

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS

No. 14 - AUTUMN 1989

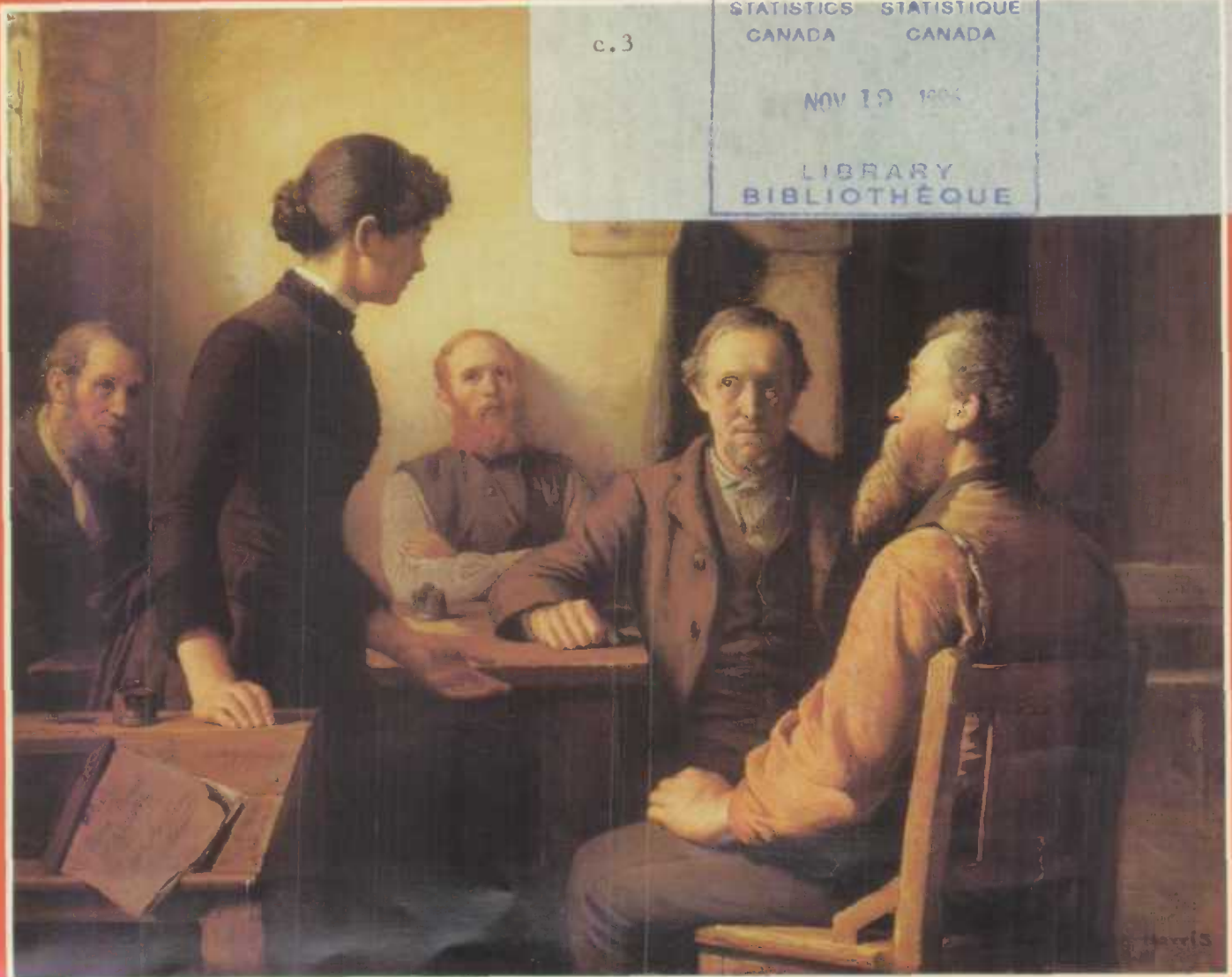
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Cover: A Meeting of the School Trustees (1885)
oil on canvas, 102.2 x 126.5 cm. Collection:
National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Robert Harris was born in Wales in 1849 and moved to Canada at an early age. As a teenager, Mr. Harris worked as a land surveyor and taught himself to draw and paint. At age 23, he commenced formal art training in Halifax, and later continued his studies in Boston, London, and Paris. In 1883, the Dominion Government commissioned him to paint the Fathers of Confederation. The painting was lost in the fire that destroyed most of the Parliament Buildings a few years later. Later in life, failing eyesight limited his drawing and painting activity. Mr. Harris died in Montreal in 1919.

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Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Ove Design Group Inc.
Illustrations and Photos	Cattroll/Ritcey Photo Associates; Health & Welfare Canada; Photo Centre, SSC; Albert Prisner; Image Bank
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
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Immigrants have always made up an important component of the Canadian population with each successive wave of immigrants leaving its own distinct mark on Canadian society. Over the years, they have provided labour, capital, and creativity for the development of the country. In addition, the importance of the immigrant population may grow in the future if the fertility rate in Canada continues to fall.

The share of the population made up of immigrants has remained relatively stable during the last several decades. Changes have occurred, however, in the numbers coming from different parts of the world. As well, because immigrants tend to settle in certain regions, their influence is felt unevenly across the country.



Overall, in 1986, 3.9 million immigrants were living in Canada.¹ They represented 16% of the total population, about the same proportion recorded in each census since 1951.

The relative stability in the immigrant component of the population in the last three decades represents a change from the first half of the century when the figure fluctuated. In 1901, for example, just 13% of the population were immigrants. However, as a result of the large influx of people into the country in the early 1900s, immigrants' share of the population jumped to 22% by 1911, and remained at that level through the 1931 census period.

When they arrived; where they come from

Canada's immigrant population is split evenly between those who arrived before and after 1967. Half (50%) of all immigrants living in Canada in 1986 arrived before 1967, while 31% came between 1967 and 1977, and 19% arrived during the last decade.

There have been major changes, though, in the distribution of immigrants from different parts of the globe. In particular, the proportions originating in Asia and other non-European areas has increased, while the share from Europe has declined.

People born in Asia make up the largest group of recent arrivals, accounting for 40% of all immigrants living in Canada who came to this country between 1978 and 1986. In contrast, Asians represented only 11% of those who arrived before 1978.

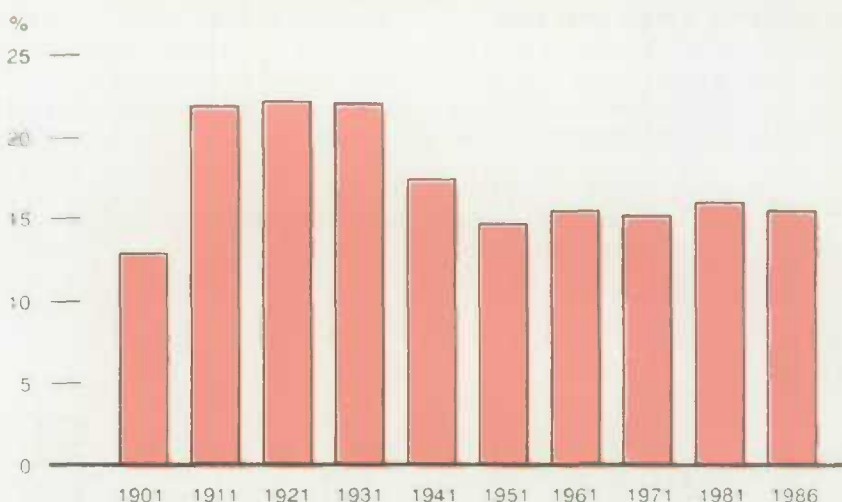
There were also substantial increases in the proportion of immigrants from several other non-European areas. For example, people from the Caribbean, and Central and South America made up 15% of immigrants living in Canada in 1986 who arrived in the last decade, whereas they represented only 7% of those who came before 1978. Similarly, the proportion of the immigrant population from Africa and the Middle East rose from 4% of pre-1978 arrivals to 8% of those who arrived between 1978 and 1986.

At the same time, the proportion of all immigrants who were born in Europe fell from 70% of those who arrived before 1978 to fewer than 30% of those who came during the last decade.

Europeans, though, still made up the largest share of all immigrants living in Canada in 1986, accounting for 10% of the total Canadian population. Immigrants from Asia represented another 3% of all Canadians, while people born in the Caribbean and Central and South America,

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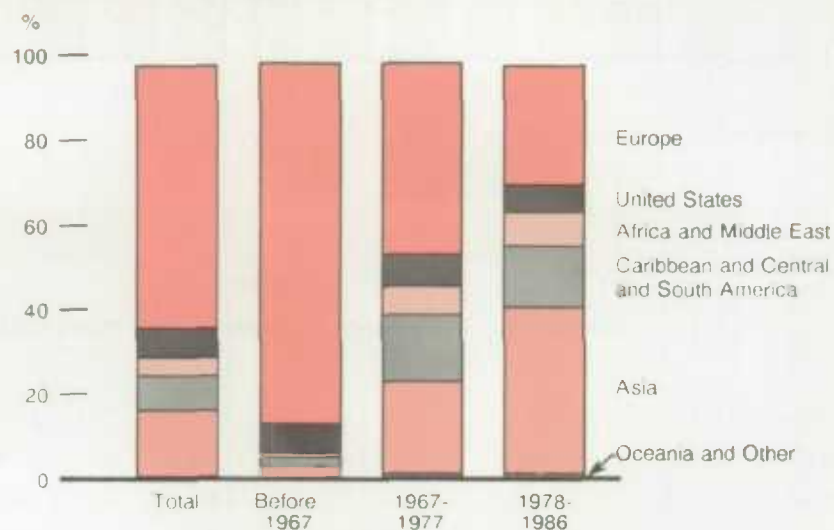
Immigrants as a percentage of total population, 1901-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

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Immigrant population, by place of birth and period of immigration, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Africa and the Middle East, and the United States each accounted for about 1% of the overall population.

Provincial concentration

Over the years, immigrants have tended to settle in certain regions of the country. For example, in 1986, over nine out of ten immigrants lived in just four provinces: Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia, and Alberta.

There were particularly large concentrations of immigrants in Ontario and British Columbia; in each province, immigrants made up close to one of every four residents in 1986. Immigrants also made up 16% of the population in Alberta and 14% in Manitoba.

¹ The data in this article refer to the number of immigrants living in Canada at the time of the 1986 Census.

On the other hand, immigrants comprised only 8% of the population in Quebec, 7% in Saskatchewan, and fewer than 5% in each of the Atlantic provinces.

Most immigrants in major urban areas

Immigrants are also more likely than the overall population to live in large cities. While fewer than one-third of all Canadians lived in Toronto, Montreal, or Van-

couver in 1986, more than half the immigrant population lived in one of these areas. In fact, almost a third (32%) of all immigrants lived in the Toronto metropolitan area.

Toronto had the largest immigrant population of any metropolitan area. In 1986, 36% of people living in Toronto were immigrants. Immigrants also made up almost 30% of Vancouver residents.

There were also relatively large immigrant populations in most major urban areas in southern Ontario and the Western provinces. On the other hand, immigrants generally made up smaller proportions of the population in cities in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces.

An older population

The age composition of the immigrant population differs markedly from that of non-immigrants. Specifically, the immigrant group has both a higher proportion of older people and a lower proportion of children than non-immigrants.

In 1986, 17% of immigrants, compared with 9% of non-immigrants, were aged 65 and over. The situation was reversed at the other end of the age scale where only 5% of immigrants, but 25% of non-immigrants, were younger than age 15.

More with university degrees

Immigrants are more likely than non-immigrants to have a university education. In 1986, 12% of immigrants aged 15 and over had a university degree, compared with 9% of non-immigrant adults.

At the same time, a greater proportion of immigrants had less than Grade 9 education. Nearly one-quarter (23%) of immigrants aged 15 and over living in Canada in 1986 had less than Grade 9, compared with 16% of non-immigrants.

Immigrant women were particularly likely to have relatively little formal education. Over a quarter (26%) of these women had less than Grade 9, compared with 16% of non-immigrant women and 20% of immigrant men.

Low levels of schooling were most common among immigrant women who came to Canada before 1967; almost a third (32%) of them had less than Grade 9.

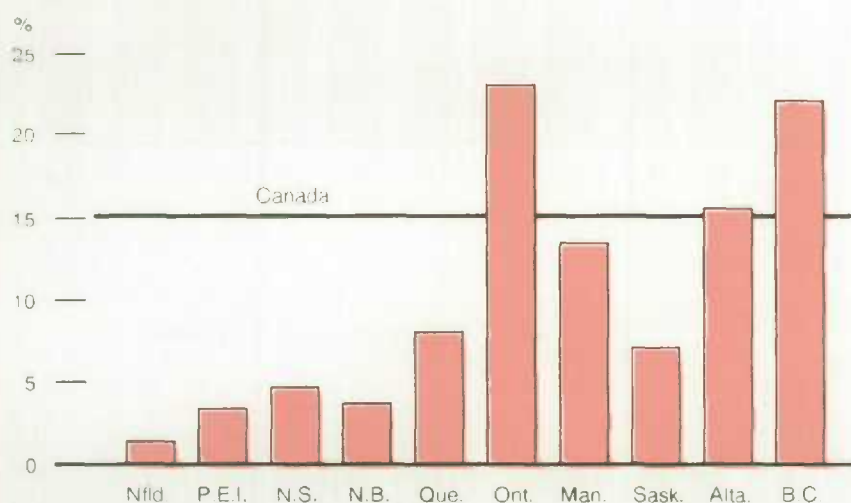
Immigrants in the labour force

Overall, immigrants are somewhat less likely than non-immigrants to participate in the labour force. In 1986, 76.4% of all immigrant men, compared with 77.7% of non-immigrant men, were in the labour force. Immigrant women also had a lower overall participation rate than non-immigrant women: 53.5% compared with 56.5%.

