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# SOCIAL TRENDS

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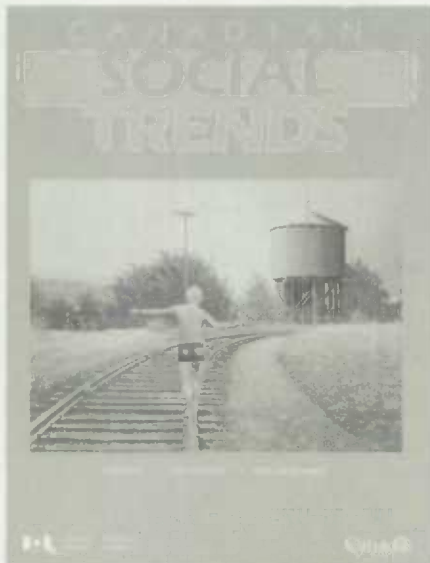
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**Cover: *Trackwalker*** painted by Horst Guilhauman, 1984, oil on canvas. © Horst Guilhauman.

### About the artist:

Born in West Germany (1936), **Horst Guilhauman** received his initial education in graphic arts in Germany. Mr. Guilhauman immigrated to Canada in 1967 and has established himself as a leading exponent of realistic painting in Canada. His work is story-telling at its best, as he captures his subjects in their own intimate environment. He currently resides in Eganville, Ontario.

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No. 17 - SUMMER 1990

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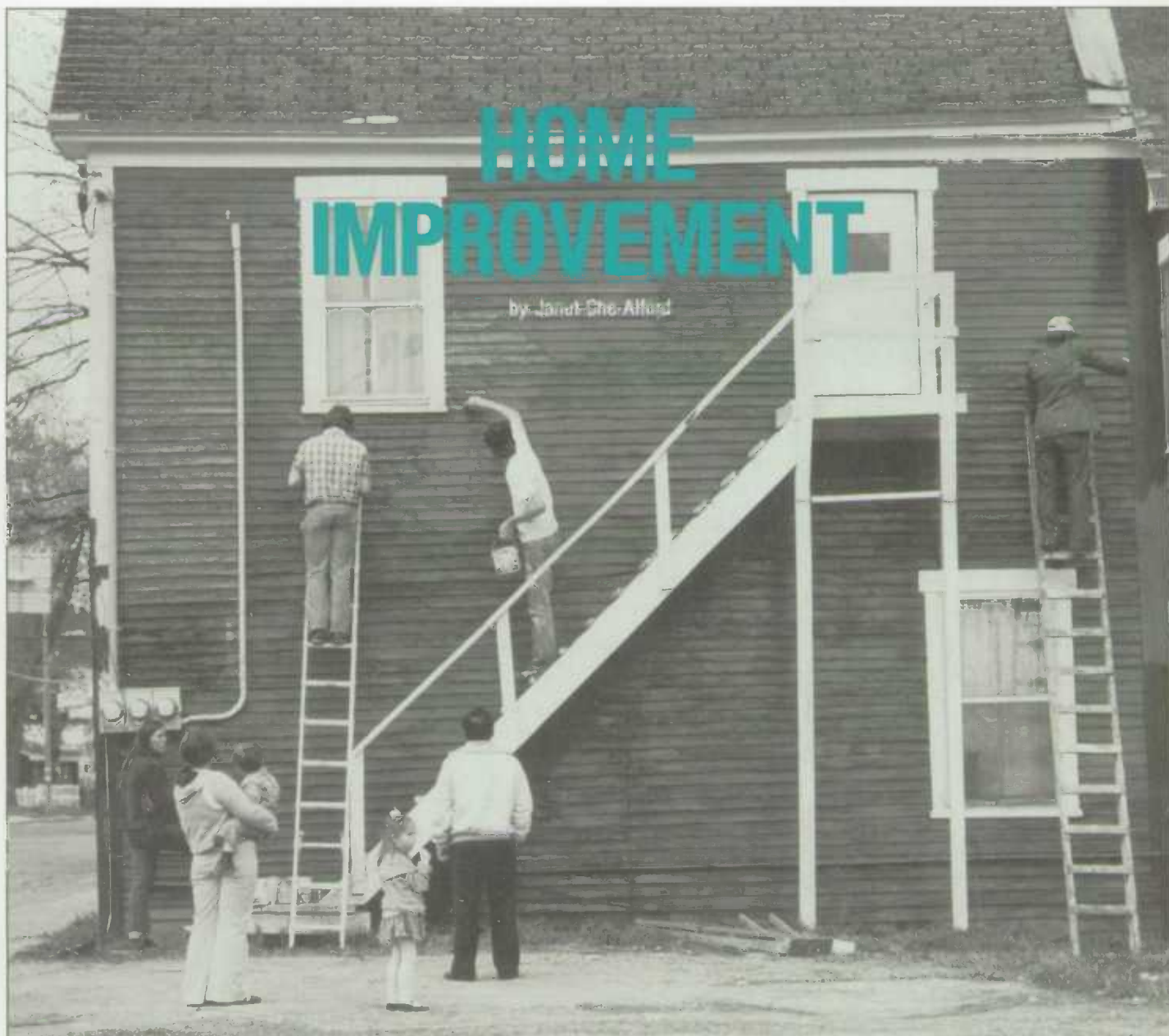
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**R**epairs and renovations are realities of homeownership. In fact, to some degree, most Canadian homeowners are involved in these activities, either to maintain or upgrade their housing investment.

