

CANADIAN

# SOCIAL TRENDS

No. 15 - WINTER 1989

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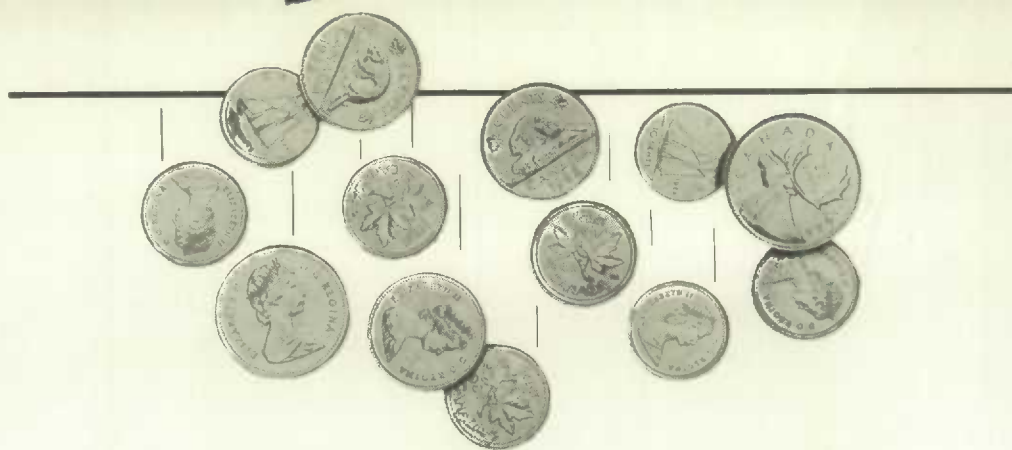
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### About the artist:

Born on the Island of Tugjak, N.W.T., around 1900, **Pitseolak** later moved with her family to Baffin Island where she spent most of her life. After the death of her husband, she survived by sewing and decorating clothing with embroidery designs. She began printmaking in the 1950s, and was encouraged to produce colourful drawings about the "old ways" of the Inuit. In 1971, *Pitseolak: Pictures out of my life* was published in English and Eskimo. Her work has been acquired by various collections, including the National Gallery of Canada. Pitseolak died in 1983.

### In Memory Of:

It is with deep regret that the editorial staff of Canadian Social Trends mark the passing of Dhruva Nagnur. Since the inception of this publication, Dhruva contributed several articles and assisted with the provision of data and wise counsel on many more. His helpfulness and unflinching good humour will be missed.

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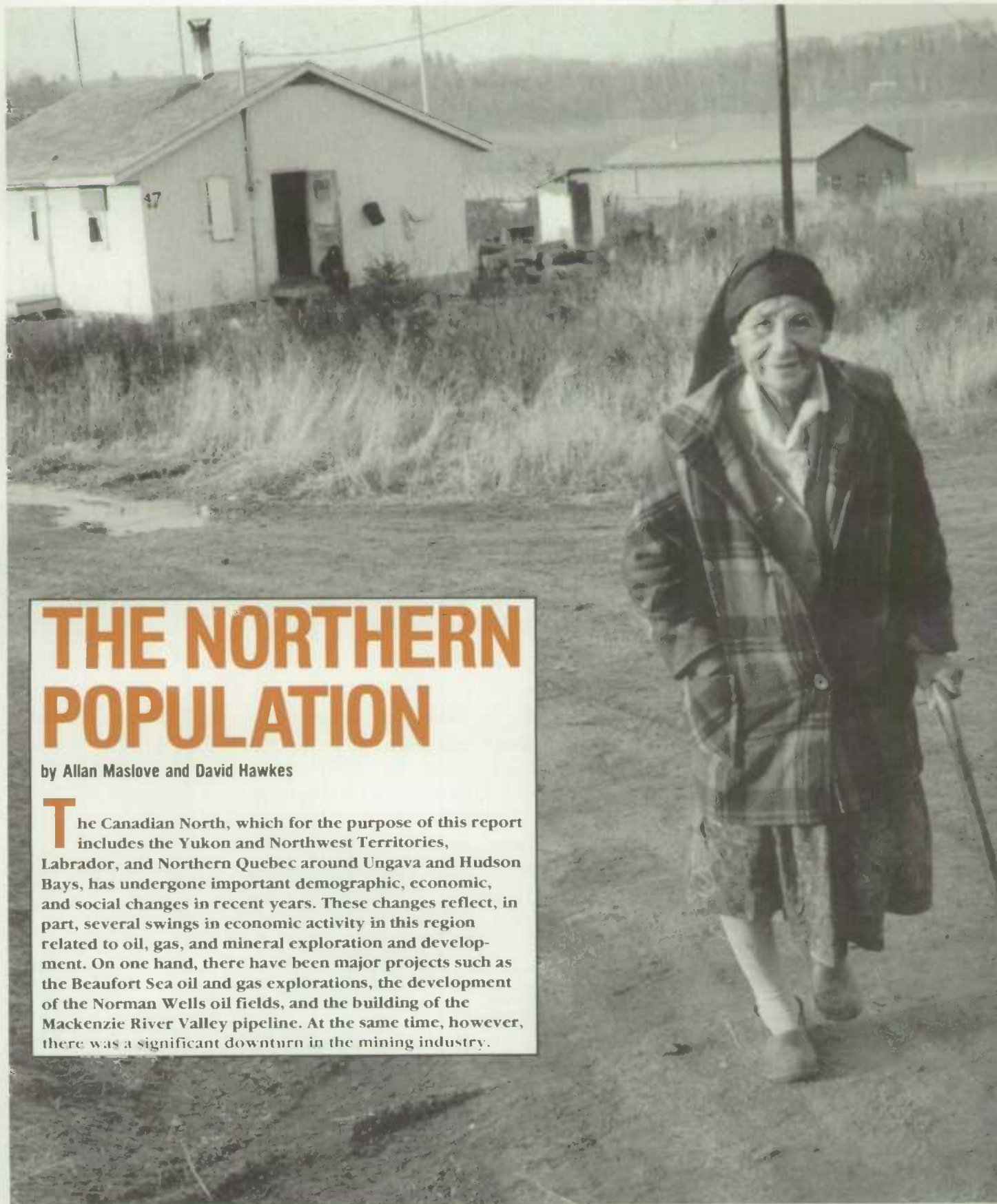
## CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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# THE NORTHERN POPULATION

by Allan Maslove and David Hawkes

**T**he Canadian North, which for the purpose of this report includes the Yukon and Northwest Territories, Labrador, and Northern Quebec around Ungava and Hudson Bays, has undergone important demographic, economic, and social changes in recent years. These changes reflect, in part, several swings in economic activity in this region related to oil, gas, and mineral exploration and development. On one hand, there have been major projects such as the Beaufort Sea oil and gas explorations, the development of the Norman Wells oil fields, and the building of the Mackenzie River Valley pipeline. At the same time, however, there was a significant downturn in the mining industry.



One of the major issues in the North is the status of the Aboriginal people. Northern Aboriginal people have been strengthening their political and economic roles in areas such as land claims and self-government negotiations. As well, they have renewed efforts to preserve their traditional cultures. Yet the disparities between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North persist, and on some measures, actually appear to be growing.

#### Little overall population growth in the 1980s

There was little growth in the Northern population during the first half of the 1980s. In 1986, just over 141,000 people lived in the Canadian North, up only slightly (0.1%) from 1981. In the same period, the population of Canada grew by almost 4%.

The Northern population represents only a small portion of the total Canadian population. In 1986, just 0.6% of all Canadians lived in this region, about the same proportion as in 1981.

The stability in the size of the population in the Canadian North contrasts sharply with trends in neighbouring Alaska, which experienced considerable growth in the first half of the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1985, for example, the population of Alaska rose 34%, from 402,000 to 540,000.

While there was little growth in the total number of people living in the North, there were several shifts in the distribution of the Northern population. For example, the population of the Northwest Territories grew over 14% between 1981 and 1986, whereas the populations of Labrador and Northern Quebec shrank 8% and 10%, respectively. At the same time, there was little change in the number of people living in the Yukon Territory.

#### Aboriginal share of population growing

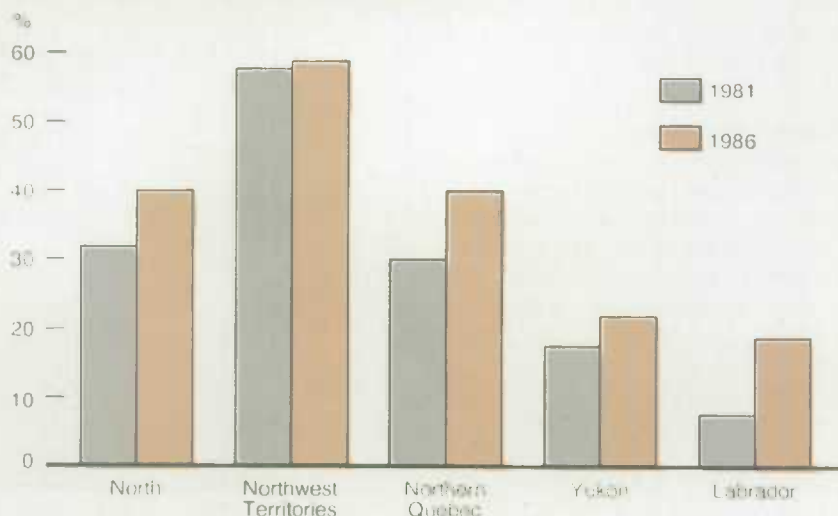
The distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North has also changed in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of Northerners with Aboriginal roots, that is, they identified themselves as North American Indian, Inuit, or Métis, rose 25%. In contrast, the number of non-Aboriginal people declined 12%. As a result, Aboriginal people made up 40% of the total Northern population in 1986, a rise from 32% in 1981.

In 1986, 56,000 Aboriginal people were living in the North. They represented about 8% of all Canadians with native ancestry.

Inuit make up the largest Aboriginal group in the North. Of Aboriginal people reporting a single ethnic background in 1986, 52% were Inuit, 43% were North American Indian, and 5% were Métis.

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Aboriginal people as a proportion of the Northern population, by region, 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The share of the population accounted for by people with Aboriginal ancestry varies in the different regions of the North. Those with Aboriginal roots made up 59% of residents of the Northwest Territories, the only province or territory in which Aboriginal people make up the majority of the population. In the other regions of the North, the share of the population accounted for by Aboriginal people ranged from 19% in Labrador to close to 40% in Northern Quebec. The share of the population reporting themselves as North American Indian, Inuit or Métis, though, increased in all regions of the North between 1981 and 1986. One factor influencing the relative growth of the Aboriginal population in the North is the high rate of out-migration among non-Aboriginals. Aboriginal people are also mobile, but they have generally migrated within clearly delineated areas of the North in keeping with their traditional seasonal activities such as hunting, fishing, and trapping.

#### A young population

The Canadian North has a relatively young population. In 1986, 51% of Northerners were under 25 years of age, compared with 38% of the Canadian population. At the same time, only 3% of Northern residents, compared with 10% of the total population, were aged 65 and over. As with the overall population, the Northern population is aging.

Aboriginal people in the North are somewhat younger, on average, than Northern non-Aboriginals. For example, in 1986, 62% of Aboriginal people, compared with 44% of non-Aboriginals, were under 25 years of age.

#### Educational differences

There are major differences in the educational attainment of the Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations in the North. In fact, the discrepancy in educational achievement between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people is even greater in the North than in the country as a whole.<sup>1</sup>

In 1986, 10% of non-Aboriginals aged 15 and over living in the North had a university degree, the same percentage as for Canada overall. At the same time, only

13% of Northern non-Aboriginals, compared with 18% of those in Canada overall, had less than Grade 9.

In contrast, more than half (54%) of Aboriginal Northerners aged 15 and over had less than Grade 9 in 1986, although this was down from 59% in 1981. In fact, only 20% of Aboriginal Northerners had even completed high school, and just 0.5% had a university degree.

There are also considerable differences in the educational attainment of different Aboriginal groups in the North. In 1986, 64% of adult Inuit had less than Grade 9, compared with 55% of Indians, and 30% of Métis.

#### Labour market activity

Employment and income data paint a portrait of a dual Northern economy. The

non-Aboriginal population tends to be strongly attached to the labour force, with particularly large concentrations in professional and administrative activities. They also have relatively high incomes, partly in compensation for the cost of living in the North.

On the other hand, Aboriginal people have much less attachment to the mainstream labour market, have much higher unemployment rates, have lower incomes, and are much more dependent on government transfers as a source of income than their non-Aboriginal counterparts.

In 1986, 76% of non-Aboriginal men living in the North were employed, compared with 68% for all Canadian men. Similarly, Northern non-Aboriginal women were also more likely than their

#### Language retention in the North

A major concern of Aboriginal people everywhere in Canada, and especially in the North, is the preservation of their culture through the maintenance of Aboriginal languages.

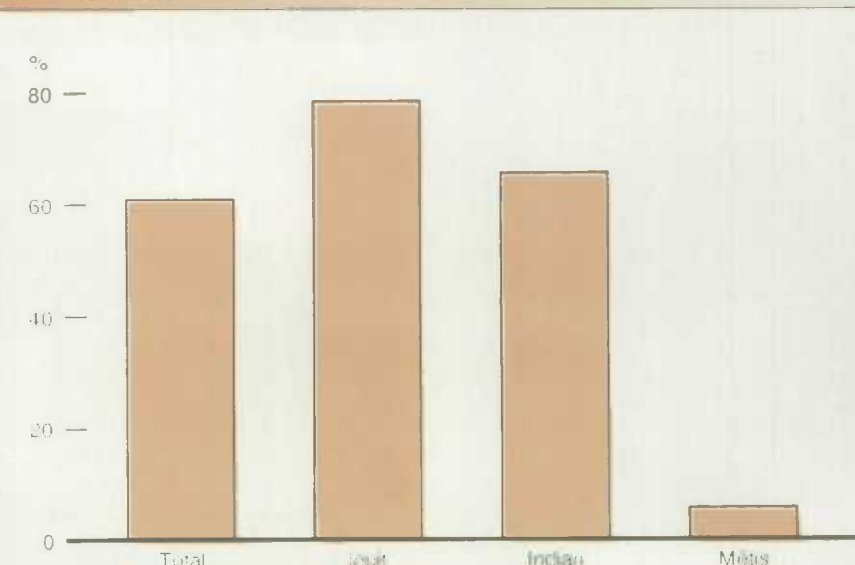
The use of Aboriginal languages in the home is generally quite high in the North. In 1986, 61% of all Aboriginal people in this region still used an Aboriginal language at home, with the figure ranging from as high as 95% in

Northern Quebec to as low as 6% in the Yukon.

Rates of Aboriginal language use are particularly high among the Northern Inuit and Indian populations. In 1986, 74% of Inuit and 59% of Indians reported using an Aboriginal home language. In contrast, only about 4% of Métis had an Aboriginal home language.

