

CANADIAN

c. 3
**SOCIAL
TRENDS**

CATALOGUE 11-008E



HOUSEHOLD PROPERTY CRIME ☐ HOUSING ☐ INNER CITY TRANSITION ☐ FARM PROFILE



Statistics
Canada

Statistique
Canada

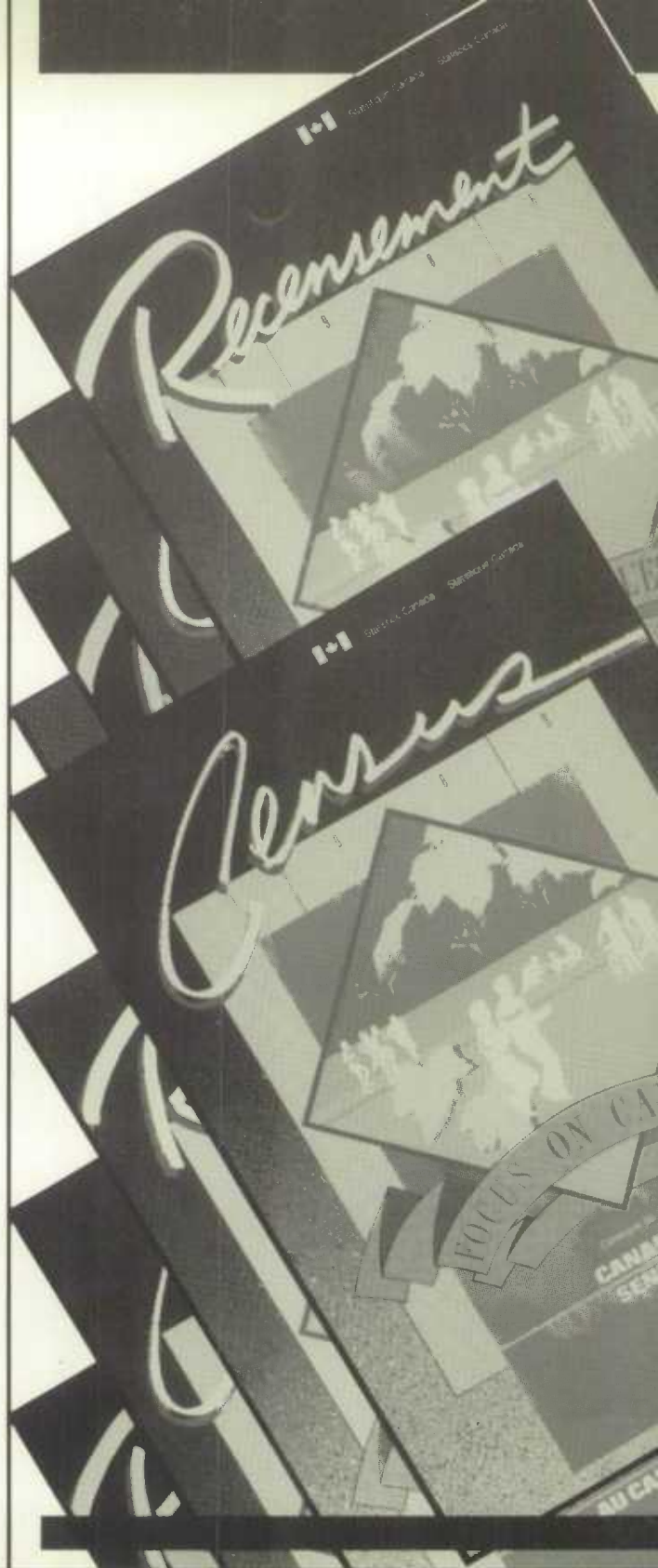
Canada

THE NEWS BEHIND THE NUMBERS

The 1986 Census Data Base collected the numbers on Canadians – but what do they mean to you? The *FOCUS ON CANADA* Series analyses the issues that emerged from the Census results, in everyday language.

FOCUS ON CANADA looks at the issues affecting Canada's seniors and its youth, its ethnic and aboriginal communities; its regions in the far north and the industrial south.

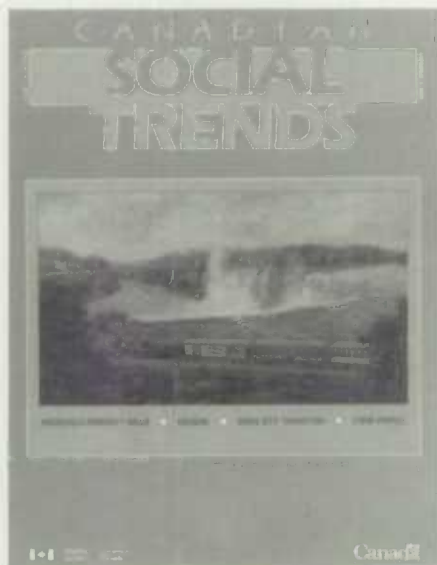
And there's much more to keep you informed – and enlightened. Each publication is bilingual, and costs \$10. Order the full set of 16 for a comprehensive reference tool for home, school or office.



To order, write to Publications Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call toll-free.

Please make cheques or money orders payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications. Contact a Regional Reference Centre near you for further information.

1-800-267-6677 Call Toll-Free



Cover: The Canada Southern Railway at Niagara (1870 ?) oil on canvas, 58.4 x 101.6 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Robert Whale (1805-1887) studied painting in England and worked there as an artist before immigrating to Canada in 1852. Painting for a living at a time when almost no market for art existed, Mr. Whale responded to his clients' interests and painted portraits, Indians, landscapes and wilderness themes, mainly in oils. Then, when railways became a symbol of the future in North America, he painted a group of "portraits" of trains.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

STATISTICS CANADA STATISTIQUE CANADA NO. 16 - SPRING 1990

CONTENTS

Home Ownership <i>by Janet Che-Alford</i>	2
Shelter Costs <i>by Tom Bird</i>	6
Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form <i>by Mary Anne Burke</i>	11
Household Property Crime <i>by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson</i>	15
Household Chores <i>by Katherine Marshall</i>	18
The Farm Community <i>by Judie McSkimmings</i>	20
Regional Unemployment <i>by David Gower</i>	24
The Inner City in Transition	27
1986 Census Highlights: Winnipeg	31
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989	34
Social Indicators	35

1989 Annual Index of Articles — Winter Issue, Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Ove Design Group Inc.
Illustrations and Photos	Photo Centre, SSC, Jean Pragen/Masterfile
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	V. Beaulieu, J. Frederick, K. Kennedy, M. Lisciotto, H. Moses, E. Praught, C. Prévost, C. Richard, M. Saint-Laurent, E. Scott, C. Shea

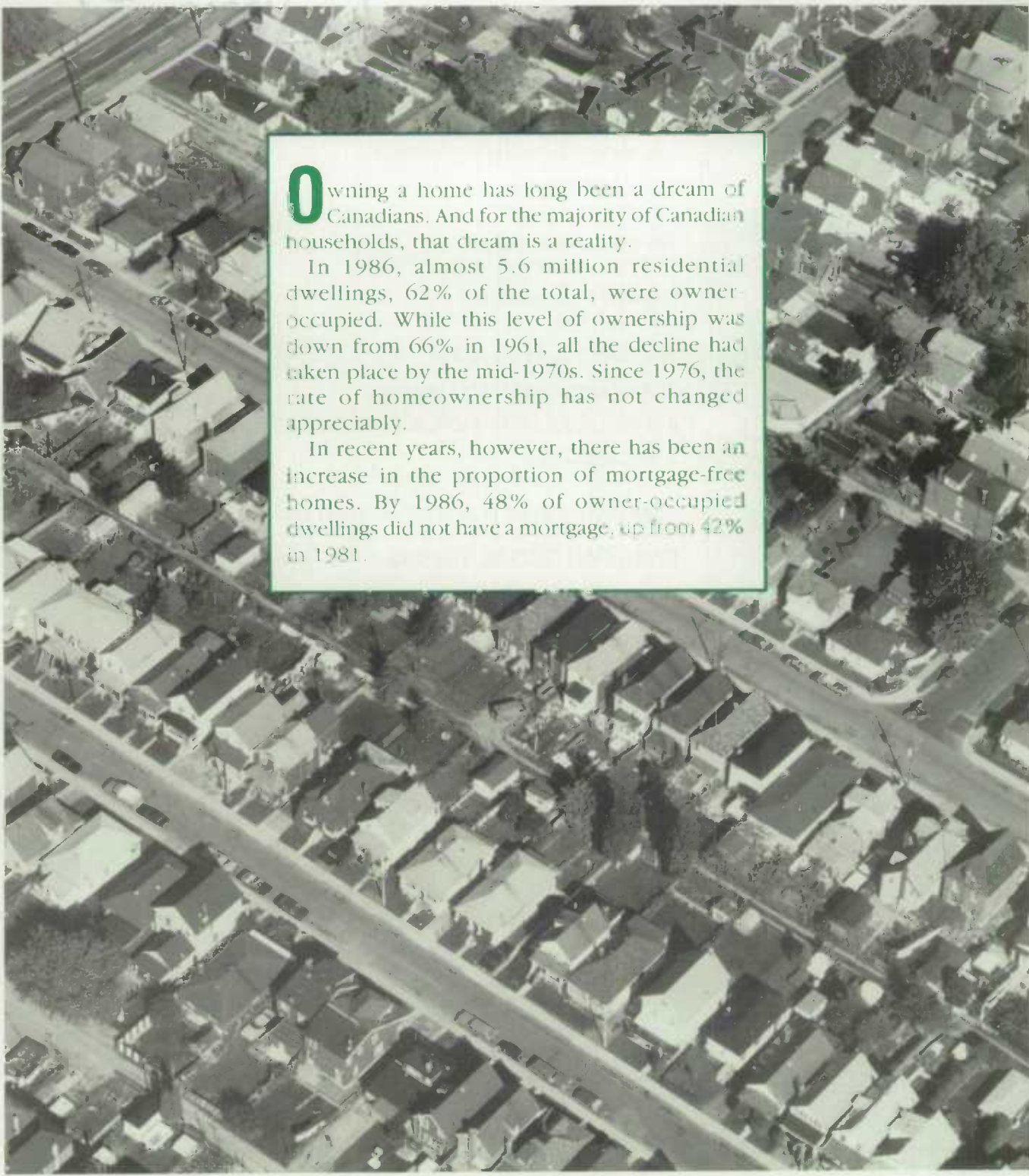
Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Regional Industrial Expansion. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1990, all rights reserved. First class postage Canada paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. **SUBSCRIPTION RATES:** \$32 a year in Canada, \$36 (\$28 U.S.) elsewhere. Single issue \$8 each in Canada, \$9 (\$7 U.S.) elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends**, 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. Extracts from this publication may be reproduced for individual use without permission provided the source is fully acknowledged. However, reproduction of this publication in whole or in part for purposes of resale or redistribution requires written permission from the Programs and Publishing Products Group, Acting Permissions Officer, Crown Copyright Administration, Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Canada, K1A 0S9. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

HOME OWNERSHIP

by Janet Che-Alford



Owning a home has long been a dream of Canadians. And for the majority of Canadian households, that dream is a reality.

In 1986, almost 5.6 million residential dwellings, 62% of the total, were owner-occupied. While this level of ownership was down from 66% in 1961, all the decline had taken place by the mid-1970s. Since 1976, the rate of homeownership has not changed appreciably.

In recent years, however, there has been an increase in the proportion of mortgage-free homes. By 1986, 48% of owner-occupied dwellings did not have a mortgage, up from 42% in 1981.

Ownership highest in east

Provincial homeownership rates vary considerably, with rates highest in the Atlantic region and lowest in Quebec.

Newfoundland has the largest proportion of owner-occupied residential dwellings of any province. In 1986, 80% of all dwellings in Newfoundland were owner-occupied. Rates were also well above average in New Brunswick (74%), Prince Edward Island (73%), and Nova Scotia (72%).

By contrast, 63% of Ontario homes were owner-occupied, while rates in the Western provinces ranged from 60% in Alberta to 68% in Saskatchewan. Quebec residents were least likely to be homeowners; in 1986, just over half (54%) the dwellings in that province were owner-occupied.

Urban/rural

Rural residents are much more likely than city-dwellers to be homeowners. In 1986, 83% of rural homes were owner-occupied, compared with 57% in urban areas.

Moreover, as the size of an urban area increases, homeownership rates decline. In urban areas with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants, 69% of homes were owner-occupied, but in cities of 500,000 or more, where high land prices make housing less affordable, the figure was just 52%.

Levels of ownership also vary widely in different Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs), with rates generally higher in smaller cities. For example, in 1986, just two CMAs, St. Catharines-Niagara and Oshawa, had homeownership rates of at least 70%. Rates were also relatively high in St. John's, Hamilton, Windsor, Thunder Bay, and Regina. Of these seven cities, only Hamilton and St. Catharines-Niagara rank among the ten largest CMAs in Canada.

By contrast, fewer than 60% of homes were owner-occupied in most of the large CMAs. In Toronto, Canada's largest CMA, only 58% of homes were owner-occupied, while Montreal, which ranked second in population, had the lowest ownership rate of all CMAs: just 45%. At the same time, 53% of homes in Quebec City, 54% in Ottawa-Hull, 56% in Vancouver, 57% in Edmonton, and 58% in Calgary were owned by their occupants.

Types of homes owned

Single detached homes are the most common residential dwellings in Canada, accounting for 57% of all housing stock. They are also the type of dwelling most likely to be owned.

In 1986, 90% of all single detached houses were owner-occupied. The only other dwellings with a comparable ownership rate were mobile homes, 85% of which were owned.

By contrast, only about one-quarter (24%) of all multiple-unit dwellings were owner-occupied in 1986. This included structures such as row/townhouses, 28% of which were owner-occupied, and apartments in highrise buildings of five or more storeys, 11% of which were owned by their occupants.

Apartment ownership rates, however, have increased more rapidly in recent years than those of any other type of dwelling. From 1981 to 1986, the percentage of apartments that were owned went from 8% to 11%. During the same period, ownership rates of single detached homes rose by just half a percentage point, while the corresponding increase for other multiple-unit dwellings was 1.5 percentage points. On the other hand, the proportion of owner-occupied mobile homes declined by almost two percentage points.

More condominiums

The relatively rapid increase in the share of apartments that are owned is largely attributable to growth in the popularity of condominiums. These are residential complexes in which dwellings are owned individually, while the land is held in joint ownership with others. By 1986, close to 235,000 households were in dwellings with condominium status, a

37% increase from 1981.

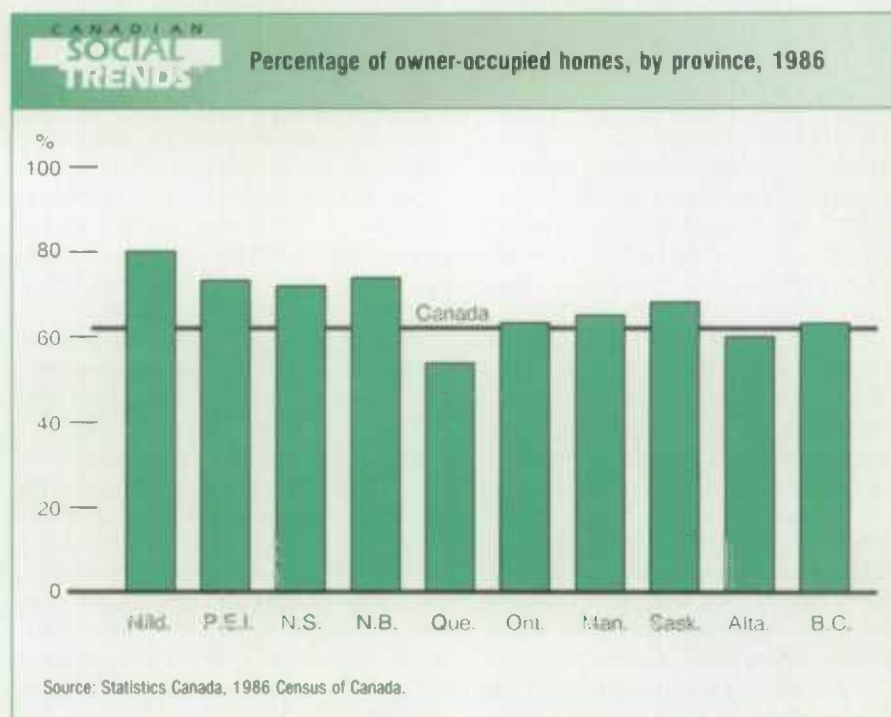
Certain types of owner-occupied dwellings, however, are much more likely than others to be condominiums. Virtually all owner-occupied apartments in highrise buildings of five or more storeys had condominium status. The corresponding figure was 59% for owner-occupied row/townhouses, and 21% for apartments in lowrise buildings. By contrast, the proportion of single detached homes with condominium status was less than one-quarter of one percent.

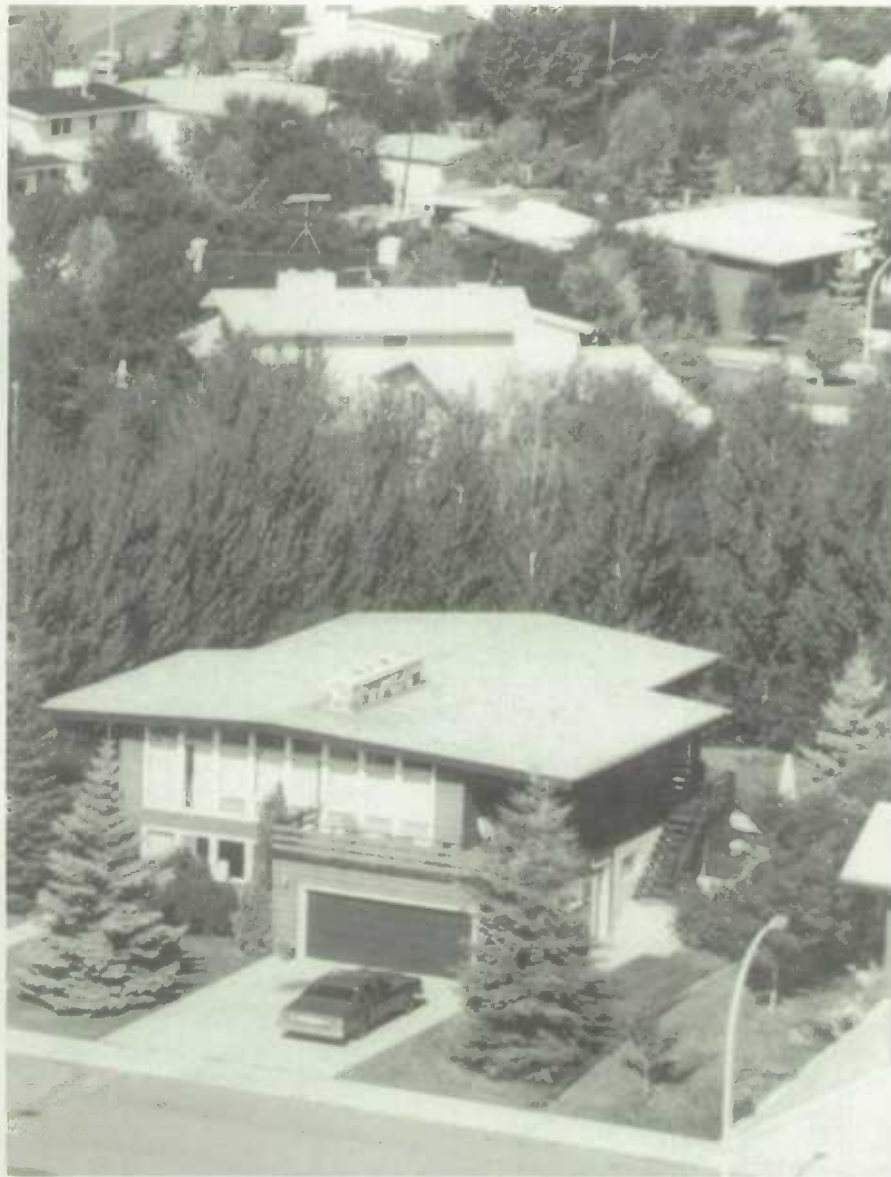
Dwelling values vary

The average value of owned dwellings in Canada, that is, the amount expected by the owner if the dwelling were to be sold, was \$84,800 in 1986. However, provincial differences were considerable. The highest average value was \$104,100 in Ontario, followed by \$98,900 in British Columbia, and \$84,900 in Alberta. Average values in Nova Scotia, Quebec, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan ranged between \$60,400 and \$68,600. The lowest average value of owned dwellings was in Newfoundland (\$47,400), with values in New Brunswick (\$50,000) and Prince Edward Island (\$52,100) also relatively low.