Almost three-quarters (71%) of homeowners reported making expenditures on repairs and renovations in 1988. These outlays amounted to a total of \$11.1 billion. Moreover, this did not include the value of the labour involved in work homeowners did themselves.

The repairs and renovations undertaken in 1988 were diverse, ranging from small wallpapering jobs to installation of in-ground swimming pools. As well, costs varied widely from less than \$100 for caulking and weatherstripping to many thousands of dollars for major structural alterations.

In general, projects can be classified in five major categories: repairs and maintenance; replacement of built-in equipment and fixtures; additions; renovations and alterations; and new installations of built-in equipment and fixtures.

#### **Repairs and maintenance most common**

Homeowners' most common expenditure was for repairs to or maintenance of their property. In 1988, 57% of homeowners spent money to maintain an existing structure or piece of equipment in good condition.

The repair/maintenance task undertaken most often was interior or exterior painting, with 41% of homeowners reporting such expenditures. Wallpapering was also relatively frequent (16%).

#### **Worn out?**

Replacing equipment was the second most common expenditure, reported by 22% of homeowners in 1988. This involved replacing existing installations or converting one type of equipment to another, for example, replacing an electric hot water heater with a gas-fuelled unit.

The equipment most often replaced was plumbing fixtures, reported by 10% of homeowners. As well, 6% replaced carpets, and 5% replaced electrical equipment and fixtures. Just 2% of homeowners replaced built-in appliances.

#### **A new look**

Renovations and alterations were undertaken by 21% of homeowners in 1988. These projects entailed work done to



upgrade the property, such as rearranging interior space, remodelling rooms, and modernizing existing facilities.

Renovations and alterations were more likely to be made on the interior than the exterior of the home. Close to 12% of homeowners reported expenditures for interior work only, compared with 7% for exterior work only. Jobs involving both were reported by 4% of homeowners.

### Additions

In 1988, 19% of homeowners reported making additions to their property. Additions consisted not only of structural extensions to the dwelling, but also garages and carports and features added to the grounds such as landscaping, fences, patios, driveways, and in-ground swimming pools.

Landscaping (8%) and fences, patios or driveways (7%) were the most common projects in this group. On the other hand, fewer than half of 1% of homeowners reported expenditures for in-ground swimming pools.

### Something new

New installations were the jobs homeowners were least likely to undertake, with just 14% reporting such expenditures in 1988. New installations are equipment that previously was not on the property, for example, heating or air-

conditioning units, built-in appliances, and carpeting.

Electrical fixtures and equipment, and heating/air-conditioning units ranked first among all types of new installations (4%).

### Spending varies

Homeowners making repair and renovation expenditures in 1988 spent, on average, \$2,600. Spending, however, varied substantially by the type of project.

Renovations and additions were the most costly undertakings, which, in part, explains the relatively small proportions of homeowners reporting these activities. In 1988, homeowners with expenditures on renovations spent, on average, \$3,140, while those reporting additions spent an average of \$2,380.