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Proportion of Northern Aboriginal people with an Aboriginal home language, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

<sup>1</sup> Comparative figures for Southern Aboriginals refer to those people who reported only Aboriginal origins.



Canadian counterparts to be employed: 49% compared with 45%. In contrast, only 28% of Northern Aboriginal men and 21% of women were employed in 1986.

Unemployment rates among Aboriginal people in the North were well above those for non-Aboriginals. In fact, the proportions of both Northern Aboriginal men and women who were unemployed exceeded the shares with jobs. In 1986, 31% of Aboriginal men and 24% of native women were unemployed.

Unemployment rates for Northern non-Aboriginals were just 11% for men and 15% for women. These figures, however, were somewhat higher than in the rest of Canada, where 9% of non-Aboriginal men and 11% of women were unemployed.

There are also differences in the occupational distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North. The largest occupation category for both populations is the professional/administrative/clerical category, which includes managerial and related occupations. This category, however, accounted for a somewhat greater share of non-Aboriginal (44%) than Aboriginal (35%) workers in 1986. The concentration of employment in this sector, particularly among non-Aboriginal people, reflects the strong presence of the public sector in the North in the form of administrative activities, health care, and other public services.



Aboriginal people also appear to be distributed in smaller proportions than non-Aboriginal people in primary industries, and construction/manufacturing.

It should be noted that the relatively small percentage of the Aboriginal population in primary occupations may be due to the fact that many natives do not identify traditional Aboriginal activities such as hunting, trapping, and fishing as work. Thus, potentially large numbers of

Aboriginal people may not have been included in this occupational category in the 1986 Census.

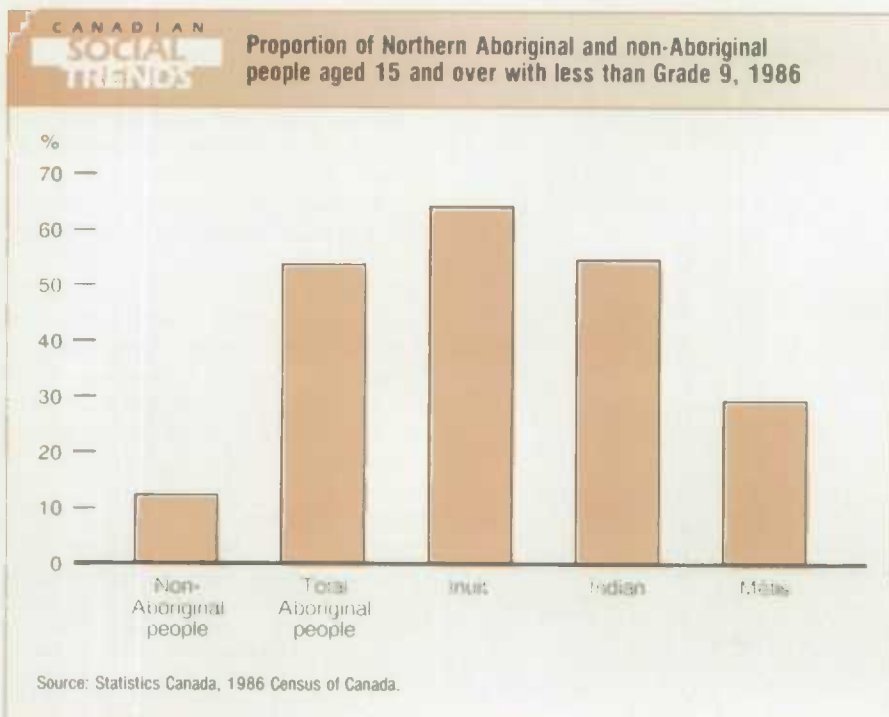
On the other hand, Northern Aboriginals are more concentrated in other services and other occupations such as transport equipment operating and material handling.

### Income

The incomes of people living in the North reflect, in large part, their labour force characteristics. The average income<sup>2</sup> of non-Aboriginal people in all Northern regions was higher than the average for Canadians as a whole. In 1985, non-Aboriginal Northerners had an average income of \$22,200, compared with \$18,300 for non-natives in Canada overall. The difference was especially large in the Northwest Territories, where non-Aboriginals received an average of over \$27,000, \$9,000 more than the average for all Canadians.

The high average income of non-Aboriginals in the North is due, in part, to the special cost of living allowances granted many employees in this region. Thus, while their nominal incomes are, on average, greater than what they would receive in the same jobs elsewhere in Canada, their real incomes, that is, those adjusted for the higher cost of living, may not be any greater.

<sup>2</sup> Refers to income received from all sources including employment, transfer payments, and other sources such as investments.





Northern Aboriginal people, on the other hand, have substantially lower average incomes than non-Aboriginals. However, their incomes were about \$1,200 a year more than Aboriginal people living elsewhere in Canada in 1985. That year, Aboriginal Northerners had an average income of under \$12,000, just 54% the average of non-Aboriginal Northerners.

These income figures, however, do not include income-in-kind from activities such as hunting and fishing. If Aboriginal people do earn more income than others through such activities, the actual income gap between them and non-Aboriginals may be smaller than these figures suggest.

There are also differences in the primary sources of income of people in the North and the rest of Canada, and between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people living in the North.

A higher percentage of the population in the North derives income primarily from employment than is the case in the rest of Canada. This pattern holds for both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people.

Aboriginal people in the North, though, are much more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to derive income primarily from government transfers.<sup>3</sup> In 1985, transfer payments were the major source of income of 29% of Northern

Aboriginal people, almost three times the proportion for non-Aboriginals (11%).

In large part, differences in income reflect the difficulties many Aboriginal people encounter in mainstream labour markets. These problems may result from discrimination, lower levels of educational attainment, or cultural values that may be at odds with standard workplace expectations.

### Family and household composition

In 1986, 83% of family units in the North were husband-wife families, a proportion slightly higher than for all Canada (81%). There was considerable variation, however, in family patterns within the North. Northern Aboriginal families were less likely to be two-parent families than were non-Aboriginal family units, although they were more likely to have both parents present in the household than were Aboriginal families in the rest of Canada.

In 1986, 24% of Northern Aboriginal families were lone-parent families. This was below the figure for Aboriginal families in all of Canada (39%), but well above the rate for Northern non-Aboriginal families (12%).

The proportion of families headed by male lone parents was also comparatively large among Aboriginals in the North. In 1986, 30% of all lone-parent Northern Aboriginal families were headed by men, compared with 17% of all Aboriginal lone-parent families in Canada. For Northern non-Aboriginal lone-parent families, the proportion was 25%.

Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal families in the North are, for the most part, about the same size as comparable families in the rest of Canada. These relationships tend to hold for both husband-wife and lone-parent families.

Aboriginal families in the North, however, are somewhat larger than non-Aboriginal families in this region. Among husband-wife families, 19% of Aboriginal families had more than four children, compared with just 2% of non-Aboriginal family units.

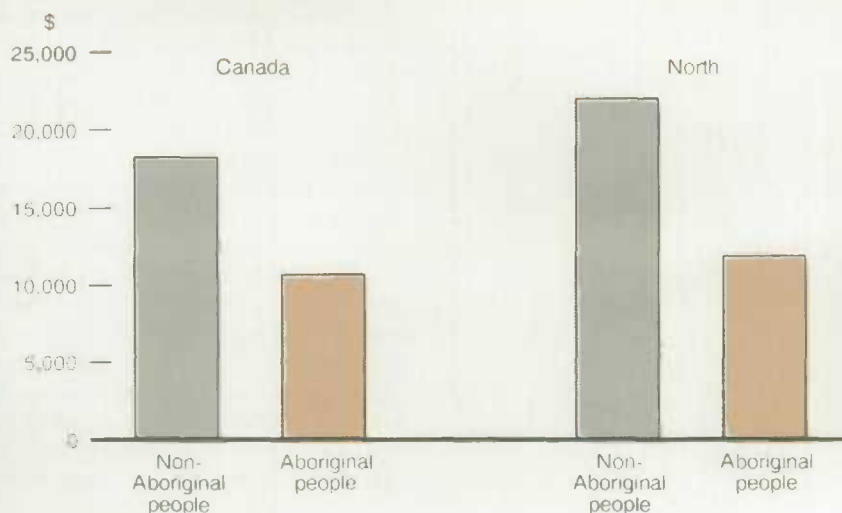
### Housing conditions

Housing is one of the major determinants of the level of welfare of a population.

<sup>3</sup> Transfer payments are non-wage payments from governments to individuals, including Family Allowances, Old Age Security, Unemployment Insurance, and social welfare payments.

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Average income of Canadian and Northern Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.



Housing conditions for non-Aboriginal people in the North are similar to those in the rest of the country, whereas those for the Aboriginal population lag well behind.

For example, in 1986, the average number of persons per room for non-Aboriginal households in the North (0.54) was roughly the same as the norm for Canada as a whole (0.47). In contrast, there was an average of almost one person per room in Aboriginal private dwellings in the North.

Differences in crowding are even sharper when the proportion of homes with more than two persons per room is considered. This is a problem that affects only a very small proportion of both Northern non-Aboriginal homes (0.3%) and households in Canada as a whole (0.1%). In contrast, 7% of Northern Aboriginal households in 1986 had more than two persons per room, although this was down from 10% in 1981.

A relatively large proportion of Aboriginal homes in the North lacks central heating. In 1986, 27% of native homes were heated by fireplaces, space heaters, or stoves. While this figure was down from 32% in 1981, it remained well above rates for Northern non-Aboriginal dwellings (13%) and for all Canadian homes (5%).

**Allan Maslove and David Hawkes** are both professors with the School of Public Administration, Carleton University.

- This article is based on **Canada's North: A Profile** by the same authors. It is part of Statistics Canada's **1986 Census Focus on Canada Series**.



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# THE INUIT

by Andrew J. Siggner



**T**he Inuit, formerly known as Eskimos, are the traditional residents of Canada's Far North. Mostly, they occupy small communities north of the treeline in a region stretching from Inuvik in the Mackenzie River Delta, through the Arctic Islands and Baffin Island, along the coast of Hudson Bay and Ungava Bay in Quebec, to the east coast of Labrador.<sup>1</sup>

Historically, the Inuit have been a hunting, fishing, and gathering society. Today, their ties to the land are still central to their cultural identity, although some Inuit also take part in the modern Northern economy through involvement in activities

such as oil and gas exploration and development, tourism, mining, and public administration. Nevertheless, because of the geographic remoteness of the Inuit, their demographic and socio-economic characteristics differ quite dramatically from those of the rest of Canada's population.

According to the 1986 Census, a total of 27,290 persons reported themselves as having only Inuit origin. They represented 10% of all people who reported their origins as Aboriginal;<sup>2</sup> however, they made up just 0.1% of the total Canadian population.

## Concentrated in the North

In 1986, the majority of Inuit lived in three Northern regions: 64% were in the Northwest Territories; 24% resided in Northern Quebec; and 7% were in Labrador. The remaining 5% were scattered throughout the rest of Canada.

<sup>1</sup> This article covers all Inuit in Canada, whereas the preceding article included only those in Northern regions. As a result, there may be some discrepancies in numbers.

<sup>2</sup> Includes only those who reported a single Aboriginal origin: Inuit, North American Indian, or Métis.



The Inuit represented about one-third of residents of the Northwest Territories, as well as 15% of those in Northern Quebec, and 6% in Labrador.

### Many children, few elderly

The Inuit are a young population. In 1986, 40% of the Inuit were younger than age 15, compared with just 22% of the Canadian population overall. Almost another quarter of the Inuit (24%) were aged 15-24, whereas the corresponding figure for all Canadians was 17%.

At the other end of the age range, fewer than 3% of the Inuit were aged 65 and over, compared with 10% of the total Canadian population.

The proportions of the Inuit in different marital status categories reflect the young age structure of the population. Among Inuit aged 15 and over, more than four out of ten (42%) were single in 1986, compared with just over a quarter (27%) of all Canadians in the same age group.

The proportions of the Inuit in other marital status categories were lower than the figures for the total Canadian population. While half the Inuit were married, the proportion for all Canada was 61%. Similarly, just 3% of the Inuit were separated or divorced, compared with 6% of all Canadians. Widows and widowers made up another 5% of the Inuit, but 6% of the total population.

### Aboriginal languages strong

Most Inuit use their Aboriginal language, Inuktituk, at home. In 1986, almost two-thirds (64%) of the Inuit reported Inuktituk as their home language. Another 24% spoke English at home, while 9% spoke more than one language. French was the home language of only 3%.

A majority (66%) of the Inuit, however, could speak English, whereas just 4% were able to speak French. Close to three out of ten (28%) Inuit, though, could speak neither English nor French. The relatively high proportion of Inuit unable to speak either official language is likely a reflection of the geographic isolation of their communities and the strength of their Aboriginal language in those areas.

### Few migrants

The dominance of Aboriginal languages among the Inuit may also be reinforced by their tendency not to move away from their communities. In 1986, just 12% of the Inuit were in a different community from the one where they had lived five years earlier; the comparable figure for all Canadians was 20%.