However, the labour force participation of immigrants varies considerably depending on their age and length of residence in Canada. For example, among people aged 25-44, immigrants had a slightly higher labour force participation rate than

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Immigrants as a percentage of provincial populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Occupational distribution of immigrants and non-immigrants, by sex, 1986

	Men		Women	
	Immigrants	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Non-immigrants
	%			
Professional	16.1	12.4	18.9	21.3
Managerial	13.5	12.4	7.5	7.8
Clerical	5.9	7.0	28.2	34.7
Sales	7.4	9.1	8.5	9.6
Service	11.6	9.9	17.5	15.8
Primary	3.9	8.8	2.2	2.6
Processing	10.0	7.8	3.1	2.2
Product fabricating	12.4	9.4	10.1	2.9
Construction	10.0	10.1	0.3	0.3
Other	9.3	13.1	3.7	2.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

During the 1980s, the annual volume of immigration to Canada has fluctuated. The total number of immigrants fell from around 140,000 in 1980 to just over 84,000 in 1985, the lowest annual figure since the early 1960s. However, the number rose in each of the next three years, bringing the 1988 total to over 150,000, the highest level in more than a decade.

The largest group of 1988 immigrants (42%) came from Asia. Europe accounted for another 23%, while 14% came from North and Central America, 9% from the Caribbean, 7% from South America, and 5% from Africa.

During the 1980s, the proportion of immigrants claiming refugee status has generally been less than 20%. For example, in 1988, the figure was 17%.



non-immigrants. In 1986, 95.3% of immigrant men in this age group were in the labour force, compared with 94.8% for non-immigrant men. The rate for immigrant women in this age range was 75.1%, compared with 72.6% for non-immigrants.

Labour force participation rates of immigrants tend to increase with the length of residence in Canada. Of immigrant men aged 25-44, 96.3% of those who arrived more than 20 years ago were in the labour force, compared with just 87.1% of those who had lived in Canada three years or less. This trend was similar for immigrant women.

A different occupational profile

The occupational distribution of immigrants is different from that of non-immigrants.

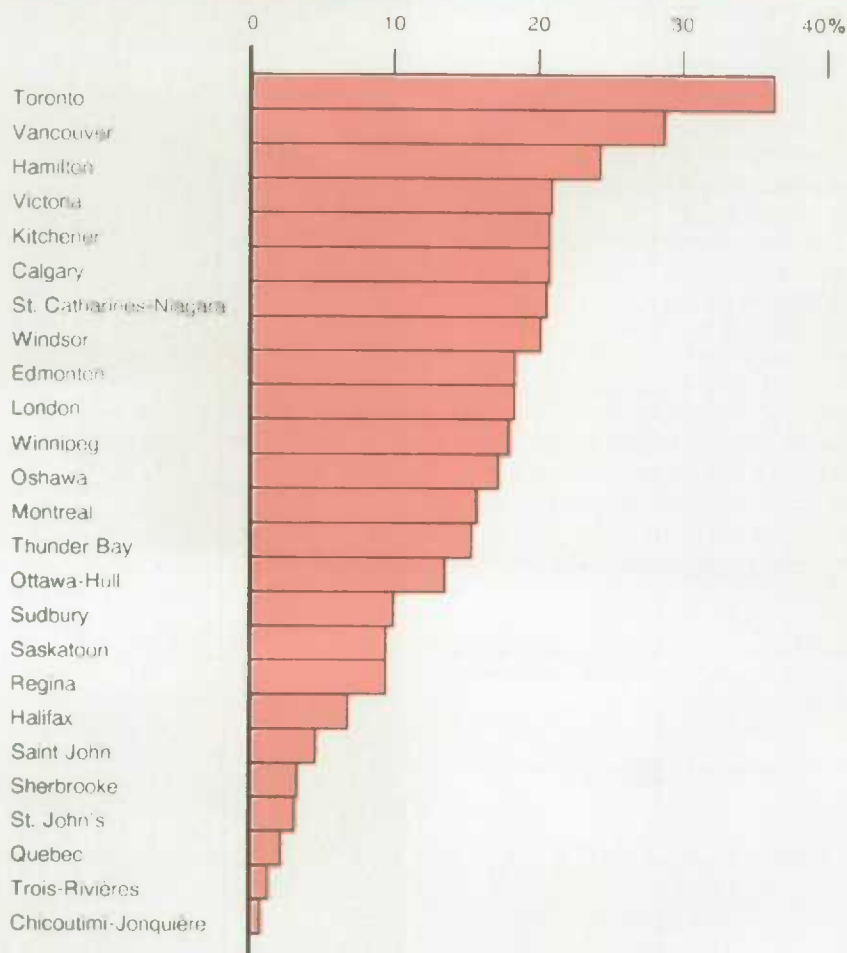
Among men, the largest difference is in professional occupations. In 1986, 16% of immigrant men, compared with 12% of non-immigrant men, worked in professional jobs.

Immigrant men were also more likely than non-immigrants to be employed in managerial, product fabricating, processing, and service positions. On the other hand, comparatively few immigrant men worked in primary, clerical, or sales occupations.

There are also differences in the occupational distribution of immigrant and non-immigrant women. Immigrant women were three times more likely than their

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Immigrants as a percentage of metropolitan populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

non-immigrant counterparts to be employed in product fabricating, mainly as garment workers and sewing machine operators. In 1986, 10% of immigrant women, compared with 3% of non-immigrants, were employed in these occupations.

Immigrant women were also more likely than non-immigrants to work in service occupations, while they were less likely to be employed in clerical, sales, or professional positions.

Employment income

Generally, immigrant men earn more than comparable non-immigrants, whereas the opposite is true for women. The average earned income of immigrant men who worked full time in 1985 was \$31,800, compared with \$30,200 for non-immigrant men. On the other hand, immigrant women working full time earned only \$19,700, compared with \$20,100 for similar non-immigrant women.

The trend was similar for those in the prime working ages. Immigrant men aged 25-44 employed full time in 1985 had an average employment income of \$31,700, compared with \$30,500 for non-immigrants. At the same time, immigrant women earned an average of \$20,400 compared with \$21,300 for non-immigrant women.

The income earned by immigrants varies according to their length of residence in Canada. For instance, men aged 25-44 who arrived before 1967 earned an average of \$34,100 in 1985; this compared with an average of \$22,900 earned by men who came to Canada between 1983 and 1986. Among women aged 25-44, those who immigrated before 1967 earned an average of \$22,100 in 1985, compared with only \$14,000 for those who had been in Canada three years or less.

Jane Badets is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



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SOUTH ASIANS IN CANADA

by Pamela M. White and Atul Nanda

People who trace their ethnic origin to countries such as India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Bangladesh account for a small but significant proportion of Canada's population. In 1986, these people, collectively identified as South Asians, numbered just over 314,000, and they made up 1.3% of the total Canadian population.

Most South Asians immigrants

The majority of Canada's South Asian community are immigrants. Over seven out of ten (71%) South Asians living in Canada in 1986 were foreign-born. The remaining 29% were born in Canada, the descendants of South Asian immigrants.

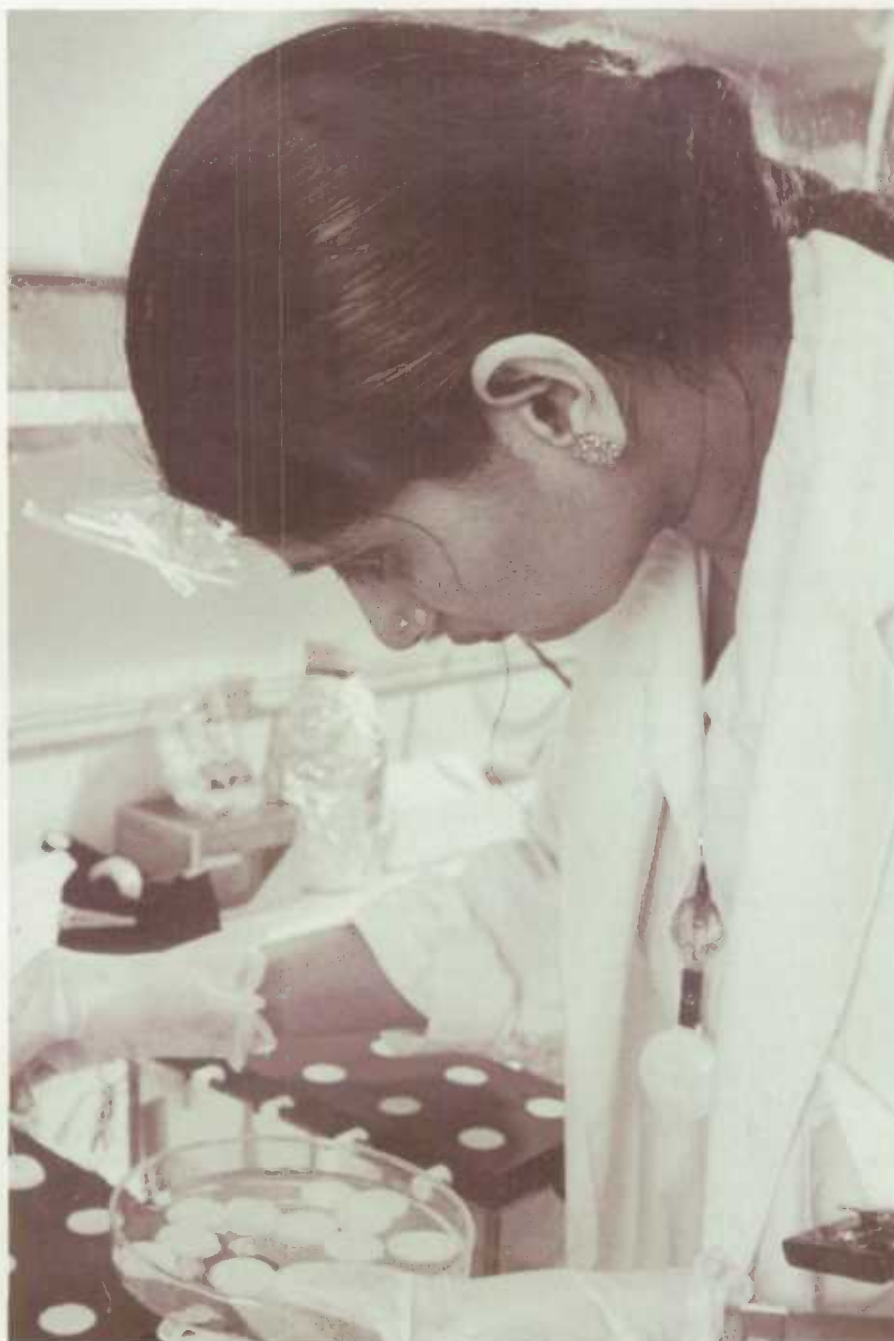
As well, most South Asian immigrants came to Canada in the last two decades. Of those living in Canada in 1986, 94% arrived after 1966; in comparison, only about half of all other immigrants arrived during the last two decades. As a result, South Asians made up 10% of all immigrants who arrived in Canada in the 1967-1986 period. In contrast, only 1% of the immigrant population which arrived before 1967 were South Asians.

The majority of South Asian immigrants have taken out Canadian citizenship. By 1986, 78% of all foreign-born South Asians who had been in Canada for more than three years were Canadian citizens.

Geographic concentration

The South Asian population tends to be concentrated in certain areas of the country. In 1986, 88% of all South Asians lived in just three provinces: the majority (51%) were in Ontario, while British Columbia was home to 25%, and 11% lived in Alberta.

As a result, South Asians made up 2.7% of the population in British Columbia, 1.8% in Ontario, and 1.5% in Alberta. In each of the remaining provinces, South



Asians represented less than 1% of the population.

South Asians also tend to live in major urban centres. Close to three-quarters of those in Ontario were in the metropolitan Toronto area, while 66% of British Columbia's South Asian population lived in Vancouver. As a result, South Asians made up 3.9% of the population in Vancouver and 3.8% in Toronto. They also made up 2.4% of people in Calgary and 2.1% in Edmonton.

South Asians were less well-represented in other major urban areas. In fact, their share of the population was either greater than or equal to the national average (1.3%) in only three other metropolitan areas: Kitchener (1.6%), Victoria (1.4%), and Winnipeg (1.3%).

A young population

The South Asian community is somewhat younger than the overall Canadian population. Because most South Asians immigrated to Canada as young adults after 1966, there is as yet no large elderly South Asian population. While the elderly constituted 10% of Canada's total population in 1986, just 3% of South Asians were aged 65 and over.

On the other hand, children make up a relatively large proportion of the South Asian population. In 1986, 30% of South Asians, compared with 22% of all Canadians, were younger than age 15.

A well-educated group

Canada's South Asians generally have higher levels of formal education than the overall population. This is partly attributable to Canadian immigration policy, which favours highly qualified applicants.

In 1986, 21% of South Asians aged 15 and over, compared with 10% of adult Canadians, were university graduates. At the same time, just 13% of South Asian adults, compared with 17% of the total adult population, had less than a Grade 9 education.

There are, however, considerable differences between the educational attainment of South Asian men and women. For example, while 25% of South Asian men were university graduates, the proportion among South Asian women was 17%. Nonetheless, both South Asian men and women were more than twice as likely as comparable Canadians to have a university degree. The corresponding figures for the Canadian population overall were 11% for men and 8% for women.