New installations were less expensive, averaging \$1,220, and the average cost of replacing equipment was \$960. Amounts spent on repair and maintenance tended to be the smallest, averaging just \$660.

### Do it yourself?

Homeowners were more likely to incur expenditures for materials than for contract work, which includes labour as well as materials. While 57% of owners reported spending on materials, the figure for contract work was 41%.

The cost of jobs varied according to how the work was done, with contract

work being more expensive. For those who spent money on repairs and renovations in 1988, the average outlay for contracts was \$2,860, compared with \$1,170 for materials alone.

### Specific jobs

Installation of an in-ground swimming pool was, by far, the most expensive home repair/renovation job. In 1988, the average expenditure for a swimming pool was \$12,670.

The cost of a garage or carport was also relatively high. Homeowners making such additions paid an average of \$4,390.

Average spending on other major jobs such as a structural extension, interior or exterior renovation, or a new roof was in the \$2,000-\$3,000 range.

Fences, patios, and driveways were much cheaper, requiring an average outlay of \$1,320. Landscaping expenditures were also relatively low, averaging \$730.

The average amount homeowners spent for painting in 1988 was \$250, and for wallpapering, \$180. The outlay for caulking and weatherstripping was \$70.

### An ounce of prevention

Home repairs and maintenance tended to be less expensive than replacements or new installations.

In 1988, 9% of homeowners paid an average of \$130 to repair or maintain their heating or air-conditioning equipment. By contrast, 4% of homeowners had new installations, at an average cost of \$1,840, and 3% replaced this type of equipment, for an average of \$1,330.

Similarly, for the 3% of homeowners who repaired their electrical fixtures or equipment, costs averaged \$190. On the other hand, 5% of homeowners paid an average of \$390 for replacements, and 4% paid \$330 for new installations.

The average cost of repairing or maintaining plumbing fixtures was \$210 for the 6% of homeowners who made these expenditures. Replacements were undertaken by 10% of homeowners and cost an average of \$440. Just 2% of homeowners installed new plumbing, at an average cost of \$920.

### It takes money<sup>1</sup>

High-income households were more likely than those at lower income levels to make repairs and renovations, and they tended to spend more.

<sup>1</sup> Data about the characteristics of homeowners and their dwellings refer only to owners who lived in that home for at least the entire reference year.

### Selected home improvements, 1988

	% of homeowners reporting expenditures	Average \$ (homeowners reporting expenditures)
Painting	40.7	254
Wallpapering	15.9	175
Interior renovation	11.9	2,521
Landscaping	8.4	725
Caulking/weatherstripping	8.3	71
Fence/patio/driveway	7.4	1,316
Exterior renovation	7.2	1,988
Structural extension	6.2	3,064
New heating/air conditioning	4.1	1,841
Complete re-roofing	3.3	2,305
New carpeting	2.6	996
New plumbing fixtures	2.3	923
Garage/carport	1.3	4,388
In-ground swimming pool	0.3	12,669

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-201.



In 1988, 76% of homeowners whose household income was \$70,000 or more made repairs and renovations and spent an average of \$3,750. By contrast, 58% of homeowners with household incomes less than \$15,000 undertook such projects, and they paid an average of about \$1,580.

### Improving upon perfection

The likelihood of making repairs and renovations was higher among owners of

more expensive homes. And as dwelling value increased, so did the average expenditure. This pattern, however, largely mirrored income.

In 1988, 70% of owners of dwellings worth \$200,000 or more undertook repairs and renovations, and their average expenditure amounted to almost \$3,570. On the other hand, 66% of those in homes worth less than \$50,000 made repairs and renovations, and their costs averaged about \$1,920.

### A baby boom phenomenon

Young homeowners were more likely than those in older age groups to make repairs and renovations. Almost 81% of household maintainers younger than 35 reported expenditures on these activities in 1988. Participation dropped steadily in successively older age groups to 61% among homeowners aged 65 and over.

Among household maintainers who made repair and renovation expenditures in 1988, spending was highest at ages 35-54: their average bill was around \$2,800. Those under age 35 spent the next highest average amount (\$2,740). For older age groups, expenditures were lower: \$2,140 for 55-64-year-olds and \$1,830 for household maintainers aged 65 and over.