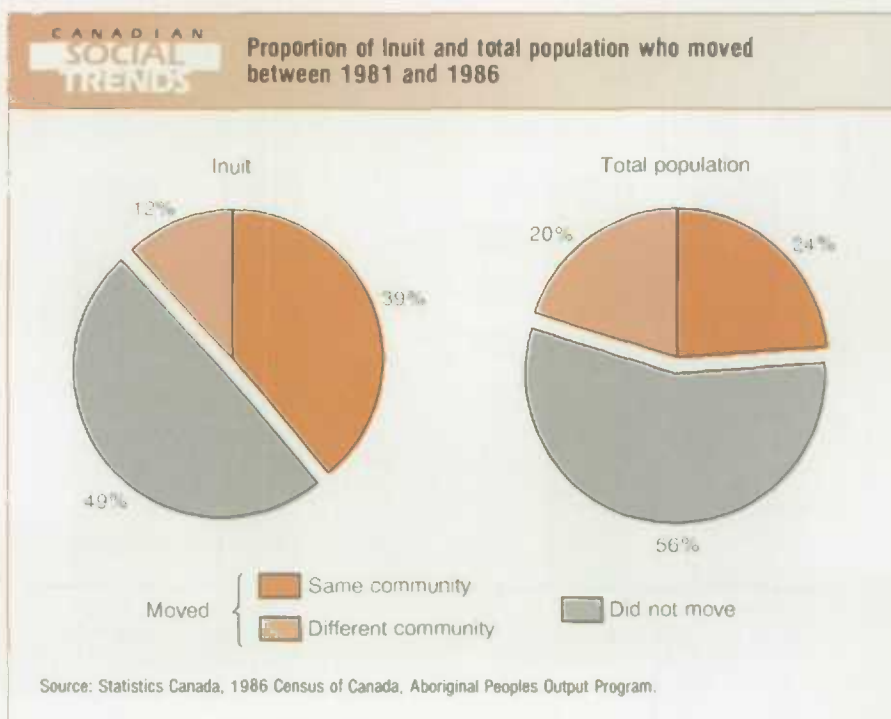
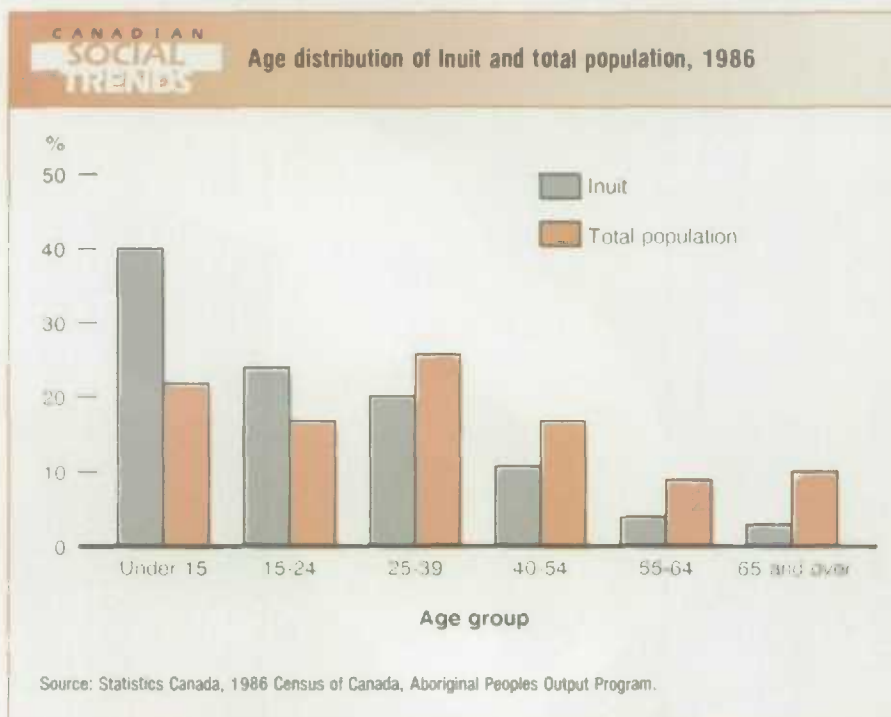
### Little education beyond high school

The level of formal education of the Inuit tends to be low. The majority (60%) of Inuit aged 15 and over never attended high school, while another 23% had been high school students but did not graduate.

At the other end of the education scale, 14% of Inuit people had at least some community college or university. This proportion included 7% who had a trades or community college diploma, and 0.2% who were university degree-holders.

### Labour and income

Official definitions of labour force participation and unemployment are not fully appropriate for Aboriginal people such as the Inuit, many of whom live in remote communities and pursue a traditional way of life. Those who live on the land often are not shown in official statistics as participating in the labour force because what they produce is consumed rather than sold in the marketplace. Partly as a result, a large proportion of the Inuit, both men





and women, were not classified as being in the labour force in 1986. Four out of ten Inuit men reported they were not in the labour force, a proportion almost equal to the percentage who said they were employed. Among Inuit women, over half were not in the labour force, considerably more than the proportion who were employed.

The occupations of those Inuit men and women who were in the labour force diverged sharply. Whereas 40% of men had white collar jobs, that is, managerial/professional, sales/service, or clerical jobs, the percentage of women was 88%.

Among Inuit men, almost equal percentages were in managerial/professional occupations (19%) and construction (18%). Sales/service jobs accounted for another 14%, and transportation, 12%. Those reporting that they held clerical positions or jobs in primary occupations, such as hunting, trapping, fishing, and mining, both represented 8% of Inuit men. The rest were in product fabrication (6%), materials handling (4%), processing/machining (3%), and a variety of other occupations (8%).

The three most common occupations for Inuit women were sales/service (32%), managerial/professional (30%), and clerical (27%). The only blue collar occupation that accounted for more than 2% of Inuit women was product fabrication (4%), which includes jobs such as fur and jewellery manufacture and repair.

#### Incomes low

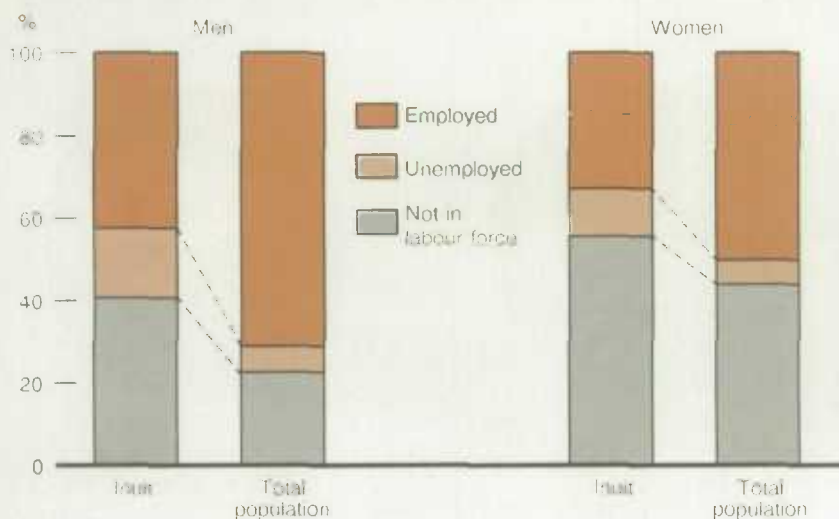
The average 1985 income of those Inuit who received income was \$11,100: \$13,100 for men and \$8,700 for women. These amounts were well below the Canadian average of \$18,200: \$23,300 for men and \$12,600 for women.

Also in 1985, more than a quarter (26%) of Inuit aged 15 and over reported no cash income; this included 19% of men and 34% of women. These proportions were much higher than those for the country as a whole: just 13% of all adult Canadians had no income in 1985 (7% of men; 19% of women).

**Andrew J. Siggner** is Head of the Aboriginal Data Unit with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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#### Labour force activity of Inuit and total population, by sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Output Program.



# INDIAN MORTALITY

by Ellen Bobet

In recent years, death rates among North American Indian people in Canada have dropped dramatically. Despite this decline, mortality rates among Indians continue to exceed those of the total population by a wide margin.

Compared with Canadians in general, Indian people are much more likely to die from accidents or violence, including suicide, and from respiratory conditions. They are less likely to die of cancer, while death rates from diseases of the circulatory system are about the same in the Indian and total Canadian populations.

## Death rate down

The death rate among Indian people has fallen in recent years, although it remains above the national level. The age-standardized mortality rate among Indians was 9.0 per 1,000 population in 1986, a drop from 11.8 in 1978. Even so, the 1986 figure for Indian people was still about one and a half times the national rate (6.6).

The difference in death rates is particularly pronounced among people under age 35. During the 1983-1986 period, for example, Indian death rates were at least three times greater than those for all Canadians in this age range.

By contrast, after age 50, Indian death rates are closer to national levels. For instance, at ages 50-54, the rate among Indians was 956 deaths per 100,000 population, compared with 536 for all Canadians; at ages 70-74, the figures were 3,868 for Indians and 3,282 for the total population.

## Infant mortality rate down

Infant mortality rates have declined among both Indians and all Canadians during the past quarter century. But while infant mortality has fallen more rapidly for Indians than for non-Indians, the Indian rate remains substantially above the national level.

In 1986, the Indian infant mortality rate was 17.2 deaths per 1,000 live births.



### Health problems in Indian communities

Records of visits to nursing stations operated by the Medical Services Branch of Health and Welfare Canada in seven isolated Indian settlements in Quebec indicate that respiratory conditions, ear/nose/throat diseases, and skin problems were the main reasons residents sought health care. Other frequent health problems for Indians resulted from accidents and digestive diseases.

Relative to their share of the population, infants accounted for a large proportion of all Indian visits to medical facilities. By contrast, those aged 15-24 were less likely than other age groups to visit the nurse.

Data for Saskatchewan present a picture basically consistent with the Quebec findings. In 1987, the most common reasons Indian people required hospital care, aside from childbirth, were respiratory conditions, diseases of the digestive system, and injuries. Hospital separation rates for Indian people were at least double the provincial average at all ages, with Indian children under age 5 four to eight times as likely as non-Indian children to be hospitalized.

Information on chronic diseases among Indian people in the Western provinces suggests that diabetes is a serious problem and that tuberculosis rates continue to exceed the Canadian average by a wide margin.

Data for on-reserve Indians in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia show that diabetes was the most frequently reported chronic condition, with rates ranging from 6.2 to 11.9 per 1,000 population.

Although tuberculosis rates among Indian people have been falling, this trend seems to have slowed recently, and there have been outbreaks in some areas. Also, rates of tuberculosis among Indian people remain far higher than among non-Indians. For instance, in 1986, the rate of new active cases among Saskatchewan Indians was 125 per 100,000 population, compared with just 6 for the province as a whole.

down from 79.0 in 1960. The 1986 figure for Indians, though, was still more than twice that for all Canada (7.9).

Much of this difference between Indian and national infant mortality rates is attributable to deaths after the first month of life (post-neonatal). In fact, for the period around birth (neonatal), Indian death rates are fairly close to the national average.

The Indian neonatal mortality rate averaged 6.9 deaths per 1,000 live births during the 1982-1985 period, only 28% higher than the national average (5.4). The post-neonatal death rate among Indians, however, was almost four times the overall Canadian level: 11.0 deaths versus 3.0 deaths per 1,000 live births. During the same period, there were an average of 12.1 stillbirths for every 1,000 live births among Indian women, compared with 4.7 for all Canada.

### More Indians victims of accidents and violence

Indian people are far more likely to die as a result of accidents or violence than are Canadians in general. Accidents and violence accounted for 32% of all Indian deaths reported over the 1978-1986 period, compared with just 8% of those in the total population.

Nonetheless, the incidence of accidental deaths among Indian people has declined in recent years. The age-standardized Indian death rate from this cause fell 45%, from 321 per 100,000 population in 1978 to 175 in 1986. Meanwhile, the accidental death rate for the whole population declined 25%, from 69 to 52 per 100,000 people.

About a third of all accidental Indian deaths result from motor vehicle mishaps, while shootings and drownings each account for 10%. The remaining accidental deaths are attributable to a variety of other causes, such as house fires, exposure, and drug overdoses.

Accidental deaths are highest among Indian men. During the 1983-1986 period, there were 378 accidental deaths for every 100,000 Indian men aged 15 and over. This contrasts with a rate of 95 for all Canadian men.

Indian women and children are at a much lower risk of being killed in an accident. The accidental death rate among Indian women aged 15 and older averaged 128 per 100,000 population during the years 1983-1986. This level, however, was still over three times the rate for Canadian women in general.

Accidental death rates among Indian children were also relatively low. For

example, there were an average of 31 accidental deaths for every 100,000 Indian children aged 5-9 during the 1983-1986 period; for those aged 10-14, the figure was 45. Again, these rates were well above those for all Canadian children. In the general population, there were just 12 accidental deaths for every 100,000 5-9-year-olds, and 14 for 10-14-year-olds.

### High suicide rate

Suicide rates in the Indian population are more than twice the national level. During the 1983-1986 period, the suicide rate among Indians averaged 34 per 100,000 population, compared with an average of

### Health-related conditions in Indian communities

#### Location

- 15% of households are on reserves more than 50 km from the nearest large town; 36% are on reserves within 50 km of a major town.
- the other 49% of households are off-reserve, often in large cities.

#### Water supply

- many communities have several systems.
- about 3/4 of communities have individual or community wells.
- in about half of communities, at least some houses use a piped system.
- in almost 1/4 of communities, some or all residents rely on "self-haul" methods.

#### Sewage

- most communities use a septic disposal system or equivalent.
- about 22% of communities have a piped system with treatment.
- a substantial proportion use pit privies or leaching pits.
- 32% of on-reserve households have no indoor bathroom.

#### Emergency medical evacuation

- in half of communities, patients can be evacuated to hospital in 30 minutes or less; in 5% of communities, medical evacuations can take 3 hours or more.
- most (74%) communities can evacuate patients by road; the rest require some combination of road, water, or air transport.

#### Community services

- 14% of communities have ambulance service.
- 42% of communities have a child-care worker.





14 for all Canada over the years 1983-1985.

As is the case for the total population, Indian suicide rates are generally much higher among men than women. Indian men and women differ, however, in the age at which they tend to commit suicide.

Among Indian men, suicide rates are extremely high at ages 15-29, but fall at older ages. The highest Indian suicide rate occurs among men aged 20-24. During the

1983-1986 period, the average rate for Indian men in this age group was 171 per 100,000 population, more than five times the rate for all Canadian men the same age.

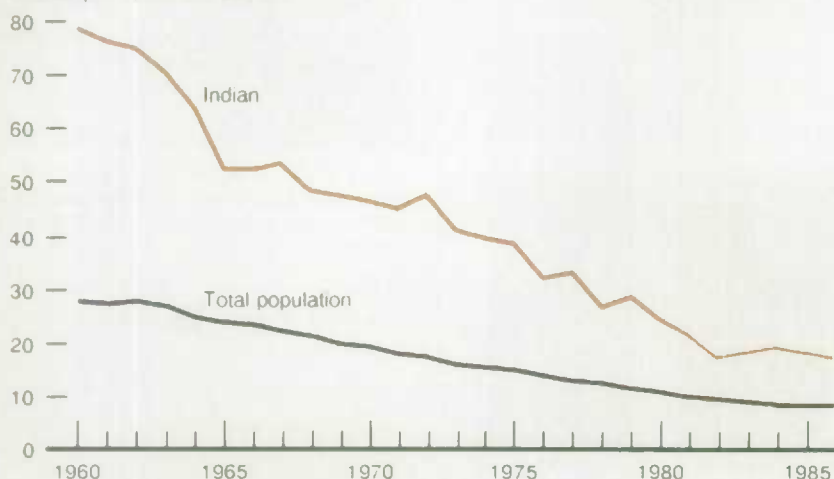
Suicide rates among Indian men, however, decline at successively older ages, in sharp contrast to the trend for Canadian men overall. In fact, after age 55, suicide rates among all Canadian men exceed those of Indian men.

On the other hand, suicide rates for both Indian and all Canadian women are generally higher among older age groups. For the years 1983-1986, the highest average suicide rate for Indian women was 29 per 100,000 population at ages 45-49. The suicide rate for all Canadian women also peaked at ages 45-49, but their 1983-1985 average was just 11 per 100,000 population.

#### CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

#### Infant mortality rates for Indians and total population, 1960-1986

Deaths per 1,000 live births



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-206, and Health and Welfare Canada, Medical Services Branch.

#### Diseases of the respiratory system

Diseases of the respiratory system are also a more frequent cause of death among Indians than non-Indians. Over the 1983-1986 period, these diseases resulted in an average of 88 deaths per 100,000 population among Indians, compared with 51 for Canada overall. Furthermore, unlike many other major causes of death, there is no indication that deaths from respiratory diseases are decreasing in either the Indian or the total Canadian population.