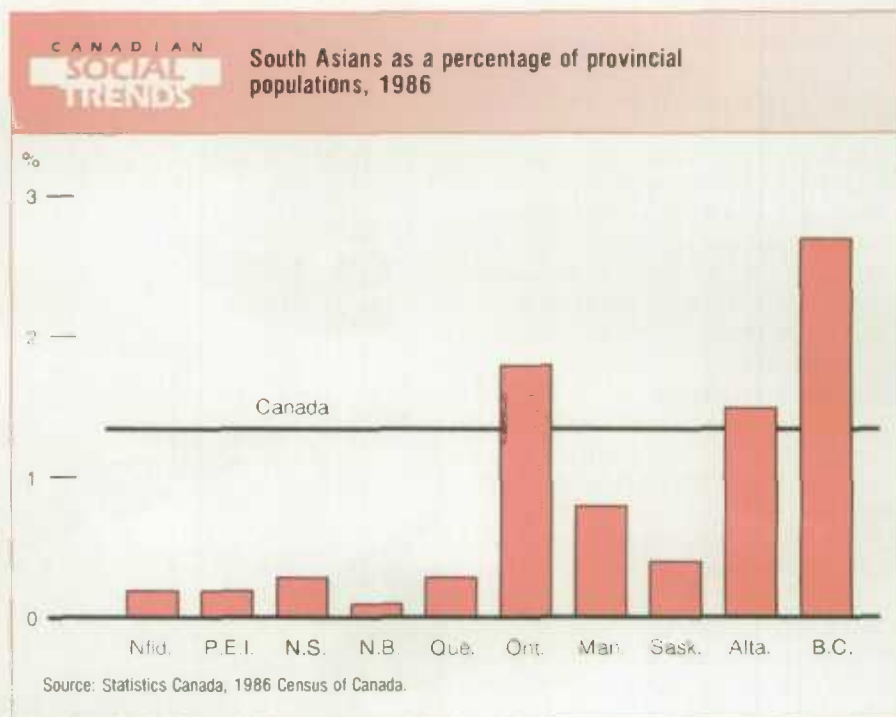
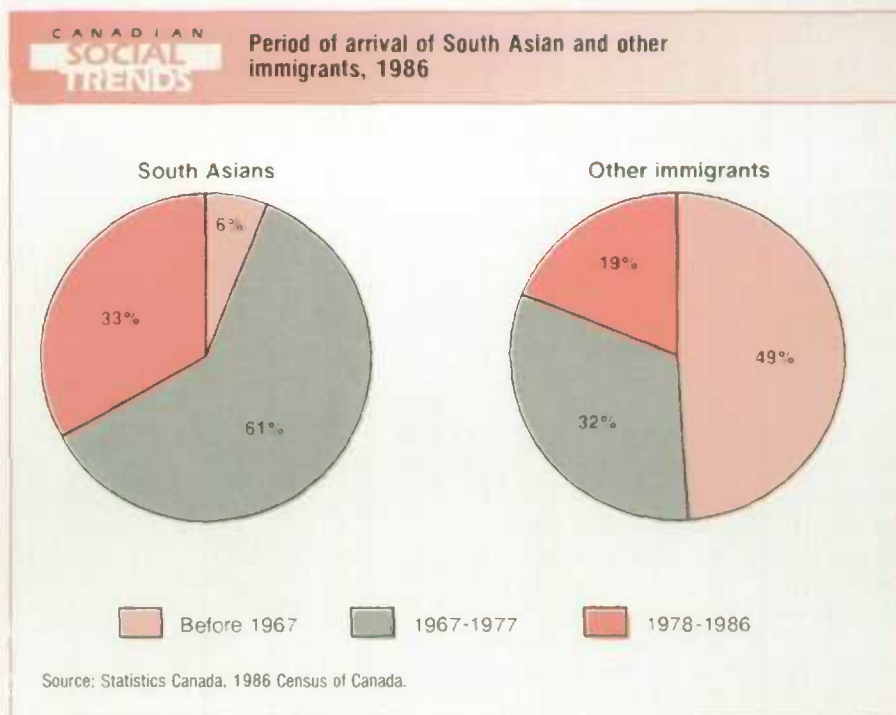
Much of the difference between the educational attainment of South Asian

men and women may be attributable to the different immigrant categories under which they are admitted to the country. Many South Asian men come as independent immigrants, and so are required to meet certain education and employment criteria. On the other hand, South Asian women are more likely to come to Canada as dependants sponsored by their husband or family, and so for them, educational qualifications may not be as important.

High labour force participation

South Asians are generally more likely than Canadians overall to be in the labour force. In 1986, 78.1% of South Asians aged 25 and over were in the labour force, compared with 66.1% of the total population.

This difference holds for both men and women. The labour force participation rate for South Asian men aged 25 and over in 1986 was 89.8%, about 10 percentage points above the rate (79.4%) for all



Canadian men. The corresponding rates for women were 65.6% among South Asians, and 53.6% for the total population.

Occupational differences

The occupational distribution of South Asians also differs from that of the total population.

Among men, South Asians are more likely than other Canadians to work in professional occupations. In 1986, 18% of

South Asian men were in professional positions, compared with 13% of all Canadian men.

South Asian men were also more likely than other Canadian men to work in clerical, processing, and product fabricating occupations. In contrast, relatively small proportions of South Asian men worked in primary occupations and construction.

As was the case for all employed women, about one in three South Asian

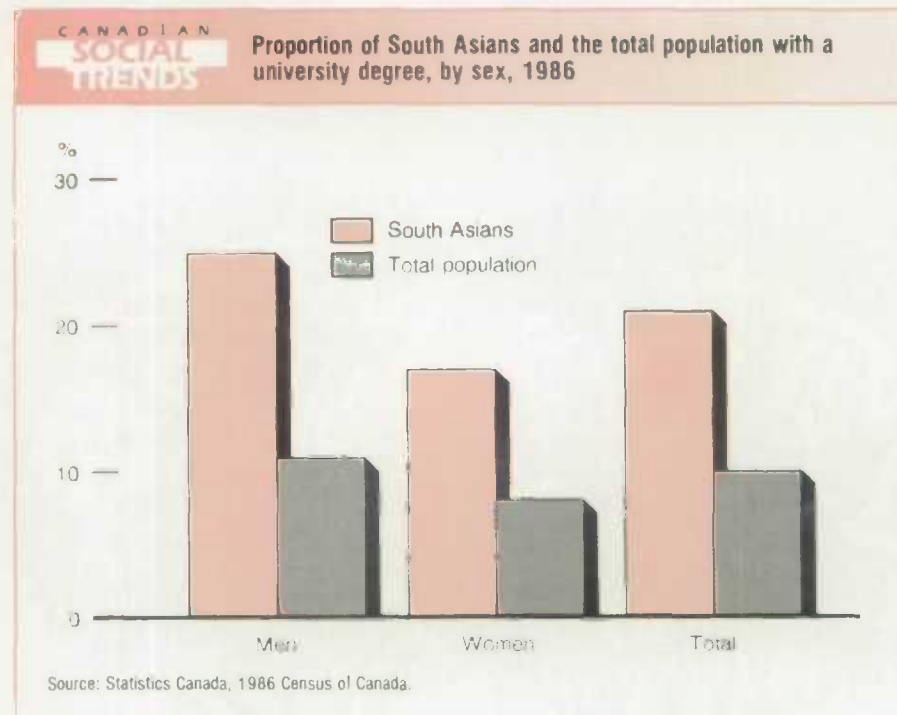
women working outside the home had a clerical job, and substantial proportions were employed in professional and service occupations. The representation of South Asian women in these areas, however, was lower than that for Canadian women overall. The percentages of South Asian women in managerial and sales jobs were also comparatively low. On the other hand, South Asian women were much more likely than other Canadian women to work in product fabricating.

Earned incomes similar

The earned incomes of South Asians are almost the same as those of Canadians overall. South Asian men who worked full time all year in 1985 had an average earned income of \$30,100, slightly less than the \$30,500 average for all Canadian men. At the same time, South Asian women who worked full time all year earned an average of \$19,200, compared with \$20,000 for their Canadian counterparts.

Both authors are with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada. Pamela M. White is a senior analyst and Atul Nanda is a research assistant.

- More information on South Asians and other major immigrant groups is available in *Profile of the Immigrant Population*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-155.



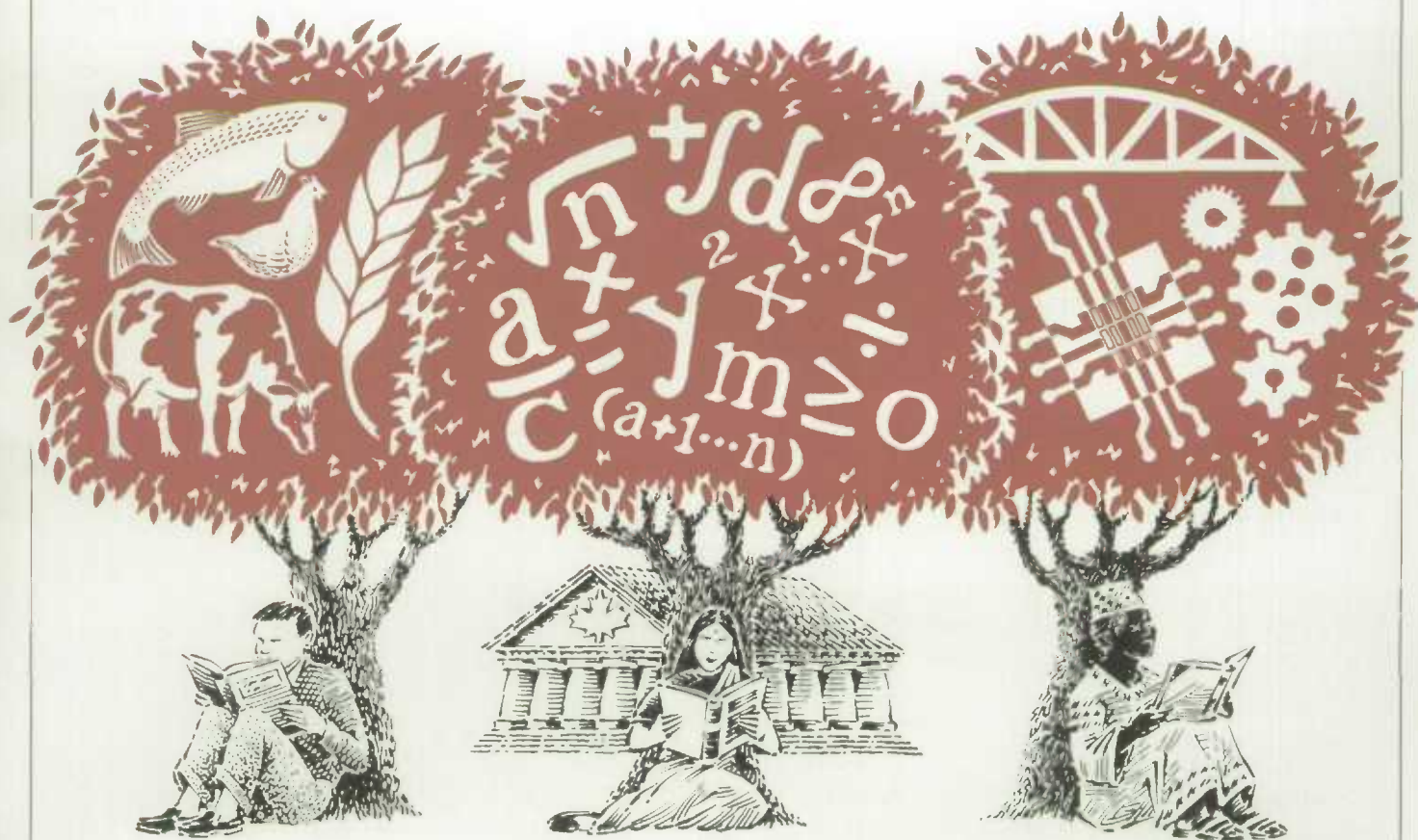
Occupational distribution of South Asians and the total population, by sex, 1986

	Men		Women	
	South Asian	Total Canadian	South Asian	Total Canadian
	%			
Professional	17.8	13.1	15.9	20.9
Managerial	12.2	12.6	5.8	7.8
Clerical	9.6	6.8	32.2	33.5
Sales	8.2	8.8	6.9	9.4
Service	9.8	10.2	13.9	16.1
Primary	2.8	7.9	5.1	2.5
Processing	13.4	8.2	4.1	2.4
Product fabricating	12.0	9.9	10.4	4.2
Construction	2.9	10.1	0.1	0.3
Other	11.3	12.4	5.4	3.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

PROGRAM CHOICES OF FOREIGN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by Lynn Barr



The fields of study of foreign students at Canada's universities differ significantly from those of their Canadian counterparts.¹ In particular, foreign students are more likely than their Canadian classmates to enroll in three science-based fields: mathematics and physical sciences, engineering and applied sciences, and agriculture and biological sciences.

Overall, in 1987, more than four out of ten foreign students were enrolled in one

of the science-based areas, double the proportion for Canadian students. As well, foreign students' preference for these fields was evident at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, although the difference was more pronounced among graduate students.

In 1987, more than a third (36%) of foreign students in bachelor's and first professional degree programs were in one of the science-based areas. The corresponding figure for Canadian students was 20%.

The relative concentration of foreign students in the science-based areas was even greater at the graduate level. Over half (54%) of all foreign master's and doctoral students were enrolled in these fields, compared with 22% of their Canadian counterparts.

¹ Includes full- and part-time enrolment in degree programs.

Foreign men choose sciences

Foreign students' tendency to enroll in the science-based fields was particularly strong among men. These areas accounted for almost half (47%) of foreign men at the bachelor's level and 60% of those at the graduate level. By contrast, only 29% of

Canadian men in bachelor's programs and 31% of those at the graduate level were in these fields.

Foreign women were less likely than their male counterparts to enroll in the science-based fields. Nonetheless, the proportion of female foreign students in these

areas exceeded the figure for Canadian women.

About one in five (22%) foreign women in bachelor's degree programs were in the science-based fields, double the percentage for Canadian women (11%). At the graduate level, over a third (35%) of foreign women were in the science-based areas, compared with only 11% of Canadians.

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
	%			
Science-based:				
Mathematics/physical sciences	17	6	20	7
Engineering/applied sciences	14	8	24	9
Agriculture/biological sciences	5	6	10	6
Total science-based	36	20	54	22
Business/commerce	19	12	7	14
Social sciences	18	20	16	21
Humanities	7	9	10	14
Education	2	12	6	19
Health professions	2	6	6	6
Fine/applied arts	2	4	1	2
General arts/science	14	17	--	--
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.

Differences in other fields

There were also differences in the enrolment patterns of foreign and Canadian students in non-science areas.

At the bachelor's level, foreign students were more likely than Canadians to take business and commerce. In 1987, this field accounted for 19% of foreign students, compared with 12% of Canadians. On the other hand, much smaller proportions of foreign than Canadian bachelor's students were enrolled in education, the health professions, and fine and applied arts.

At the graduate level, the proportion of foreign students in most non-science fields was substantially lower than the corresponding figure for Canadians. The exception was the health professions, which accounted for 6% of both groups.