Values drop

When inflation is taken into account, dwelling values actually declined in the first half of the 1980s. At the national level, the average value (in 1986 dollars) of





owner-occupied homes fell 14% between 1981 and 1986.

Declines in the reported value of housing stock were particularly sharp in British Columbia and Alberta. In British Columbia, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings was down 42%, while in Alberta, the decline was 32%.

Decreases in most other provinces were considerably smaller. In Newfoundland and Saskatchewan, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings fell by 11%, while there were 2% declines in Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Quebec, and a 1% drop in Manitoba. The average value in Ontario scarcely changed, falling less than one-quarter of one percent.

Nova Scotia was the only province where the average dwelling value increased. Between 1981 and 1988, the real value of owner-occupied homes in this province rose 5%.

High urban values

In general, average dwelling values are higher in major urban centres than in other areas. The average value of owner-occupied homes for all Census Metropolitan Areas in 1986 was \$103,200, compared with \$60,100 in non-CMA urban areas and \$65,800 in rural areas.

The overall average dwelling value in CMAs masks substantial variations among different cities. In 1986, the average value of homes was highest in Toronto at \$142,300, followed by \$127,300 in Vancouver. Average values in Ottawa-Hull (\$116,800), Oshawa (\$105,100), and Victoria (\$103,500) were also above the level for all CMAs. By contrast, the CMAs with the lowest average dwelling values were Trois-Rivières (\$55,100), Saint John (\$56,800), Sudbury (\$58,600), Sherbrooke (\$59,400), and Chicoutimi-Jonquière (\$60,300).

Apartments most expensive

Certain types of dwellings tend to be more costly than others. Owner-occupied units in apartment buildings of five or more storeys had the highest average value in 1986, at \$101,700. This compared with \$86,200 for row/townhouses and lowrises (under five storeys) and \$85,500 for single detached houses. Mobile homes had the lowest value, averaging just \$25,200.

The higher values of multiple-unit dwellings reflect the fact that they are typically located in urban areas. On the other hand, the relatively low value of single detached houses includes many less expensive rural homes.

Average value of owner-occupied homes in Census Metropolitan Areas, 1986

	\$
Toronto	142,282
Vancouver	127,311
Ottawa-Hull	116,802
Oshawa	105,060
Victoria	103,466
Calgary	100,505
Kitchener	96,671
Hamilton	95,307
Halifax	91,584
Edmonton	87,225
Montreal	87,180
London	85,617
Thunder Bay	79,656
Winnipeg	77,844
Saskatoon	77,583
St. Catharines-Niagara	76,844
St. John's	75,284
Windsor	74,691
Regina	72,921
Quebec City	64,477
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	60,307
Sherbrooke	59,420
Sudbury	58,608
Saint John	56,810
Trois-Rivières	55,088
Total CMA	103,171

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Who owns?

The likelihood of being a homeowner is related to a number of factors including age, sex, family status, income, and immigrant status.

Homeownership is most common among people aged 35-64. At ages 35-44, 70% of household maintainers were homeowners in 1986, while the proportions for those aged 45-54 and 55-64 were 75% and 74%, respectively.

Ownership rates drop off among older

people, falling to 68% at ages 65-74, and to 57% for those aged 75 and over. Young people, however, were least likely to own homes. In 1986, just 16% of household maintainers aged 15-24 and 48% of those aged 25-34 were homeowners.

Moreover, from 1981 to 1986, homeownership rates of young household maintainers declined. The sharpest drop was among those aged 25-34, whose ownership rate fell four percentage points from 52% to 48%. Rates also decreased

one or two percentage points among household maintainers younger than 25 and those aged 35-54. By contrast, between 1981 and 1986, homeownership rates of 65-74-year-old household maintainers increased two percentage points, while rates at ages 55-64 and at age 75 and over did not change.

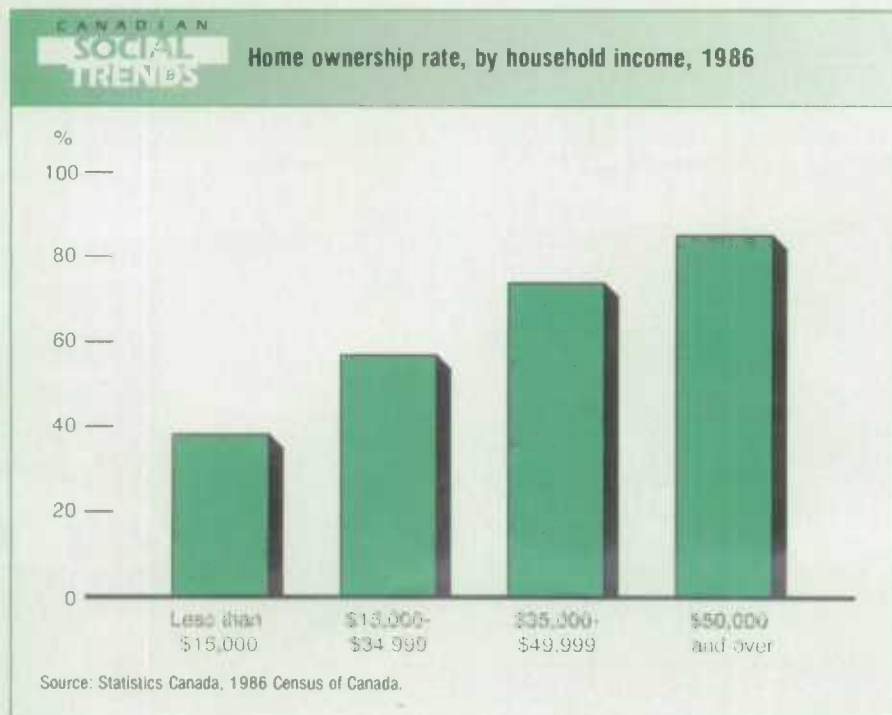
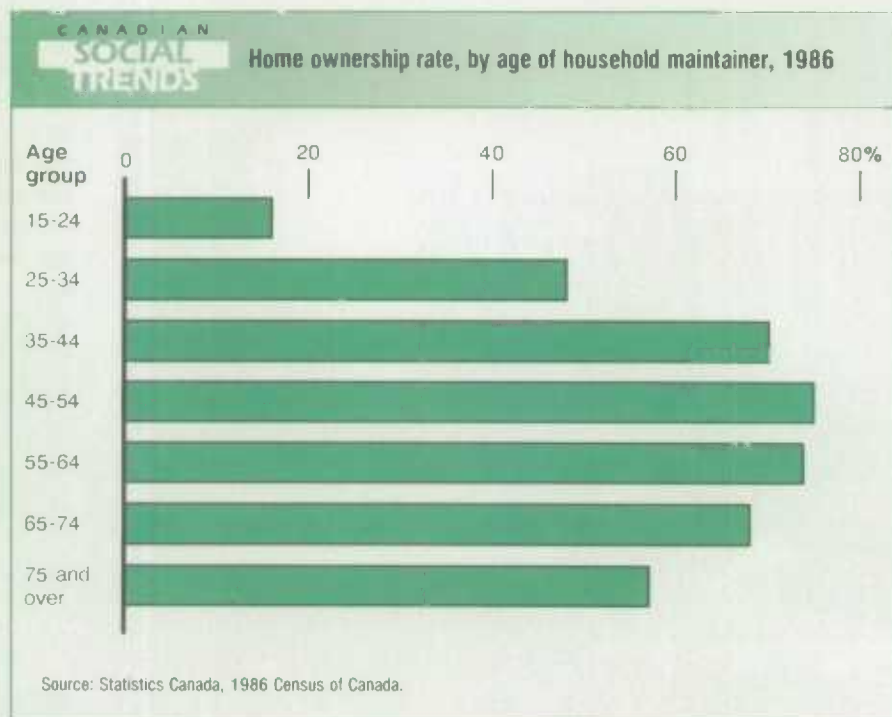
Male household maintainers are much more likely than their female counterparts to be homeowners. Whereas 69% of all male household maintainers were homeowners in 1986, the proportion among women was just 42%.

Ownership is also related to the type of household. Husband-wife families were most likely to be homeowners, with an ownership rate of 75% in 1986. On the other hand, only a minority of lone-parent families (45%) were homeowners, and among female lone parents, the proportion was even lower (41%). One person households, however, were least likely of all to be homeowners; just 34% of people living alone owned a home.

As might be expected, owning a home is strongly associated with income. The overwhelming majority (85%) of households with incomes of \$50,000 or more were in owner-occupied dwellings. For households in the \$35,000-\$50,000 range, the ownership rate was 74%. By contrast, just over half (57%) of households with incomes of \$15,000-\$35,000 were homeowners, while only a minority (38%) of those in the less-than-\$15,000 category owned a home.

Immigrants were more likely than non-immigrants to be homeowners. In 1986, 66% of immigrant household maintainers, compared with 60% of non-immigrants, were homeowners. As well, the percentage of immigrants owning homes increases with the length of time they have been in Canada. Almost three-quarters (74%) of immigrant maintainers who arrived before 1961 were homeowners, more than double the proportion among those who had immigrated since 1981. Nonetheless, even among these recent immigrants, 31% of household maintainers owned a home.

Janet Che-Alford is Chief of the Family, Housing and Household Section with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



SHELTER COSTS

by Tom Bird

The cost of shelter is one of the major elements in the family budget of Canadians.¹ Monthly payments differ substantially for homeowners and renters, with homeowners, on average, paying more. But as a proportion of household income, tenants' shelter costs actually exceed those of people who own homes, either with or without a mortgage.

Housing costs, however, vary from one region to another. In particular, shelter tends to be most expensive in Western Canada and Ontario.

Owners and renters

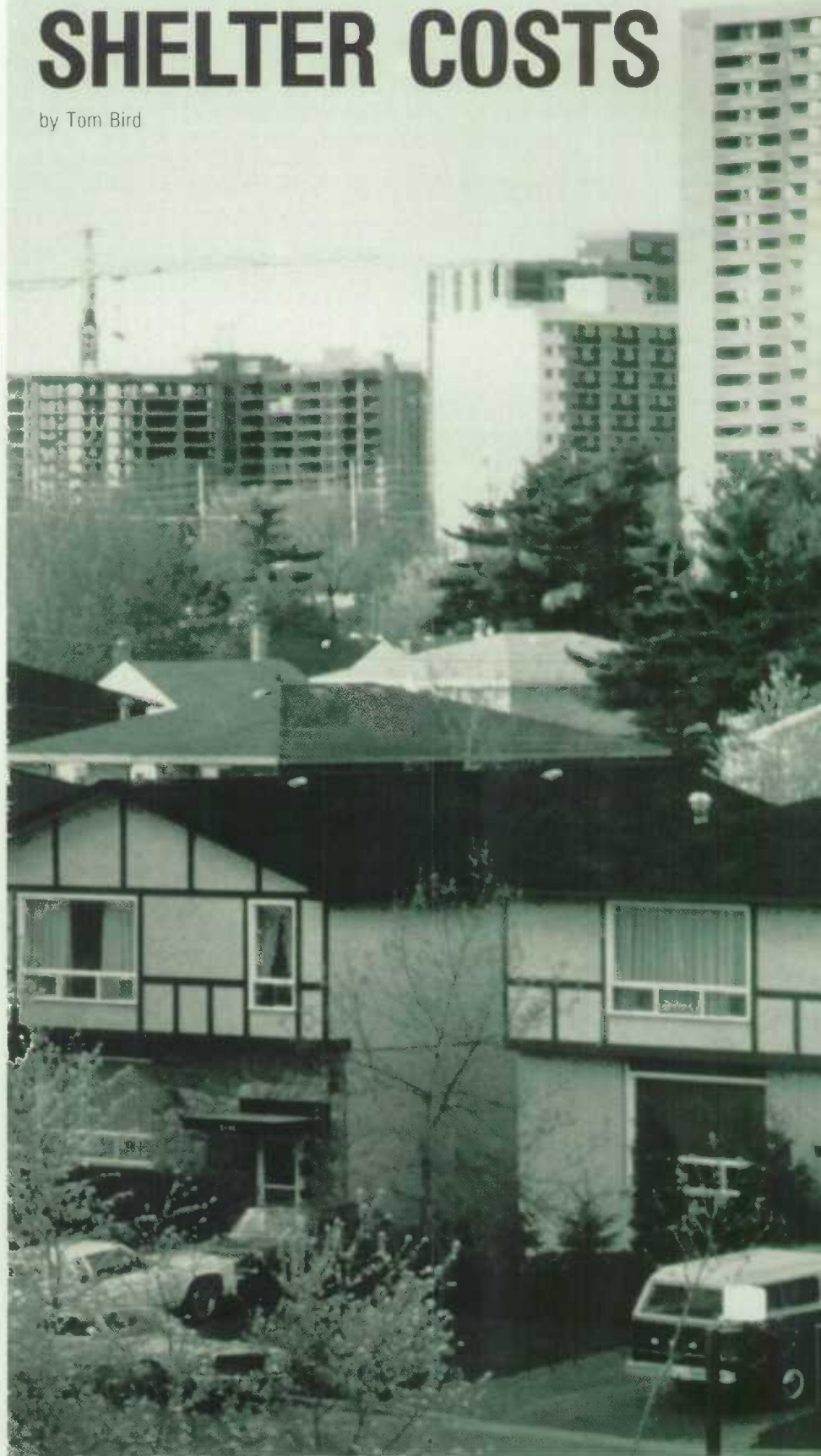
In 1986, Canadian households spent an average of \$460 a month on shelter. But costs varied considerably, depending on whether the dwelling was owned or rented.

Homeowners' costs averaged \$478 a month in 1986. Payments were less than half that amount (\$216) for the 48% of homeowners who had paid off their mortgage, while those with a mortgage had average monthly payments of \$719. Tenants' monthly shelter costs averaged \$430.

When inflation is taken into account, homeowners' average shelter costs actually declined in the first half of the 1980s, whereas those of renters increased. Real monthly payments for owners were 2% lower in 1986 than in 1981, while tenants' shelter costs were 10% higher.

Moreover, tenants spend a larger share of their income on shelter than do homeowners, even those still paying off a mortgage. Average monthly shelter costs for tenants in 1986 amounted to 22% of their household income. In comparison,

¹ Shelter costs include payments for utilities, municipal services, and depending on whether the dwelling was owned or rented, mortgages, property taxes, and rent.





homeowners spent an average of 14% of their income on housing; for those without a mortgage, the proportion was 7%; for those with a mortgage, it was 20%.

As well, in the first half of the 1980s, the share of tenants' income devoted to shelter costs increased, while it dropped for homeowners. In 1981, renters had spent 20% of their income on housing, compared with 15% for homeowners.

The discrepancy in the proportions of household income spent on shelter reflects the fact that tenants tend to have much lower incomes than do homeowners. In 1985, for instance, the average income of tenant households was \$24,000, compared with \$41,200 for homeowners.

Provincial homeownership costs vary

Monthly payments for homeowners vary considerably in different provinces. And while there was a decline in homeowners' real shelter costs at the national level in the early 1980s, this was because of a drop in just three provinces. The remaining provinces experienced small increases.

Average 1986 monthly shelter costs for homeowners were highest in Alberta (\$573), followed by Ontario (\$516), British Columbia (\$484), and Quebec (\$449). Elsewhere, homeowners' monthly costs varied from \$422 in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan to less than \$400 in each of the Atlantic provinces. At \$315, shelter costs were lowest for Newfoundland homeowners.

The overall 2% decline between 1981 and 1986 in Canadian homeowners' inflation-adjusted housing costs was attributable to decreases in British Columbia (9%), Alberta (7%), and Quebec (5%). Average monthly payments rose in the other provinces, with increases of 1%-2% in Ontario, Newfoundland, New Brunswick and Manitoba, and 4%-5% in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan.

Average monthly shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, by province, 1986

	Owner	Tenant
	\$	
Newfoundland	315	404
Prince Edward Island	365	410
Nova Scotia	396	418
New Brunswick	350	374
Quebec	449	399
Ontario	516	453
Manitoba	422	391
Saskatchewan	422	390
Alberta	573	462
British Columbia	484	460
Canada	478	430

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN
SOCIAL
TRENDS

Monthly shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, 1981 and 1986

Constant 1986 \$



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Narrow provincial gap in rents

Tenants' monthly shelter costs vary much less by province than do homeowners' payments. And unlike the trend for homeowners, tenants' costs in most provinces rose substantially during the early 1980s.

Renters in Alberta and British Columbia paid the highest average amounts in 1986: \$462 and \$460, respectively. Average payments were \$453 in Ontario and \$399 in Quebec. The lowest average monthly payment made by renters was \$374 in New Brunswick. Thus, the provincial range in tenants' average shelter costs was just \$88, compared with a range of \$258 for homeowners.

From 1981 to 1986, after adjusting for inflation, monthly costs for tenants rose fastest in Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia (17%). Increases were almost as great (15%) in Newfoundland and Quebec. Average monthly costs also rose substantially for renters in Ontario (13%), New Brunswick (12%), and Saskatchewan and Manitoba (both 10%).