Respiratory ailments are a major cause of death of Indian infants and native people aged 55 and over. As well, they are generally a more serious problem for men than for women, a pattern similar to that in the total population.

#### Lower cancer death rate

Indian people are generally less likely than other Canadians to die from cancer. During the 1983-1986 period, the age-standardized Indian death rate from

cancer averaged 118 per 100,000 population, compared with 172 for all Canada.

The lower cancer mortality rate, however, held only for Indian men, as rates for Indian women aged 25-44 were not significantly below the national average for women in this age range.

#### Diseases of the circulatory system

Indian people are about as likely as other Canadians to die from diseases of the circulatory system. Over the 1983-1986 period, age-standardized death rates for these diseases were 294 per 100,000 population for Indians and 291 for the

total Canadian population. Since 1978, death rates from this cause have declined by almost a third for both groups.

#### Indian mortality data

Data on Indian mortality are provided by regional offices of the Medical Services Branch of Health and Welfare Canada. The information refers only to Status Indians living on reserves. Data collection procedures vary from one region to another.

In the Atlantic Provinces, mortality data are provided by Medical Services Branch field personnel, that is, the nurse who serves a particular reserve. Thus, these data pertain only to the on-reserve population. However, in the Atlantic region, Branch personnel visit every reserve, so all reserves are covered.

In Quebec, Indian mortality data include only communities where the Branch has field personnel. In fact, because the Branch does not have employees in a number of settlements, data are lacking for more than half the Indian population of Quebec.

Ontario data collection procedures are the same as in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec. However, figures are not available for 12 communities representing approximately 5% of Ontario's total on-reserve population.

Before 1985, Indian mortality data for British Columbia, covering all Status Indians in the province, were obtained from the provincial government. For human rights reasons, this practice was discontinued in 1985. Consequently, Indian mortality figures for 1985 and 1986 exclude British Columbia.

In the other provinces, information on Indian mortality comes from provincial data systems. Therefore, data pertain to all Status Indians in these jurisdictions.

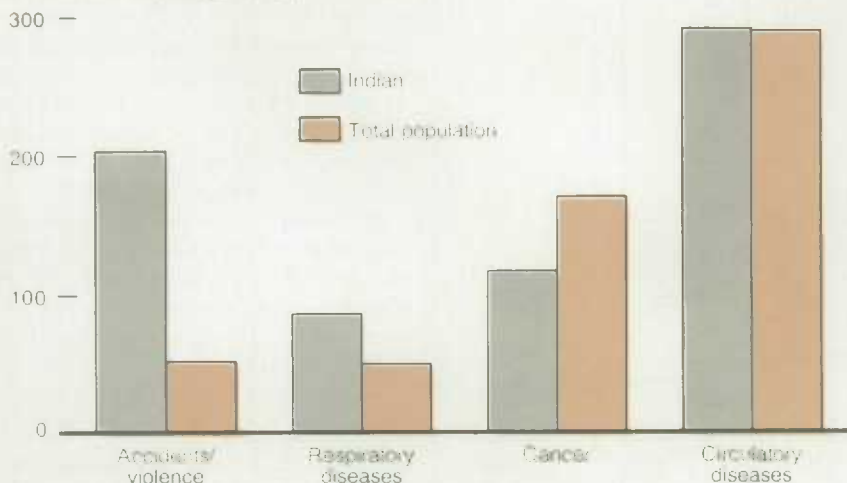
**Ellen Bobet** is a health data analyst with the Medical Services Branch, Health and Welfare Canada.



#### CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

#### Age-standardized death rates for Indians and total population, by cause, 1983-1986 average

Deaths per 100,000 population



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Medical Services Branch.



# PUBLIC LIBRARIES

by Donna Owens

**W**ith the increasing domination of cultural life by television and other electronic media, there has been much speculation in recent years about the decline of reading. Yet trends in the use of public libraries over the last decade seem to refute this impression. In fact, since the late 1970s, circulation of library material has increased substantially.

Part of this increase may be the result of greater availability and accessibility of library collections. The number of public libraries, the number of books on the shelves, and total spending on libraries have all grown in the last decade. And while books still constitute the bulk of material available, holdings such as "talking books," films, videos, and sound recordings have also increased significantly in the 1980s.

## Steady rise in borrowing

The circulation of material held by public libraries has risen steadily since the late 1970s. In 1986, Canadians borrowed 167 million items, up 44% from 116 million in 1978. This translates into a rise in the circulation rate from about five transactions per person in 1978 to seven in 1986.

The greatest increase in library borrowing occurred between 1981 and 1983, when the number of transactions rose an average of 8% per year. Since then, annual growth in library borrowing has slowed, averaging less than 3% during the 1983-1986 period.

## Spending up

Spending on public libraries has risen every year during the last decade. As a result, libraries' operating expenditures totalled \$470 million in 1986, 33% more than in 1978, once inflation has been taken into account. In this period, per capita spending on public libraries, expressed in constant 1986 dollars, rose from \$15.14 to \$18.60.

## More service points

Increases in public library borrowing and spending mirror a rise in the number of library service points. Between 1978 and 1986, the total number of permanent sites



and mobile stations rose 10%, from about 2,800 to almost 3,100.

The vast majority of public library outlets, 97% in 1986, were permanent sites, while the remainder were mobile stations. In fact, during the 1978-1986 period, the number of mobile stations actually declined 28% from 131 to 94, whereas the number of permanent sites increased 12%.

As a result of the overall growth in the number of public library outlets, the ratio of service points to population has im-

proved slightly since the late 1970s. In 1986, there was one outlet for every 8,200 people, compared with one for every 8,400 in 1978.

## Non-traditional material increases

Books still constitute most of the material available in public libraries. In 1986, libraries held 57 million catalogued books, up 38% from 41 million in 1978. Public library holdings in 1986 also included more than five million uncatalogued paperbacks.

As well as books and other traditional reading matter such as newspapers and periodicals, libraries also offer a broad range of audio-visual materials such as "talking books," videos, and recordings. Moreover, in recent years, audio-visual holdings have increased far more rapidly than traditional library items.

For instance, between 1978 and 1986, public libraries' stock of "talking books" more than tripled, rising from 73,000 to 225,000. At the same time, there was more than a fourfold increase in the number of

video materials from 16,000 to 68,000, while the number of sound recordings rose 82%, from 951,000 to 1.7 million.

#### High in west, low in east

Public library use, holdings, and spending per capita are typically higher in Ontario and the west than in the other provinces.

British Columbia and Alberta residents used libraries most frequently in 1986; circulation rates were close to 10 items per person in each province. Circulation rates were also high in Saskatchewan (7.6) and

Ontario (7.5). Manitoba was the only Western province with a circulation rate (5.6) below the level for Canada overall (6.6).

By contrast, library use in provinces east of the Ontario-Quebec border was relatively low. There were only 3.3 library transactions per person in Newfoundland, and just 3.7 in Quebec. Circulation of library materials averaged about five items per person in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

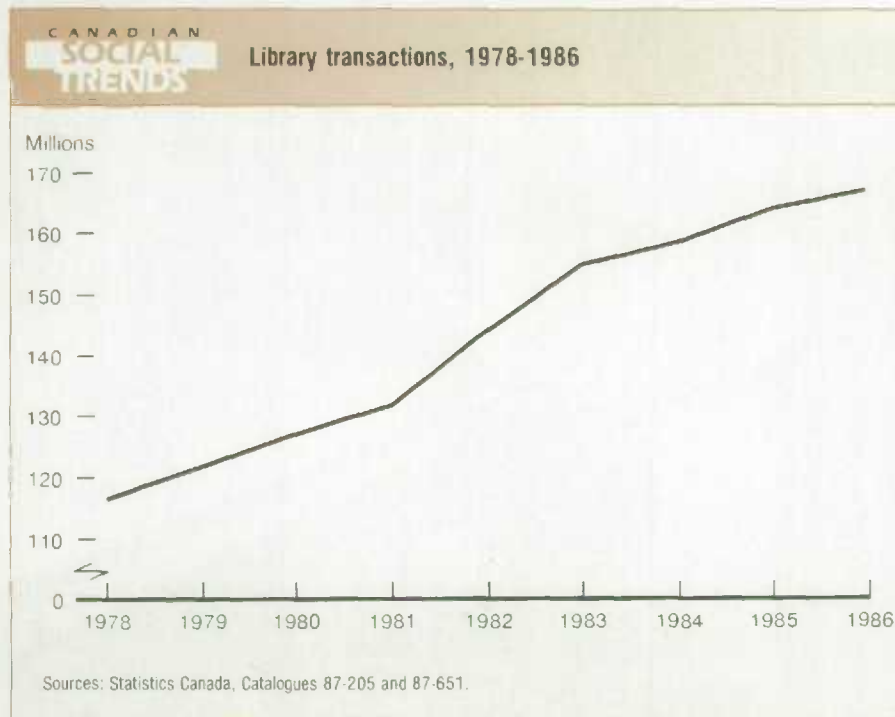
Differences in circulation levels in the various provinces may be associated with the number of volumes available. This, in turn, reflects differences in spending on public libraries.

Public library holdings per person were above the national average in Ontario and all the Western provinces, except Manitoba, whereas they were below the national figure in each province east of the Ontario-Quebec border.

Per capita library operating expenditures were also above the national average (\$18.60) in Ontario (\$25.37), Saskatchewan (\$21.54), British Columbia (\$19.36), and Alberta (\$18.86). Manitoba was the only Western province where library spending was below the national level. Still, the figure in Manitoba (\$15.20) exceeded those in Quebec (\$11.76) and each of the Atlantic provinces, where spending on libraries ranged from \$8.26 per person in Newfoundland to \$12.66 in Nova Scotia.

Quebec, however, had the largest growth in public library operating expenditures between 1978 and 1986; during this period, per capita spending in Quebec rose 73%. Increases in library spending also surpassed the national average (23%) in Manitoba (66%), Nova Scotia (45%), and Alberta (30%). By contrast, increases were below average in Newfoundland (14%), Ontario (12%), Saskatchewan (12%), British Columbia (6%), and New Brunswick (2%). In Prince Edward Island, per capita library operating expenditures actually declined 5% between 1978 and 1986.

**Donna Owens** is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.



#### Public library indicators, by province, 1986

	Circulation per capita	Volumes per capita	Spending per capita
			\$
Newfoundland	3.3	1.6	8.26
Prince Edward Island	5.0	1.6	11.13
Nova Scotia	5.1	1.5	12.66
New Brunswick	4.6	1.8	8.65
Quebec	3.7	1.6	11.76
Ontario	7.5	2.8	25.37
Manitoba	5.6	1.8	15.20
Saskatchewan	7.6	2.6	21.54
Alberta	9.5	2.5	18.86
British Columbia	9.7	2.3	19.36
<b>Canada</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>18.60</b>

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-205.



# PROFILE OF THE CANADIAN ARMED FORCES

by Carol Strike



**T**he military in Canada today make up a small but significant segment of Canadian society. As with the overall population, there have been several changes in the demographic and socio-economic makeup of the Canadian Forces in recent years. Most notably, military personnel are now somewhat younger, on average, than in the early 1970s.

Also, the number of women among both officers and non-commissioned members has grown, and personnel have generally become better educated. In addition, Francophones represent a greater share of members than was the case a decade ago.

### Forces growing

In 1988, there were 87,700 people in the Canadian Forces, up 6% from 83,000 in 1972. But the increase in the forces did not keep pace with total population growth, which amounted to 19% during the same period.

In the 1980s, however, the number of people in the military has increased quite rapidly, rising 9% between 1980 and 1988. In contrast, total military personnel actually declined somewhat during the 1970s.

There was particularly rapid growth in the number of officers between 1972 and 1988, although non-commissioned members (Warrant Officers, Sergeants, Corporals, and Privates) still account for the majority of personnel. During this period, the number of officers increased 20%, while the number of non-commissioned members rose only 2%. As a result, in 1988, 21% of all personnel were officers, up from 19% in 1972.

The majority of officers are at junior levels. In 1988, 57% of officers were Captains or Lieutenants, and 15% were officer cadets. At the senior ranks, Colonels and Majors accounted for 27% of all officers, while 1% were Generals.

Sergeants and Corporals made up the largest share of non-commissioned personnel. In 1988, these ranks accounted for 63% of all non-commissioned members. Another 25% were Privates, and the remaining 12% were Warrant Officers.

### Military college students and graduates

In 1987, a total of 1,536 students were enrolled at Canada's three military colleges. The Royal Military College in Kingston accounted for 62% of those enrolled, while 20% were at Royal Roads Military College in Victoria, and 18% attended Collège militaire royal de Saint-Jean.

In 1987, the military colleges granted 361 degrees; of these, 328 were undergraduate degrees, and 33 were master's degrees. About nine out of 10 undergraduate degrees were earned by men, as were all but one of the master's degrees.

### Members younger

At the end of the 1980s, Canadian Forces personnel tended to be somewhat younger than the group that was serving in the early 1970s. In 1988, more than half (53%) of members were under age 30; this compared with 45% in 1972. At the same time, the proportion aged 30-49 fell from 55% in 1972 to 44% in 1988.