Foreign students at Canadian universities

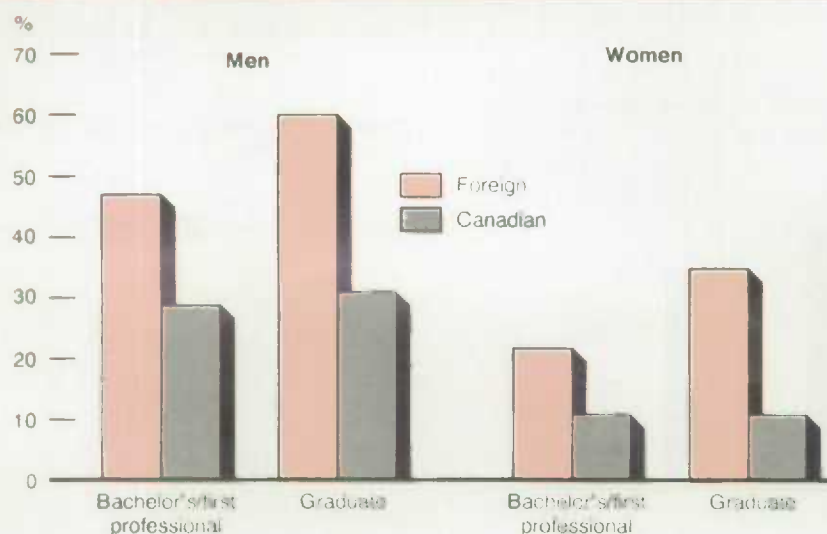
In 1987, 23,200 foreign students were enrolled in degree programs in Canadian universities. The majority of these foreign students, about 14,000, were at the bachelor's and first professional degree level, where they accounted for 3% of total enrolment. The other 9,000 foreign students were in master's or doctoral degree programs, where they made up 12% of all graduate students.

More than half (54%) of foreign students in degree programs were Asian. North America and Africa accounted for 16% and 15%, respectively, while 11% came from Europe, 2% were from South America, and 1% from Oceania.

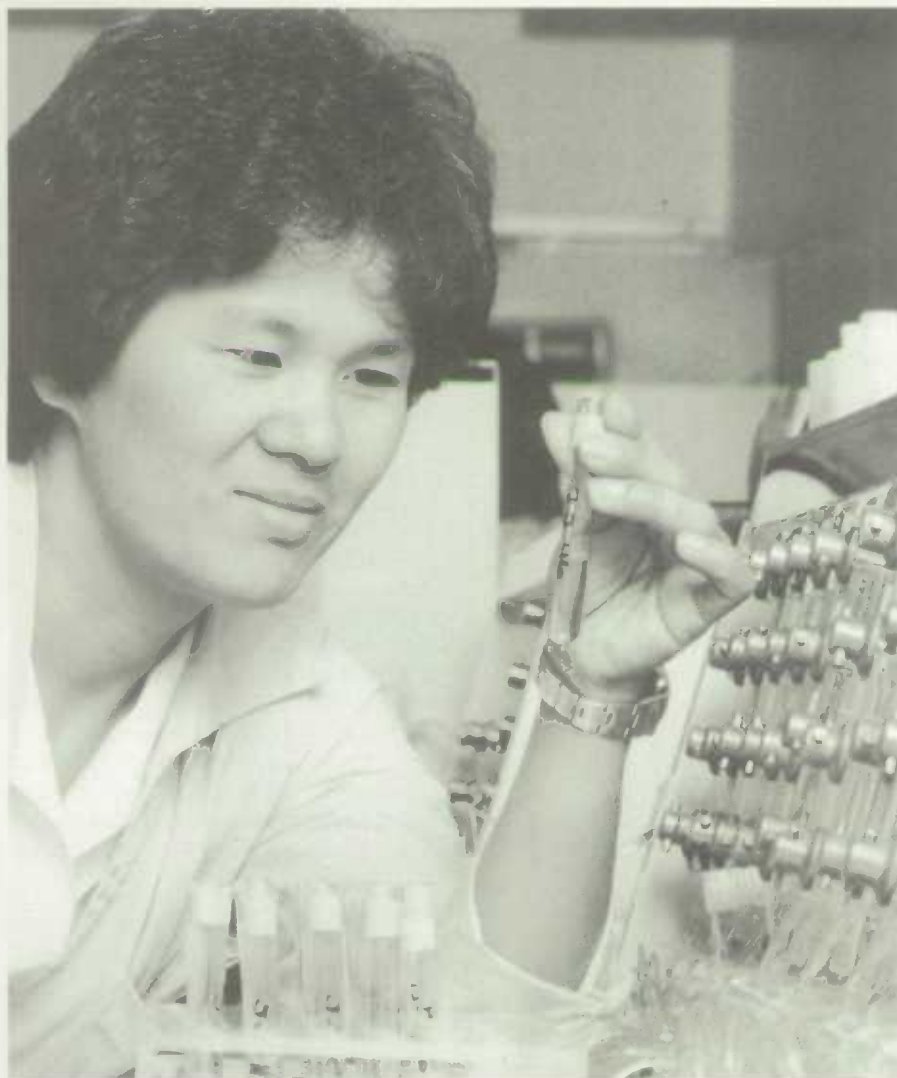
The students in university degree programs, though, represented less than half of all foreign enrolment in Canada. In 1987, about 4,000 foreign students were enrolled in university diploma or certificate programs, while around 10,000 were in community colleges or trade schools, and close to 17,000 were in elementary or secondary schools.

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Proportion of foreign and Canadian students in science-based fields, by level of study and sex, 1987



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



Program choice varies by origin

Program choices vary according to the part of the world from which foreign students come. African and Asian students are the most likely to enroll in one of the science-based fields, whereas the program choices of North Americans² and Europeans more closely resemble those of Canadian students. Regardless of their geographic origin, however, the proportion of foreign students in the science-based areas exceeds the figure for Canadians.

African students were the most likely to enroll in the science-based fields at the bachelor's and first professional degree level. More than half (52%) of all students from this part of the world were enrolled in the sciences.

The proportion of Asian bachelor's students in the science-based areas was also high at 39%. As well, a relatively large percentage of Asian students (22%) were in business and commerce.

By comparison, the three science-based fields accounted for 30% of European and 20% of North American bachelor's degree students.

African and Asian students were also the most likely to be in science-based programs at the graduate level. In 1987, 64% of Asian students in master's or doctoral degree programs, along with 52% of those from Africa, were enrolled in one of these areas.

At the same time, 43% of European graduate students and 36% of those from North America were in the science-based fields. Relatively large proportions of North American graduate students were also enrolled in humanities (25%) and social sciences (20%).

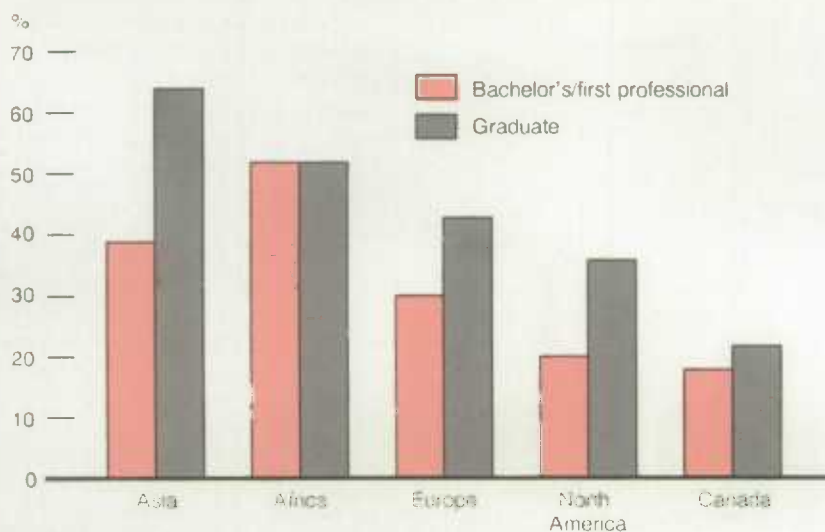
² Includes students from the United States, Mexico, and Caribbean nations.

Lynn Barr is a research assistant with Canadian Social Trends.



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Proportion of students in science-based fields, by level of study and origin, 1987



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

TELEVISION VIEWING

by Anthony Young

Canadians spend a considerable amount of time each day watching television. In fact, television viewing accounts for, on average, about one in five of people's waking hours. As a result, much of the information Canadians receive about their society and the world comes from this medium.



Overall, in 1987, Canadians watched an average of 3.4 hours of television a day. This figure has changed very little in the 1980s, although it is up slightly from the mid-1970s. For example, in 1976, daily viewing averaged 3.2 hours.

There is considerable diversity, though, in the amount of time people spend watching television and in the types of programs they enjoy. Generally, women watch more than men, and the elderly watch more than younger people. The amount of time people spend watching television, however, is high for all groups, including children and teenagers.

Women, older people watch more

Women generally watch more television than men. In 1987, women aged 18 and over watched an average of 3.8 hours a day, compared with 3.2 hours for men.

For both men and women, average viewing time increases with age. Women over age 60, for example, watched 5.1 hours a day in 1987, the most for any age group of either sex. Among men, those aged 60 and over also watched the most television, 4.5 hours a day.

Children aged 2-11 and young people aged 12-17 do not watch as much television as most adults; however, they do spend a substantial part of their days in front of a television set. In 1987, children watched 3.1 hours of television a day, while the figure was 2.7 hours for those aged 12-17.

Drama and news most watched programs

The largest share of Canadians' television viewing time is devoted to dramas. These programs accounted for about one-third of all viewing in 1987. News and public affairs made up another 20%, while comedy and variety/game shows represented 13% and 12%, respectively, and sports, 6%.

Not surprisingly, there are differences in the program preferences of men and women. Men spend about twice as much of their viewing time as women on sports programs, whereas dramas account for a greater share of women's viewing.

There are also differences in the program choices of adults and young people. Most significantly, the proportions of children's and teenager's viewing time devoted to news and public affairs are less than half that of adults. In 1987, news and public affairs programs represented only 7% of the viewing time of children and 10% of that of teenagers; this compared with 22% for adults. On the other hand, greater shares of the viewing time of children and teenagers were devoted to dramas and comedies.

Foreign programs popular

Most of the television programs Canadians watch come from outside the country. In 1987, foreign programming accounted for 64% of all viewing time.

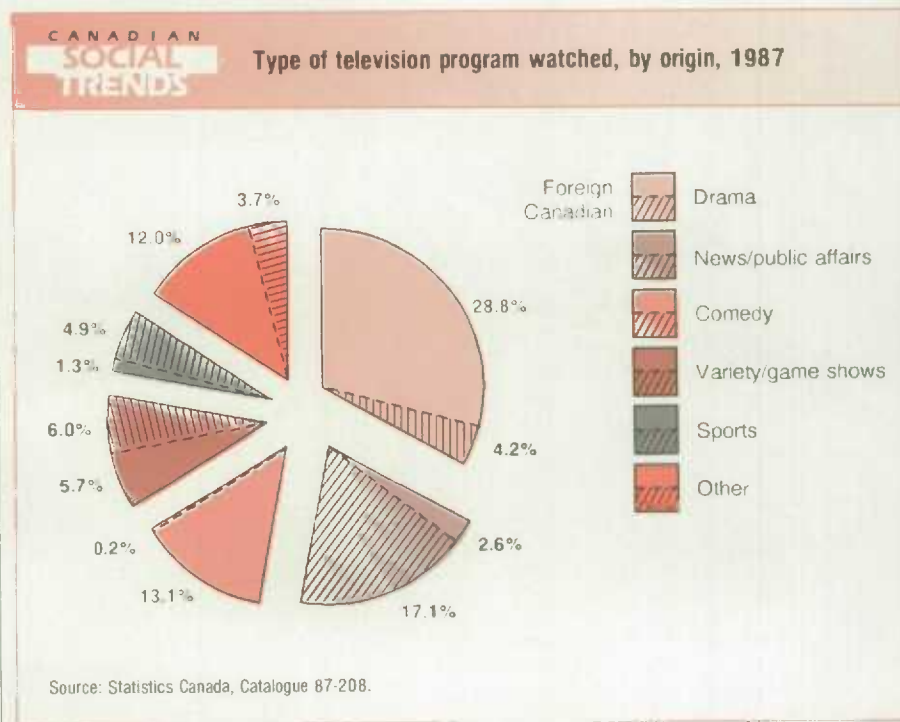
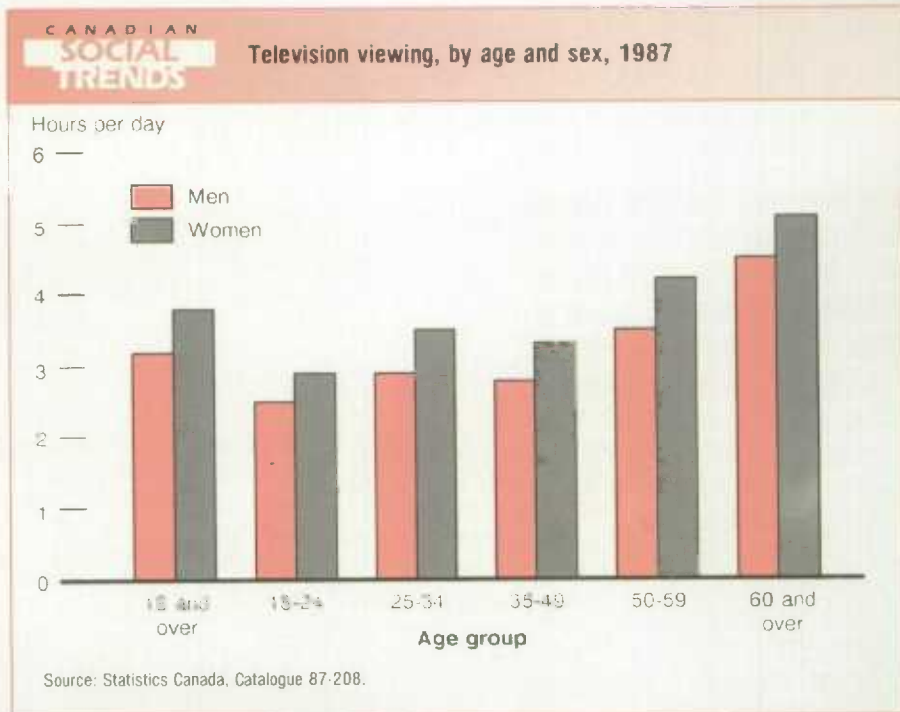
The distribution of viewing time between programs from foreign and domestic sources, though, varies considerably depending on the type of program. Almost all the dramas and comedies Canadians watch are imported, whereas most news and public affairs, along with

the majority of sports programs, are Canadian in origin.