By contrast, in British Columbia, the increase in tenants' real monthly costs amounted to just 2%. Alberta, with a drop of 9%, was the only province where renters' costs were lower in 1986 than in 1981.

Pattern reversed

While in most provinces, homeowners' average monthly shelter costs exceeded those of tenants, the reverse was true in the Atlantic region. This is attributable to the high proportion of mortgage-free owners in that region: the percentage of homeowners without a mortgage ranged from 53% in New Brunswick to 68% in Newfoundland. On the other hand, in the rest of the country, the corresponding range was from 40% in Alberta to 54% in Saskatchewan.

High cost of city living

Average monthly payments for homeowners and tenants in Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) tend to be relatively high, although variations from city to city are substantial. For the most part, though, the larger the city, the higher the costs.

Homeowners in Calgary made the highest average monthly payments (\$681) in 1986. Shelter costs for owners in Ottawa-Hull and Toronto were also over \$600, while monthly payments in Edmonton, Vancouver, Halifax, and Oshawa were between \$550 and \$600. Costs in the remaining CMAs ranged from \$407 in Trois-Rivières to \$547 in Montreal.

In inflation-adjusted dollars, average monthly payments for homeowners declined in about three-quarters of all CMAs during the early 1980s. The largest decreases were in Quebec City and Sherbrooke (both 10%), Trois-Rivières (9%), Edmonton and Victoria (both 8%), and Vancouver and Sudbury (both 7%).

On the other hand, homeowners' shelter costs increased in Ottawa-Hull (8%), St. John's (7%), Halifax (4%), Winnipeg and Regina (both 3%), and Toronto and Oshawa (both 2%).

For tenant households in CMAs, average

monthly shelter costs were lower than those paid by homeowners. However, in contrast to the decline of shelter costs for the majority of CMA homeowners, the inflation-adjusted cost of renting increased substantially in most CMAs between 1981 and 1986.

Toronto tenants had the highest monthly shelter costs in 1986, averaging \$500. Costs in Vancouver (\$493) were next highest, followed by Ottawa-Hull (\$491), Calgary (\$488), and Halifax (\$481). By contrast, Montreal renters' average monthly shelter costs (\$420) were less than the

Shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, by Census Metropolitan Area, 1986

	Average monthly shelter cost		Percentage change since 1981		Percent of households paying 30% or more of income for shelter	
	Owner	Tenant	Owner	Tenant	Owner	Tenant
	1986 \$		%		%	
St. John's	510	461	7	20	14.1	37.6
Halifax	572	481	4	17	14.9	36.8
Saint John	438	367	-5	5	13.1	39.2
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	458	396	-6	6	13.3	37.7
Quebec City	485	419	-10	14	12.4	36.8
Sherbrooke	449	383	-10	23	13.5	40.9
Trois-Rivières	407	361	-9	13	12.5	40.2
Montreal	547	420	-5	15	15.4	36.2
Ottawa-Hull	616	491	8	16	12.2	31.2
Oshawa	567	472	2	13	11.5	32.1
Toronto	611	500	2	11	14.1	30.6
Hamilton	509	413	-	12	11.7	33.6
St. Catharines-Niagara	429	387	-2	12	11.3	38.3
Kitchener	494	409	-1	13	10.9	29.8
London	479	411	-5	18	11.1	34.5
Windsor	454	397	-3	11	11.3	35.6
Sudbury	459	372	-7	9	11.7	35.2
Thunder Bay	436	413	-3	7	9.7	32.4
Winnipeg	473	410	3	-2	11.3	38.6
Regina	537	443	3	9	13.7	39.8
Saskatoon	523	390	-1	-3	13.8	42.2
Calgary	681	488	-5	-14	17.5	35.9
Edmonton	593	464	-8	-10	16.1	36.8
Vancouver	554	493	-7	3	16.2	44.7
Victoria	487	459	-8	4	16.2	47.6

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

national average (\$430). The lowest average amounts, however, were paid by tenants in Trois-Rivières (\$361) and Saint John (\$367).

In most CMAs, tenants paid much higher housing costs in 1986 than in 1981. The largest increases, in inflation-adjusted dollars, were in Sherbrooke (23%) and St. John's (20%). Other CMAs with relatively large increases in monthly payments were London (18%), Halifax (17%), Ottawa-Hull (16%), and Montreal (15%). The

increase in Toronto was 11%, and in Vancouver, 3%.

Declines in tenants' real shelter costs occurred in just four CMAs, all of them in Western Canada. Average monthly payments decreased in Calgary (14%), Edmonton (10%), Saskatoon (3%), and Winnipeg (2%).

Housing affordability

As a general rule, households spending 30% or more of their income on shelter

have a potential affordability problem. Housing expenditures of this magnitude can substantially reduce the funds available for other necessities such as food, clothing, transportation, and health care.

In 1986, 22% of Canadian households spent 30% or more of their income on shelter. As would be expected, this proportion varied for owners and renters, as well as for households at different income levels.

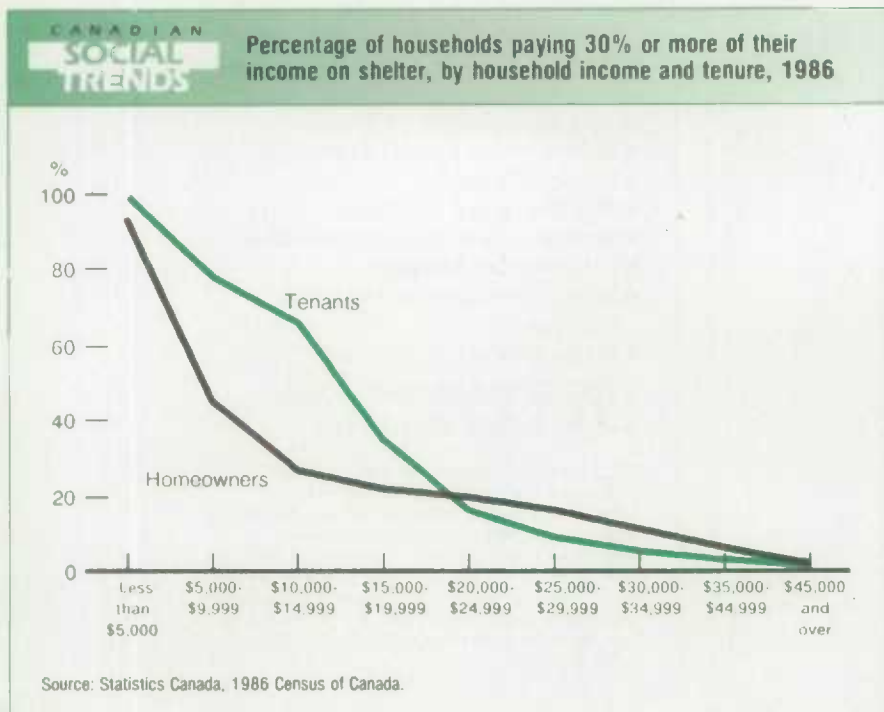
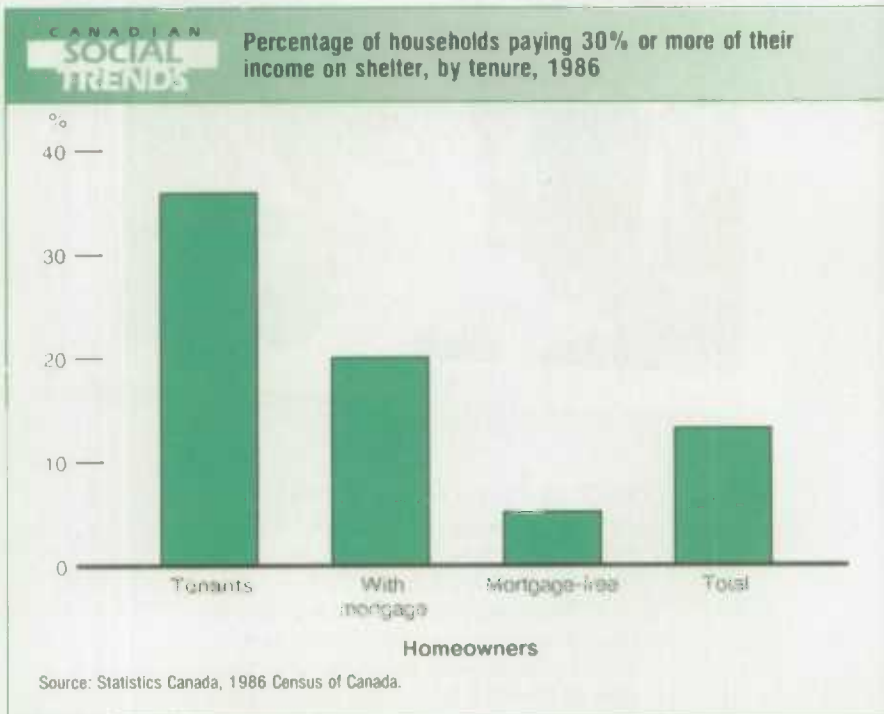
Based on the 30% cut-off, potential affordability problems are much more common among tenant than owner households. Whereas 36% of tenant households spent 30% or more of their income on shelter in 1986, the proportion among homeowners was just 13%.

For owner households, however, a mortgage was an important factor in the share of income absorbed by shelter costs. Fully 20% of homeowners with a mortgage spent at least 30% of their income on housing in 1986, compared with just 5% of mortgage-free owners.

Generally, low-income households tend to have affordability problems, while at successively higher income levels, fewer households have difficulty meeting shelter costs. Regardless of whether they owned or rented their home, nine out of ten households with very low incomes (less than \$5,000 in 1985) spent at least 30% of that income on shelter. On the other hand, only 1%-2% of owner and tenant households with incomes of \$45,000 or more had potential affordability problems.

Among households with incomes less than \$20,000, renters were more likely than owners to spend 30% or more of their income on shelter. For instance, in the \$5,000-\$9,999 category, the proportion was 76% for tenant households, compared with 45% for owner households. At the \$15,000-\$19,999 level, the corresponding figures were 33% and 22%.

By contrast, for households with incomes greater than \$20,000, potential affordability problems were more common among owners than among renters. At the \$20,000-\$24,999 level, 20% of owner households, compared with 15% of tenant households, spent 30% or more of their income on shelter. Similarly, for households in the \$30,000-\$34,999 bracket, the figures were 11% for homeowners and 4% for tenants. The gap between renters and owners persisted in households with even higher incomes, although housing affordability problems are rare at this income level.



Groups at risk

A number of groups whose incomes tend to be low also spend large shares of that income on shelter. Included among these groups are lone-parent families, young families, and one-person households. Housing affordability problems for these people are particularly severe if they are tenants in urban areas.

In 1986, 56% of female-headed lone-parent tenant families in CMAs paid 30% or more of their income on shelter, up from 52% in 1981. Male-headed lone-parent tenant families also experienced affordability problems, with 31% paying 30% or more of their income on shelter costs in 1986, a rise from 25% in 1981.

Among young families who were renting in CMAs, 72% with a household maintainer aged 15-19 and 46% with a household maintainer aged 20-24 had potential affordability problems. These proportions were higher than in 1981, when the figures had been 62% and 37%, respectively.

Similarly, 46% of CMA-dwellers who lived alone paid 30% or more of their income on rental costs in 1986, up from 41% in 1981.

Overall, more than a third (36%) of renters in CMAs paid at least 30% of their income on shelter in 1986. The percentage of tenant households with affordability problems ranged from 30% in Kitchener to 48% in Victoria. Moreover, the proportion of tenant households paying more than 30% of their income on shelter increased since 1981 in every CMA except Calgary.

By contrast, only 14% of owner households in CMAs were paying 30% or more of their income on shelter in 1986. The figure varied from a low of 10% in Thunder Bay to a high of 18% in Calgary. As well, since 1981, the proportion of owner households with potential affordability problems fell in all CMAs.

Tom Bird is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



Take a look at our family snapshot...



You'll discover a focused portrait of the Canadian family in Statistics Canada's new publication, *The Family in Canada: Selected Highlights*.

Drawing from a variety of Statistics Canada data on the family, this publication focuses on stages of contemporary family life and the significant changes that have occurred in recent times.

Concise commentaries and more than 50 distinctive, colour charts present a clear image of the Canadian family by exploring such topics as:

- Marriage and Family Formation
- Raising Children
- The Workplace and Home
- Income, Assets and Expenditures
- Divorces/Remarriages
- Living Arrangements of Senior Citizens
- Widowhood

**PRICE: \$35.00 in Canada;
\$36.00 other countries**

The Family In Canada: Selected Highlights (Catalogue No. 89-509) can be ordered by completing the enclosed order coupon and mailing, with your payment, to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications in Canadian funds or equivalent. For faster service, use your Visa or MasterCard and call toll-free 1-800-267-6677.

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING: A THIRD TENURE FORM

by Mary Anne Burke



A small but growing number of Canadians have opted out of the traditional housing market in favour of co-operative housing, an alternative form of tenure.

In 1989, there were almost 61,000 housing units in 1,560 not-for-profit continuing co-operatives under federal and provincial co-operative housing programs. This was up from almost 23,000

units in 1981 and only 2,000 in 1973, when the National Housing Act was amended to allow for mortgage financing for housing co-operatives.

Although the number of co-operative housing units has increased sharply, they still accounted for only 0.6% of all units in Canada in 1989. This, however, was up from 0.3% in 1981 and just 0.03% in 1973.

Differences exist among the provinces, with co-operatives accounting for the largest share of all housing units in British Columbia (1%). In 1989, co-operatives made up 0.7% of all housing units in Ontario and the Territories, and 0.6% in Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Manitoba. In each of the remaining provinces, co-operatives accounted for 0.3% of all units.

What is co-operative housing?

Not-for-profit continuing housing co-operatives are incorporated associations that exist to provide private housing to members and to build communities. Members do not own the housing individually, but rather, jointly with the other co-operative members. They have the right to occupy, at cost, a unit appropriate to the individual's or household's needs.

Because ownership of the housing units rests permanently with the co-operative, members wishing to leave simply give written notice of their intentions, and the co-operative assigns the unit to a new member. Also, members cannot sell a unit nor make capital gains. On the other hand, they have security of tenure and do not risk losing their homes because of decisions made by non-residents.

Members are responsible for running the co-operative, electing a Board of Directors, voting on decisions affecting the co-operative, and making monthly payments against the mortgage and operating costs.

Co-operatives have the opportunity to maintain housing costs at affordable levels, for a variety of reasons: first, members control operating costs and vote annually on the budget and monthly housing charges; second, members can minimize housing charge increases by participating in the day-to-day operation of the co-operative, such as doing repairs and painting; and finally, no allowance for profit is built into the monthly housing charges.

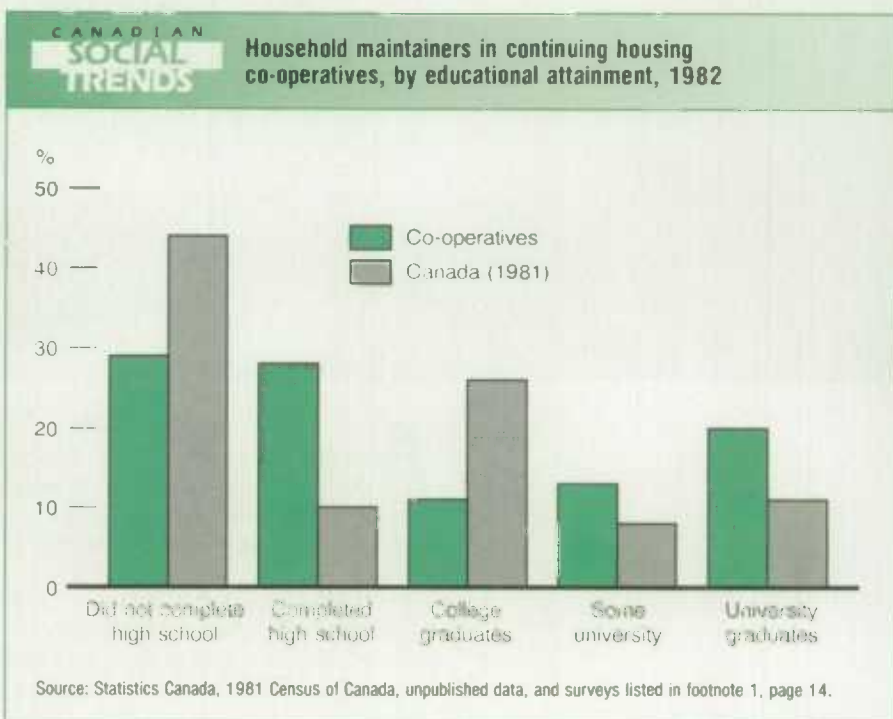
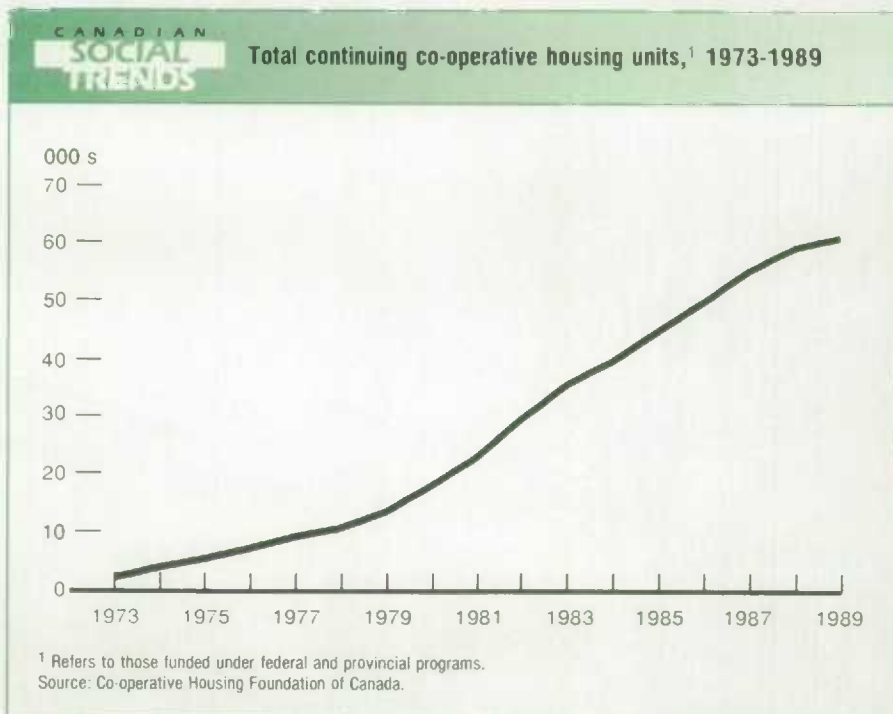
Contrary to popular belief, housing co-operatives are not specifically for low-income households. The goal is to have an income mix that approximates a cross-section of society, such that the average of incomes balances out to a medium income level. In co-operatives built before 1985, subsidies are available so that no household pays more than 25% of its income for housing. However, changes in the federal program in 1985 stipulated that in co-operatives built since then, only households below the low-income

threshold, to a maximum of 25% of units (50% in some provinces), qualify for a subsidy. Consequently, some households above the low-income threshold, but still having relatively low incomes, must pay more than 25% of their income for co-operative housing.