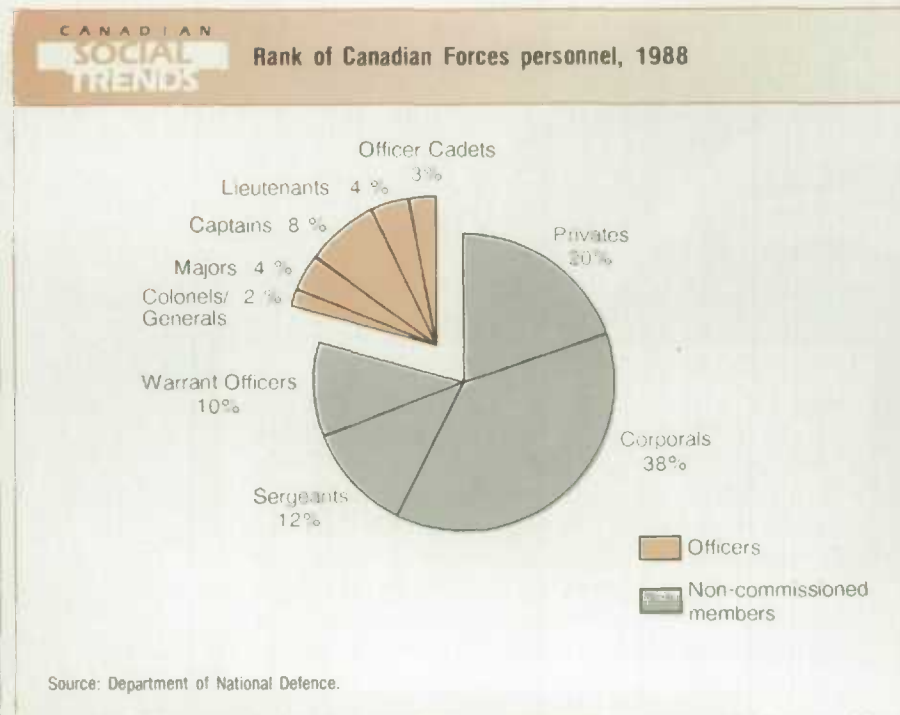
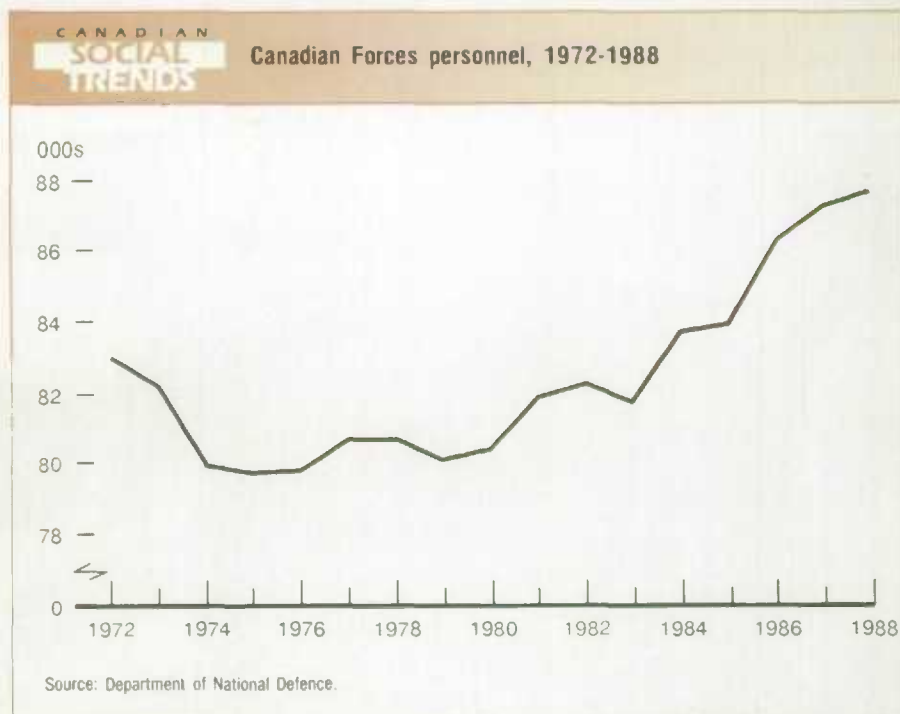
Because retirement age in the military is 55, few personnel are aged 50 or over. Nonetheless, the percentage in this age

bracket has risen, almost doubling from 1.5% in 1972 to 2.8% in 1988.

### Years of service

Changes in the age profile of the Canadian Forces have been accompanied by changes in their level of experience. In 1988, 56% of personnel, compared with 44% in 1972, had served less than ten years.

The proportion of members with 10-24 years of service was 35% in 1988, a drop from 53% in 1972. However, the share of







### Canadian Forces commands

The Canadian Forces are made up of National Defence Headquarters staff and personnel in six commands, which include Air, Maritime, Mobile, Training Systems, Europe, and Communications Commands. Just over one-quarter (26%) of all members are in Air Command, and almost as many (23%) are with Mobile Command. Headquarters accounts for 15% of all personnel, and Maritime Command, another 14%. The remaining members are distributed among Training Systems Command (10%), Canadian Forces Europe (9%), and Communications Command (4%).

personnel who had served 25 or more years grew from 3% to 9%.

### Better-educated personnel

The level of education of Canada's military has risen steadily since the early 1970s. In 1988, 11% of all members had university degrees, up from 7% in 1972. During the same period, the proportion with community college diplomas also rose, from 2% to 8%.

At the other end of the education spectrum, the share of personnel with less than Grade 9 dropped from 15% in 1972 to 2% in 1988, while the percentage who had completed only Grades 9-11 fell from 49% to 24%.

### Women increasing

Women's representation in the Canadian Forces has risen sharply since the early 1970s. In 1988, 10% of all personnel were women, compared with just 2% in 1972.

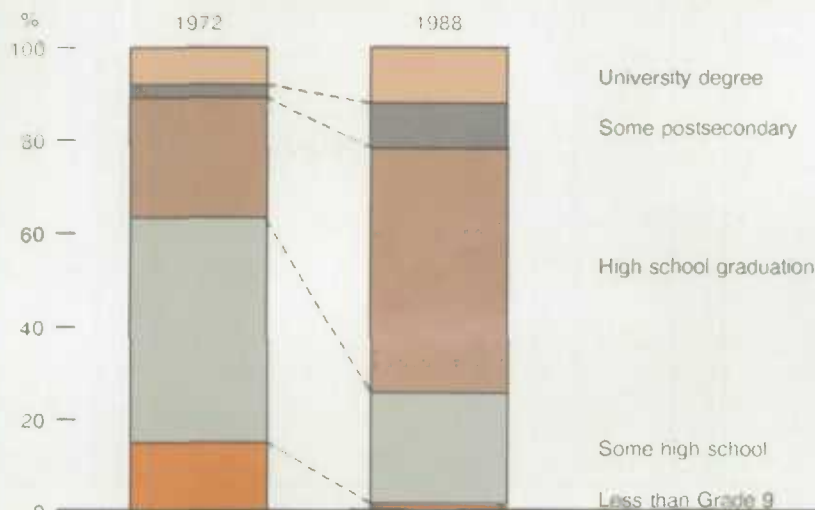
### The Department of National Defence

In 1987, the Department of National Defence was the largest of all federal departments, comprising a total of almost 181,000 people. Nearly half (47%) of them were regular Forces personnel. Another 14% were Primary Reserve members, while 16% were in the Supplementary Reserve.

The Department of National Defence also employed 32,600 civilians, who made up 18% of the total departmental workforce. The remaining 5% of employees worked in Canadian Forces Exchange System (CANEX) outlets, which provide support for base recreational, community, and social activities.

CANADIAN  
SOCIAL  
TRENDS

Highest level of education of Canadian Forces personnel, 1972 and 1988



Source: Department of National Defence.

### Defence spending

In 1986, Canada spent \$9.6 billion on defence. This represented 1.87% of the country's 1986 Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

According to the "Government Finance Statistics Yearbook" of the International Monetary Fund, defence spending as a percentage of GDP was considerably less in Canada than in either the United States (6.42%) or the United Kingdom (5.06%). Canada's expenditures were also proportionately lower than those of Sweden (2.96%), the Netherlands (2.93%), Australia (2.78%), and New Zealand (2.02%), but they were above those in Austria (1.26%) and Italy (1.56%).

Overall, women accounted for 9% of officers and 10% of non-commissioned members in 1988. Both these figures were up substantially from 1972, when 3% of officers and 2% of other ranks were women.

Although the number of women is increasing, a disproportionate share still occupy junior ranks. In 1988, 93% of female officers were at junior levels, compared with just 70% of male officers.

Similarly, 68% of female non-commissioned members were Corporals or Sergeants, and 29% were Privates, while the figures for men were 62% and 24%. Only 3% of women in the non-commissioned ranks were Warrant Officers, compared with 13% of men.

Differences in rank between men and women may reflect differences in length of service. In fact, the discrepancy in ranks is much smaller among recent recruits. For example, by 1988, about 30% of both male and female officers who enlisted between 1983 and 1987 had been promoted beyond Lieutenant.

Women's progress in the non-commissioned ranks was not as rapid. By 1988, 5% of women who enlisted during the 1983-1987 period had reached the rank of Master Corporal or higher, whereas the figure for men was 7%.

### Annual income

Overall, the average employment income of Forces personnel is slightly greater than that earned by other full-time workers. In 1985, the employment earnings of military personnel averaged \$28,600, compared with \$26,800 for civilians working full-time.

There are considerable differences, though, in the incomes of Forces per-

sonnel depending on their rank and sex. Officers make considerably more than non-commissioned members.

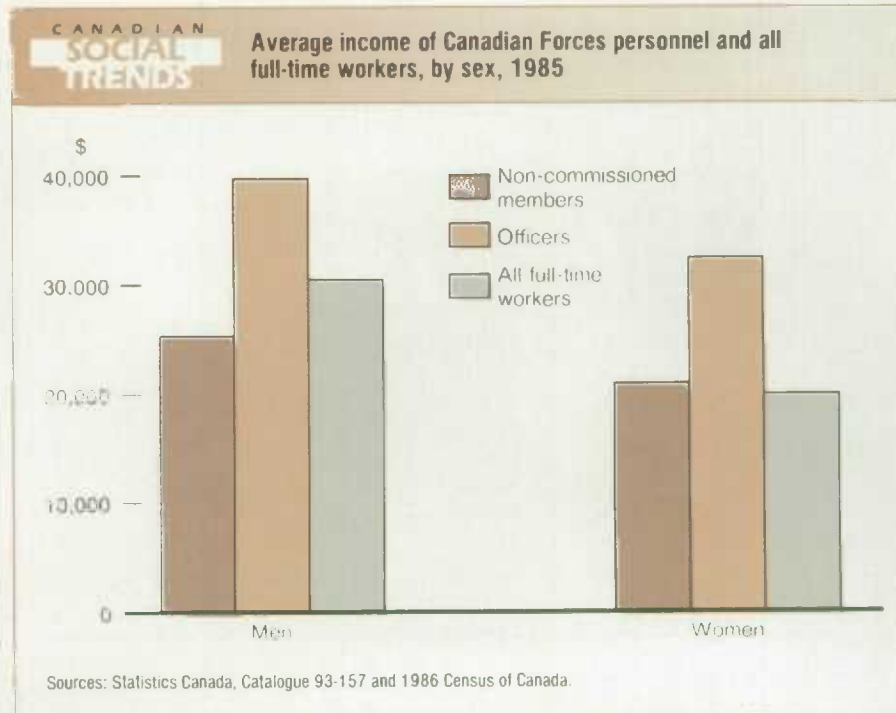
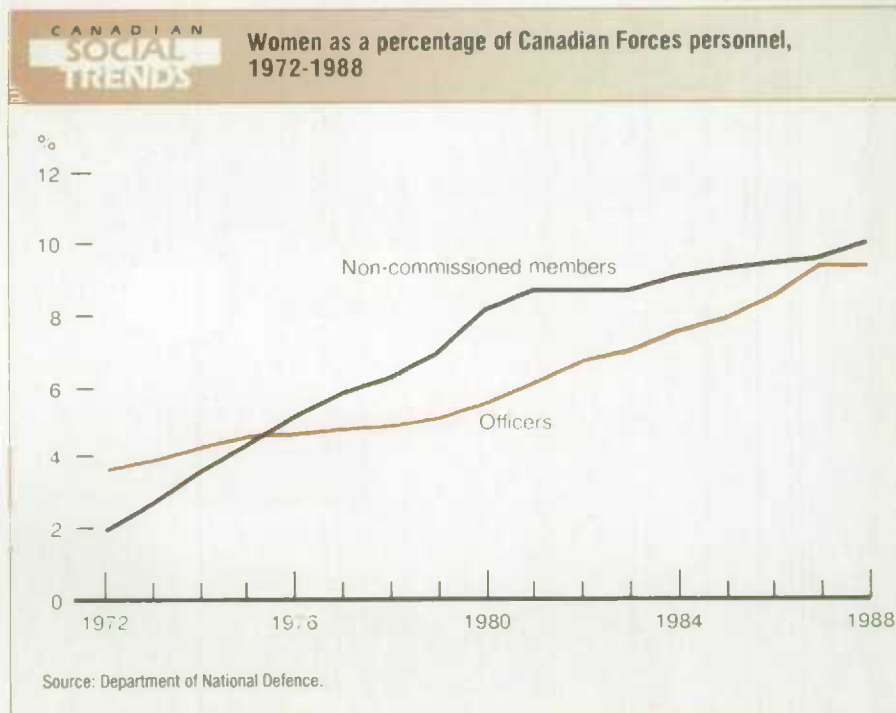
In 1985, the average income of officers was \$39,500: \$39,900 for men and \$32,600 for women. In comparison, non-commissioned members received, on average, \$25,100: \$25,500 for men and \$21,100 for women.

This discrepancy in the average incomes of men and women in the military is primarily due to differences in

rank. Men and women in the Canadian Forces receive the same salary at every rank, but the clustering of women at junior levels results in lower average income figures.

### Military occupations

Canadian Forces personnel work in a wide variety of occupations. For officers, the largest occupation groups in 1988 were engineers and pilots, who accounted for 25% and 15% of the total, respectively.







Logistics officers made up another 11% of all officers, while Maritime and infantry officers each accounted for 7%. The remaining officers were in occupations that included medical and dental fields, security and intelligence, training, administration, and public affairs.

There is even more variation in the occupations held by non-commissioned members. Technicians constitute the largest occupation group at this level, accounting for 42% of all non-commissioned members in 1988. This category, however, includes occupations that range from weapons technicians and com-

munications and radar systems technicians to medical and dental technicians. The remaining occupations of non-commissioned members vary from infantrymen, air crew, and boatswains to administrative clerks.

Traditionally, women in the Canadian Forces have filled support roles such as financial clerks and medical assistants. In recent years, however, more military occupations have been opened to women. In fact, a 1989 ruling required the Forces to admit women to all positions (except submarine service), including combat duty.

### More Francophones

The proportion of Forces members who are French-speaking has risen since the early 1970s. In 1988, French was the first official language<sup>1</sup> of 27% of all personnel, a rise from 19% in 1972.

Francophones, however, are better represented at the lower ranks than among officers. In 1988, 28% of non-commissioned members spoke French as their official language, compared with 23% of officers.

### Marital status related to age

Overall, the proportion of military personnel who are married is roughly the same as that in the total labour force. Canadian Forces members, however, are more likely to be single and less likely to be separated, divorced, or widowed than other working Canadians. In 1986, 62% of service personnel were married, just slightly below the figure for the total labour force (64%). On the other hand, 34% of Forces members were single, compared with 28% of other workers. And while 4% of Forces members were separated, divorced, or widowed, the proportion in the labour force was 8%.

<sup>1</sup> Refers to the language that Canadian Forces members designate they want to be used for their records.



### The American military

In the United States, the armed forces are far more prominent than in Canada. Relative to the size of the population, the American military constitutes a larger group, and defence expenditures absorb a much greater share of the federal budget.

In 1986, the American armed forces numbered almost 2.2 million, about nine active duty personnel per 1,000 population. In comparison, there were only about three military personnel per 1,000 population in Canada.

The proportion of officers was lower in the American than in the Canadian

Forces. Officers made up 14% of American service personnel in 1986, compared with 21% in Canada.

Women's representation in the armed forces of the two countries was similar. In both the United States and Canada, 10% of regular force personnel were women.

The relative importance of defence concerns is shown most clearly in expenditures. In 1986, national defence outlays amounted to almost 26% of federal spending in the United States, compared with just over 8% in Canada.

There has also been a trend toward more intra-service marriages. The proportion of personnel married to other Forces members has more than tripled, rising from under 2% in 1975 to 7% in 1988.