During 1987, 98% of comedies and 87% of dramas watched came from foreign sources, while 87% of news and public affairs and 78% of sports programs were Canadian.

More viewing in the east

People in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces other than Prince Edward Island watch more television than those in





The spread of television technology

Almost all Canadians have access to a television set, and growing numbers have cable, pay television, and videocassette recorders (VCRs). Close to 100% of households had a television in 1987, and 94% had colour television. As well, nearly half of all households had at least two television sets.

With the growth of cable and pay television, the amount and variety of programming now offered is substantially greater than it was 10 years ago. In 1987, 68% of Canadian households had cable, up from 47% in 1977. Also in 1987, 13% of households subscribed to pay television, whereas ten years earlier this service was not available.

The ownership of videocassette recorders has also increased. In 1987, 45% of households had a VCR, compared with only 6% just four years earlier.

Ontario and the Western provinces. Residents of Quebec, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick watched an average of around 4 hours a day during 1987, compared with just over 3 hours a day in the other provinces.

Anthony Young is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.



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Television viewing, by province, 1987

Hours per day



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-208.

VIOLENCE IN THE FAMILY

Violence in Canadian families takes many forms. It is directed in varying degrees of severity against spouses, children, and other relatives. Although a matter of widespread concern, there are few definitive measures of the level and frequency of assaults. Because different segments of society have been studied and different definitions used, the overall picture is incomplete and to some extent contradictory.

Public awareness of family violence was raised in 1980 with the publication by the Advisory Council on the Status of Women of *Wife Battering in Canada: The Vicious Circle*, by Linda MacLeod. It suggested that every year one Canadian woman in ten, married or living with a man, was battered by her partner. In 1987, a subsequent report by the same author (*Battered but Not Beaten: Preventing Wife Battering*, also published by the Advisory Council) raised that estimate, when it suggested, "Almost 1 million women in Canada may be battered each year."

This section of *Canadian Social Trends* consists of several segments, each related to the general theme of family violence. Domestic homicide is the best documented of any form of household violence, because it usually comes to the attention of police. For lesser forms, surveys are necessary to gauge aggression that often remains bidden in the home.⁺ Because survey methods of measuring domestic violence are not yet standard, and because both victims and offenders have been questioned, estimates vary widely. — Ed.

⁺ See also Holly Johnson, "Wife Abuse", in the Spring 1988 issue of *Canadian Social Trends*.



FAMILY HOMICIDE

by Holly Johnson and Peter Chisholm

Between 1974 and 1987, homicides involving people related to one another through marriage, common-law union, or kinship accounted for 39% of the total of 7,582 solved homicide offences in Canada. Domestic homicides decreased from 45% of the total solved in 1974 to a low of 33% in 1980, but then rose to 40% between 1985 and 1987.¹ The average annual number of family homicides over the 14-year period was 212.

Men who killed their wives or common-law partners were the single largest group of offenders (37%) in family homicides between 1974 and 1987. Wives and common-law wives were responsible in 12% of cases, fathers in 11%, and mothers in 9%. The remaining offenders were: a child of the victim (9%), a brother or sister (7%), an aunt, uncle, or cousin (7%), an in-law (3%), or another relative (5%).

Native offenders and victims

Native people² are greatly over-represented in homicide offences in general, and in family-related homicide in particular.

While Native people make up about 3% of the total population, they accounted for 23% of suspects and 22% of victims in family homicides in the 1974-1987 period. In fact, almost half (49%) of solved homicides involving Native victims were family-related. A quarter of these were committed by husbands, wives, or common-law partners.

Murder-suicide

Persons who commit domestic homicides often take their own lives immediately after the incident. Men who killed their spouse or child were more likely than any other group of suspects to commit suicide immediately following the incident. Over the 1974-1987 period, 31% of men who killed their wives, 19% of those who killed their common-law partners, and 24% of those who killed their children

later took their own lives. Much lower percentages of mothers (10%), wives (5%), and other family members (4%) killed themselves after the incident.

The rate of post-homicide suicide among Native suspects was much lower than among non-Natives. Native suspects committed suicide in only 5% of cases in contrast to 20% for non-Native suspects.

Location

Eight of ten family-related homicides occurred in the home of either the victim or the suspect. Remaining offences occurred in other private places (8%), in public places (6%), or in other or unknown locations (7%).

Alcohol and drugs

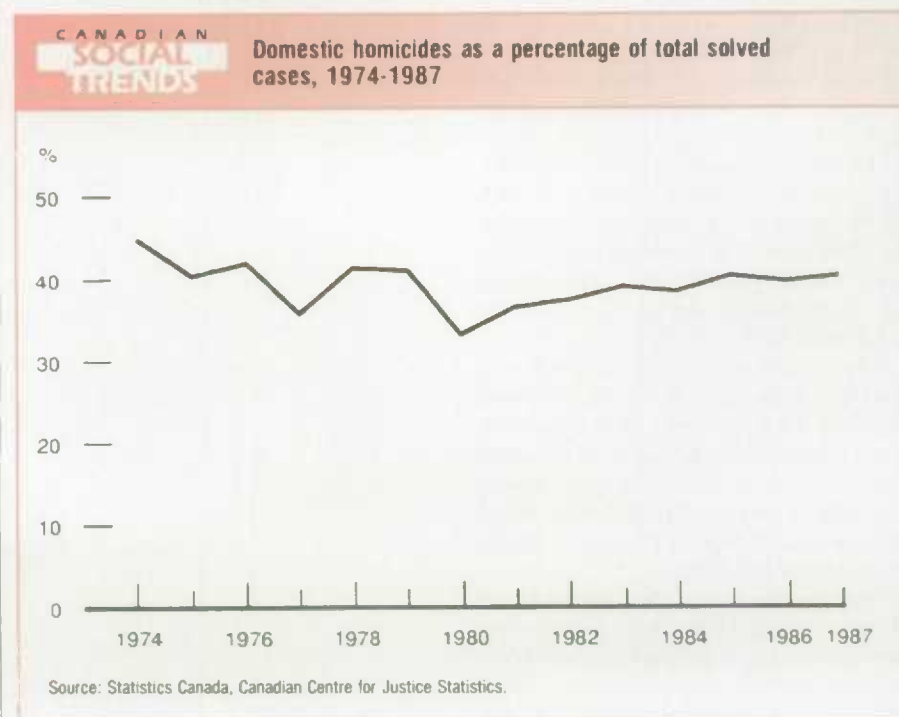
Between 1974 and 1987, police recorded either alcohol or drug consumption as a contributing factor in about 30% of domestic homicides. But the percentage of incidents involving alcohol alone

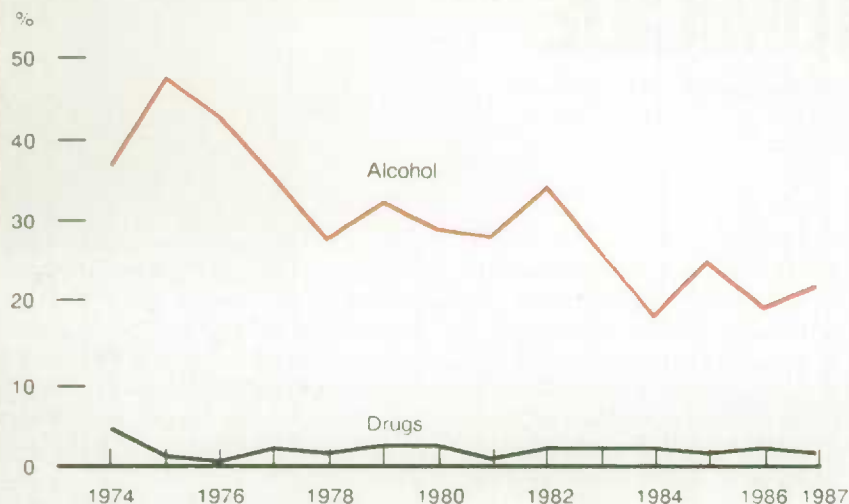
declined from about 47% of cases in 1975 to 21% in 1987. Evidence of drug consumption as a contributing factor remained at 5% over the 14-year period. Alcohol was likely to be a factor when women killed their partners, especially when the victim was a common-law spouse (69%) as opposed to a legally married partner (45%).

Alcohol was less likely to be involved when men killed their wives or common-law partners—just 21% and 39% of cases, respectively. Alcohol was a factor in 38% of offences involving other family members as victims and in 14% of cases of homicide by mothers.

¹ The homicide rate in Canada has declined over the past 14 years, from a high of 3.1 per 100,000 population in 1975 and 1977 to a low of 2.2 in 1986. The 1987 rate was 2.5.

² Includes status and non-status Native Indians, Métis, and Inuit.



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Proportion of family-related homicides involving alcohol or drugs,¹ 1974-1987


¹ Includes consumption by either victim(s) or suspect(s).

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Fully 65% of domestic homicides with Native victims between 1974 and 1987 involved alcohol consumption by either the victim or suspect or both, triple the rate for non-Natives (21%).

Method of killing

Between 1974 and 1987, shooting was the most frequent way that family members were killed, accounting for 37% of victims. Stabbing was the second most common method (23%), followed by beating (21%), and strangulation or suffocation (10%). All other methods, including drowning and arson, made up only 9%.

The use of firearms varied over the 14-year period, reaching a high of over 40% of all domestic homicides in 1974, 1980 and 1986 and a low of fewer than 30% in 1985. Stabbing, on the other hand, increased steadily as a proportion of the total from 13% to 30%.

Shooting was the most common way that men killed their wives. Half of these suspects used a firearm. Men who killed their common-law spouses, on the other hand, chose guns (34%) and beating (30%) in almost equal proportions. Guns were also used in 33% of cases of fathers killing their children.

The predominant method used by women killing their spouse or common-law partner was stabbing (45% and 65%, respectively). Women most often killed their children by strangulation or suffoca-

tion (31%) or by other methods not involving firearms (31%). Fully one-fifth (22%) of mothers who killed their children were themselves teenagers at the time of the offence.

Both authors are with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.

Holly Johnson is a senior analyst and **Peter Chisholm** is a research assistant.

Assaults on wives: Results from the 1988 General Social Survey

The General Social Survey conducted by Statistics Canada in January and February of 1988 asked questions about criminal incidents that occurred in 1987 in which respondents were victims. All the estimates have high sampling variability and should be used with caution.

On the basis of this survey, the estimated number of wife assaults¹ for Canada in 1987 was 157,000 or about 1,500 per 100,000 women. However, this estimate is conservative in that the number of incidents per respondent was limited to a maximum of 3. The actual number of incidents per respondent ranged as high as 26.

The rate was highest for women aged 25-44 at 2,200 per 100,000, while the rate for those aged 15-24 was 1,900. The rate for those 45 or more years could not be calculated reliably.

About two-thirds (62%) of incidents involved being hit, slapped, kicked, or knocked down. Other attacks were incidents in which the victim was grabbed, held, tripped, jumped on, or pushed, while a small number were rapes, shootings, knifings, or assaults with objects. More than one in five (21%) of the assaulted wives later received attention from a doctor or nurse.

The majority (68%) of reported incidents occurred at night between 6 PM and 8 AM, while the remainder took place during the day or at an unspecified time. Almost three-quarters (73%) of incidents occurred in an urban setting, with the balance taking place in a town, village, or rural area, or in an unstated location.

¹ Assaults or sexual assaults against a female victim by her spouse or ex-spouse.

MALE VIOLENCE IN THE HOME

by Eugen Lupri



SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION



Eugen Lupri
is a Professor of
Sociology at the
University of
Calgary.

The family can provide a private setting for the development of love and companionship. But the very privacy that fosters emotional attachments between partners also allows the expression of violent antagonism.

When surveyed under circumstances guaranteeing anonymity, Canadian men aged 18 and over reported that they had committed significant amounts of violence against their partners. In many instances, the violence was not an isolated incident, but had occurred several times during the previous year.

Overall, 12% of men reported that they

had pushed, grabbed, or shoved their mates at least once during the previous year, and in two-thirds of these cases, the incidents had occurred more than once. Another 9% reported they had thrown an object at a mate.

Rates of more serious types of violence were lower: 6% reported kicking, biting, or hitting with a fist, 5% reported slapping, and 5% said they had hit with an object or had attempted to do so. Fewer than 3% reported beating their mates, while less than 1% claimed to have either threatened to use or actually used a knife or gun.

Almost one in five (18%) married or cohabiting men had committed at least one of eight listed violent acts.¹ The figure rose to about 30% among divorced or separated respondents. Considering only the five most serious acts, each of which carries a high risk of serious injury, about 10% of married and cohabiting men reported at least one such incident.

Characteristics of men who report assaulting their mates

While abuse of a female partner was reported by men in all income groups, it was more common among those with low incomes. The rate for men with annual incomes less than \$20,000 was 26%, double the rate for men with incomes of \$65,000 or over (13%).

More than half the male respondents

About the survey

These data were collected as part of a national survey of 1,834 men and women aged 18 and over, conducted by Decima Research Ltd. during November and December 1986. The findings presented here are based on the responses of the men.

The information was gathered by self-administered questionnaires, which interviewers left behind after personal interviews together with a return envelope to be completed by ever-married or cohabiting respondents.

Households were selected at random by computer using Statistics Canada enumeration areas as the primary sampling unit. Probability of selection was disproportionate by province, and within each province the sample was stratified by community size. A weighting scheme was used to bring the sample back into the proper proportions vis-à-vis the 1981 Census. In 19 out of every 20 national samples of this size, the results would fall within about plus or minus two percentage points of the results found here.