Unlike residents of public housing, which is designed exclusively for low-income households, members do not have to leave a co-operative when their incomes reach a set level. However, many

co-operatives have housing surcharges payable when incomes surpass a pre-defined ceiling.

Construction costs of co-operatives are controlled by maximum unit prices set by government. However, housing co-operatives are not easily identified as "low-cost" housing. As the initial investment will have an impact on future maintenance costs, emphasis is on good planning and design and quality construction.





Co-operative housing: The Canadian experience

Not-for-profit continuing co-operatives first emerged in Europe, primarily Scandinavia, during the 1920s. In Canada, students began to organize not-for-profit continuing co-operatives during the 1930s. Campus Co-operative, the first student housing co-operative, was developed in Toronto in 1936; today, it owns 27 turn-of-the-century houses near the University of Toronto. Since 1966, student co-operatives have been funded under the federal student housing program.

In 1960, the Co-operative Union of Canada, inspired by the co-operative housing model in Europe and the United States, began to explore the possibility of adapting that model for Canadian families. Willow Park in Winnipeg, the first continuing co-operative for families, was incorporated in 1961 and completed in 1966: it now includes a complex of 426 housing units, a day-care, and a small shopping centre.

Attracted by the success of Willow Park and the growing number of student housing co-operatives, two more family continuing co-operatives in Ontario and British Columbia followed in 1969.

The Co-operative Union of Canada, the Canadian Labour Congress, and the Canadian Union of Students were joined by the United Church of Canada and the Canadian Conference of Catholic Bishops to form the Co-operative Housing Foundation of Canada (CHF) in 1968, with financial assistance from the Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation. CHF took over promotion of the development of co-operative housing and provision of organizational, technical, and administrative services to emerging and existing co-operatives. In 1970, the Foundation negotiated a \$30 million loan from the federal government for five pilot housing co-operatives.

The success of these five projects led the federal government, in June 1973, to amend the National Housing Act to allow mortgage financing for co-operatives. During the four years after the official creation of the Canadian not-for-profit continuing co-operative housing program, 10,000 units in 240 housing co-operatives were developed across the country.

After the introduction of a new unilateral federal funding program in 1979, the fledgling movement grew rapidly, adding a further 34,000 units in 900 co-operatives by 1985. That year, the federal program was replaced by a new program based on a CMHC index-linked mortgage (mortgage interest rates are periodically adjusted to the inflation rate of the previous year), with low-income rent supplements cost-shared with the provinces. The pace of development of co-operative units has slowed in recent years.

Who lives in housing co-operatives?

The Co-operative Housing Foundation (CHF) collected information in 1982 on the characteristics of residents of urban housing co-operatives in Toronto, Ottawa, and Montreal, as well as the region of Peel-Halton and the province of British Columbia.¹

On a number of measures, co-operative households did not differ noticeably from 1981 Census national patterns. The average co-operative household size was 2.8 persons, compared with 2.9 for Canada. Families made up 72% of co-operative households; the figure for Canada was 75%. As well, people living alone accounted for 19% of co-operative households, compared with 20% for Canada.

On the other hand, in several ways, co-operative households differed from Canadian households overall. For example, lone-parent families were overrepresented in co-operatives. Lone-parent households comprised 21% of households in co-operatives, compared with 8% for Canada.

Co-operative households were also more likely to include children than were households in the rest of Canada. Children were present in 57% of co-operative

households, compared with 49% for Canada as a whole.

Co-operative households had, on average, lower incomes than other households, and their income was less likely to come from employment. In the co-operatives surveyed, average 1982 household income was \$19,860, compared with the 1982 Canadian average of \$27,470. Employment earnings were the main source of income in 77% of co-operative households, compared with 83% of all households in Canada.

On the whole, household maintainers in co-operatives were better educated than those in Canada overall. In 1982, 20% of household maintainers in co-operatives were university graduates, almost double the corresponding figure (11%) for Canada. At the other end of the spectrum, just 29% of co-operative household maintainers had not finished high school, whereas the proportion for all household maintainers was 44%.

Commitment to special needs housing

The Canadian co-operative housing movement has a commitment to house people with special needs: those with physical, developmental, or psychiatric disabilities; lone-parent families; women in transition, such as battered women and teenage mothers; elderly people; refugees; Aboriginal people; and ex-inmates.

People with physical disabilities have been the most common special needs group housed in co-operatives. Since 1982, at the initiative of the co-operative housing movement, co-operatives receiving government financing have been required to design a minimum of 5% of their units so that they are accessible to those with physical disabilities, unless site conditions or the location of support services make this impossible.

Currently, almost 1,500 units, or 2.4% of all co-operative housing units, have design features required by people in wheelchairs. Some co-operatives, in fact, are entirely accessible to those with physical disabilities. Others have self-contained units or cluster units with organized support services for those with physical, developmental, or psychiatric disabilities. As well, some co-operative resource groups specialize in housing those with disabilities and in promoting accessible and adaptable housing co-operatives.

For many women who cannot afford shelter in the traditional housing market, co-operatives are a viable alternative. Lone-parent families, mainly headed by

women, accounted for over one in five co-operative households surveyed in 1982. Also, some co-operatives have units set aside as temporary shelter, for periods of one month up to one year, for battered women and teenage mothers.

The proportion of women is high in co-operatives, and many women have assumed leadership roles. A 1985 study² found that in Toronto co-operatives, a majority of both residents and committee members were women; in fact, women chaired 60% of committees and held 52% of directorships.

The elderly are also well represented in housing co-operatives. For the most part, they have been integrated in mixed co-operatives. More than 40 co-operatives, however, have been developed exclusively for seniors.

In addition to the 1,560 housing co-operatives across the country, 60 resource groups and 18 local housing federations have grown out of the Canadian co-operative housing movement to assist new co-operatives to get off the ground or to offer support services to existing ones. Their presence attests to the commitment of many Canadians to continuing co-operative housing as a viable alternative to the traditional housing market.

¹ Pinsky, Barry, *Housing Co-operatives in Peel-Halton: A Survey of Members*, Ottawa: CHF, 1982. Schiff, Myra, *Housing Co-operatives in Metropolitan Toronto: A Survey of Members*, Ottawa: CHF, 1982; *Housing Co-operatives in Ottawa: A Survey of Members*, Ottawa: CHF, 1982; and *Housing Co-operatives in Montreal: A Survey of Members*, Ottawa: CHF, 1983.

² Doyle, B.F., *Women and Leadership in the Co-operative Housing Sector*, unpublished M.A. Thesis, Toronto: OISE, 1985.

Mary Anne Burke is Associate Editor of *Canadian Social Trends*.



Builders' co-operatives

Builders' co-operatives, another type of housing co-operative, have also been part of the Canadian co-operative housing experience. These co-operatives are formed by a group of 10 to 20 individuals to secure individual home ownership by helping to build each others' homes through "sweat equity." Once the homes have been built, the co-operative dissolves.

Inspired and assisted by adult educators from the Extension Department of St. Francis Xavier University, miners in Tomkinsville, Nova Scotia started the first Canadian builders co-operative in 1938. With the return of war veterans in the mid-1940s, the idea quickly spread to the other Atlantic Provinces and then to Quebec and Ontario, resulting in construction of 20,000 co-op units. As the population concentrated in large urban areas, builders' co-operatives became increasingly difficult, and since the 1960s, have virtually disappeared outside the Atlantic Provinces.

HOUSEHOLD PROPERTY CRIME

by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, about one in five Canadians believe that the level of crime in their neighbourhood has increased in recent years. When asked about the type of crime that concerns them most, half of Canadians listed property offences such as theft of belongings and damage to property. Results of the same survey suggest that these perceptions and concerns may be based on experience.

In 1987, an estimated 2.1 million Canadian households were victims of crimes involving their property. Calculated per 1,000 households, this represented 216 incidents of vandalism, break and enter, theft of motor vehicles or parts, and theft of household items.

Vandalism was the most commonly reported household property offence. In 1987, there were 63 incidents of vandalism for every 1,000 households. At the same time, there were 54 incidents of break and enter; 51 of theft of motor vehicles or parts; and 48 of theft of household items.

Highest rates in west

Household property crimes occur much more frequently in the Western provinces than in the rest of Canada. The highest household property crime rate was in British Columbia, where 364 such incidents were reported for every 1,000 households. In the Prairie provinces, the rate was 317 incidents per 1,000 households. In contrast, there were only 174 such crimes per 1,000 households in Quebec, 165 in Ontario, and 147 in the Atlantic region.

This pattern of higher rates in the west than in the east held for each type of household crime. For example, the incidence of vandalism was 106 per 1,000 households in British Columbia and 87 in the Prairies, compared with 55 in Quebec, 49 in Ontario, and 37 in the Atlantic



region. Similarly, the rate of theft of motor vehicles or parts was 96 per 1,000 households in British Columbia and 82 in the Prairies, but just 37 in Quebec, 36 in Ontario, and 26 in the Atlantic region.

An urban problem

In general, household property crime is more likely to occur in urban than in rural regions. The rate for urban areas was 252 incidents per 1,000 households in 1987, compared with 146 for rural areas.

All types of household property crime are more common in urban than in rural areas. In 1987, the incidence of vandalism was 76 per 1,000 urban households, but 42 per 1,000 rural households. The rate of break and enter was 64 per 1,000 urban households, compared with 32 for those in rural regions. The figures for theft of motor vehicles or parts were 59 in urban and 36 in rural areas, and for thefts of household property, 54 and 35.

High income/high risk

The likelihood of sustaining household property crime tends to increase at higher income levels. In 1987, households with incomes of \$40,000 or more reported the highest rate of crime (288 per 1,000 households), while those with incomes less than \$15,000 reported the lowest (163).

The association between household property crime and income is most evident in the case of vandalism. There were 102 incidents of vandalism per 1,000 households with incomes over \$40,000, compared with just 38 per 1,000 households in the less-than-\$15,000 income range.

Similarly, the rate of theft of motor vehicles or parts varied from 72 per 1,000 households in the highest income group to 34 per 1,000 in the lowest bracket.

On the other hand, the association between income and theft of household

property or break and enter is not as strong. Rates of theft of household items ranged from 51 incidents per 1,000 households with incomes of \$40,000 or more to 36 per 1,000 households in the less-than-\$15,000 income range; for break and enter, the corresponding figures were 64 and 55.

Household size

One-person households have a lower risk of experiencing household property crime than do households with a number of members. People living alone reported 159 incidents per 1,000 households, compared with 234 for households with more than one member.

The difference is most pronounced for theft of household items and acts of vandalism. In fact, in 1987, the incidence of theft of household items for multiple-person households (54 per 1,000) was close to double that for one-person households (28). The pattern was similar for vandalism: the rate of such incidents for multiple-person households was 70 per 1,000, compared with 41 per 1,000 one-person households.

Tenure and dwelling type

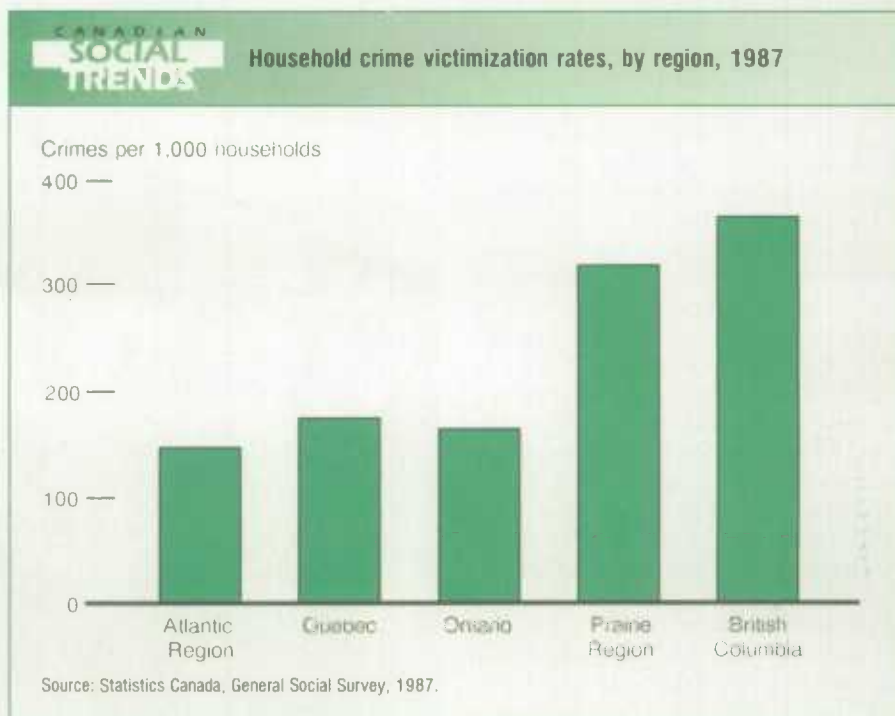
Tenants generally report a higher rate of household property crime than do homeowners. In 1987, 231 incidents occurred for every 1,000 rented dwellings, compared with 207 for owner-occupied homes. This pattern holds for all types of household property crime except

vandalism, which homeowners were more likely to report.

The risk of household victimization is also associated with dwelling type. In 1987, residents of doubles, rowhouses, and duplexes had the highest rates of break and enter and theft of household items, and the second highest rate of vandalism. The fact that these types of dwellings tend to be in high-density urban areas near potential offender populations may help explain the frequent occurrence

of household property crime.

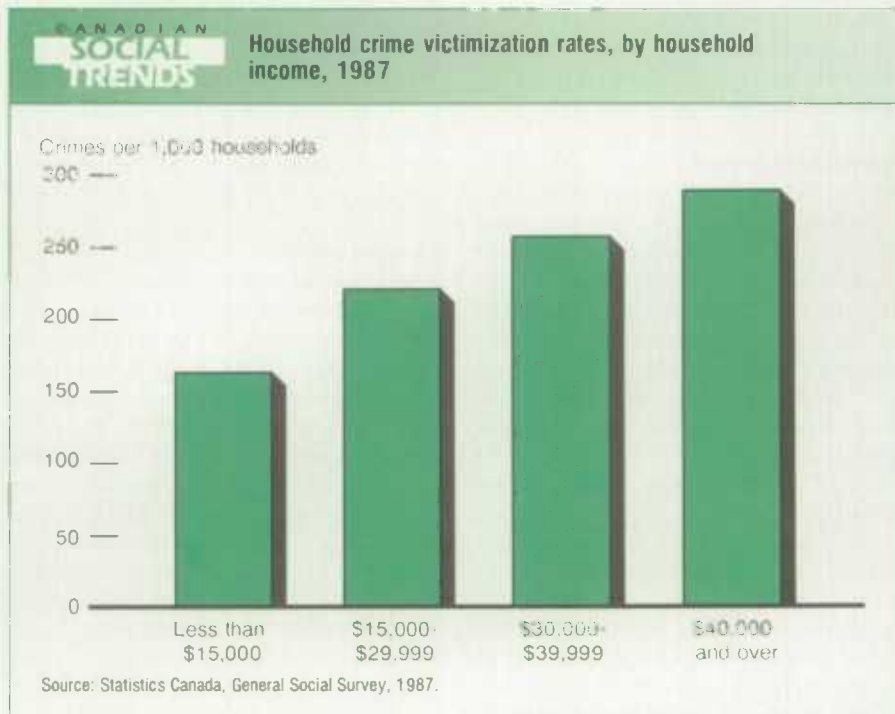
By contrast, residents of single-family homes reported moderate levels of all household property offences, while occupants of apartment buildings reported below-average rates for all crimes except theft of motor vehicles or parts. Restricted access into and awkward escape routes from these buildings may reduce the risk of break and enter, theft of household items, and vandalism. However, limited surveillance over garages and



The third cycle of the General Social Survey (GSS), conducted early in 1988, asked Canadians about their experiences with certain crimes and their perceptions of crime and the criminal justice system.

The survey was designed to measure the incidence of crimes against the person such as sexual assault, robbery, assault, and theft of personal property, and crimes against the household such as break and enter, theft of motor vehicles, theft of household property, and vandalism.

A representative sample of 10,000 adults was interviewed for this survey. Estimates were made for the population aged 15 and over. By counting incidents that were not reported to the police, as well as those that were, the GSS provides information not available from police records.



parking areas may leave apartment-dwellers more vulnerable to theft of motor vehicles or parts.

Time and location

Household property crimes occur more often in summer and autumn than in winter and spring. Close to a third (32%) of incidents took place in summer, while 26% occurred in autumn, 20% in winter, and only 15% in spring. Victims of the remaining 7% of incidents were unable to remember the season when they happened.

Household property crimes also tend to be night-time events. For example, in 1987, 62% of all such incidents happened

after dark. It is not surprising, therefore, that household property crime rates climb steadily as residents' evening activities outside the home increase. Residents of households involved in 30 or more outside activities a month reported over 300 property crimes per 1,000 households, a rate two and a half times that associated with residents who reported 10 or fewer outside activities.

Losses and damage

The majority of household property crimes involve theft and/or damage. In more than half (55%) of incidents in 1987, property was stolen. The items taken most often were motor vehicle parts, although electronic equipment and bicycles were also common targets.

The likelihood of recovering stolen goods is slight. All the stolen property was recovered in just 7% of incidents, while a further 6% resulted in partial recovery. In the remaining 87%, nothing had been recovered by the time of the survey.

There was also damage to property in about half (51%) of all incidents. Most frequently, the damage was to a motor vehicle, although almost a quarter of incidents with damage involved the dwelling or another building on the property, such as a garage.

For incidents involving loss of property and/or damage, losses amounted to less than \$100 in 30% of cases, and \$100-\$399 in 29%. Another 15% of incidents entailed losses of \$400-\$999, while in 16%, losses totalled \$1,000 or more. The

most costly incidents tended to be break and enter and motor vehicle theft.

Reporting to the police

Only about half of household property crimes ever come to the attention of the police. In 1987, the police learned about just 54% of all such incidents.

The police are most likely to find out about cases of break and enter: around 70% of these crimes were reported in 1987. Police also learned about 57% of thefts of motor vehicles or parts, 45% of vandalism cases, and 43% of thefts of household property.

Usually, it is the victim who reports the incident to the police. In fact, 79% of cases that came to the attention of police in 1987 were reported by the victim. The remaining 21% were reported by a neighbour, bystander, or other household member, or detected by the police themselves.

The main reasons why victims reported the incident were the desire to catch and punish the offender (79%) and to stop the incident or prevent its recurrence (74%). The need to file a claim for insurance or compensation was also an important reason for reporting the incident, especially theft of motor vehicles or parts (67%) and vandalism (59%).

