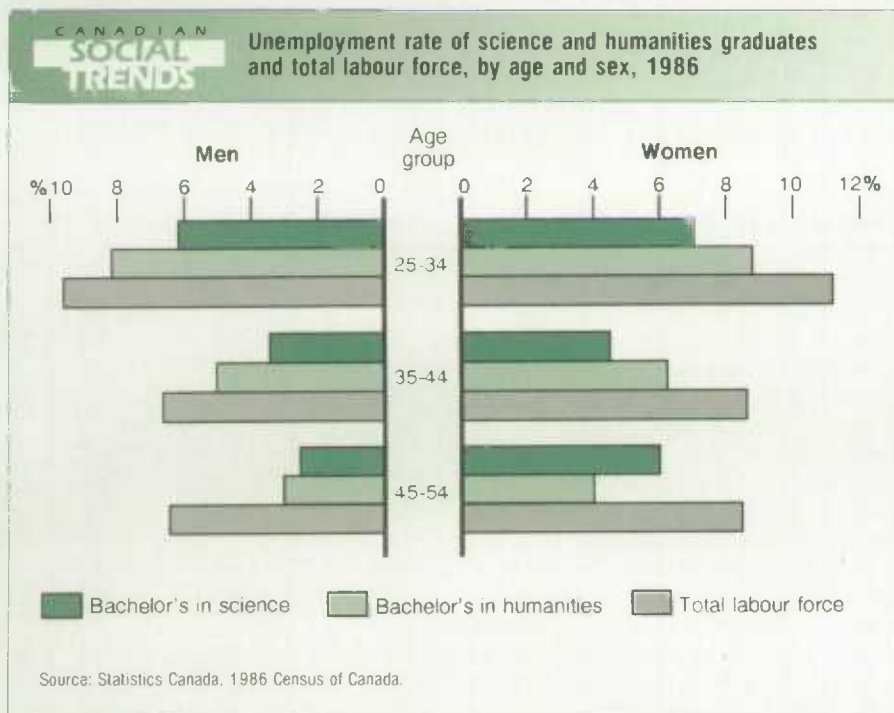
Smaller earnings gap in humanities

While men in both fields of study earned considerably more than women, the difference was less pronounced among humanities graduates than among science degree-holders.

The earned income of women aged 25-34 with bachelor's degrees in humanities was 87% of that of their male counterparts; for women of the same age with science degrees, the figure was 84%. By ages 45-54, women with humanities degrees earned 81% of what comparable men were earning, but for science graduates, women's earnings amounted to only 68% of those of men.

Nonetheless, earnings of women with bachelor's degrees in either humanities or science were still closer to comparable men's earnings than was the case for all full-time year-round workers. At ages 25-34, all women working full-time year-round earned 74% of what men of the same age were earning; by ages 45-54, women's earnings averaged just 60% of those of men.

Glenn Wheeler is a research assistant with Canadian Social Trends.



SOCIAL INDICATORS

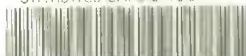
	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,912.8
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.2
Immigration ¹	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898
Emigration ¹	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003
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)	693	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789
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 \$	38,533	36,974	36,344	36,335	37,737	38,472	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 (1988 \$000,000)	29,996.8	30,132.0	30,674.2	30,194.6	32,400.6	31,499.7	32,106.3	31,773.7
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	19.7	*
- women	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	5.4	*
% 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 (1988 \$000,000)	27,054.2	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,866.4	32,625.4	33,889.1	35,217.6
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	2.2 ^p
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1988 \$000,000)	126,645.4	135,492.6	141,944.0	143,616.2	150,843.4	152,381.7	155,112.3	156,793.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	58.9	59.2
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.7	27.0	26.2
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0
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	2,835.1
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 \$) - annual % change	+3.7	-3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0	+4.4
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.

Correction: Spring 1989 Issue (p. 31) - Social Indicators, Income section, Median family income line was reported incorrectly in current dollars and not in 1987 constant dollars.



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Correction: Winter 1988 Issue (p. 15) - Glossary of terms. Clarification of the term "Indian Register" is as follows:

Since April 17, 1985 a non-Indian woman who marries an Indian man does not automatically gain Indian status and, conversely, an Indian woman who marries a non-Indian man does not lose her status. However, the children of such marriages are entitled to be registered as Indians under the new legislation (Bill C-31).

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