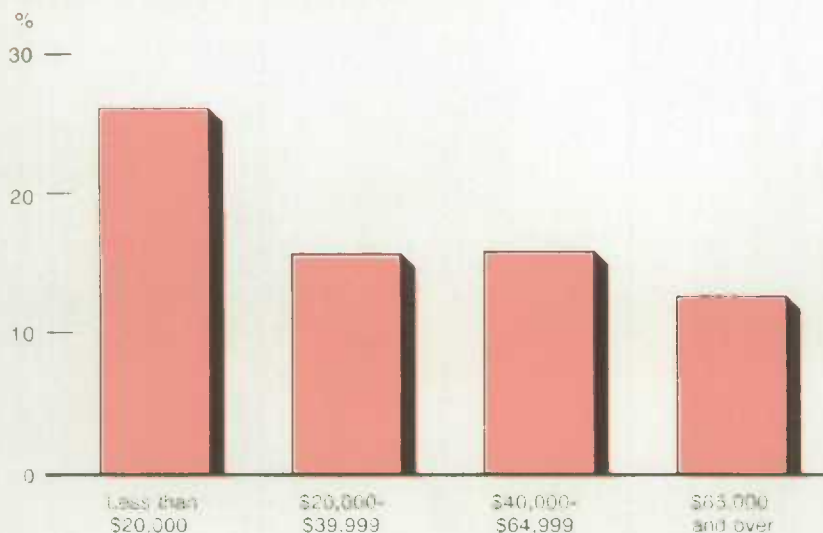
Eight questions on spousal violence appeared on the questionnaire after a series of less delicate questions on family life. A short written introduction presented the topic in terms of disagreements and conflicts that nearly all couples experience. If respondents were members of an ongoing marital or common-law relationship, the acts of violence referred to occurred in 1986. If respondents were separated, divorced, or widowed at the time of the survey, the questions referred to their last year of marriage.

Levels of violence ranged from throwing objects at a partner through pushing and shoving, slapping, kicking, hitting, beating, to the threatened or actual use of potentially deadly weapons such as guns or knives.

¹ Using the same Conflict Tactics Scales employed here, Michael Smith reported an annual incidence rate of 14.4% among a sample of 604 Toronto women in "The Incidence and Prevalence of Woman Abuse in Toronto" in *Violence and Victims*, Vol. 2, No. 3, 1987.

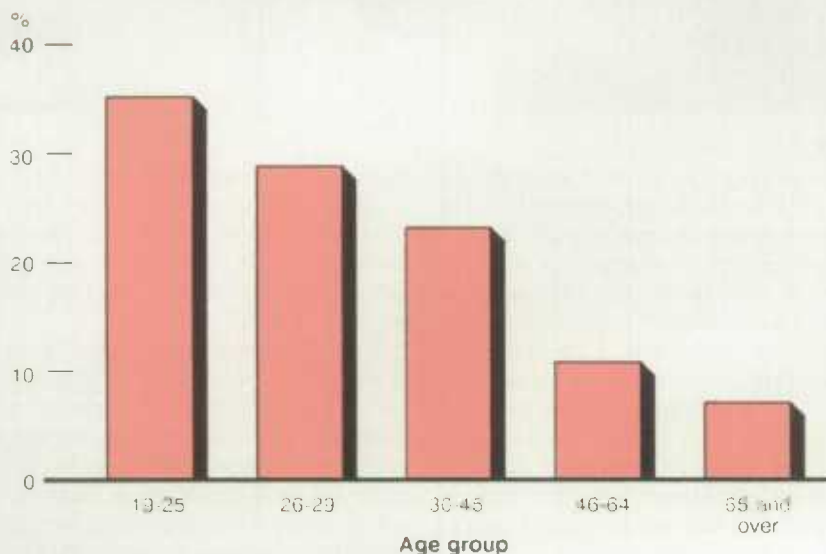
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Proportion of married and cohabiting men reporting violent incidents, by income level, 1986



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Proportion of married and cohabiting men reporting violent incidents, by age, 1986





reporting violent incidents were aged 29 or younger. Although the rate was lower for older men, wife abuse occurs at all ages. In fact, 7% of men aged 65 and older reported such incidents.

Among younger men, those with the least education tended to report more incidents. For example, among those aged 18-44 with an incomplete high school education, 28% reported assaults as opposed to 17% with a graduate or professional degree. Among men 45 years and older, the highest rate found was for men with an incomplete university education (31%).

Geographic differences

Spousal assault rates were highest in the Western provinces and in the Atlantic

region. British Columbia had the highest overall violence rate (26%), while the figure was 24% in the Atlantic provinces. Quebec (13%) had the lowest overall provincial rate, while Ontario's rate (17%) was close to the national average of 18%.

Wife abuse occurred more frequently in urban than in rural areas. Rates for men who lived in rural areas or in towns with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants were lowest (12%). Spousal assault rates were over 20% in medium-sized towns and cities (23%), and in metropolitan areas (21%).

Stress and violence

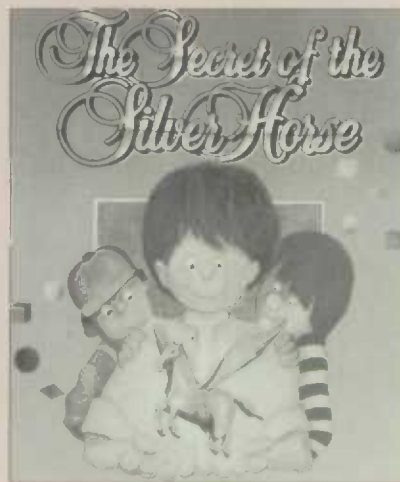
There is a strong relationship between stressful life events and reported male spousal violence. The interview schedule contained a checklist of 12 stressful events that respondents might have experienced in the previous five years:

- Unemployment for more than one month
- Personal bankruptcy
- A drop in wage or salary
- Taking an additional job to make ends meet
- Working more overtime than he wishes to make ends meet
- Child support or alimony payments that he did not have before
- A move to less expensive accommodations
- Taking in a boarder to help make ends meet
- One or more demotions
- Loss of income due to a return to school
- Some other important career setback
- Some other significant negative change in economic circumstances

Just 8% of men who reported none or only one of the listed stressful events also reported an instance of violence between themselves and their mates. But the proportion rose to 18% of those reporting two or three sources of stress, to 19% for those reporting 4 or 5 stressful events, and to 33% for those registering 6 or 7 such sources.

Child sexual abuse publications

Four new publications dealing with child sexual abuse laws are available from the Department of Justice Canada.

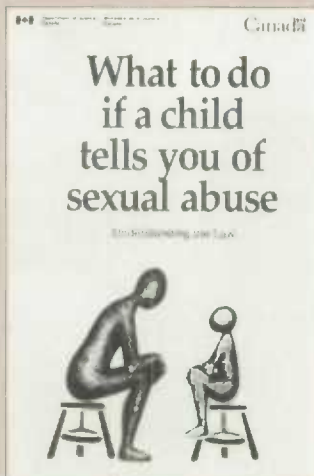


1. *The Secret of the Silver Horse* – a storybook for children 4-10 years of age about disclosing sexual abuse. (JUS-P-499E)

2. *Tell Someone* – a poster for children focusing on this key message from the children's booklet. (JUS-P-500E)

3. *What To Do If A Child Tells You Of Sexual Abuse: Understanding the Law* – a brochure for adolescents and adults. (JUS-P-501E)

4. *Canada's Laws On Child Sexual Abuse: A Handbook* – providing detailed information on the amendments to the Criminal Code and Canada Evidence Act, for those who work with victims of child sexual abuse. (JUS-P-502E)



If you wish to receive a copy of any of these free publications, please contact:

Communications and Public Affairs
Department of Justice Canada
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0H8

Or telephone: (613) 957-4222

HELP AROUND THE HOUSE: SUPPORT FOR OLDER CANADIANS

by Janet Hagey

The majority of Canadians aged 55 and over¹ can perform most household chores on their own, according to Statistics Canada's 1985 General Social Survey. With advancing age and deteriorating health, however, the need for assistance increases, particularly for tasks involving some physical effort such as heavy housework, grocery shopping, and yardwork. Nonetheless, for all activities, the percentage of older people getting help exceeds the proportion who actually need it, although it is likely that many of those who require considerable support are already in institutions.

Need for help depends on task

Older Canadians are generally more likely to need help with tasks involving some physical exertion. For example, in 1985, 21% of people aged 55 and over required assistance with heavy housework, and 12%, with grocery shopping. In addition, 33% of those who did not live in an apartment needed help with yardwork. On the other hand, fewer than one out of ten people required aid with less strenuous tasks such as meal preparation (7%), money management (4%), light housework (3%), and personal care (2%).

Need rises with age

Not surprisingly, the need for household help increases with age. In 1985, nearly half (46%) of people aged 75 and over required assistance with heavy house-



¹ Excludes people in residential care institutions.

work, and a third (33%), with grocery shopping. In comparison, only 22% of those aged 65-74 needed help with heavy housework, and 12%, with grocery shopping; for those aged 55-64, the figures were 10% and 5%, respectively.

Women aged 75 and over require the most support. In 1985, half of these women needed help with heavy housework, and 39% required assistance with grocery shopping. Among men, the figures were 43% for heavy housework and 23% for grocery shopping.

The proportions of people aged 75 and over needing help with chores involving less exertion were also higher than among those aged 55-74. Nonetheless, even at ages 75 and over, more than eight out of ten people could handle meal preparation, money management, light housework, and personal care without assistance.

Poor health increases need

As might be expected, people in poor health were more likely than others to require aid in performing daily household tasks. For example, of those who rated their health poor, 26% needed help with meals, 20% with light housework, 12% with money management, and 11% with personal care. In comparison, virtually all who rated their health excellent or good could manage these chores.

Grocery shopping was a problem for only 3% of older people in excellent health and 6% in good health; on the other hand, 43% of those in poor health required help buying groceries. In fact, people aged 75 and over who reported good or excellent health had less need for help with grocery shopping than did 55-64-year-olds whose health was poor.

Most older people who rated their health excellent or good could handle even such tasks as heavy housework and yardwork. By contrast, among those in poor health, two-thirds needed assistance with heavy housework, and three-quarters required help with yardwork.

Living arrangements related to need

People living alone or with their spouse are less likely to require help around the house than are those sharing accommodations with someone other than their spouse. However, the last group may have adopted this housing arrangement expressly because they need support.

Close to four out of ten (38%) older people living with others required help with heavy housework, compared with only 16% living alone and 20% living with their spouse. Similarly, 24% of those

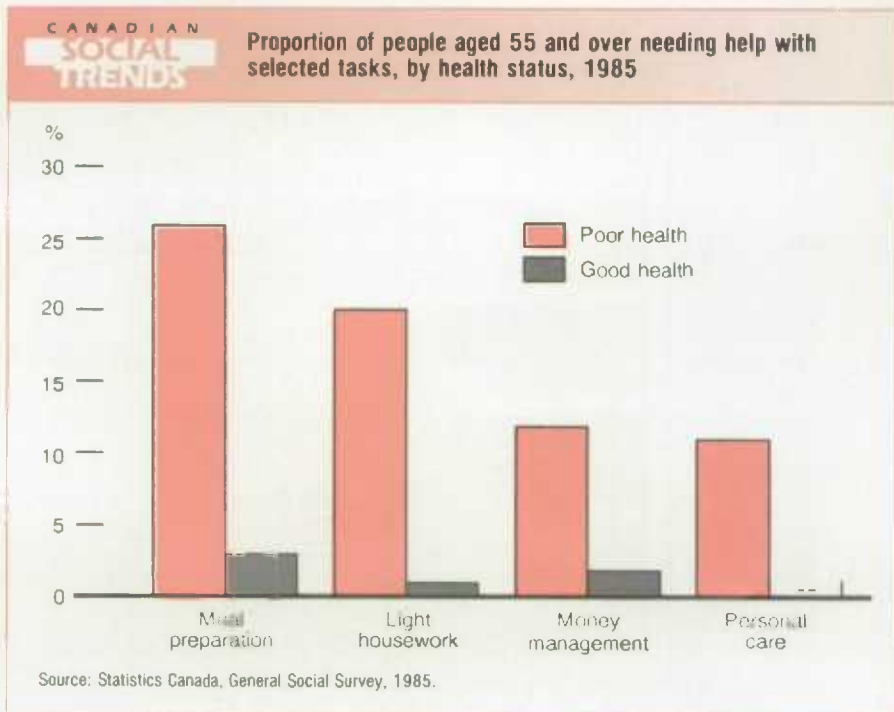
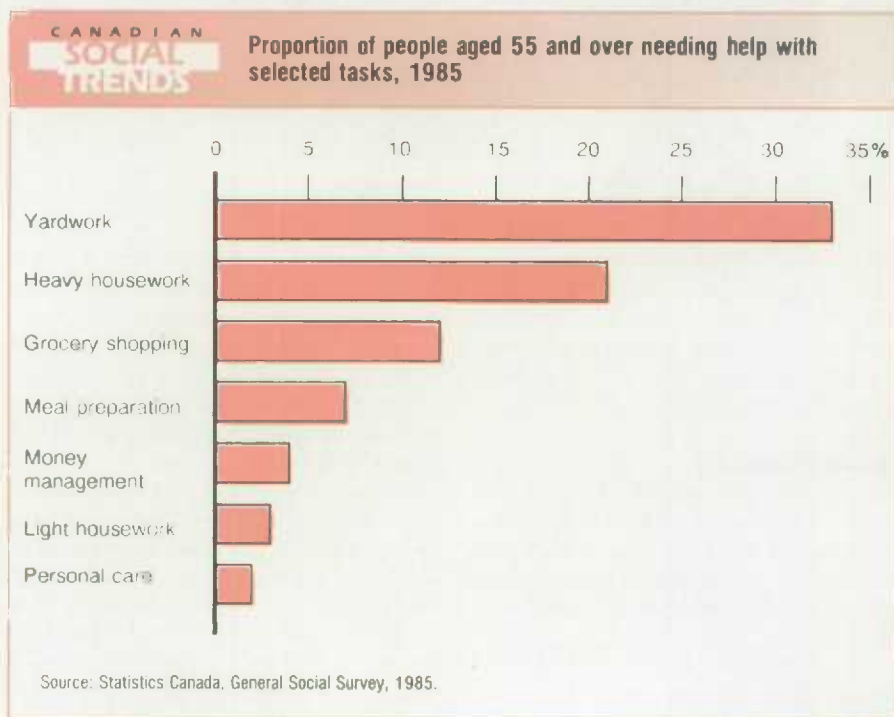
living with others needed help grocery shopping, while the proportion was 11% for people living alone or with their spouse.