The most common reasons for not reporting the incident were that it was "too minor" (75%) and that "the police couldn't do anything about it" (66%).

Compensation

Only a minority of incidents are followed by attempts to seek financial compensation from insurance companies.

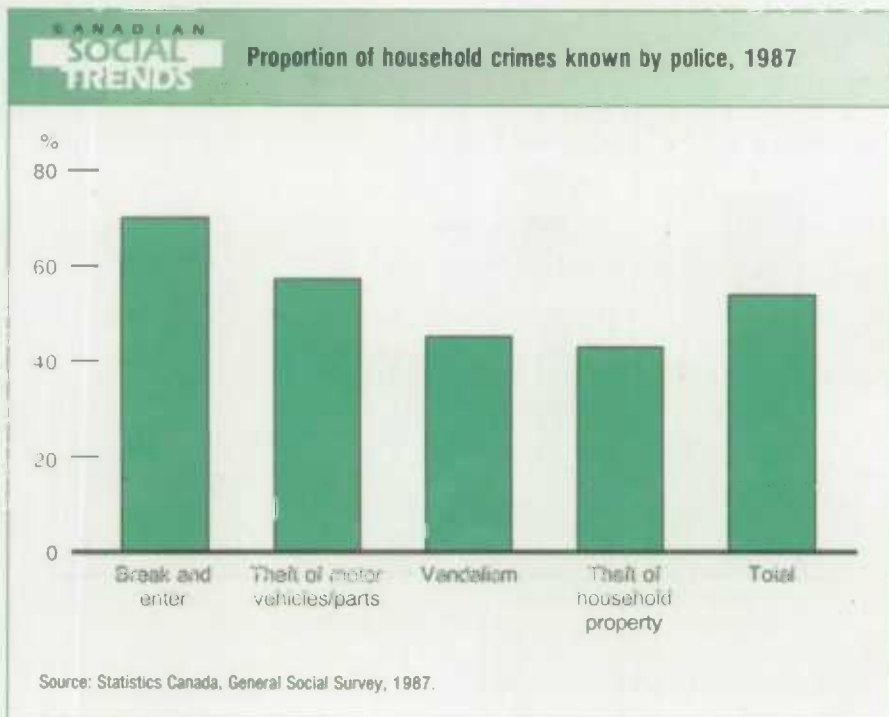
In 1987, victims sought redress from insurance companies in 29% of incidents and were successful about three-quarters of the time. However, the proportion of victims seeking insurance compensation varied by the type of incident. Thefts of motor vehicles or parts were most likely to prompt compensation efforts (37%), while the figure was about 30% for break and enter and vandalism. On the other hand, just 18% of thefts of household items prompted compensation attempts.

Vincent Sacco is Head of the Department of Sociology at Queen's University; **Holly Johnson** is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.

Home as fortress

In 1987, nearly one-quarter (23%) of all adults reported installing security hardware in their homes. Acquisition of these devices was more common in urban than in rural areas, and in high-income as opposed to low-income households.

Such security measures were taken by 26% of urban residents, compared with just 14% of people in rural areas. At the same time, installation of these devices was reported by 29% of residents of households with incomes over \$60,000, but just 20% of those in households with incomes less than \$15,000.



HOUSEHOLD CHORES

by Katherine Marshall

Despite an abundance of labour-saving household appliances, which have had a major impact on the amount and nature of housework, Canadians still devote considerable time to household chores.¹ According to the 1986 General Social Survey, adult Canadians spend, on average, 1 3/4 hours a day on housework. Women, however, are responsible for the bulk of household tasks.

Household chores still done mainly by women

Averaged over all Canadians aged 15 and older, women spent 2 1/2 hours a day on housework, compared with 1 hour for men in 1986.

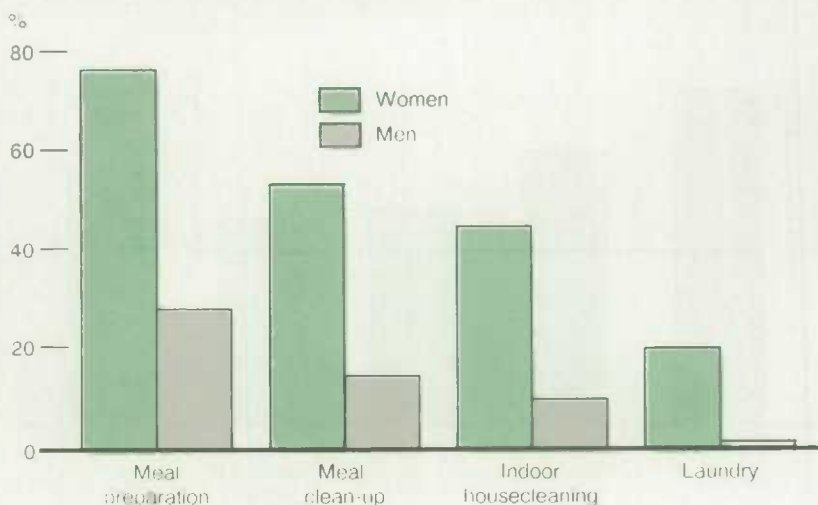
This difference occurs because, on any given day, women were much more likely than men to do housework, and also because the average time women spent on these activities was greater than that of men. The proportion of women who reported doing housework on a typical day was much higher than the corresponding figure for men: 85% versus 52%. These women spent an average of 3 hours on such chores, compared with 2 hours for the men.

Women's higher participation rates and greater commitments of time applied to most types of housework. For example, while 77% of women prepared meals on any given day and spent an average of about 1 1/4 hours doing so, only 29% of men prepared meals and averaged less than 3/4 hour on this activity. More than half of women (54%) cleaned up after meals, and 45% did indoor housecleaning. Participation in these tasks was low for men, at just 15% and 10%, respectively. Also, men who did engage in these



CANADIAN
SOCIAL
TRENDS

Percentage of women and men performing selected household chores, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

¹ Includes meal preparation and clean-up, indoor and outdoor cleaning, laundry, home repairs and maintenance, gardening, pet care, bill paying, and travel to and from these household chores.

activities spent only about one-fifth as long on them as did women.

Outdoor cleaning and home repairs were the only household tasks that men were more likely than women to perform. However, unlike most household chores,

which must be done daily, these activities require only occasional involvement. On a given day, 7% of men reported doing outdoor clean-up, and 9% engaged in home repairs. By comparison, the figures for women were just 2% for each activity.

Employed women still homemakers

While women whose main activity was keeping house spend the most time on housework (about 4 hours a day, on average), women with jobs outside the home are also largely responsible for household chores. On a given day, 83% of working women did housework, and the time they spent on these activities averaged about 2 1/4 hours. In contrast, just half of working men did household chores, and they devoted an average of about 1 3/4 hours to these activities.

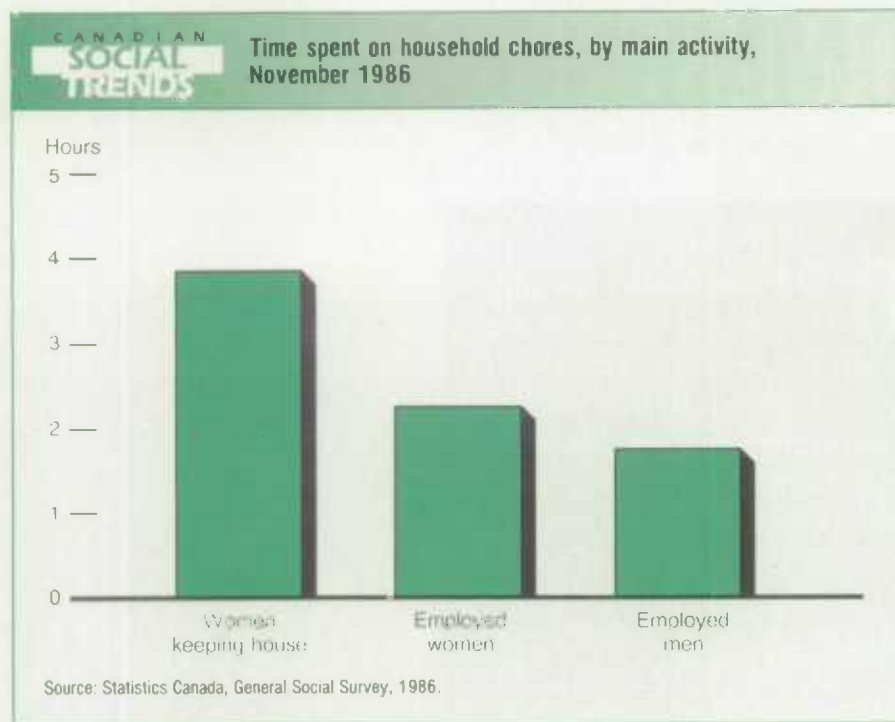
Housework patterns of working men and women who were married were even more divergent: 89% of these women did housework each day, compared with 51% of men.

Children increase housework

As might be expected, more time was devoted to domestic tasks in households with children. This was particularly true for women. In 1986, women who did housework spent an average of just under 3 1/2 hours on it if there were children under age 19 living at home. This was about 3/4 of an hour more than the time women without any children at home spent on housework.

Regardless of the presence of children, just over half of men participated in housework on any given day. However, men in households with children under age 19 spent about 20 minutes longer on household chores.

Katherine Marshall is an analyst with the General Social Survey, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



Daily participation in and time spent on household chores, November 1986

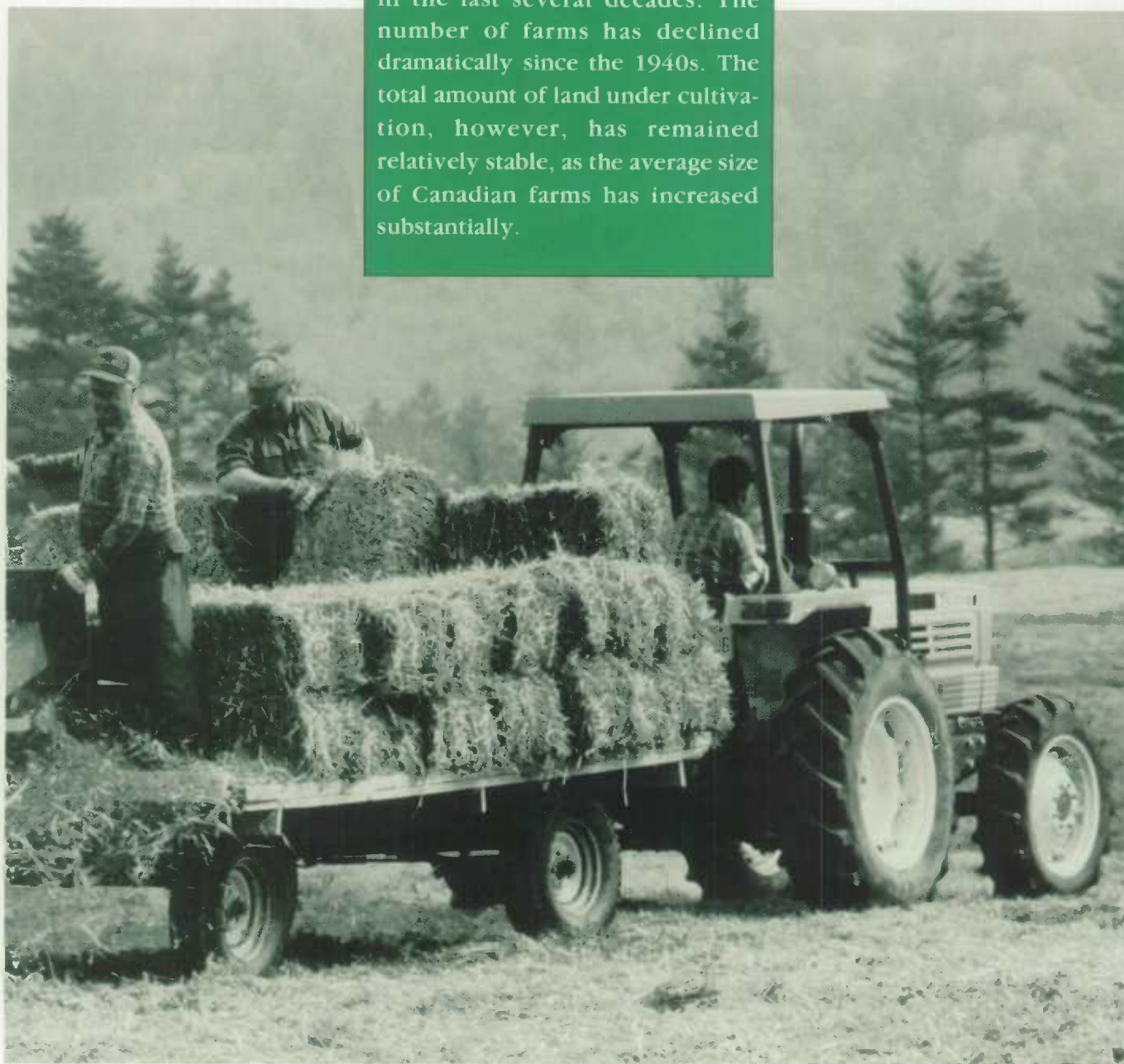
	Participation rate		Average time spent by participants	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%		Hours/Minutes	
Age				
15-24	65	40	1:50	1:12
25-44	89	53	3:02	1:50
45-64	93	55	3:24	2:17
65 and over	90	61	3:00	2:11
Total 15 and over	85	52	2:57	1:53
Main activity				
Paid work	83	51	2:16	1:44
Looking for work	84	65	2:43	2:27
Student	57	36	1:28	1:04
Keeping house	97	91	3:52	3:35
Retired	88	62	2:51	2:21
Presence of children under age 19				
Children at home	94	53	3:22	2:01
No children at home	80	51	2:39	1:49

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

THE FARM COMMUNITY

by Judie McSkimmings

The farm community has undergone numerous major changes in the last several decades. The number of farms has declined dramatically since the 1940s. The total amount of land under cultivation, however, has remained relatively stable, as the average size of Canadian farms has increased substantially.



The vast majority of farms remain family operated. However, the total farm population has declined, and the profile of farmers has changed. Farm operators tend to be older, and a larger proportion of them are women. Also, people living on farms are better educated than in the past. And while real farm family incomes are falling, off-farm work is providing a growing share of that income.

Number of farms down

The number of farms¹ in Canada has dropped sharply since the early 1940s. By 1986, there were fewer than 300,000 farms, down from a peak of almost 733,000 in 1941.

The sharpest decline in the number of farms occurred during the 1950s and 1960s. However, at 7.9%, the drop between 1981 and 1986 (from 320,000 to just 293,000) was greater than those in the two previous five-year periods. The number of farms decreased 7.5% between 1971 and 1976 and 6.0% between 1976 and 1981.

The drop in the number of farms between 1981 and 1986 was due mainly to a decline in those with relatively low sales. Farms with annual sales of less than \$25,000 (real 1986 dollars) decreased 21%, whereas those with sales of \$50,000 or more increased 24%. The number of farms with sales of \$250,000 or more increased 78%.

Consequently, as a proportion of all farms, those with sales less than \$25,000

fell from 53% in 1981 to 45% in 1986, while the share with sales over \$50,000 rose from 29% to 39%. Also in 1986, over 4% of farms had sales in excess of \$250,000, up from 2% in 1981.

Throughout the last several decades, the total amount of farmland has remained relatively stable, as the drop in the number of farms was offset by an increase in their size. In 1986, the average farm in Canada was 572 acres, compared with 511 acres in 1981 and 237 in 1941.

Family farms predominate

The number of individual family farms has fallen in recent years, but they still make up the vast majority of all farms in Canada. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of individual family farms declined 13%. And while they accounted for 82% of all farms in 1986, this was down from 87% in 1981.

In contrast, the number of corporate farms has increased. This increase, however, resulted from growth in the number of corporate farms in which the majority of shares were family owned. In comparison, the number of non-family-owned corporate farms changed little in recent years.

Corporate farms account for a disproportionate share of agricultural sales. In 1986, family-owned corporate farms made up 5% of all farms, but represented 20% of all agricultural sales. Similarly, while only 0.4% of all farms were non-family-owned corporate farms,

they accounted for 4% of total agricultural sales.

Farm population declining

As the number of farms has fallen, so has the total farm population. In 1941, more than 3 million Canadians, 27% of the total population, lived on farms; however, by 1986, only 930,000 people, just 4% of all Canadians, were farm residents.

The percentage of people living on farms varies considerably by province, with Saskatchewan having the largest farm population. In 1986, 17% of Saskatchewan residents lived on farms. Farm dwellers also made up 8% of the population in each of Manitoba, Alberta, and Prince Edward Island. The figure falls to 3% in Ontario and to 2% in Quebec, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. In Newfoundland, just 0.4% of the population lived on farms.

Farmers older

Mirroring the pattern of the Canadian population overall, farmers are older now than in the past. Farm operators were, on average, 47.8 years old in 1986, up from 46.9 years in 1981.

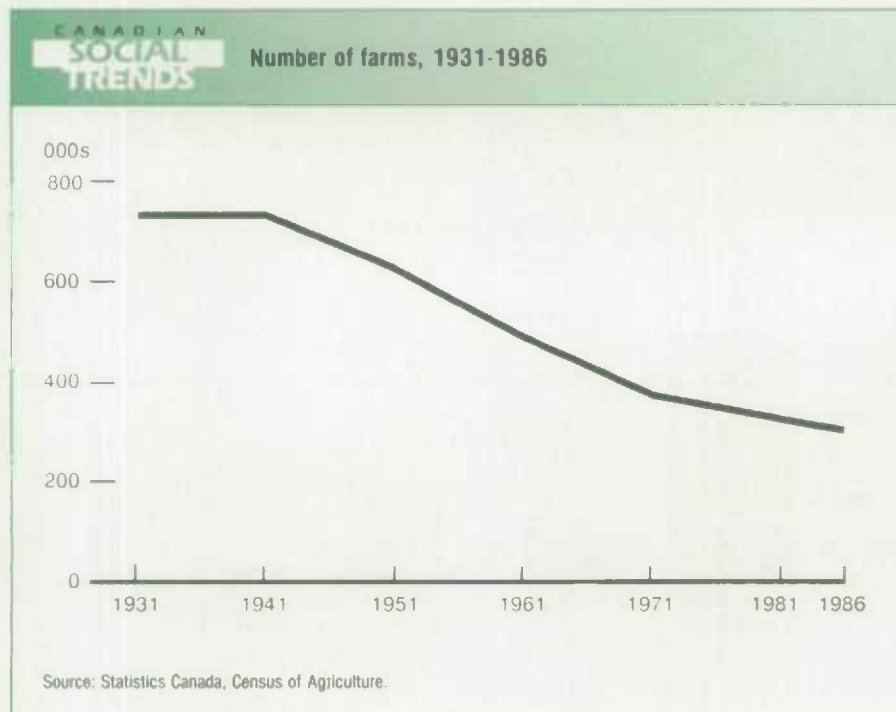
The proportion of farm operators aged 55 and over increased between 1981 and 1986. In 1986, 34% of farm operators were aged 55 and over; this was up from 31% in 1981. In fact, the 1986 figure was the highest in the post-war period.