As well, homeowners' focus of spending changed at different ages. In 1988, young owners spent 32% of their repair and renovation budget on additions, whereas such projects accounted for only 19% of the spending of homeowners aged 65 and over. Elderly homeowners, on the other hand, devoted 30% of their expenditures to repairs and maintenance, compared with just 18% for homeowners under age 35.

### Old home/new home

Contrary to common expectation, the likelihood of repairs and renovations did not vary substantially by the age of a dwelling. However, the amount spent differed sharply, depending on the period of construction, with average costs highest for the oldest homes.

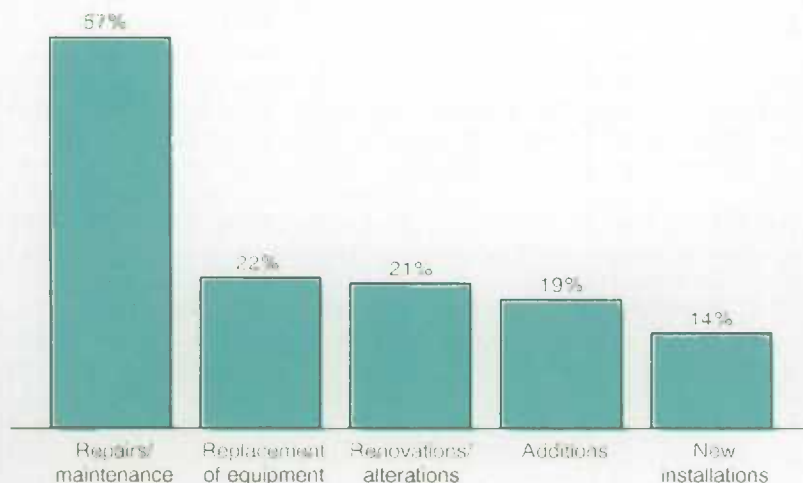
Expenditures were highest for homes built before 1941, averaging \$3,220. On the other hand, the lowest average expenditure – \$2,110 – was made by owners of homes built in the 1971-1980 period. At \$2,780, average spending on homes built after 1980 was relatively high. However, this included features that the owner rather than the builder adds to a new house such as fences, landscaping, and patios.

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



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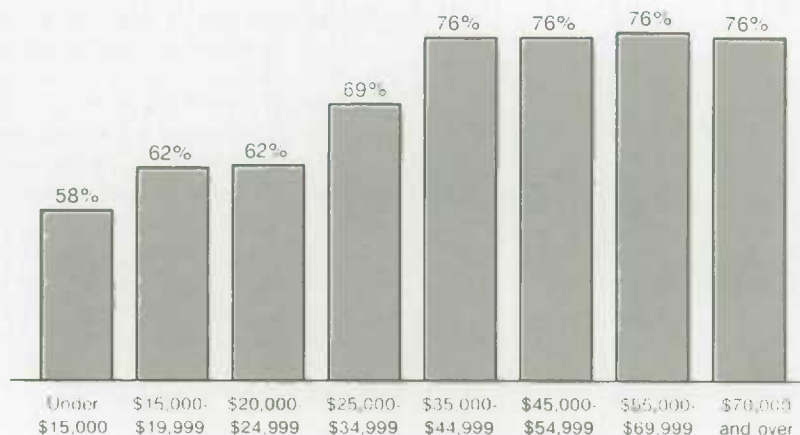
Homeowners making home improvement expenditures, by type of project, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-201.

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Homeowners making home improvement expenditures, by household income, 1988<sup>1</sup>