Even tasks that most older people can handle by themselves are troublesome for many of those who live with others. For instance, 11% of people living with others needed help with money management, and 9% required help with light housekeeping. By contrast, fewer than 5% of older people living alone or with their spouse required such support.

Much support for elderly

Regardless of the task, the proportion of older people who received help exceeded the percentage who claimed that they needed it. Not surprisingly, levels of support were particularly high among people living with their spouse or with others, as these companions undoubtedly shared in household chores. However, even people who lived alone received a considerable amount of help.

While 16% of older people living alone needed assistance with housework, 21%





received such help. The corresponding figures for grocery shopping were 11% and 20%. The pattern was similar for yardwork: 39% of older people living alone required help, but 57% of them actually received some assistance.

Sources of support

Support for older people comes from a variety of sources including spouses, children and other relatives, friends and neighbours, and formal support systems such as homemaker services and seniors' centres.

For men living alone, friends and neighbours were the main source of

assistance with yardwork and grocery shopping. As well, friends and neighbours were their primary source of help with meal preparation, although formal organizations were also important. In addition, formal organizations were the major source of help with housework for men who lived alone.

Formal support was also important to older women who lived alone. Visiting homemakers and similar services were their most common source of help with housework and meal preparation. For yardwork, women living alone were more likely to be aided by friends and neighbours, while help in grocery shop-

ping was most often provided by their children, particularly daughters.

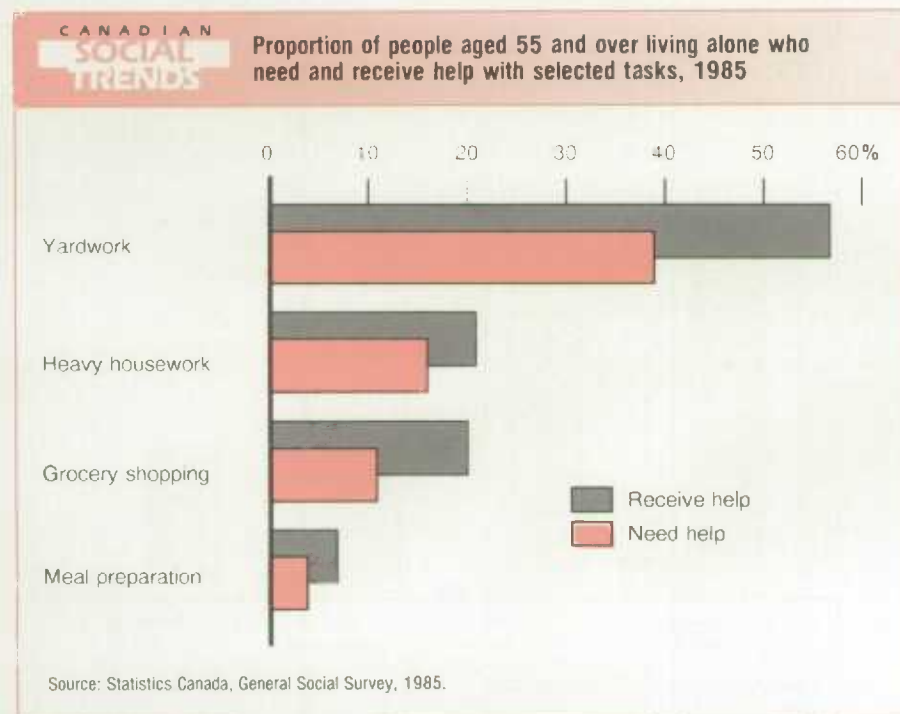
Support for older people living with someone other than their spouse came largely from their children and other relatives. However, in many cases, the relatives providing support were probably the "others" with whom the older people shared their accommodations.

Because older married couples can usually rely on each other, they tend to receive much less assistance from other sources. For instance, a spouse was the sole source of assistance for nine out of ten married people who got help with grocery shopping and meal preparation. Such highly concentrated support, however, makes them vulnerable if that support is lost.

The additional help that older couples do get is likely to be provided by their children. Daughters aid with housework, meal preparation, and groceries; sons, with yardwork.

Janet Hagey was formerly the Assistant Director of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada. She is currently Director of Quantitative Analysis and Socio-demographic Research, Indian and Northern Affairs Canada.

- More information on this topic is available in *Health and Social Support, 1985*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612; and *Family and Friendship Ties among Canada's Seniors*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-508, by Leroy O. Stone, with the assistance of Hubert Frenken and Edward Dak Ming Ng.



RESIDENTIAL CARE

by Carol Strike



Residential care facilities are an important component of Canada's health care system. Occupants of these facilities receive nursing and counselling services, as opposed to the active medical treatment available in hospitals. While most residential care facilities are homes for the aged, they also include residences for psychiatrically disabled or developmentally delayed people, substance abusers, and emotionally disabled children.

In 1986-87, an estimated daily average of 226,000 people were in residential care

facilities.¹ By comparison, an average of around 150,000 people were in hospitals each day.

Most in homes for the aged

Homes for the aged account for about seven out of ten people in residential care. In 1986-87, there were an estimated

¹ Includes facilities with four or more beds, which are funded, licensed, or approved by provincial/territorial departments of health/social services.

158,000 residents per day in homes for the aged, a 24% increase from 1979-80. This rise reflects both the growing number of elderly people and the diminishing tendency for them to live with their adult children.

Most people in homes for the aged are women. In 1986-87, women made up 70% of residents in these facilities. As well, many residents are "older elderly" people. Over three-quarters (77%) of people in these facilities in 1986-87 were

at least 75 years of age, and 40% were aged 85 and over.

Changes in other institutions

In 1986-87, 9% of the total estimated number of people in residential care were in homes for the psychiatrically disabled; 8% were in facilities for the developmentally delayed; 4% were in homes for emotionally disturbed children; 2% were in substance abuse facilities; and 5% were in other types of institutions.

This distribution reflects several shifts since the late 1970s. Between 1979-80 and 1986-87, the number of residents in substance abuse facilities increased 44%, while the number in facilities for the developmentally delayed rose about 15%.

On the other hand, the number of residents in facilities for the physically disabled decreased sharply. An estimated 11,000 people were in these facilities on a daily basis in 1979-80; by 1986-87, there were only 2,700. This decline occurred largely because of the movement of physically disabled people from institutions to either group homes with fewer than four beds or independent home care arrangements.

The estimated daily number of residents in facilities for emotionally disturbed children also declined between 1979-80 and 1986-87.

In contrast to homes for the aged, most people in other residential care facilities are male. In 1986-87, men made up the majority of residents in facilities for substance abusers (81%), the psychiatrically disabled (60%), the developmentally delayed (57%), and the physically handicapped (55%). As well, boys made up 63% of the estimated number of residents in facilities for emotionally disturbed children.

High occupancy rates

The number of people in residential care is related to the number of spaces available. In fact, during the 1980s, these facilities were filled close to capacity, with an overall occupancy rate of more than 95%.

Homes for the aged and facilities for the developmentally delayed had the highest occupancy rates, as residents represented 97% of the number of approved beds in both types of institutions in 1986-87.

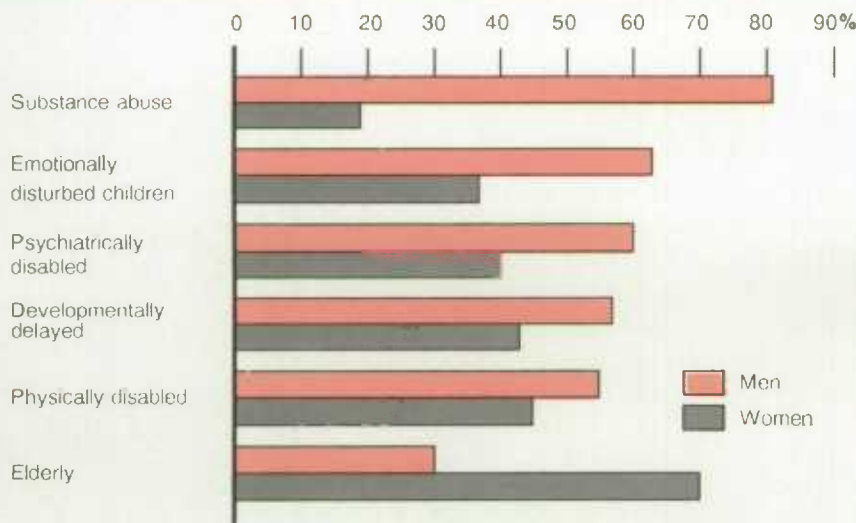
Less private, more public ownership

Most residential care institutions are operated by non-profit organizations such as charities, governments, and religious organizations. In 1986, non-profit organizations ran 64% of residential care facilities, while the remaining 36% were operated for profit.

The proportion of residential care facilities operated by non-profit organizations increased during the 1980s. For example, in 1980, ownership of these institutions was divided roughly equally between profit and non-profit enterprises.

CANADIAN
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Proportion of men and women in residential care, by type of institution, 1986-87



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

CANADIAN
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TRENDS

Occupancy rate, by type of institution, 1986-87



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

Occupancy rates in the other institutions ranged from 83% in facilities for substance abusers to 93% in facilities for the psychiatrically disabled.

Residential care expenditures

Every day in 1986-87, an estimated \$15 million was spent on residential care. In fact, that year, residential care facilities

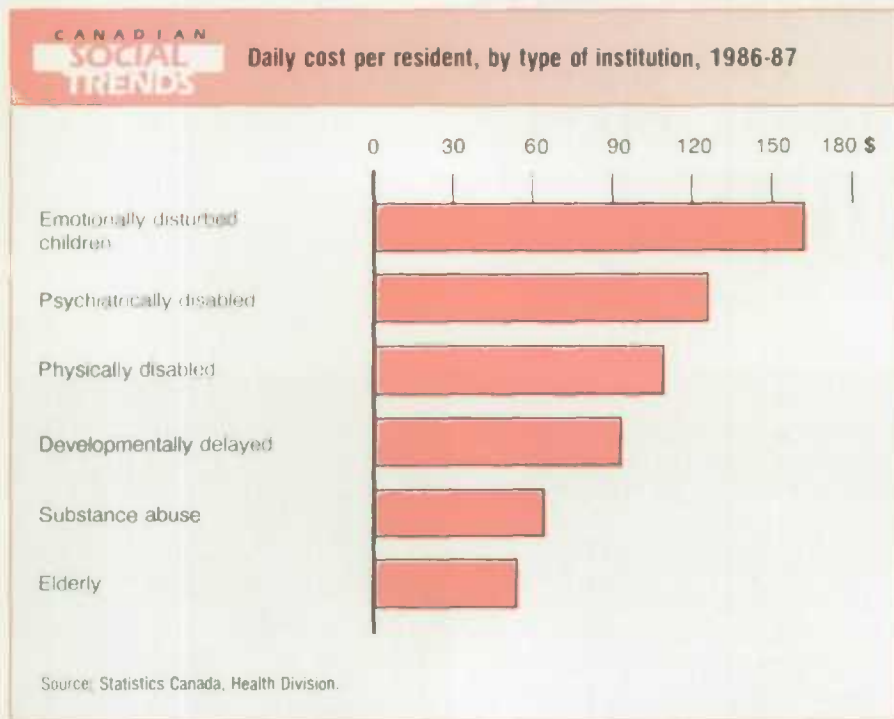
accounted for an estimated 12.5% of all health care expenditures in Canada. Overall, the total estimated annual expenditure on residential care in 1986-87 was \$5.5 billion, up from \$4.2 billion (in 1986 dollars) in 1979-80.

More than half (56%) of all estimated residential care expenditures in 1986-87 went to facilities for the aged. A further

18% was spent on facilities for the psychiatrically disabled, while 11% and 9%, respectively, went to facilities for developmentally delayed people and emotionally disturbed children. The remaining 7% was divided among other facilities.

The amount spent per patient-day varies considerably by type of institution. Facilities for emotionally disturbed children reported the highest patient-day expenditure at \$162. On the other hand, spending per aged patient was relatively low, amounting to just \$54 a day.

Carol Strike is a staff writer with *Canadian Social Trends*.



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THE DECLINE IN CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE MORTALITY

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament

Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death in Canada. In 1987, 77,300 deaths, 43% of all deaths, were the result of this disease.

Cardiovascular disease is the principal killer of both men and women, accounting for 45% of all deaths of women and 41% of those of men in 1987. In comparison, cancer, the second-ranking cause of death, accounted for 26% of all deaths for both sexes.



Mortality rate down

The mortality rate for cardiovascular disease has fallen dramatically in recent decades. Between 1951 and 1987, the age-standardized mortality rate for this disease fell 42% among men, from 512 to 295 deaths per 100,000 men.

The decline in cardiovascular disease mortality was even sharper among women. The number of female deaths due to this disease declined 58% in the 1951-1987 period, falling from 396 to 168

deaths per 100,000 women. As a result, women's age-standardized mortality rate from cardiovascular disease remained well below that of men.

While it is generally agreed that the downturn in cardiovascular disease mortality is a genuine change and not a statistical artifact, there is no consensus on the reasons behind this decline. In addition to the spontaneous decline of this disease, the most likely explanations are the reduction in risk factors such as ciga-

rette smoking, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, and obesity, or some combination of these, as well as improved treatment.

A greater share of older deaths

Most cardiovascular disease deaths are accounted for by older people. In 1986, for example, 60% of all people who died as a result of this disease were aged 75 and over. That year, 56% of all deaths of women aged 75 and over and 49% of those of men in this age range were attributed to cardiovascular disease.