The relative growth in the number of older farmers did not prevail across the country. The number of farm operators aged 55 and over increased in the Western provinces between 1981 and 1986, but actually declined in the Eastern provinces. Ontario was the one province where the proportion of operators in this age range was relatively stable.

In contrast to older farmers, the proportion of farmers under age 35 has fallen. In 1986, 19% of all farm operators were under 35 years of age, down from 21% in 1981. This is a reversal of an earlier trend. Between 1966 and 1981, the proportion of farmers under age 35 rose from 15% to 21%.

Increasing levels of education

Farm residents are better educated today than in the past. In 1986, the farm population aged 15 and over averaged 11 years



¹ Includes all agricultural holdings with sales of \$250 or more in the previous year.

of schooling, two years more than in 1971, but about the same as in 1981.

There was a sharp increase in the share of the farm population with a university degree. In 1986, 5% of the farm population aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from fewer than 1% in 1971. Still, the proportion of farm residents with a university degree in 1986 was only half that for the population overall (10%).

On the other hand, the share of the farm population with less than Grade 9 is about the same as that of the population in general. In 1986, 20% of adults living on farms had not attended high school, compared with 18% of all Canadians. The figure for the farm population was down sharply from 43% in 1971.

Female farm operators

Although the vast majority of farm operators are men, the share of farms operated by women has increased in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of female farm operators rose 18%, while the number operated by men fell 9%. As a result, women represented 4.5% of all farm operators in 1986, up from 3.5% in 1981.

Women, however, participate in most farm operations. By far, the largest number of women involved in farming are the spouses of farm operators.

Farm family incomes falling

Average income declined for all families during the first half of the 1980s. The decline among farm families, however, was somewhat sharper than that for all Canadian families. Between 1980 and 1985, average family income, in constant 1985 dollars, fell 5% among farm families, but just 1% among all families. As a result, in 1985, the total average income for farm families (\$35,400) was about 92% that for all families (\$38,700).

The overall drop in average farm family income masks an even greater decline in income specifically from farm activities. Between 1980 and 1985, real income from these activities fell 26%. In contrast, real income from off-farm work declined only slightly in this period, while income from other sources, such as investments, rose 19%.

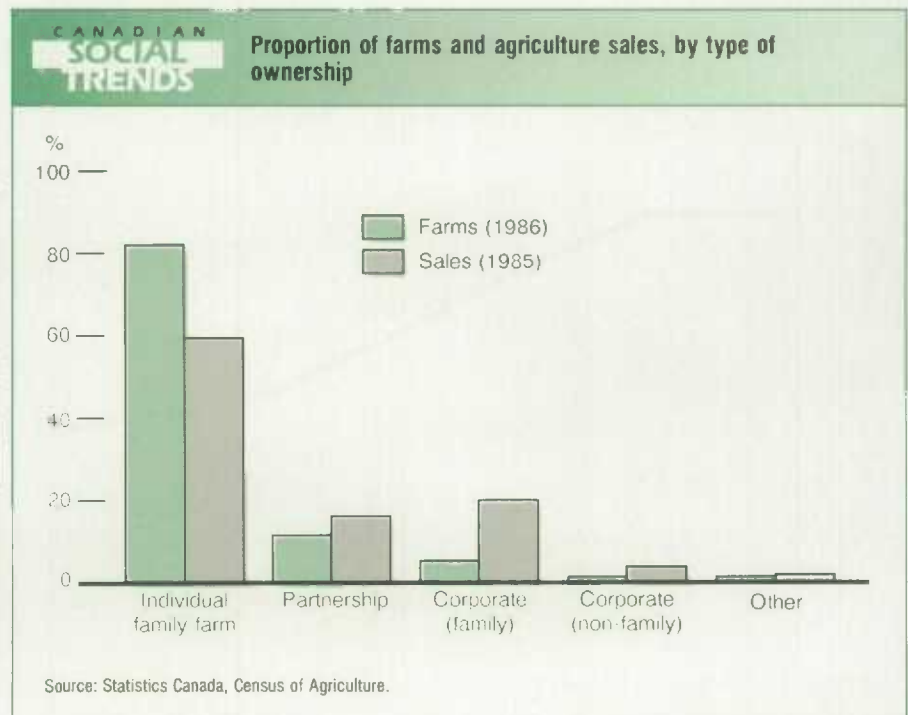
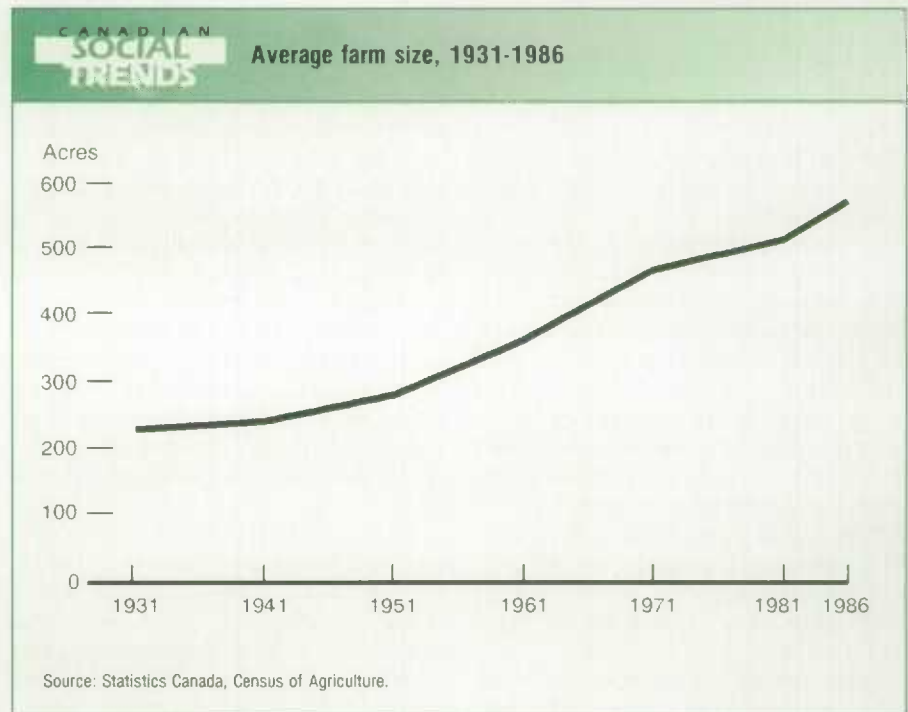
As a result, income from farm activities represented just 23% of total farm family income in 1985, down from 30% in 1980. Over the same period, the contribution of off-farm earnings to farm family income increased from 53% to 55%, while the share reported as other income rose from 17% to 22%.

Off-farm work increasing

Over the years, farm families have spent an increasing amount of time on off-farm work. The average number of days worked off-farm by farm operators who participate in this activity has increased steadily from 148 days in 1960 to 173 days in 1985. However, the percentage of farm operators engaging in off-farm work has remained fairly constant, at around one-third, since the 1940s.

Still, the majority (61%) of farm

operators did not report any off-farm work in 1986. Farmers who did not work off their farms tended to be older and had fewer years of schooling than those who did off-farm work. Also, their overall income was 23% lower than that of farmers who engaged in off-farm work. The amount of income they received strictly from farm activities, however, was substantially above that reported by those who worked off their farms. As well, operators who did no off-farm work





controlled 72% of total farm capital and accounted for 80% of agricultural sales. This may be explained, in part, by the longer hours they devoted to farming, and by the fact that their farms tended to be larger (an average of 667 acres) than those of operators who did off-farm work (367 acres).

As well, a growing proportion of farm spouses are in the labour force. In 1986, 66% of farm wives were in the labour force, compared with 57% of all married women. Of farm spouses in the labour force, 60% were paid workers, while 26% were unpaid family workers, and 14% were self-employed.

In 1985, spouses were responsible for 23% of total farm family income, up from 18% in 1980. In fact, in 1985, 16% of farm spouses provided at least half the total family income.

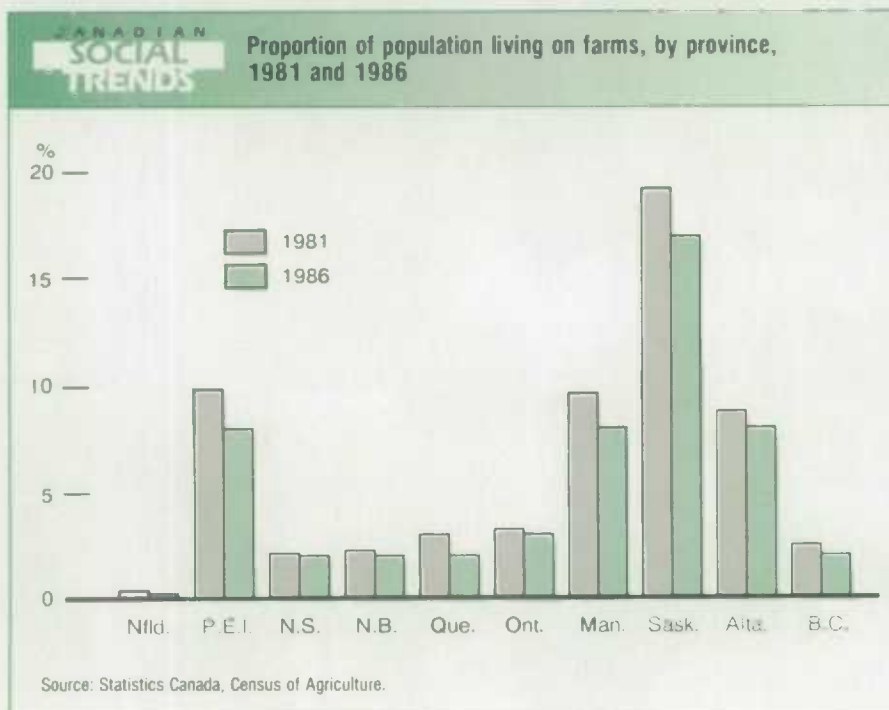
Farm debts

In 1985, farm operators' average interest payments were \$10,800 per farm. Overall, 61% of farm operators made interest payments that year, while the remaining 39% reported no such payments.

The proportion of farm operators reporting interest expenditures varies considerably by size of farm sales. For farms with gross sales under \$10,000, 31% reported paying interest in 1985, whereas for farms with gross sales of \$250,000 or over, 89% reported interest expenditures.

The proportion reporting interest expenditures also varies by the age of the operator. While 74% of operators under 35 years of age reported interest expenses, the proportion among operators aged 55 and over was 39%.

Judie McSkimmings is Agricultural Sector Head, Census Communications and Marketing, Communications Division, Statistics Canada.



REGIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

by David Gower

The overall level of unemployment in Canada has declined dramatically since the end of the recession. By 1988, the average annual unemployment rate had dropped below 8%, down from a peak of almost 12% in 1983.

Yet despite this relatively low overall rate, high levels of unemployment prevail in some regions, while in others, rates are well below the national level. In fact, the disparity in regional unemployment actually widened in recent years.

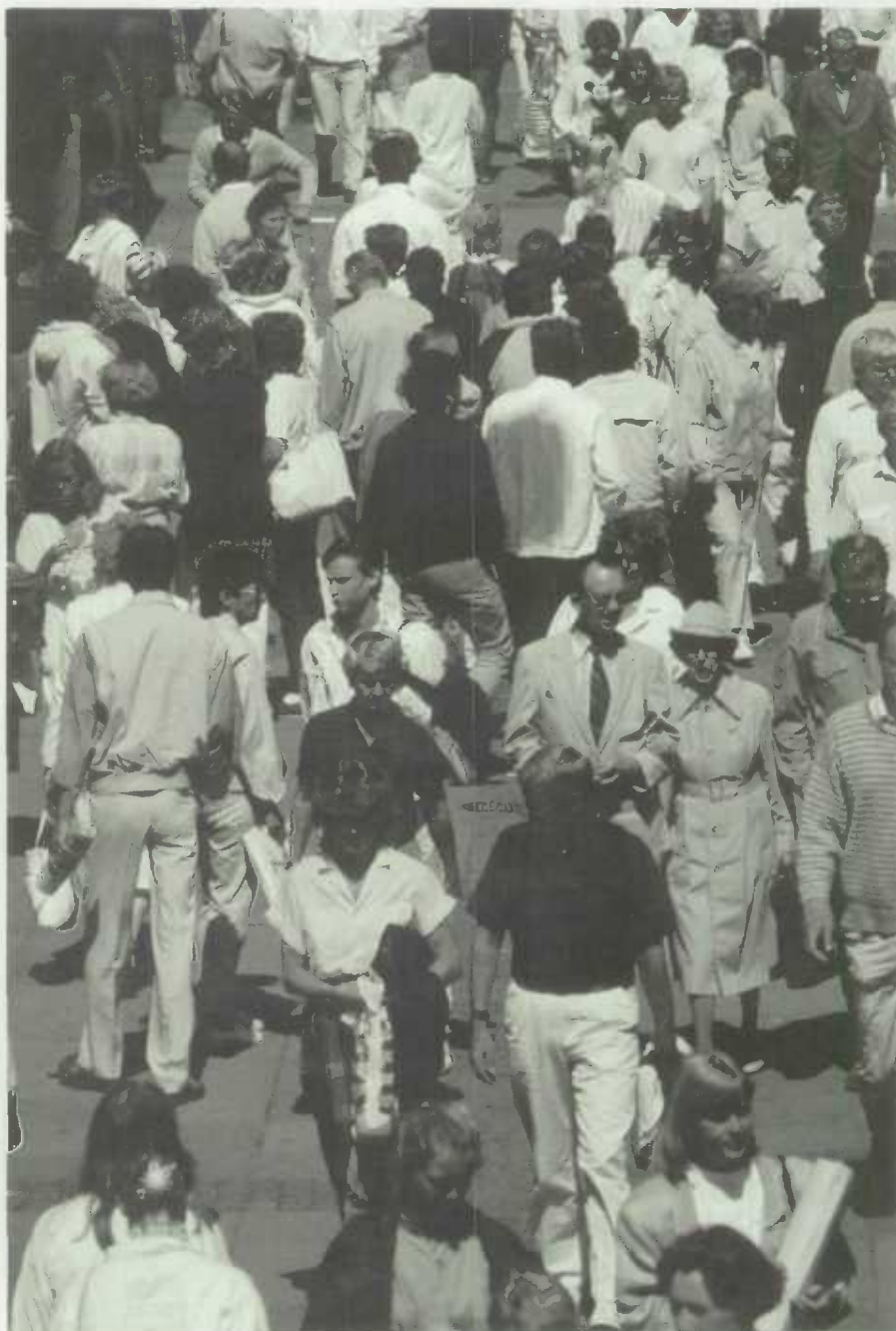
Ontario rates lowest

Canada's lowest levels of unemployment are increasingly concentrated in Ontario. In fact, nine of the ten labour markets with the lowest unemployment rates in 1988 were in Ontario, and the remaining one was the Ottawa-Hull CMA, a large part of which is in Ontario. The fact that almost all the lowest rates in 1988 were in Ontario was a major change from 1985, when only five of the ten areas with the lowest unemployment were in that province.

Toronto and the regions around Toronto, including the CMAs of London, Kitchener-Waterloo, Oshawa, Hamilton, and St. Catharines-Niagara, as well as non-metropolitan Central and Southern Ontario, all had unemployment rates well below the national average in 1988.

Moreover, Toronto has consistently had the lowest level of unemployment of any region in recent years. In 1988, just 3.7% of Toronto's labour force was unemployed, a figure less than half the national average. Rates in Toronto's neighbouring regions ranged from a low of 4.4% in London to a high of 6.4% in St. Catharines-Niagara.

The largest relative improvement in regional unemployment, though, occurred in the Thunder Bay CMA. By 1988, this area had the 8th lowest unemployment rate of the 40 regions; in 1985, it ranked 21st.



Unemployment rates in 40 subprovincial economic regions, 1985 and 1988

	Unemployment rate		Rank	
	1985	1988	1985	1988
	%		No.	
Toronto CMA	6.7	3.7	1	1
London CMA	8.8	4.4	12	2
Central Ontario non-CMA	7.2	4.7	4	3
Ottawa-Hull CMA	8.3	5.0	7	4
Kitchener-Waterloo CMA	7.2	5.1	3	5
Oshawa CMA	7.2	5.2	5	6
Hamilton CMA	8.8	5.7	13	7
Thunder Bay CMA	10.7	6.1	21	8
Southern Ontario non-CMA	10.1	6.2	19	9
St. Catharines-Niagara CMA	10.7	6.4	22	10
Saskatchewan non-CMA	7.1	6.9	2	11
Alberta non-CMA	8.3	7.0	8	12
Manitoba non-CMA	7.3	7.0	6	13
Regina CMA	9.6	7.1	15	14
Eastern Ontario/West/ South Quebec non-CMA	9.8	7.3	17	15
Northern Ontario non-CMA	9.7	7.7	16	16
Halifax CMA	9.5	7.8	14	17
Windsor CMA	8.4	7.9	9	18
Calgary CMA	10.2	8.1	20	19
Winnipeg CMA	8.8	8.3	11	20
Quebec CMA	8.6	8.4	10	21
Central Quebec non-CMA	11.6	8.8	23	22
Abitibi-Northern Quebec	13.7	9.2	32	23
Edmonton CMA	12.0	9.2	25	24
Montreal CMA	11.7	9.3	24	25
Vancouver CMA	13.2	9.4	29	26
Sudbury CMA	13.5	9.8	31	27
Saskatoon CMA	10.0	9.9	18	28
Victoria CMA	13.0	10.2	27	29
Trois-Rivières CMA	12.9	10.4	26	30
Saint John CMA	15.4	10.9	35	31
Chicoutimi CMA	13.2	11.0	28	32
St. John's CMA	14.8	11.3	33	33
British Columbia non-CMA	15.5	11.6	37	34
Nova Scotia non-CMA	16.2	11.8	38	35
New Brunswick non-CMA	15.1	12.3	34	36
Prince Edward Island	13.3	13.0	30	37
Lac-St-Jean-Côte Nord non-CMA	15.4	13.1	36	38
Lower St. Lawrence	17.7	13.8	39	39
Newfoundland non-CMA	24.0	19.2	40	40

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Major improvements also occurred in the London and St. Catharines-Niagara CMAs and non-metropolitan Southern Ontario. London, in fact, had the 2nd lowest unemployment rate in Canada in 1988, compared with the 12th lowest in 1985.