Service personnel who are members of husband-wife families are more likely than other husband-wife families to have children at home. In 1986, 70% of military husband-wife families had children; the corresponding figure for all Canada was 63%.

### Recruiting trends

The annual number of Canadian Forces applicants and recruits fluctuated in the 1980s, largely as a result of the recession in the early part of the decade. High unemployment in the civilian labour force at that time made the prospect of military service more appealing and resulted in more applications to enlist. But high unemployment levels also deterred members from leaving the military. Consequently, there was a decline in the rate of

attrition, that is, the percentage of all regular members who left the Forces. This, in turn, reduced the demand for new recruits.

Between 1979 and 1982, the number of applicants for non-commissioned positions grew from 28,500 to 40,100. Meanwhile, the attrition rate of non-commissioned members fell from 11% in 1980 to 6% in 1983, so fewer recruits were needed. In 1982, at the height of the recession, only 6,700 recruits for non-commissioned positions, just 17% of all applicants, were accepted. This compared with 12,300 recruits, 31% of applicants, the previous year.

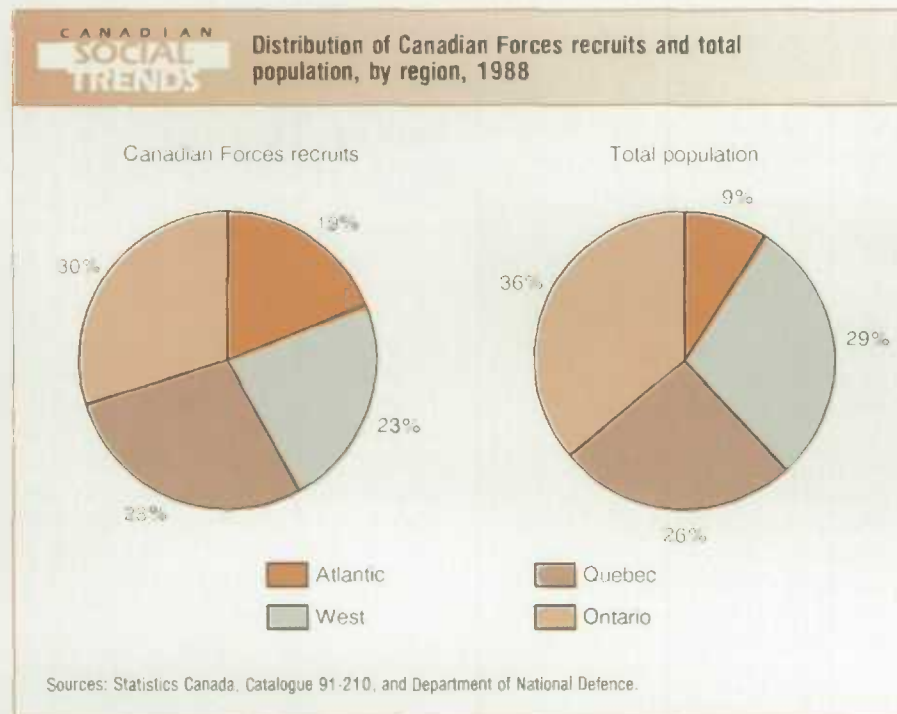
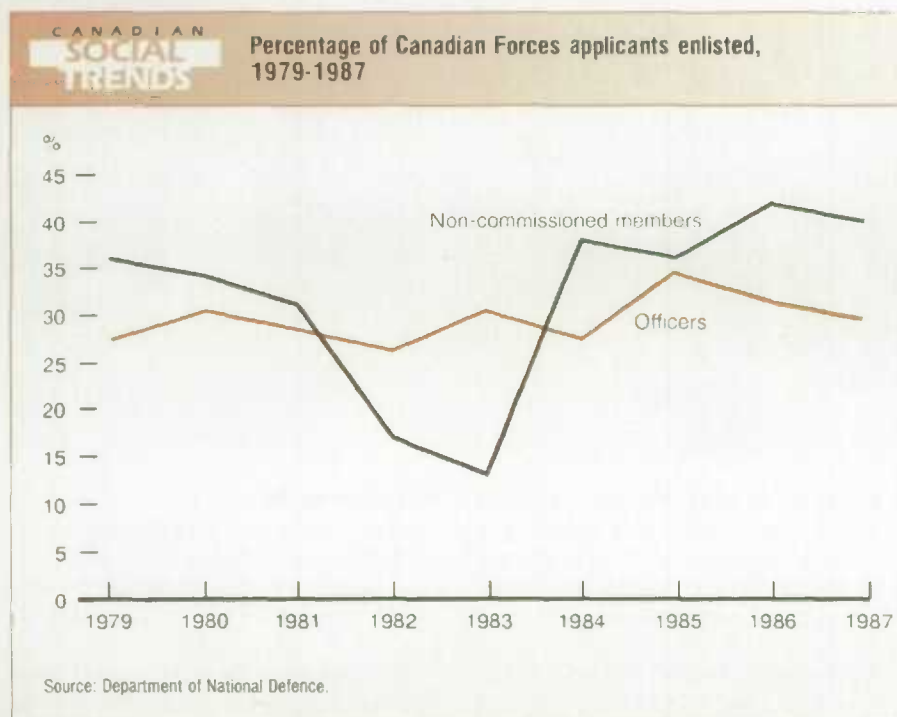
Recruiting trends among officers were somewhat less clearcut. The number of applicants for officer positions rose from 4,700 in 1980 to more than 6,000 in 1982, while the attrition rate for officers fell from 7% to 5% in the same period. The actual number of officers recruited, however, rose from fewer than 1,400 in 1980 to more than 1,500 in 1982. Yet, as proportion of all officer applicants, those recruited fell slightly, from 30% to 26%.

Since the recession, the number of applicants has fallen, but the proportion recruited has increased. In 1987, the Canadian Forces received about 20,000 applications: 5,600 for officer, and 14,700 for non-commissioned positions. Of those applicants, 37% were accepted: 29% for officer, and 40% for non-commissioned positions.

### Origin of recruits

The geographic origin of recruits differs somewhat from the distribution of the total population, with disproportionately high numbers coming from the Atlantic region and Quebec. In 1988, 19% of all recruits were from Atlantic Canada, although these provinces accounted for just 9% of the population. At the same time, 28% of recruits were from Quebec, whereas only 26% of all Canadians lived in this province. On the other hand, while 30% of recruits were from Ontario, and 23% came from the Western provinces, these regions made up 36% and 29% of the population, respectively.

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





# HOW CANADIANS SPEND THEIR DAY

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament

**P**eople's daily activities give some indication of the overall quality of life in their society. As part of the 1986 General Social Survey, Statistics Canada collected information from Canadians aged 15 and over about how they spent their time. Respondents were asked what they did and for how long on a given reference day.<sup>1</sup>

According to this survey, Canadians spent the largest proportion of their day on personal care activities such as sleeping and eating. In fact, people spent almost half their day on these activities. The next largest portion of the day was spent working, either for pay or on family care responsibilities including housecleaning, child care, and shopping. Still, while personal care and work consumed the bulk of Canadians' time, a fair amount of the day was left for leisure pastimes.

There was considerable variation in the pattern of Canadians' activities, particularly between men and women. For example, men spent more time than women working for pay, while women, even those with jobs outside the home, devoted more time to family care.

## Personal care activities

Personal care accounted for the largest share of the daily life of Canadians. In 1986, these activities consumed an average of 11 hours a day for people aged 15 and over. Most of that time, over eight hours, was spent sleeping. Another hour and a half was spent eating, including snacks and meals at restaurants, while

<sup>1</sup> While the methodology used in the General Social Survey provided a fairly complete overview of what Canadians do on a daily basis, certain activities are probably underreported. Because respondents were asked to list only their primary activity at any given time, the total time reported for activities such as listening to the radio or caring for children, which are often done at the same time as something else, may not accurately reflect the actual time spent on these activities.



activities such as washing and dressing accounted for 40 minutes daily. The remaining half hour of personal care time was spent relaxing or attending to a variety of other personal activities.

Women whose main activity was keeping house devoted more time to personal care than either men or women employed in the labour force. Women keeping house averaged almost 11½ hours a day on personal care, compared with just over 10½ hours for employed women and 10¼ hours for employed men.

#### At work

Work and work-related activities also consume a large proportion of the average day of Canadians. Overall, in 1986, adult Canadians put in a total of just under seven hours a day in either paid work and related activities or family care.<sup>2</sup>

Paid work and related activities accounted for about 3½ hours a day when averaged over the total adult population with and without paid jobs. However, those who actually participated in paid work spent an average of 8¼ hours per day on work and related activities. One of the related activities, travel time to and from the job, worked out to just over three-quarters of an hour a day.

Canadians spent almost as much time on family care activities in the home as on work for pay. In 1986, people aged 15 and over averaged about three hours a day on family care activities. Domestic work, which includes housecleaning and meal preparation, accounted for 1¼ hours a day, while activities such as care of children and shopping took up roughly 1¼ hours.

#### Differences between men and women

Not surprisingly, there was considerable variation in the daily activities of men and women. Even among those whose main activity was paid work, men worked longer hours than women, while women spent more time on family care.

Men employed outside the home worked about 75 minutes more a day than their female counterparts: seven hours compared with 5¾ hours.<sup>3</sup> Part of this difference is attributable to the higher percentage of men than women working full-time.

On the other hand, women employed outside the home spent an average of over three hours a day on family care activities, compared with under two hours for employed men. The largest part of this difference, an hour a day, involved chores such as housecleaning and meal preparation.

Time spent per day on selected activities, by employment status and sex, November 1986

	Employed men	Employed women	Women keeping house	Total population
hours/minutes per day				
Work for pay	7:04	5:49	0:22	3:35
Family care:				
- housecleaning/meal preparation	0:53	1:53	3:44	1:45
- child care	0:15	0:27	1:03	0:25
- shopping	0:39	0:54	1:15	0:53
- total family care	1:47	3:13	6:02	3:03
Personal care:				
- sleeping	7:53	8:06	8:37	8:25
- eating	1:21	1:15	1:39	1:25
- washing/dressing	0:35	0:51	0:38	0:40
- other personal care	0:25	0:25	0:31	0:31
- total personal care	10:14	10:37	11:25	11:01
Leisure time:				
- media/communication				
- television/rented movies	2:08	1:31	2:29	2:20
- other media	0:05	0:06	0:09	0:08
- reading	0:22	0:19	0:26	0:27
- total media/communication	2:35	1:56	3:04	2:55
- socializing	0:59	1:05	1:17	1:08
- sports/hobbies	0:35	0:29	0:58	0:45
- organizational/voluntary/religious activities	0:10	0:16	0:22	0:15
- other leisure activities	0:25	0:22	0:20	0:24
- total leisure time	4:44	4:08	6:01	5:27
Education and other activities	0:11	0:13	0:10	0:54
<b>Total</b>	<b>24:00</b>	<b>24:00</b>	<b>24:00</b>	<b>24:00</b>

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, November 1986.

As well, men whose main activity was work for pay were less likely than employed women to actually engage in family care activities. For example, 83% of employed women participated in activities such as housecleaning and meal preparation, compared with just 51% of men. The percentages of employed men participating in child care and shopping were also much lower than for comparable women.

However, the total time invested in work outside the home and family care by

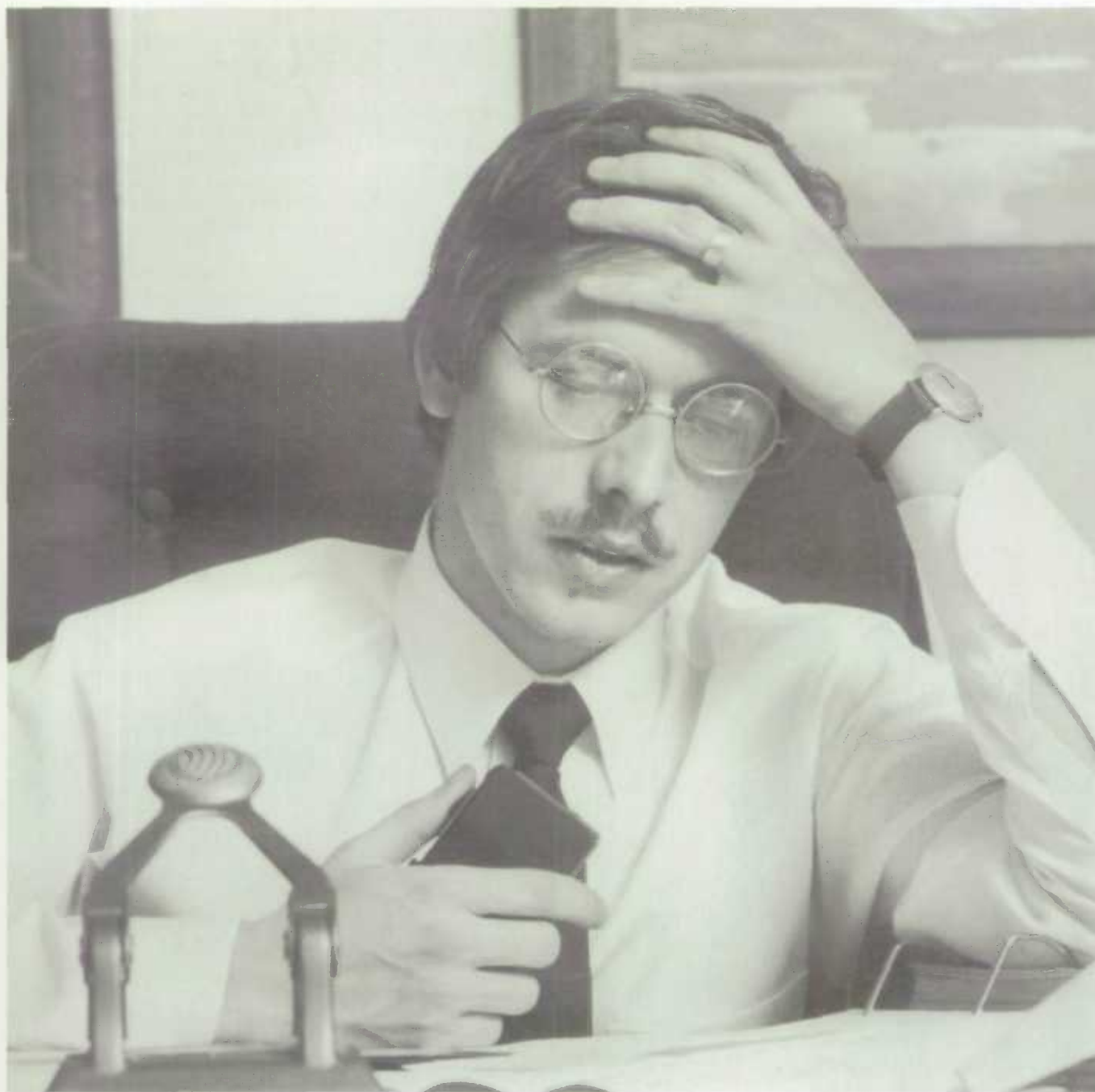
employed men and women was roughly equal: 8¼ hours per day for men and nine hours for women.