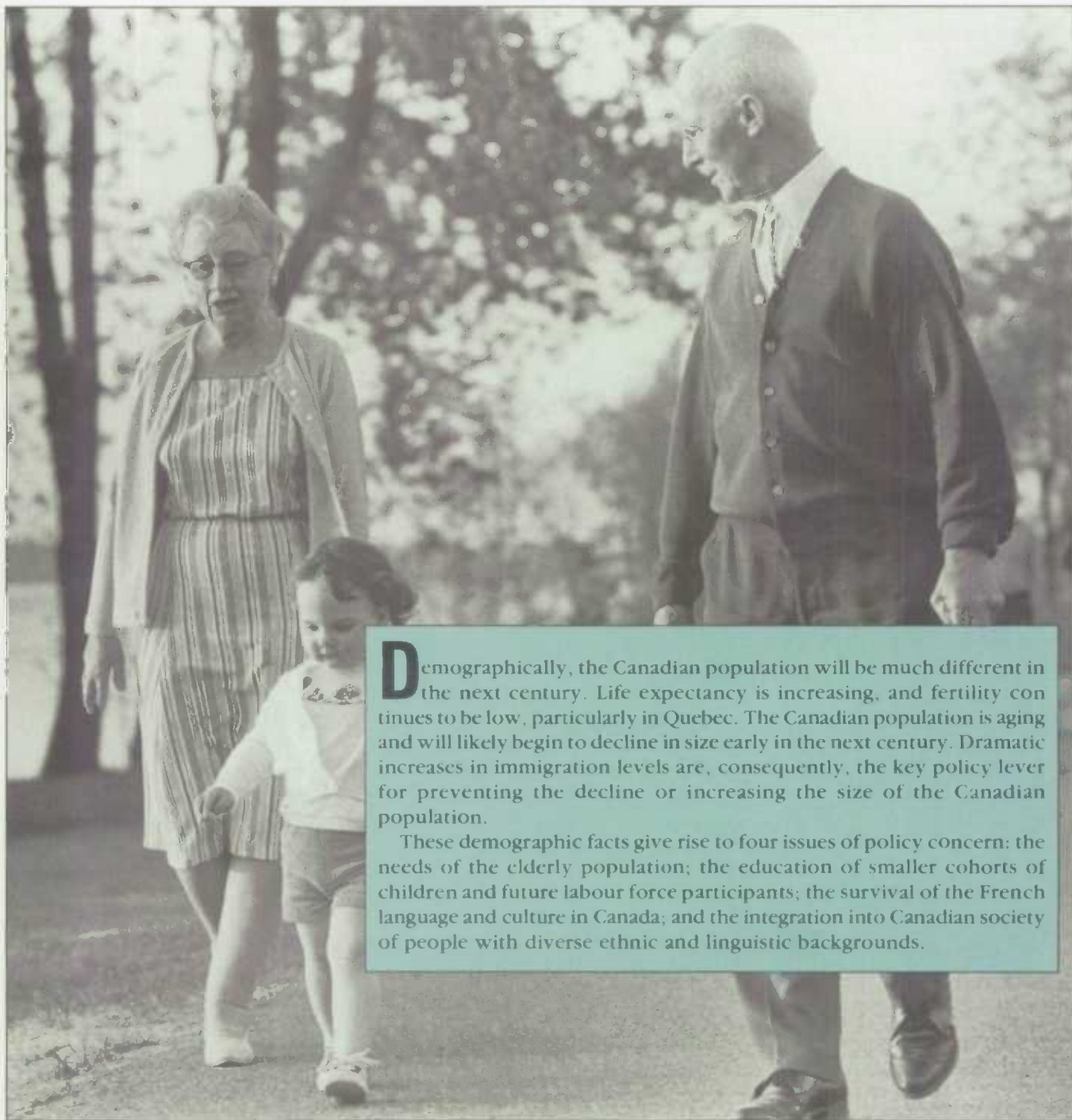


<sup>1</sup> Includes only those who resided in their dwelling for at least the entire year (1988).  
Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, special tabulations.



# THE DEMOGRAPHIC FUTURE

by Gordon Priest



**D**emographically, the Canadian population will be much different in the next century. Life expectancy is increasing, and fertility continues to be low, particularly in Quebec. The Canadian population is aging and will likely begin to decline in size early in the next century. Dramatic increases in immigration levels are, consequently, the key policy lever for preventing the decline or increasing the size of the Canadian population.

These demographic facts give rise to four issues of policy concern: the needs of the elderly population; the education of smaller cohorts of children and future labour force participants; the survival of the French language and culture in Canada; and the integration into Canadian society of people with diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.