On the other hand, five regions that had been among the ten with the lowest unemployment rates in 1985 had slipped below 10th by 1988. These included Windsor and Quebec City, and the non-CMA areas of Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Manitoba.

Unemployment in large CMAs

Of the three largest CMAs, Toronto was the only one with relatively low unemployment. By contrast, unemployment rates in Montreal and Vancouver were above the national average. In 1988, Montreal had an unemployment rate of 9.3%, while Vancouver's rate was 9.4%. These two CMAs ranked 25th and 26th, respectively, in terms of unemployment that year.

Levels highest in east

Almost all of the ten areas with the highest unemployment rates in 1988 were in the Atlantic region and Quebec. The exception was non-metropolitan British Columbia.

By far, the highest unemployment rate of any region in recent years was in non-metropolitan Newfoundland. The rate in this area in 1988, at 19.2%, was more than five percentage points above the next highest one.

Subprovincial economic regions

For the purposes of this study, the country was delineated into 40 subprovincial areas that represent, as closely as possible, economic regions. The 24 Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) accounted for the majority of these regions. CMAs were used because their boundaries are based on commuting patterns, and therefore, they are among the most homogeneous labour markets in the country.

The remaining subprovincial economic regions were made up of the areas outside the CMAs. In most provinces, the total area outside the CMAs was treated as if it were a single labour market. In Ontario and Quebec, the non-CMA population was large enough to permit further breakdowns.

Five other areas in the Atlantic provinces were among the ten regions with the highest unemployment rates. These included the Saint John and St. John's CMAs, Prince Edward Island, and the non-metropolitan areas of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Unemployment in these regions ranged from 10.9% in the Saint John CMA to 13.0% in Prince Edward Island.

The Lower St. Lawrence and Lac-St-Jean-Côte Nord regions of Quebec also had relatively high levels of unemployment. These areas had the second and third highest unemployment rates in 1988, at 13.8% and 13.1%, respectively. The Chicoutimi CMA, with an unemployment rate of 11.0%, was the other Quebec area among the ten regions with the highest rates.

Unlike most regions in Quebec which remained at about the same rank or lost ground relative to other regions in recent years, the Abitibi/Northern Quebec region actually fared considerably better in 1988 than in 1985. By 1988, it had the 23rd lowest unemployment rate, up from 32nd in 1985.

Regional inequality growing

It appears that regional inequality in unemployment is growing. The average unemployment rate in the ten areas with the highest rates in 1988 was 2.4 times greater than that in the ten areas with the lowest rates. In comparison, in 1985, the average figure in the ten highest areas was only 2.1 times greater than in the ten lowest areas.

This gap widened because the relative decline in unemployment was sharper in the ten areas with the lowest rates than in the ten areas with the highest rates. Between 1985 and 1988, unemployment rates dropped about 40% in the ten lowest unemployment regions, compared with just over a 20% decline in the high unemployment regions.

David Gower is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

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



THE 1986 CENSUS PROFILES

YOUR TICKET TO ANY COMMUNITY IN CANADA

The 1986 profiles will put you on the fast track to any Canadian community you want to study.

You're looking for a fast introduction to the social and demographic realities of a city, a town, a municipality or an entire province. And you don't have the time to wade through piles of statistics.

Focus in on the area of your choice with a CENSUS PROFILE. Each PROFILE features more than 46 items of information on the area that interests you... from population

counts, to the living arrangements of its elderly.

Choose a PROFILE on any one of

- 6009 Census Subdivisions (municipalities)
- 266 Census Divisions (counties)
- 295 Federal Electoral Districts
- 25 Census Metropolitan Areas
- 114 Census Agglomerations
- a variety of urban/rural breakdowns

With 52 publications in this series, we can fast track you to any destination you want.

THE 1986 CENSUS PROFILES. YOUR TICKET.

For more information, call us at 1-800-267-6677 and request the Census brochure (which includes ordering information), or write us at: **Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6**



THE INNER CITY IN TRANSITION

*This article was adapted by **Canadian Social Trends** staff from the Focus on Canada Series report "The Inner City in Transition," Statistics Canada, Catalogue 98-123, by Bali Ram, Mary Jane Norris and Karl Skof.*

In the first half of the 1980s, the total number of people living in the inner-city cores of 12 Canadian metropolitan areas¹ increased. This reversed the steady population decline that had typified inner cities from 1951 to 1981.

The total population living in the inner-cities of the 12 urban areas rose 5% between 1981 and 1986, from 434,000 to 456,000.

While this is not a particularly large increase, it marks a major change from the previous three decades when the number of people living in inner cities dropped precipitously. Between 1951 and 1981, the population in these areas declined 40%, from 728,000 to 434,000. The sharpest decrease occurred between 1971 and 1981, when the inner-city population fell 18%; however, declines during the 1950s and 1960s were also substantial.

Smaller share of urban population

Not surprisingly, the inner cities' share of the total urban population has also dropped steeply since the early 1950s.

This trend continued in the first half of the 1980s; however, the decline during this period was relatively small.

In 1986, the inner cities accounted for 3.8% of residents of the 12 urban areas, down slightly from 4.0% in 1981. The 1986 figure, however, represents a major decrease from 1951 when 15.8% of all urban residents had lived in inner cities.

The decline in the inner-city share of the urban population reflects not only the sharp drop in the number of people living in these areas, but also the fact that while inner-city boundaries have remained constant, annexations have enlarged outlying areas. Overall, the total population in the outlying regions of the 12 urban areas grew almost 200% between 1951 and 1986, from 3.9 million to 11.6 million.

Different cities, different patterns

While the aggregated population in the 12 inner cities increased, there were considerable differences in the population dynamics of different metropolitan areas.

The greatest inner-city growth during the 1981-1986 period was in Saskatoon,

where the number of residents rose 14%. At the same time, there was a 12% rise in the inner-city population of Toronto and 9% increases in Calgary and Winnipeg. Growth was below 5% in the other cities.

The exceptions to this pattern were Montreal and Saint John where the inner-city populations continued to fall in the early 1980s. These declines, however, were small.

Few children, many elderly

In general, young people are under-represented in inner cities, while the elderly are over-represented. In 1986, people under age 15 made up 9% of the total inner-city population, compared with 20% in the outlying areas. Conversely, 15% of the population of the inner cities were aged 65 and over, in comparison with only 10% of people living in outlying areas.

Large working-age population

A relatively large share of the inner-city population is aged 20-34. In 1986, this age group accounted for 37% of the



population in the inner cities, compared with 28% in the outlying areas. As well, since the early 1960s, the proportion of residents aged 20-34 has risen about twice as fast in the inner cities as in the outlying areas.

On the other hand, people aged 35-64 make up about the same percentage of the population in both inner cities and outlying areas. In 1986, this age group represented about 34% of the residents of each region.

More singles and lone-parent families

Given the higher proportions of both young adults and elderly people in the inner cities, it is not surprising that a relatively large share of people in these areas are not married. In 1986, more than six out of ten inner-city residents aged 15 and over were single (46%), widowed (8%), or divorced (8%). In comparison, fewer than four out of ten people in the outlying urban areas were not married: 28% were single; 6% were widowed; and

4% were divorced.

As well, inner cities have high concentrations of people living alone. In 1986, people living alone occupied more than half (56%) of inner-city households, compared with just 22% of those in outlying areas.

Inner cities also tend to have a much higher proportion of lone-parent families than do outlying areas. In 1986, 22% of inner-city families had only one parent, compared with 14% of families in the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

As well, inner-city families are less likely than those in outlying areas to have children. Almost half (49%) of families in inner cities, compared with just a third (32%) in outlying areas, had no children in 1986. At the same time, only 8% of inner-city families, in contrast to 13% of those in the remainder of the metropolitan areas, had three or more children.

Many immigrants

Immigrants make up a relatively high proportion of inner-city residents. In 1986, 30% of inner-city residents were immigrants, compared with only 22% of people in outlying areas.

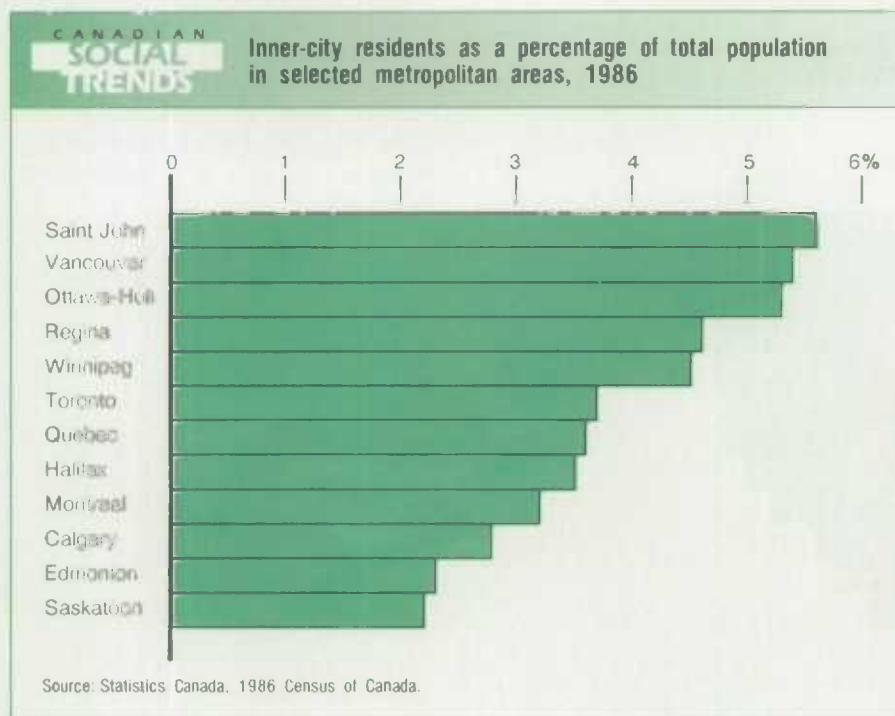
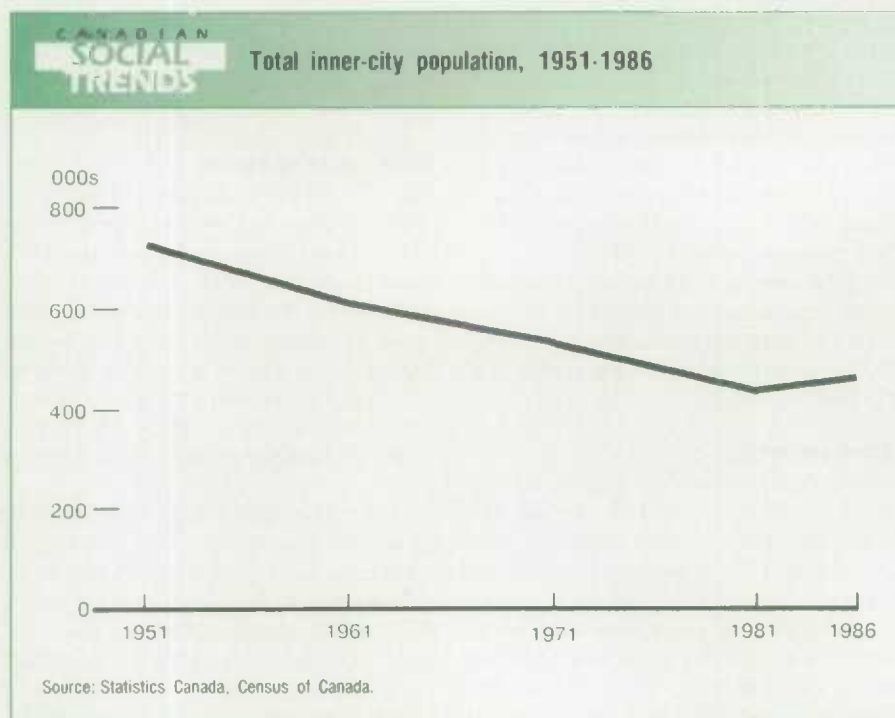
As well, concentrations of recent immigrants are higher in inner cities than in outlying regions. Immigrants who arrived in the country after 1978 accounted for almost 35% of the immigrant population in the inner cities, compared with just 20% of immigrants in the outlying regions.

Inner-city residents better educated

People living in inner cities are, on average, better educated than their counterparts in outlying areas. In 1986, 21% of inner-city residents, compared with only 12% of people in the remainder of the metropolitan areas, had a university degree. The percentage of inner-city residents (15%) with some university experience, but no degree, also exceeded that for the population in the outlying areas (11%).

At the same time, though, a slightly higher proportion of inner-city residents (16%) than suburban dwellers (14%) had less than Grade 9.

¹ Includes Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, Winnipeg, Quebec, Halifax, Saskatoon, Regina, and Saint John. The inner city, as defined for the purposes of this study, refers to the core of the metropolitan area; it encompasses the site of the earliest development of the city, the central business district, and the surrounding areas of mixed land uses, which may include high density residential developments.



Occupation

Inner cities also differ from outlying areas in the occupational distribution of their residents. In 1986, 37% of labour force participants residing in inner cities, compared with only 28% of those in outlying areas, had managerial or professional jobs. This pattern held for both men and women.

The inner cities also had a larger concentration of both men and women working in service occupations than did the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

Men living in the inner cities were more likely than suburban dwellers to be employed in clerical and related occupations. However, the proportion of the female labour force in clerical jobs was smaller than in the outlying areas (30% versus 37%).

Family income

Incomes of inner-city families are considerably lower than those in the outlying areas. The median income of inner-city families in 1985 was \$23,600, just 62% that of families in the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

Moreover, the disparity between incomes in the inner cities and the outlying areas widened during the last decade and a half. For example, in 1970, the median income of inner-city families was 70% that of families in the outlying areas. However, the widening gap is perhaps to be expected, given the increasing concentration of both young and lone-parent families in the inner cities.

As well, the proportion of inner-city families with 1985 incomes less than \$20,000 was about twice as high as in outlying areas: 39% versus 21%. However, the proportion of families with incomes of \$60,000 or more was almost the same in the inner cities (15%) as in the outlying areas (19%).

There was wide variation, though, in the median income of inner-city families in different urban areas. The median income of inner-city residents ranged from around \$30,000 in Ottawa-Hull (\$31,300), Toronto (\$30,600), and Saskatoon (\$29,500) to just \$18,200 in Saint John and \$16,000 in Winnipeg. In fact, more than half of all inner-city families in Saint John and Winnipeg had incomes under \$20,000. In contrast, just 28% of inner-city families in Ottawa-Hull, 32% of those in Edmonton, and 33% in Toronto had incomes below \$20,000.

At the same time, there were relatively large proportions of inner-city families with incomes over \$60,000 in Toronto (22%), Ottawa-Hull (19%), and Montreal (16%).

Home ownership

Few homes in the inner cities are owner-occupied. In 1986, just 14% of inner-city dwellings were owner-occupied, compared with 57% of those in the outlying areas.

Although inner cities generally contain much older housing stock than outlying areas, their share of newly constructed owner-occupied dwellings is the same as

that in the remaining metropolitan areas.

In 1986, well over half (57%) of all owner-occupied dwellings in the inner cities were constructed before 1946, compared with just 15% of those in the outlying areas. However, 13% of all owner-occupied dwellings in both inner cities and outlying areas were built since 1981.

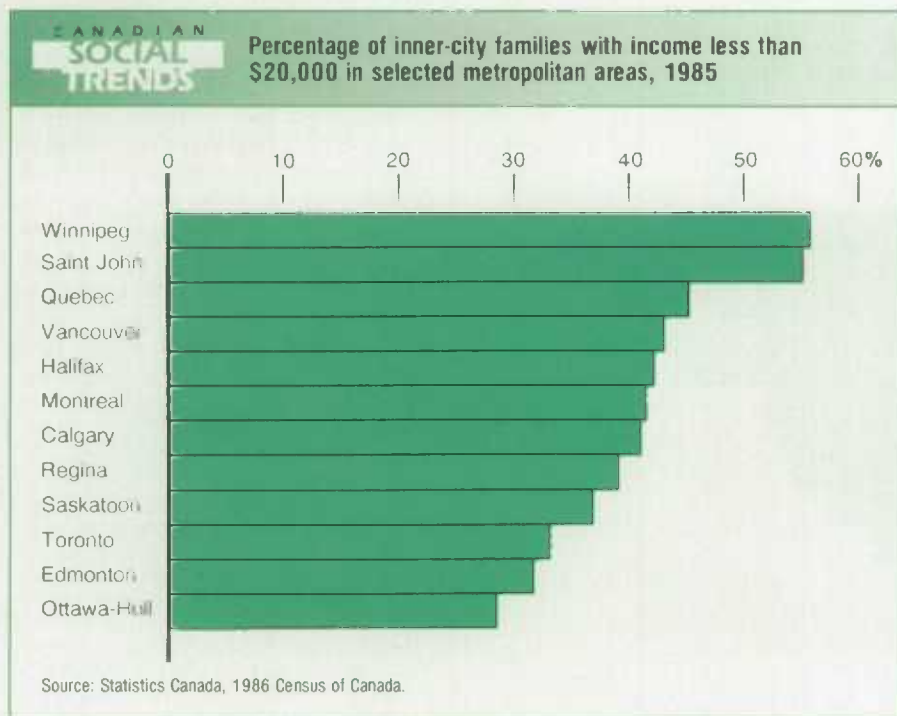
The share of newly constructed dwellings is even higher in some inner cities than in their respective outlying areas. For example, in Calgary, 42% of all owner-occupied dwellings in the inner city, but just 17% of those in the outlying areas, were built during the 1981-1986 period.

Home values and costs

The value of inner-city homes tends to be relatively high. In 1986, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings in the inner cities was \$140,300, compared with \$108,300 in the rest of the metropolitan areas. However, inner cities also have a higher proportion of low-value housing. In 1986, 14% of owner-occupied inner-city dwellings were below \$50,000 in value, compared with only 9% in outlying areas.

Older dwellings in inner cities tend to be worth more than similar dwellings in outlying areas. In 1986, 36% of inner-city dwellings built before 1946 were worth \$150,000 or more, compared with just 23% of those in outlying metropolitan areas.

Inner-city rents are lower, on average, than those in the rest of the metropolitan areas. In 1986, the average gross rent in inner cities was \$435 a month, compared with \$463 in outlying areas. As well, 52% of rented dwellings in the inner city, compared with 46% of those in outlying areas, had an average gross monthly rent of less than \$400.



1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

WINNIPEG



Situated at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, Winnipeg is the capital and the largest city in Manitoba. The city has traditionally functioned as a distributing and financial centre and as a grain market. A cosmopolitan city of many ethnic groups, Winnipeg dominates Manitoba's cultural life, notably as home to the Royal Winnipeg Ballet.

Although many of the characteristics of Winnipeg residents closely resemble those of Canadians overall, others set Winnipeg

apart. Among them are the ethnic mix of Winnipeg's population and the high incidence of low-income in the city. And as is true of other Prairie cities, Winnipeg has a relatively large Aboriginal population.