As would be expected, women who reported keeping house as their main activity spent considerably more time than anyone else on domestic work. Overall, they spent a total of six hours a day on

<sup>2</sup> All amounts of time have been averaged over seven days.

<sup>3</sup> Includes those who did not work on the reference day.





these chores:  $3\frac{1}{4}$  hours on cleaning and meal preparation;  $1\frac{1}{4}$  hours on shopping; and about one hour on child care.

### Leisure time

While personal care and work-related activities account for most of Canadians' day, they still enjoy a considerable amount of leisure time. In fact, Canadians spent an average of about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  hours daily on leisure activities in 1986. Most of that time was devoted to media and communication activities, particularly watching television. On average, adult Canadians watched TV or rented movies  $2\frac{1}{4}$  hours a day.<sup>4</sup>

Canadians averaged about half an hour

a day reading. Although a relatively low percentage of adults, just under 20%, actually engaged in this activity, those who did spent almost three hours a day reading.

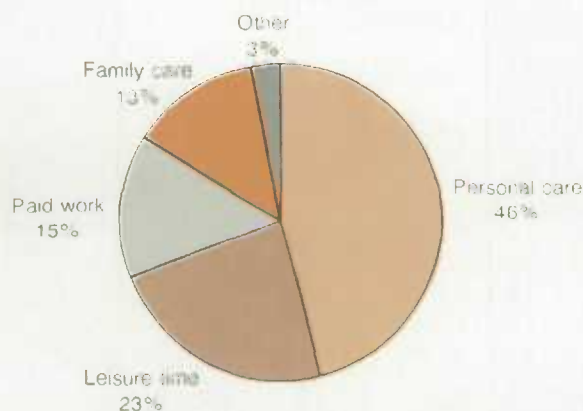
Socializing took up a little over an hour a day. This included visiting or entertaining friends and relatives, socializing in a bar, and talking on the telephone.

Sports and hobbies, organizational, voluntary and religious activities, and attendance at entertainment events such as movies also accounted for some of Canadians' time. On average, the population aged 15 and over spent 45 minutes a day participating in sports and hobbies, while other entertainment activities accounted

for an average of just under half an hour a day, and voluntary activities, 15 minutes.

When averaged over only actual participants, considerably more time was invested in these activities. For example, people who participated in organizational or other voluntary work averaged around  $2\frac{1}{4}$  hours a day on these activities, about

<sup>4</sup> This is less than the almost  $3\frac{1}{2}$  hours a day devoted to watching television reported in the Autumn 1989 issue of *Canadian Social Trends*. The data in that article, however, included television viewing as a secondary or tertiary activity, whereas in this article it was counted only when it was the primary activity.

Distribution of time spent on daily activities,  
November 1986

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, November 1986.

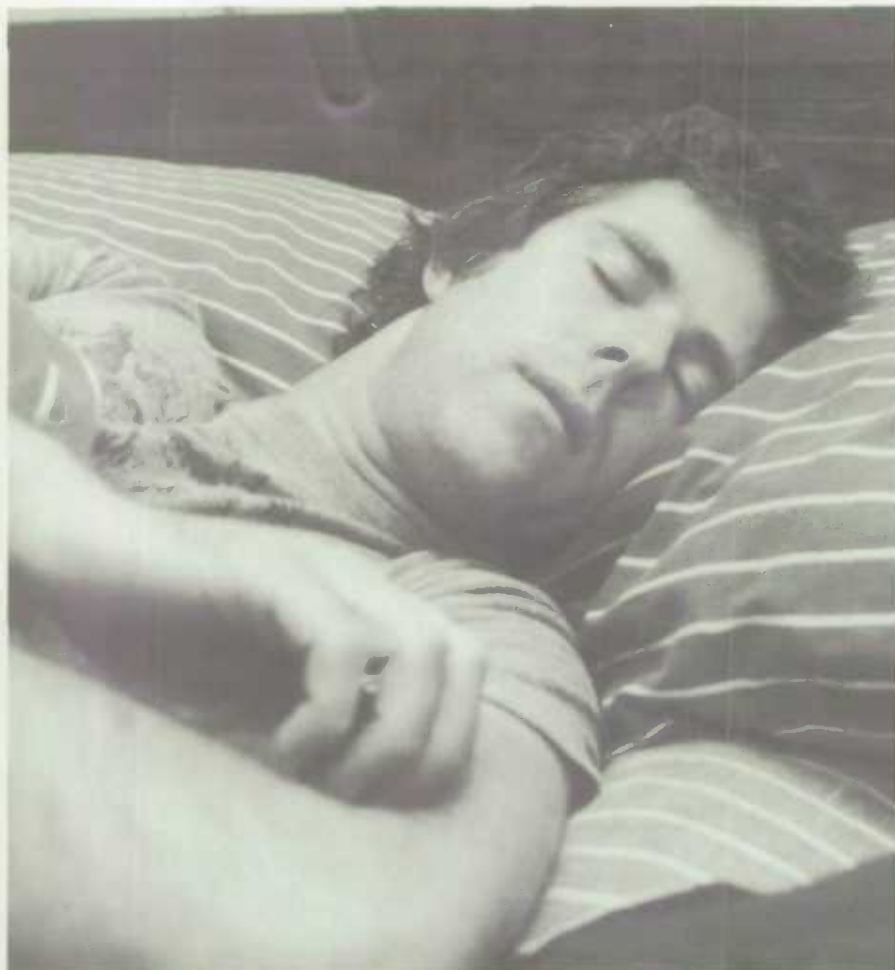
the same total that enthusiasts invested in sports and hobbies. Those who attended events such as movies, sports, and concerts averaged about two hours a day on these activities.

The leisure patterns of employed people and women who keep house differ substantially. Women who work at home tend to have the most leisure time, while employed women tend to have the least. Women at home spent an average of six hours a day on leisure activities, compared with 4¼ hours for employed men and just over four hours for employed women.

Women keeping house spent more time on media and communication activities, especially television viewing. Overall, women at home watched television an average of 2½ hours a day, compared with just over two hours for employed men and 1½ hours for employed women. Women at home also spent about half an hour more a day on sports and hobbies than men and other women. They also spent more time socializing.







### About the General Social Survey

The General Social Survey, conducted by Statistics Canada, gathers a variety of data on socio-economic trends not available through existing sources. The survey is taken annually, with a sample size of about 10,000 households. Besides time use, the General Social Survey has covered topics such as health and social support (1985), language and social mobility (1986), crime and accidents (1988), and work and education (1989).

More information on this survey is available from:

General Social Survey  
Housing, Family and Social  
Statistics Division  
Statistics Canada  
R.H.Coats Bldg., 17-F  
Ottawa, Ontario  
K1A 0T6  
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**Jo-Anne B. Parliament** is Associate Editor of *Canadian Social Trends*.



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# UNIVERSITY ENROLMENT IN THE 1980s

by Margaret Potts



**D**uring the late 1960s and early 1970s, full-time enrolment in Canadian universities rose phenomenally as the large Baby Boom generation passed through the prime age range for post-secondary education. At the time, it was expected that this would be a temporary situation, and that pressure on universities would ease in the 1980s when the relatively small cohort born during the 1960s reached university age. Instead, the number of full-time students has continued to increase in recent years, largely

because a growing proportion of young people, especially women, are going to university.

## Enrolment up

Between 1980 and 1988, full-time enrolment<sup>1</sup> at Canada's universities rose 30%, from 382,600 to almost half a million (499,200).

There were increases in both undergraduate and graduate enrolment. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of full-time undergraduates rose 30% from

338,000 to 439,300, while enrolment at the graduate level increased 34% from 44,700 to 59,800.

## Faster increases among women

During the 1980s, the number of women enrolled at university has grown about twice as fast as the number of men. From

<sup>1</sup> Includes students in bachelor's, master's and doctoral degree programs, those in diploma/certificate programs, and medical interns and residents.



1980 to 1988, female undergraduate enrolment increased 44%, compared with an 18% rise in the number of male undergraduates. As a result, in 1988, women actually made up a slight majority of undergraduate students. That year, 51% of all full-time undergraduates were women, a rise from 46% in 1980.

Women's representation in graduate programs increased even faster than in undergraduate studies, although women remain a minority of full-time graduate

students. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of female graduate students rose 52%, compared with a 27% rise in the number of men. By 1988, women made up 41% of full-time graduate enrolment, up from 36% in 1980.

#### Fewer young adults; higher enrolment rates

The upturn in full-time university enrolment in the 1980s happened at the same time as the number of 18-24-year-olds, the

age group most likely to attend university, was falling. After peaking at 3.3 million in 1982, the number of people in this age group declined 13% to 2.9 million in 1988.

However, while the size of the young adult population has diminished, the percentage attending university has increased. The proportion of 18-21-year-olds enrolled full-time in universities rose from 11% in 1980 to 16% in 1988. In the same period, the enrolment rate of people aged 22-24 increased from 7% to more than 9%.

There were particularly rapid increases in the enrolment rates of women. In fact, by 1988, the proportion of women aged 18-21 enrolled full-time was greater than that of men in this age range. In 1988, 18% of women aged 18-21 were full-time university students, whereas the corresponding figure for men was just 14%. By comparison, in 1980, 11% of both men and women had been enrolled.

The increase in the enrolment rate of women aged 22-24 was also faster than that of men. However, women in this age group were still less likely than men to be full-time university students. In 1988, 9% of women aged 22-24 were in university, compared with 10% of men. The 1980 enrolment rates had been 5% for women and 8% for men.

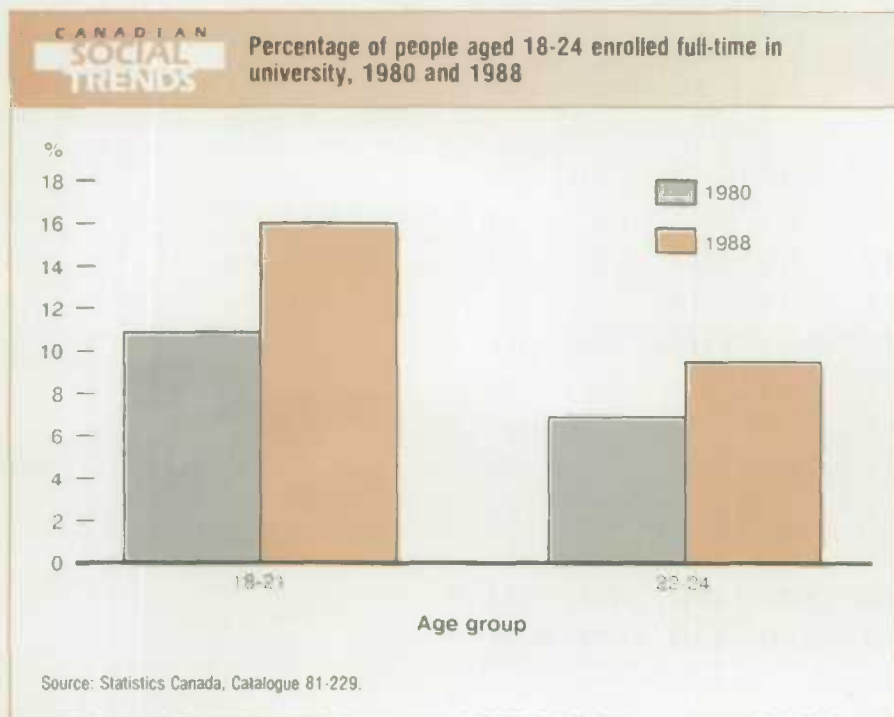
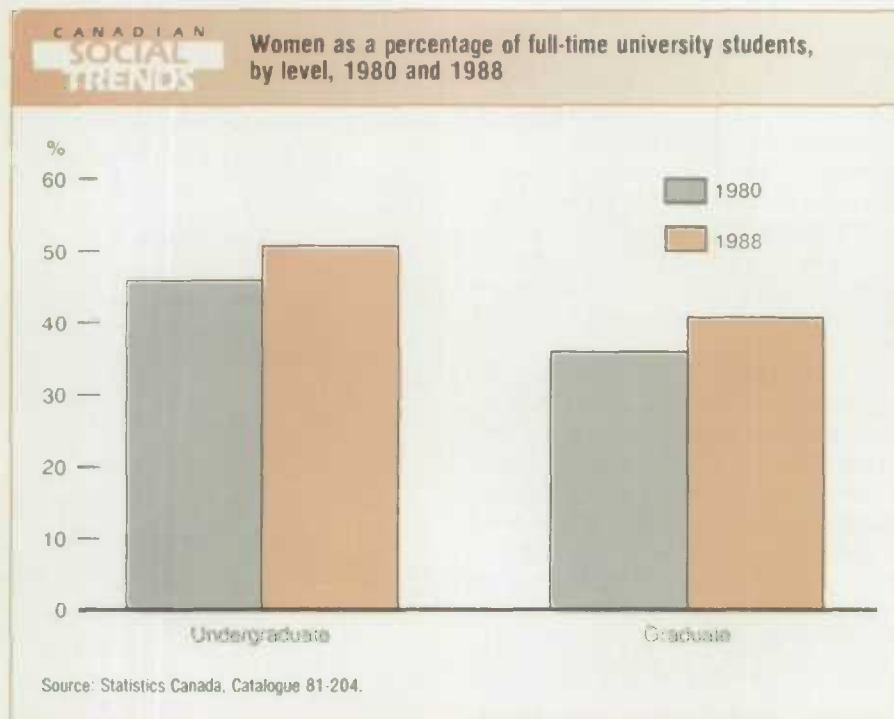
#### Slight shifts in program choices

During the 1980s, there was little change in the distribution of full-time university students among different fields of study.

The proportions of undergraduates in agriculture/biological sciences, humanities, mathematics/physical sciences, and social sciences rose slightly, while the shares in other disciplines declined. The largest increase was in humanities, which accounted for 9% of all undergraduates in 1988, compared with 7% in 1980. The sharpest decline occurred in engineering/applied sciences, which had 9% of all undergraduates in 1988, down from 11% in 1980.

Nonetheless, the overall distribution of undergraduates changed little. In 1988, 32% of students at this level were in the social sciences, while 15% were in general arts and sciences, 10% were in education, and 7% in agriculture/biological sciences. Health professions and mathematics/physical sciences each accounted for another 6% of undergraduates, and 3% were enrolled in fine and applied arts.

At the graduate level, there were increases in the share of enrolment in mathematics/physical sciences and





engineering/applied sciences, while the proportions in humanities and social sciences declined.

Even so, the social sciences still represented the largest share of all graduate students (28%) in 1988. Another 19% were in the health professions, and 13% were in humanities. Education, engi-

neering/applied sciences, and mathematics/physical sciences each accounted for another 10% of total graduate enrolment, while 7% were in agriculture/biological sciences, and 2% were in fine and applied arts.