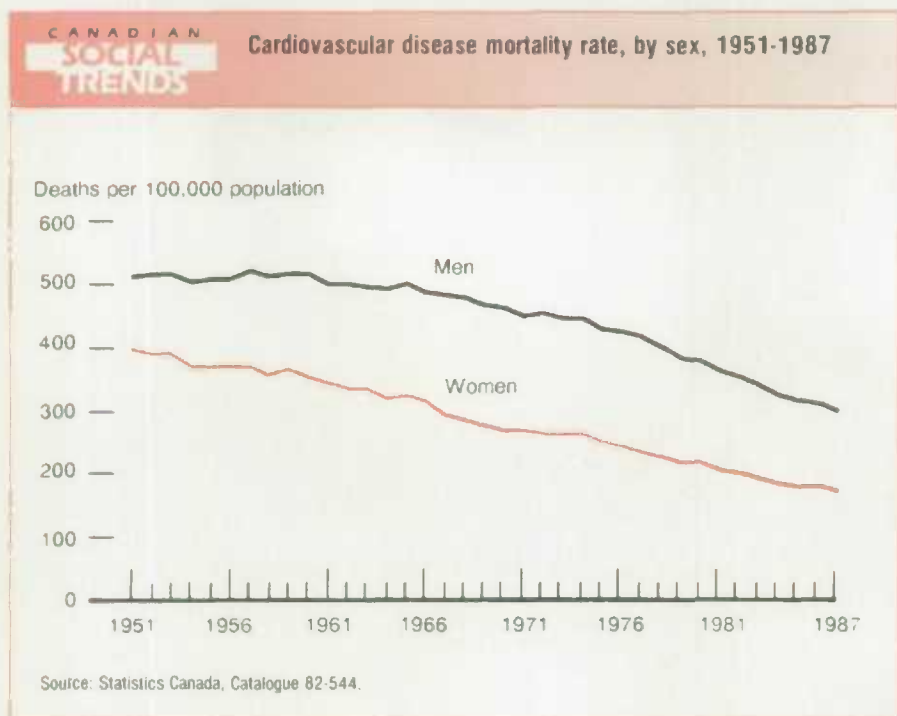
Cardiovascular disease also caused a large proportion of deaths of both men (45%) and women (41%) aged 65-74 and men aged 45-64 (40%). On the other hand, just 26% of all deaths of women aged 45-64 were attributed to this disease.

Cardiovascular disease was not a major cause of death for people younger than age 45. In 1986, this disease accounted for only 16% of deaths of men aged 25-44 and 11% of those of women in this age group. For people under age 25, just 3% of deaths of women and only 2% of those of men were due to cardiovascular disease.

Cardiovascular disease includes a number of diseases of the circulatory system. The most common form is ischemic or coronary heart disease, which accounted for about 60% of all cardiovascular disease deaths in 1987. Another 18% of cardiovascular deaths resulted from strokes or cerebrovascular disease; 7% were due to arterial disease; and 2% were the result of hypertension. Other diseases, including rheumatic heart disease, were responsible for the remaining 12% of cardiovascular deaths.

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

- More information on this topic is available in *Health Reports*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1989, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003.



MATERNITY LEAVE

by Joanne Moloney

During the last several decades, there has been remarkable growth in the labour force participation of women. In fact, since the late 1950s, the proportion of women in the labour force has doubled. As a result, there has been growing interest in a number of issues related to the working conditions of women. Among these is the question of maternity leave and benefits.

Despite a continuing decline in the overall fertility rate in Canada during the 1980s, the incidence of maternity absences from work has risen. In 1987, there were 4.0 pregnancy-related absences¹ for every 100 women aged 15-49 who were paid workers at some time during the year; this was up from 3.1 in 1980, but down slightly from 4.2 in 1985.

The proportion of maternity absences that are compensated also increased during the 1980s. In 1987, 92% of all

¹ Includes absences from work of two or more consecutive weeks.





ended maternity leaves² were compensated, compared with 77% in 1980.

About two-thirds of the rise in the share of compensated maternity absences was accounted for by absences in which Unemployment Insurance benefits were the only compensation received. In 1987, these benefits were the only compensation received in 72% of cases, up from 62% in 1980.

The prevalence of other types of financial compensation, however, also increased. In 1987, 20% of women received other benefits such as full or partial pay from their employers or group insurance; this was up from 14% in 1980.

Because of the link between hours of work and the legal right to Unemployment Insurance benefits, there are marked differences in the proportions of full- and part-time workers receiving compensation for maternity leave. In 1984, 95% of women who were employed full time for at least 12 months before they stopped working and 90% of full-time part-year workers were compensated. By contrast, compensation rates were only 83% for those who worked part-time year-round and less than 60% for part-timers who had worked less than a full year prior to their absence.

Absence duration varies

The length of maternity absences varies considerably, although a substantial proportion last 17 weeks. Throughout the 1980s, for example, 14% of all ended absences were of this duration. Seventeen weeks was the single most common dura-

tion largely because statutory provisions entitle most women to 17 or 18 weeks, while the Unemployment Insurance program offers benefits for a maximum of 15 weeks following an initial two-week waiting period.

A high proportion of maternity absences, though, were relatively brief. For example, 11% of absences in the 1980-1987 period lasted just 2-6 weeks. However, some of these absences may have been sick leave taken for either illness or medical complications early in the pregnancy.

At the same time, close to 3 in 10 absences lasted more than 20 weeks: 15% were from 21-26 weeks and 14% were longer than 26 weeks.

The length of a maternity absence may be related to the financial compensation involved. From 1980 to 1987, compensated absences lasted an average of almost 19 weeks, compared with fewer than 15 weeks for non-compensated leaves.

Absences highest at ages 25-29

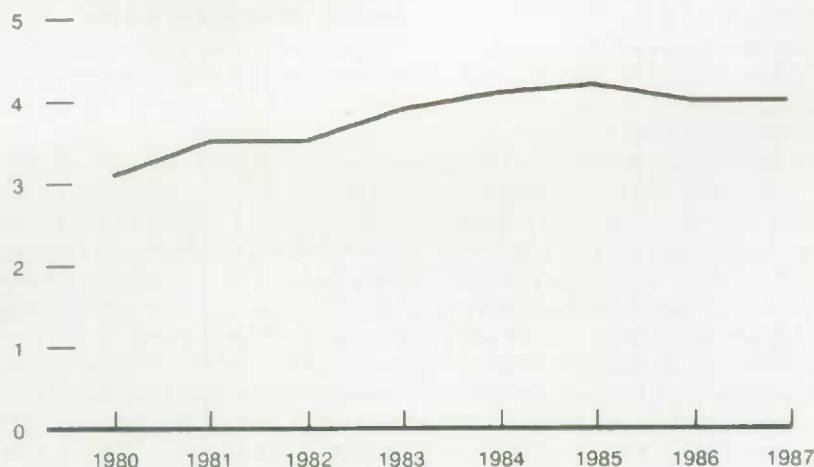
Maternity leave is most common among women aged 25-29. During the 1980s, there were an average of 9.1 pregnancy-related absences for every 100 working women in this age group, compared with 6.1 for women aged 30-34 and 4.3 for those aged 20-24. The incidence of maternity absences falls off sharply for women under age 20 and over age 34.

² Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year. These represented 71% of maternity absences from 1980 to 1987.

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Maternity absence rate, 1980-1987

Absences per 100 working women



Source: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.



It is not surprising that the incidence of maternity absence is highest among 25-29-year-olds, since their fertility rate is also the highest. However, the fact that maternity absences are more frequent among women in their early thirties than among those in their early twenties is somewhat surprising, as the fertility rate is higher among the younger group. The lower maternity absence rate among women aged 20-24 may occur because working women in this age range are more likely to postpone childbearing to establish a career, especially if they have completed a postsecondary education. The maternity absence rate among postsecondary graduates, for example, was just 2.5 for 20-24-year-olds, compared with 9.4 for women aged 30-34.

Absence rate highest in Quebec

The incidence of pregnancy-related absences varies considerably by province. During the 1980s, the number of these absences per 100 women aged 15-49 ranged from 3.0 in Newfoundland to 4.3 in Quebec.

The high incidence of pregnancy-related absences in Quebec is surprising, given that Quebec has the lowest fertility rate of any province. However, Quebec also has superior maternity leave provisions and benefits. As well as providing 18 weeks of regular maternity leave, Quebec legislation allows for other types of pregnancy-related leave. These include special maternity leave when there is a risk of miscarriage or a threat to the health of the mother and leave for legal or spon-

taneous abortion and stillbirths.

Quebec has also been a leader with respect to paid maternity leave. In the 1980-1987 period, 92% of all ended maternity absences in Quebec were compensated. Among the other provinces, the percentage of compensated maternity absences ranged from around 80% in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia to 88% in New Brunswick, Ontario, and Manitoba.

The high compensation rate in Quebec is due mainly to the prevalence of maternity leave compensation other than Unemployment Insurance benefits. Other types of compensation were received in 35% of all ended maternity leaves in Quebec from 1980 to 1987, compared with just 19% in Canada as a whole.

Quebec also has the longest maternity absences. In the 1980s, absences in Quebec averaged over 20 weeks, while in the other provinces, they ranged from just over 15 weeks in Newfoundland to 19 weeks in Alberta.

Maternity leave and benefit entitlements

Working women in all provinces are entitled to a period of unpaid maternity leave. Provincial statutes and the Canada Labour Code allow 17 or 18 weeks of maternity leave, depending on the jurisdiction. Collective agreements negotiated by unions, or employers themselves, may offer maternity leave and benefits that exceed those in the applicable legislation.

For public servants, employment standards are set in public service acts. Many of these do not mention maternity leave; it is the collective agreements of public service unions that provide this leave. Entitlements for public servants range from four months in Prince Edward Island to 12 months in Saskatchewan.

In most jurisdictions, an employee must complete a minimum period of employment to be eligible for maternity leave. This qualifying period varies from 20 weeks in Quebec to one year plus 11 weeks in Ontario.

A large percentage of maternity absences are compensated, with Unemployment Insurance benefits the most widely available form of financial compensation. These benefits consist of 15 weeks of payments at 60% of the employee's regular wage, up to a maximum, which is increased each year. In 1989, the maximum weekly benefit was \$363. As a rule, a woman must have worked 20 weeks within the last year to qualify for Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits.

A study for the Task Force on Child Care ranked Canada poorly compared with 22 industrialized countries in eastern and western Europe. Fifteen of these countries paid maternity benefits of 90-100% of the employee's usual earnings, up to a weekly maximum, for periods ranging from six weeks to nine months. The same study, however, showed that Canada's maternity leave provisions compared favourably with those in the United States.

Maternity leave by industry

The characteristics of maternity leave also vary by industry. During the 1980s, maternity absences were most common in public and regulated service industries.³ There were 4.8 such absences for every 100 female paid workers aged 15-49 in these industries, compared with 4.0 absences in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, 3.2 in other service industries, and 2.1 in primary and construction industries.

Workers in public and regulated services also tend to take the longest maternity absences. From 1980 to 1987, ended absences for this group averaged 19.3

weeks, compared with 17.6 weeks in the other services, 17.0 weeks in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, and just 13.7 weeks in the primary and construction group.

There is less difference in the proportion of maternity absences compensated in the various industries, although the primary and construction sector does lag somewhat behind. In the 1980s, 89% of absences in the public and regulated services, 87% in manufacturing, transporta-

³ Includes education, health, social, and government services, as well as the communication and utilities industries.

Maternity absence characteristics, by province, 1980-1987 average

	Maternity absences per 100 working women aged 15-49	Average duration of ended maternity absences ¹	Compensated ended maternity absences ¹
		Weeks	%
Newfoundland	3.0	15.4	86.2
Prince Edward Island	3.1	16.2	83.9
Nova Scotia	3.4	16.0	83.7
New Brunswick	3.3	16.8	88.0
Quebec	4.3	20.1	91.9
Ontario	3.8	17.3	88.4
Manitoba	3.2	17.0	87.8
Saskatchewan	4.2	17.5	80.6
Alberta	3.7	19.1	79.6
British Columbia	3.3	17.2	80.1
TOTAL	3.8	18.2	87.3

¹ Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year.
Source: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.

Maternity absence characteristics, by industry, 1980-1987 average

	Maternity absences per 100 working women aged 15-49	Average duration of ended maternity absences ¹	Compensated ended maternity absences ¹	Workers covered by collective agreement
		Weeks	%	%
Public/regulated services	4.8	19.3	88.9	60.2
Manufacturing/transportation/storage	4.0	17.0	86.9	29.2
Primary/construction	2.1	13.7	77.3	5.2
Other services	3.2	17.6	86.3	9.6

¹ Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey and Labour Market Activity Survey.

tion, and storage, and 86% in the other services were compensated. In comparison, the figure was 77% in the primary and construction industries.

Some of the variation in maternity leave characteristics in different industries may be attributable to differences in unionization rates. For example, 60% of women in paid jobs in public and regulated services were covered by a collective agreement, compared with 29% of those in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, 10% in other services, and just 5% in primary and construction industries.

Union membership, however, does not guarantee better maternity leave provisions and benefits than those stipulated by legislation. For example, in the early 1980s, just 49% of major collective agreements in Canada contained sections pertaining to maternity leave; and only 71% exceeded legislated limits. As recently as 1988, paid maternity leave was provided in just 26% of major collective agreements.

Other factors may also contribute to the differences in maternity absences in various industries, particularly those between the primary and construction industries and the other industry groups. The high rate of self-employment and the small average firm size characteristic of the primary and construction industries suggest that family businesses may be more common in this sector. And until July 1987, women employed by their spouse were not eligible for Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits.

Non-compensated and shorter absences in the primary and construction sector may also be related to the seasonal nature of the work in these industries. This could limit eligibility for maternity benefits, especially if regular benefits are received shortly before the maternity absence.

Finally, the generally lower profile of maternity absences in the primary and construction industries may also reflect the small number of women in these industries.

Joanne Moloney is a senior analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

- More information on this topic is available in the article "On Maternity Leave" by the same author in the first issue of *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

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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	25,911.8
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1
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 \$	39,228	37,445	36,450	36,981	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	4,973.9	5,025.5 ^P
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.7 ^P
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	896 ^P
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,625 ^P
- 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.



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