Moderate growth

With 625,300 residents in 1986, Winnipeg is Canada's seventh largest Census Metropolitan Area (CMA) and accounts for 58% of Manitoba's inhabitants. No other

CMA contains so large a share of a provincial population. The only other CMA that comes close to this extent of concentration is Vancouver, where 48% of British Columbia residents live.

Between 1981 and 1986, Winnipeg's population rose 5.6%. This growth rate was somewhat slower than the average rate for all CMAs (5.9%) and for other Prairie cities: Saskatoon (14.6%), Regina (7.7%), Calgary (7.2%), and Edmonton (6.0%). Nonetheless, Winnipeg's growth

during the 1981-1986 period marked a change from the previous five years when the population had remained almost stable, rising only 1.1%.

An older population

Winnipeg's population tends to be slightly older than that of Canada as a whole. In 1986, 12% of Winnipeg residents were aged 65 or over, compared with 11% of all Canadians. At the other end of the scale, children under age 15 accounted for 20% of Winnipeg residents, but 21% of the total population of Canada.

Living arrangements

The fastest growing types of living arrangements for Winnipeg residents in recent years were lone-parent families and one-person households. This mirrored patterns in Canada overall.

Between 1981 and 1986, the number of lone-parent families in Winnipeg increased 18%. As a result, in 1986, 23,000 families in the city, 14% of the total, were headed by a lone parent. This compared with 13% of all Canadian families.

During the same period, the number of husband-wife families in Winnipeg increased only 7%. Nonetheless, they continued to constitute the vast majority of Winnipeg families, totalling 141,900 in 1986.

As well, the number of Winnipeg residents living alone grew rapidly. One-person households rose 9% from 56,000 in 1981 to 61,100 in 1986. People living alone accounted for 12% of all Winnipeg's population aged 15 and over in 1986; the corresponding figure for Canada was 10%. Also by 1986, more than a third (38%) of Winnipeg residents living alone were aged 65 or over.

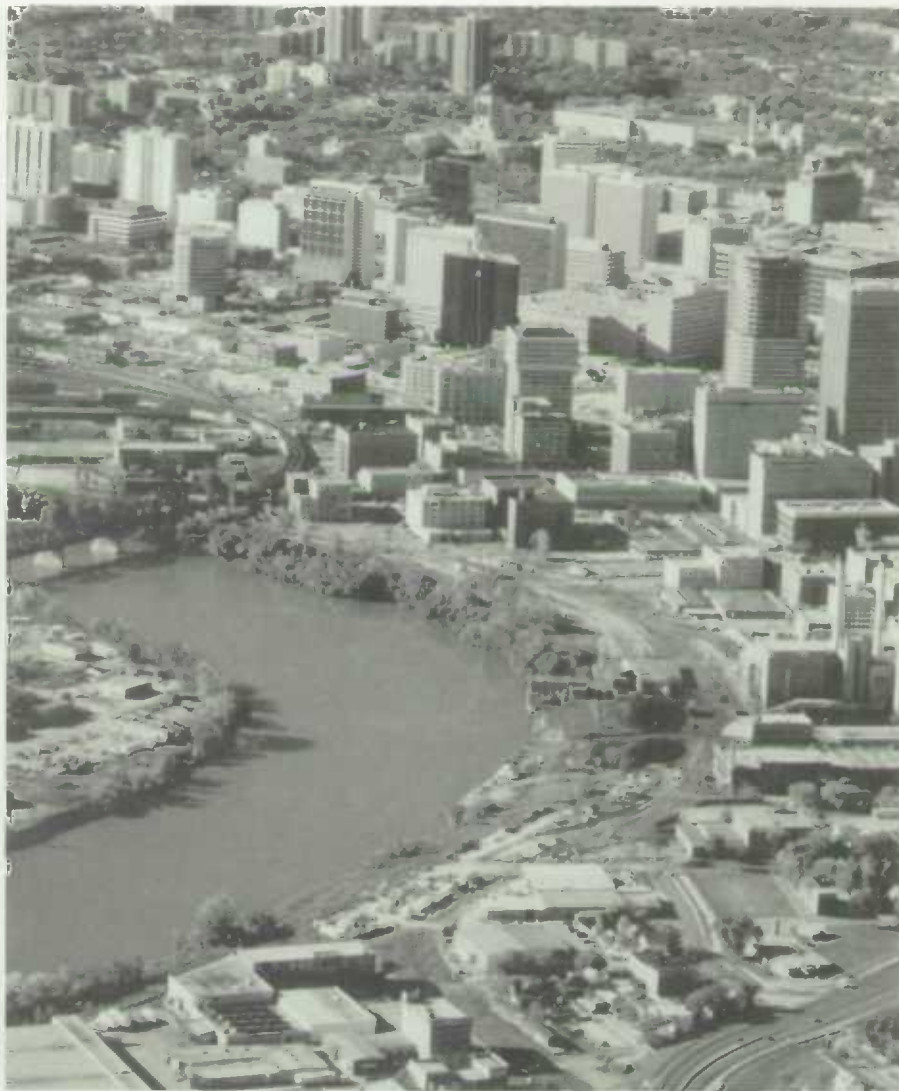
Immigrants

The immigrant component of Winnipeg's population is larger than that of Canada overall. In 1986, 18% of Winnipeg's inhabitants were immigrants, compared with 16% of the total population.

The proportion of Winnipeg residents who were immigrants was about double the figures in Saskatoon and Regina (both 9%). Winnipeg's immigrant community matched proportions in Edmonton (18%) and Calgary (21%), but was much lower than in Toronto (36%) and Vancouver (28%).

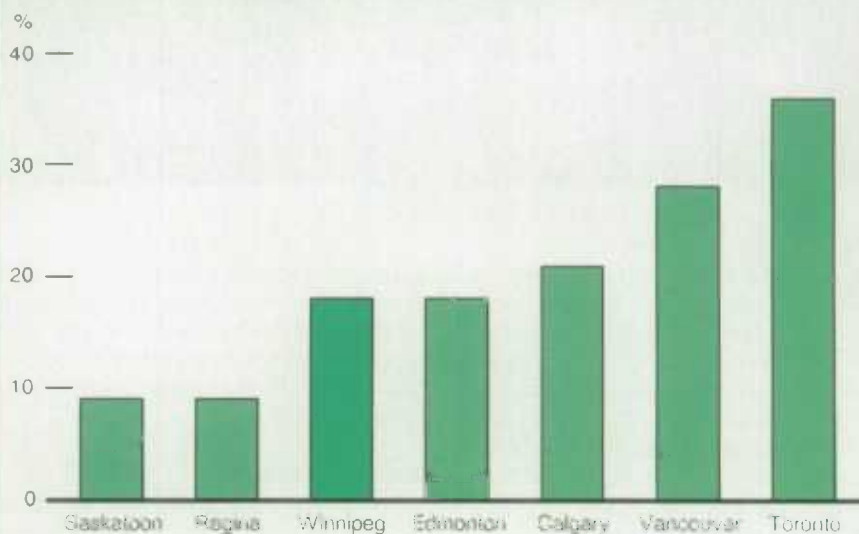
Ethnic mosaic

The number of immigrants in Winnipeg is reflected in a diverse ethnic make-up. Of Winnipeg residents claiming a single



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigrants as a percentage of population in Winnipeg and selected metropolitan areas, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

ethnic origin, 68% reported non-British roots. This was well above the 50% of all Canadians outside Quebec whose origins were non-British.

People of Ukrainian and German origins were the largest non-British ethnic groups, each accounting for 12% of the city's population. Another 9% of residents were of French origin, the same proportion as in all of Canada outside Quebec. Another 4% of Winnipeg inhabitants claimed Polish ancestry, and 4% reported Filipino roots.

Aboriginal groups, that is, people of North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit origin, made up 4.8% of Winnipeg's population in 1986. These groups constituted just 2.8% of all Canadians. The Aboriginal component of Winnipeg's population was higher than in Calgary (2.4%) and Edmonton (3.7%), the same level as in Regina (4.8%), but lower than in Saskatoon (5.3%).

Labour force participation rate

Labour force participation rates in Winnipeg are slightly above the national level. In 1986, 78.5% of Winnipeg men were in the labour force, compared with 77.5% of all Canadian men.

A somewhat larger difference existed between the labour force participation rates of women in Winnipeg and in Canada overall. While 59.3% of Winnipeg

women were in the labour force in 1986, the comparable figure for all women was 55.9%. As well, among married women, the labour force participation rate in Winnipeg was 60.4%, compared with 57.2% for all Canada.

Income

Average incomes in Winnipeg are slightly lower than the national level. In 1985, average household income in Winnipeg was \$33,477, compared with \$34,261 for all Canadian households. Since 1980, however, the average household income in Winnipeg increased, whereas that in Canada overall declined. After adjusting for inflation, the Winnipeg figure was up 1%, in contrast to a 2% drop for Canada.

The incidence of low income is considerably higher in Winnipeg than in the rest of the country. While 14.8% of Winnipeg families were below the low-income cut-offs in 1985, the national proportion was 11.8%. Similarly, 41.7% of unattached individuals in Winnipeg were in the low-income category, compared with 34.6% of all unattached individuals.

Housing

Single detached homes are the most common type of residential dwelling in Winnipeg, as they are in Canada overall.

In 1986, this type of dwelling accounted for 60% of the city's households, compared with 58% in Canada.

Living in highrise apartments is more common in Winnipeg than in Canada as a whole. Apartment buildings of five storeys or more accounted for 13% of Winnipeg's households in 1986, a proportion substantially above the national level (9%). The percentage of elderly household maintainers living in apartments was particularly high (27%) in Winnipeg, compared with all Canada (15%).

On the other hand, people in Winnipeg are less likely than Canadians overall to live in other types of multiple-unit housing or mobile homes. While such dwellings accounted for 27% of Winnipeg households, the comparable national figure was 34%.

Winnipeg's housing stock is comparatively old. Fully 65% of Winnipeg homes were built before 1971; for all Canada, the equivalent proportion is 59%. By contrast, just 8% of the residential dwellings in the city were constructed between 1981 and 1986, while another 27% had been built in the 1971-1980 period. The corresponding figures for all Canada are 11% and 30%.



A book about seniors and the ties that bind

Companionship and mutual assistance - these are the ties that bind seniors to family and friends. It's their "informal social support network" and you can read more about it in a ground-breaking study, *Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors: An Introductory Report of Findings from the General Social Survey*.

Find out...

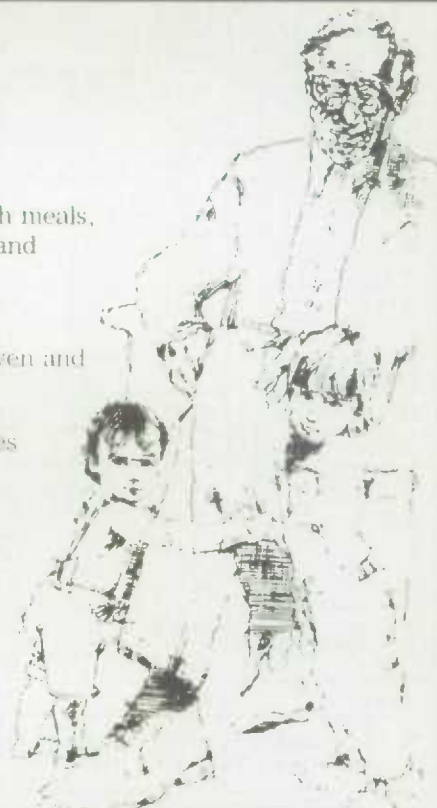
☐ how seniors give help through volunteer work, donations, baby-sitting, housework;

☐ how seniors receive help with meals, shopping, money management and personal care;

☐ how age, sex and education influence the amount of help given and received; and

☐ how family and friendship ties affect seniors' health and happiness.

Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors, Catalogue No. 89-508 is available for \$15 per copy (in Canada), \$16 per copy (other countries) and can be ordered by writing or mailing the enclosed order form to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call 1-800-267-6677. All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada Publications. For more information about other Statistics Canada publications, contact a Regional Office near you.



ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1989

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participa- tion rate (%)	Unem- ployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966 ¹	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6
1989	20,141	13,503	12,486	1,018	67.0	7.5	62.0

¹ Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

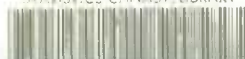
SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,911.8	26,218.5 ^P
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2 ^P
Immigration ¹	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898	159,919 ^P
Emigration ¹	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003	40,967 ^P
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486
- goods sector (000s)	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740
- services sector (000s)	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745
Total unemployment (000s)	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018
Unemployment rate (%)	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5
Part-time employment (%)	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,110	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	*
% of families with low income	12.6	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.0	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,973.9	5,025.5 ^P	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education (1988 \$000,000)	30,152.8	30,693.4	30,214.1	32,488.7	32,234.3	32,284.9	32,748.8	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	*	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	*	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	*	*
Government expenditures on health (1988 \$000,000)	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,771.1	33,397.2	33,906.9	35,378.4	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	*
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1988 \$000,000)	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	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.8	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.9	28.1	27.1	26.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 \$) - annual % change	-3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0
Urban housing starts	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	*

- Not available * Not yet available ^P Preliminary estimates ^m Figures as of March.

¹ For year ending May 31st.

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



1010267970

For enquiries and information call the
Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland -
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

**Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and
Prince Edward Island**
Halifax, Nova Scotia - 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec - 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario - 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba - 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan - 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta - 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. - Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia -
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia -
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move...



...make sure we know where to
find you by filling out the inserted
reply card in the centre of the publi-
cation. If the reply card is no longer
attached, please forward the neces-
sary information (subscriber's name,
old address, new address, telephone
number and client reference number)
to:

**PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6**

We require six weeks advance notice to
ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please
keep us informed when you're on the
move!



SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price (\$ Can.)	
		In Canada	Else- where
75-001	Perspectives on Labour and Income	\$12.50	\$15.00
93-104	Dwellings and Households: Part 1, 1986 Census of Canada	\$33.00	\$34.50
93-105	Dwellings and Households: Part 2, 1986 Census of Canada	\$45.00	\$55.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Canadian Society

Cat.No. 13-208 — Family Incomes: Census
Families (\$18/\$22)

Cat.No. 89-510 — Immigrants in Canada:
Selected Highlights (\$38/\$46)

Cat.No. 91-522 — Household and Family
Projections: Canada, Provinces and
Territories, 1986-2001 (\$26/\$31)

Business and Finance

Cat.No. 13-549 — National Income and
Expenditure Accounts and Methods
(\$74/\$89)

Cat.No. 15-001 — System of National
Accounts: Gross Domestic Product by
Industry (\$121/\$145)

Cat.No. 57-003 — Quarterly Report on
Energy Supply-Demand in Canada
(\$121/\$145)

Cat.No. 63-005 — Retail Trade
(\$168/\$202)

Cat.No. 74-001 — Quarterly Estimates
of Trusteed Pension Funds
(\$42/\$50)

Government

Cat.No. 72-007 — Provincial and
Territorial Government (\$69/\$83)

Cat.No. 88-204 — Federal Scientific
Activities (\$42/\$50)

How do we spend over \$7 billion a year to administer our Justice System?

How many Canadians are charged with impaired driving every year? What is the per capita cost of legal aid? How many police officers protect 26 million Canadians? These are the types of questions answered by **Juristat**.

Each issue gives you an analysis and detailed statistics on a different aspect of the justice system. **Juristat** provides you with data on law enforcement, legal aid, corrections, and adult and juvenile courts on national, provincial and territorial levels, as well as for selected major cities.



Thousands of individual justice-related agencies and departments provide the information.

A year's subscription gives you twelve issues of comprehensive, current and extensive justice-related information. Published by Statistics Canada, **Juristat** is a unique periodical, of great interest to anyone looking for information on Canada's justice system.

Get the facts.

A subscription to **Juristat** (Catalogue No. 85-002) is \$37 in Canada, and \$44 outside Canada.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

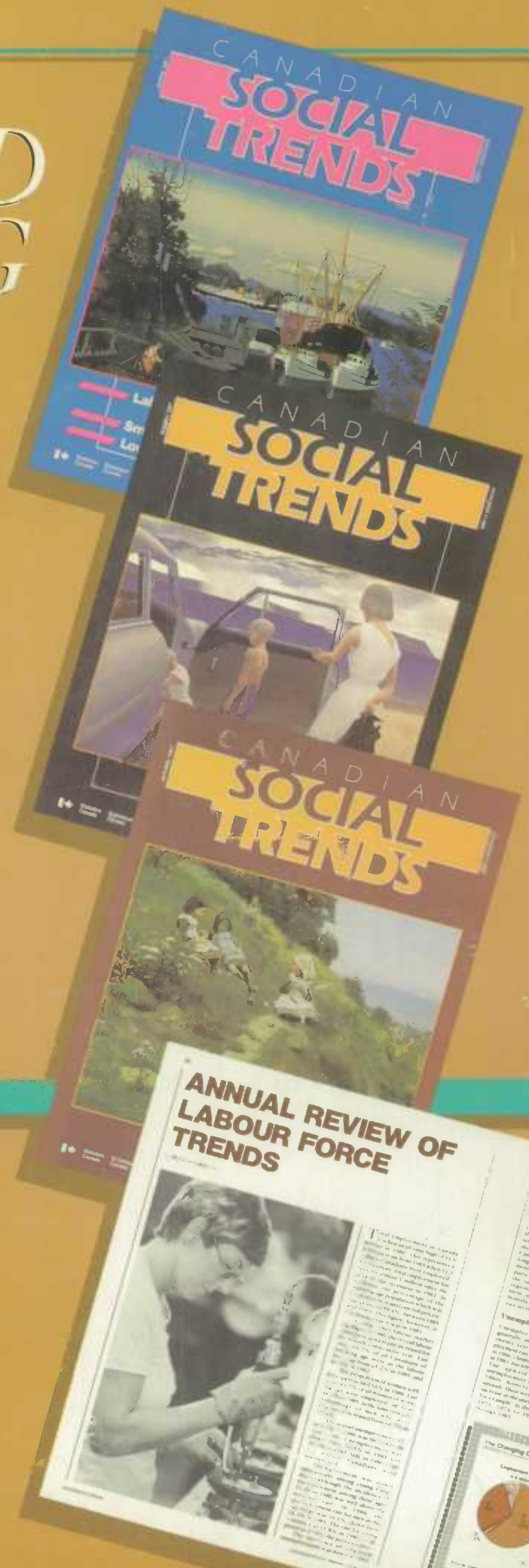
INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?

Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Catalogue No. 11-008E is available for \$8.00 per copy/\$32.00 annually (in Canada); \$9.00 per copy/\$36.00 annually (elsewhere); students 30% discount from:

Publication Sales,
Statistics Canada,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T6
Telephone: 1-800-267-6877

Prices include postage and handling costs. Payment should be made in Canadian dollars or equivalent funds. (\$7 U.S. per issue/\$28 U.S. annually).