#### Different choices for men and women

At both the undergraduate and graduate levels, men were more likely than women to enroll in engineering/applied sciences and mathematics/physical sciences. In contrast, much higher percentages of women than men were in education and humanities.

Among undergraduates in 1988, 16% of men were in engineering/applied sciences, compared with just 3% of women. In mathematics/physical sciences, the figures were 8% for men and 3% for women.

At the same time, 13% of female undergraduates, compared with 7% of men, were in education, while humanities accounted for 11% of women and 8% of men.

As well, the proportion of women in the health professions at the undergraduate level was twice that of men. In 1988, 8% of female undergraduates were enrolled in a health-related program, mostly nursing, whereas the figure was just 4% for men.

Differences in the enrolment patterns of men and women at the graduate level were similar to those of undergraduates. Almost 16% of male graduate students were enrolled in engineering/applied

sciences, compared with just 3% of women. In mathematics/physical sciences, the proportions were 14% for men and 5% for women.

On the other hand, higher proportions of women than men were enrolled in education and humanities. The proportions of male and female graduate students in the health professions, however, were virtually identical.

#### Increases in part-time university enrolment

The increase in full-time university enrolment during the 1980s was accompanied by a rise in the number of part-time students. Between 1980 and 1988, total part-time enrolment increased 25% from 245,100 to 306,200.

Part-time enrolment rose at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The number of undergraduates increased 26% from 213,000 to 268,500, while at the graduate level, the increase was 17% from 32,100 to 37,600.

Women accounted for most of the growth in part-time enrolment. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of women enrolled part-time rose 38% among undergraduates and 51% at the graduate level. At the same time, the number of men studying part-time rose 14% among undergraduates, and actually declined in graduate studies. Consequently, by 1988, women made up the majority (64%) of part-time students at the undergraduate level, as well as half of those in graduate programs.

Fields of study of full-time university students, 1988

	Undergraduate			Graduate		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
	%					
Agriculture/biological sciences	5.9	7.2	6.6	7.6	7.2	7.4
Education	7.1	12.8	10.1	5.4	14.1	9.0
Engineering/applied sciences	15.7	2.5	8.9	15.7	3.3	10.6
Fine/applied arts	2.7	4.0	3.4	1.6	2.9	2.1
Health professions	4.0	7.6	5.8	18.9	19.1	19.0
Humanities	7.6	11.2	9.4	10.8	16.7	13.2
Mathematics/physical sciences	8.4	3.1	5.7	13.5	5.1	10.1
Social sciences	31.2	31.8	31.5	26.0	30.7	27.9
General arts/sciences	13.8	15.8	14.9	0.3	0.3	0.3
Not reported	3.6	3.8	3.7	0.3	0.5	0.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Total number of students</b>	<b>214,979</b>	<b>224,355</b>	<b>439,334</b>	<b>35,362</b>	<b>24,481</b>	<b>59,843</b>

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204.

**Margaret Potts** is a senior technical officer with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.



A photograph showing a woman in a white lab coat, likely a medical professional, pointing at a grid of brain scan images displayed on a light box. An older man with glasses is standing behind her, looking at the same images. The images appear to be axial slices of a brain, showing internal structures. The woman has a name tag that partially reads "TCM" and "GARDNER".

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS — WINTER 1989

The pressure on hospitals is apt to become most acute in the second decade of the next century when the large generation born during the Baby Boom begins turning age 65. As they passed through childhood and young adulthood, this group put great pressure on a variety of institutions, including schools, universities, and the job market. Health care services will likely be severely affected when this generation reaches retirement age.

#### The elderly population in the 21st century

Both the absolute number of people aged 65 and over and their share of the total population have increased significantly in the last several decades. Moreover, both figures will continue to grow well into the next century.

The number of elderly Canadians nearly doubled in the last two decades, rising from 1.5 million in 1966 to 2.7 million in 1986. It has been projected that by 2016, the number of Canadians aged 65 and over will have more than doubled again to 5.7 million, and that by 2036, the elderly population will have risen to 8.4 million.

In fact, people aged 65 and over are projected to account for 25% of all Canadians in 2036, up from 8% in 1966, 11% in 1986, and 18% in 2016.

#### Hospital utilization and the elderly

Historically, the elderly have required a large proportion of the total hospital bed-days in Canada. For example, in 1984, the elderly accounted for 51% of all hospital bed-days, although they constituted only

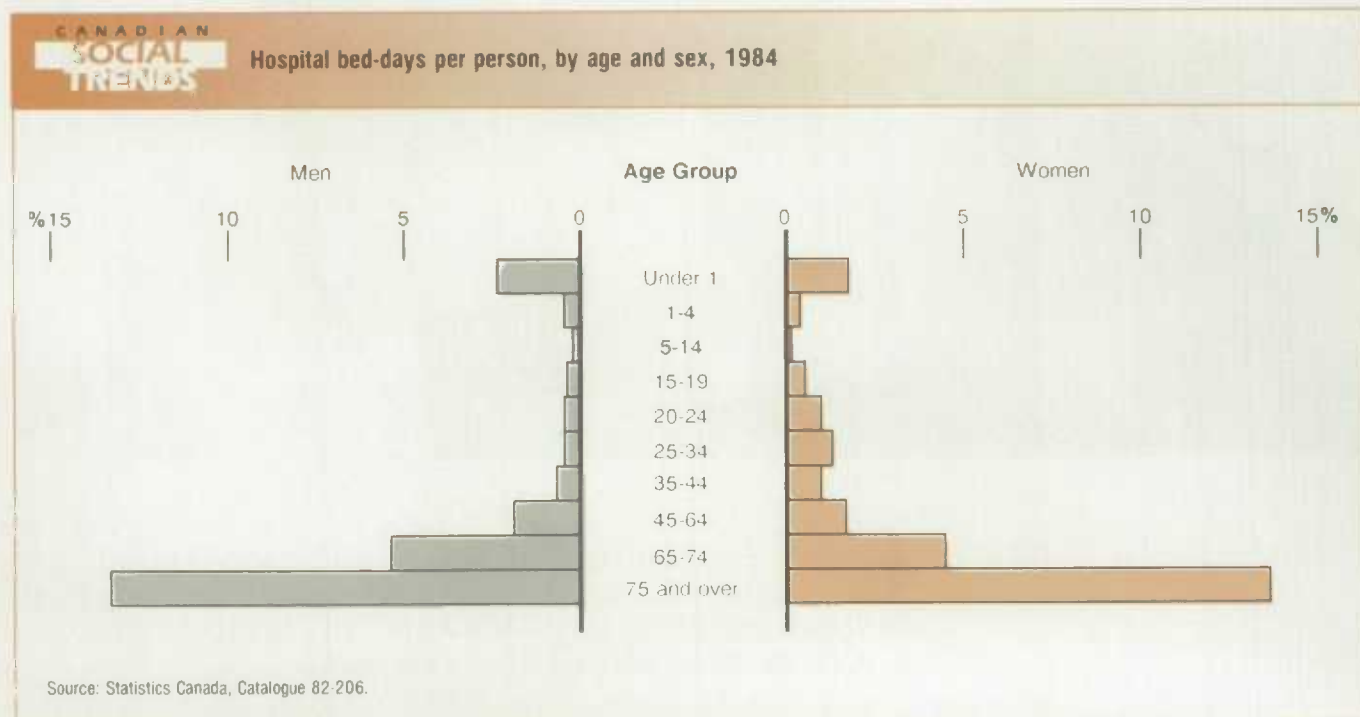
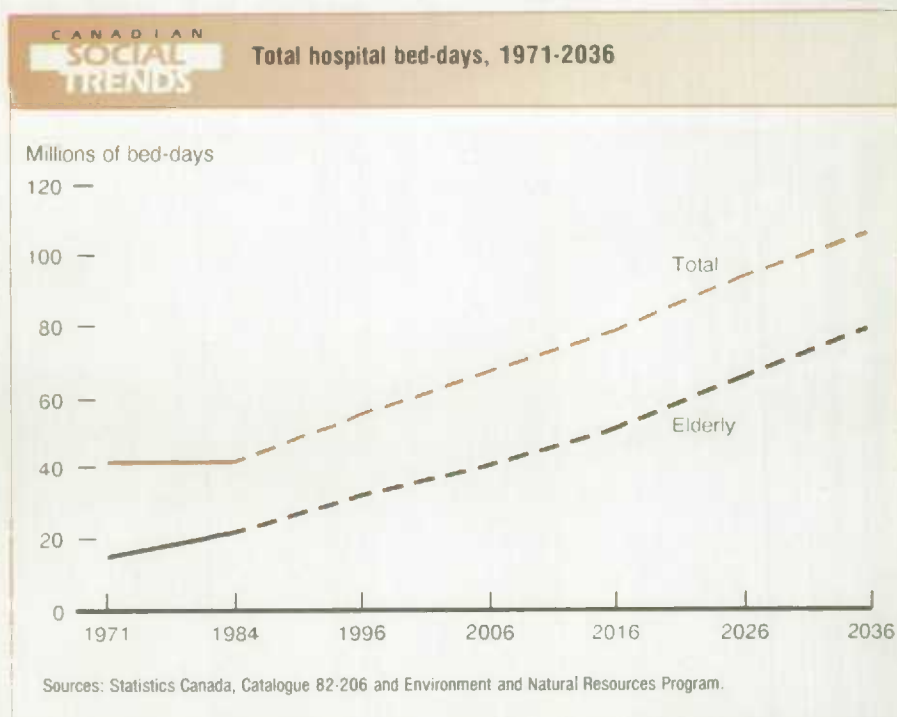
10% of the overall population that year.

The divergence between the proportion of the elderly in the population and their hospital utilization indicates the extent to which hospitalization increases with age. In 1984, people aged 75 and over spent an average of almost 14 days a year in hospital, while those aged 65-74 averaged almost 5 days a year. In contrast, the next highest figures were around 2 days per year for both people aged 45-64 and children who had not reached their

first birthday. For almost all other age groups, the average number of hospital bed-days worked out to less than one per person per year.

#### Hospital bed-days to rise

Based on current utilization rates, total hospital bed-day requirements are expected to increase dramatically in the next several decades, with almost all of the increase accounted for by people aged 65 and over.







### Projected future hospital care needs

The projected requirements for hospital care were calculated by combining population projections with assumptions about the rate of hospital utilization.

Population estimates are from Statistics Canada's Population Projection Number 3. This projection is based on three key assumptions: a significant increase in longevity; relatively high net immigration; and a return to medium fertility levels. Although fertility in Canada is currently at historically low levels, the assumption of continued low fertility might be too extreme for the purposes of long-term projections.

Projections of hospital utilization were based on utilization rates by age and sex for 1984, the latest year for which these series were available. The hospital utilization rates must be interpreted with care, however, since they reflect both current institutional structures and supply factors, as well as current rates of illness requiring hospitalization.

In the future, there could be changes in health delivery systems, with other types of institutions and home care providing alternatives to hospitalization. The introduction of new treatments for cardiovascular disease and cancer, today's leading causes of death, would also have a large impact. There could also be cumulative effects from changing lifestyles, including improved diet, increased exercise, declines in smoking, and reductions in workplace risks.

As well, in some ways, the hospital utilization projections represent a worst-case scenario for aging and health. By assuming increased life expectancy, but fixing current rates of hospitalization, there is an implicit assumption that the extended years of life will be largely extended years of ill health.

It should also be emphasized that, unlike Statistics Canada's population projections, the projections for future health care requirements in this article are not official projections or forecasts. Rather, they are estimates calculated by the authors to support the discussion of future demands for hospital care.

### Historical and projected population estimates,<sup>1</sup> 1966-2036

	Total population	Population aged 65 and over	Percentage of total population aged 65 and over
	millions		%
1966	20.0	1.5	8
1976	23.0	2.0	9
1986	25.3	2.7	11
1996	28.2	3.6	13
2006	30.6	4.4	14
2016	32.5	5.7	18
2026	33.7	7.4	22
2036	34.0	8.4	25

<sup>1</sup> Estimates from Statistics Canada's Population Projection Number 3, which assumes medium fertility and high net immigration. Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

### Projected hospital bed-day requirements, 1996-2036

	Hospital bed-days			Percentage of total hospital bed-days accounted for by the population aged 65 and over
	Total	For the population under age 65	For the population aged 65 and over	
	millions			%
1996	54.8	23.5	31.2	57
2006	66.7	26.8	39.8	60
2016	78.2	28.3	49.9	64
2026	93.0	27.6	65.4	70
2036	105.5	27.0	78.5	74

Source: Statistics Canada, Environment and Natural Resources Program.

Overall, it is projected that hospital bed-days will increase almost two and a half times in the next five decades, rising from 41.5 million in 1984 to over 100 million by 2036.

Most of the projected increase in total bed-days is made up of bed-days for elderly people. In fact, the elderly account for 90% of the total projected increase in bed-days for the entire population.

Hospital utilization by people aged 65 and over is projected to almost double from 21.0 million bed-days in 1984 to around 40 million in 2006, and then almost double again to close to 80 million in 2036.

These projections indicate that, based on current utilization patterns, by early in the next century the hospital bed-days required by the elderly will almost equal current levels for the whole population. By the middle of the third decade of the 21st century, the bed-days required by the elderly will represent about twice the current total hospital utilization figures.

Another result of this growth is that the share of all bed-days accounted for by the elderly will also likely rise, from just over 50% in 1984 to an estimated 74% in 2036.

*Both authors are with the Environment and Natural Resources Section, Statistics Canada.*

**Kirk Hamilton** is manager of this program. **Hélène Trépanier** is co-ordinator of systems and technical support.



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# SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
<b>POPULATION</b>								
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 <sup>1</sup>	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898
Emigration <sup>1</sup>	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003
<b>FAMILY</b>								
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	3.4	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	693	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789
<b>LABOUR FORCE</b>								
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	*	*
<b>INCOME</b>								
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	*
<b>EDUCATION</b>								
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 <sup>P</sup>
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.2
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415
Government expenditures on education (1988 \$000,000)	29,996.8	30,152.8	30,693.4	30,214.1	32,488.7	32,234.3	32,284.9	32,748.8
<b>HEALTH</b>								
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 expenditures on health (1988 \$000,000)	27,054.2	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,771.1	33,397.2	33,906.9	35,378.4
<b>JUSTICE</b>								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	898
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2
<b>GOVERNMENT</b>								
Expenditures on social programmes <sup>2</sup> (1988 \$000,000)	126,645.4	135,432.3	141,872.6	143,539.5	150,743.8	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.8	59.9	59.3	59.7
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.9	28.1	27.1	26.4
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 <sup>m</sup> (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 <sup>m</sup> (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
<b>ECONOMIC INDICATORS</b>								
GDP (1981 \$) - annual % change	+3.7	-3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- Not available \* Not yet available <sup>P</sup> Preliminary estimates <sup>m</sup> Figures as of March.

<sup>1</sup> For year ending May 31st.

<sup>2</sup> Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.



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