## The elderly

A major implication of low fertility and increased life expectancy is the changing age structure of the Canadian population. Older people constitute a growing share of the total population, while the proportion of young people is declining. In 1971, people aged 65 and over comprised 8.2% of the population. By 1986, this figure had risen to 10.7%, and by the year 2001, is projected to be 14%. This dramatic growth in the proportion of older people

will be fuelled by the baby boom generation as it ages.

At successively older ages, women increasingly outnumber men, because of gender-based mortality differences. Due to differences in life expectancy, most men die while still married, whereas most women die as widows. Traditionally, daughters have cared for these aging parents, their mothers in particular. But with fewer young people, and women increasingly in the labour force, children

of older parents are less likely to be in a position to care for an aged parent.

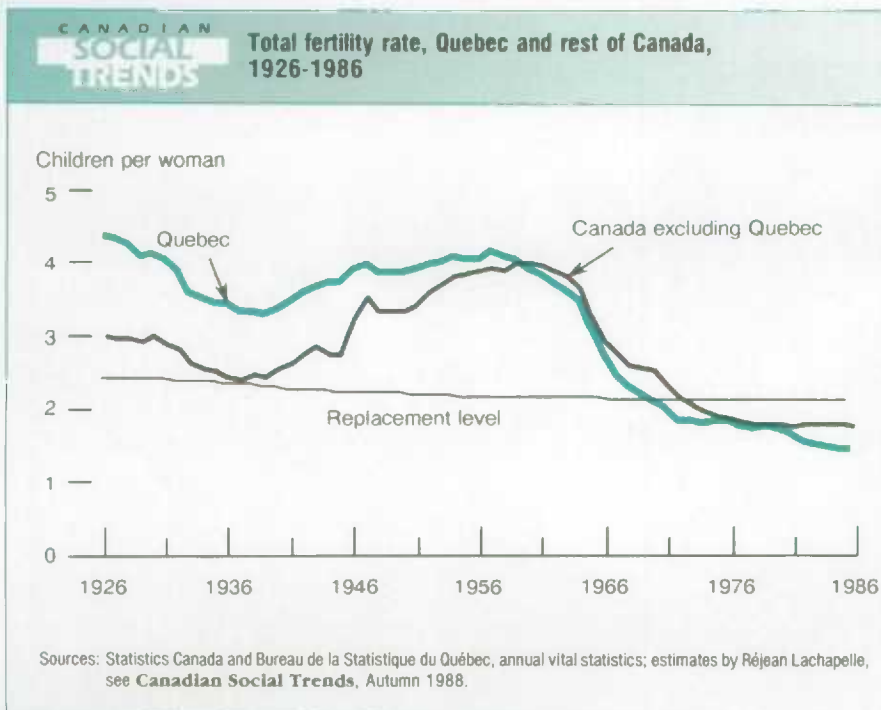
An increasing number of elderly people now live alone or in institutions. This trend is expected to continue into the next century.

From 1971 to 1986, the proportion of people aged 75 and over living alone increased from 26% to 38% for women, and from 13% to 17% for men. If these trends continue, by the year 2001, the number of men and women aged 75 and over living alone will have increased by a further 285,000 to close to 600,000 people.

The proportion of people aged 75 and over living in institutions increased over this same period from 14% to 20% for women, and from 9% to 12% for men. Continuation of this trend will result in an increase of the elderly population living in institutions from 143,000 to 318,000 by 2001.

These trends in the elderly population have implications for housing. For instance, this population may well require or desire special purpose or custom-built housing or perhaps continue to utilize large family homes. Finding accommodation for the increasing number of elderly people living in institutions amounts to the equivalent of, in the space of fifteen years, finding new and highly specialized accommodation for the present population of a city the size of Saint John, Sherbrooke, or Thunder Bay.

On the other hand, a growing number of couples are reaching old age together.





In the past, few couples ever entered the empty-nest stage. Because of the extended period of child-bearing and the resultant large family size, one or both parents often died before the last child left home. Today, despite the delayed age of women at first birth, and even despite a recent delay in the age when children leave home, fewer births mean that couples can anticipate perhaps some twenty years as empty-nesters.

Evidence points to a new affluence among the elderly, thanks to pension improvements, and the retirement of couples with not one, but two pensions. There may be a demand among this segment of the elderly population, particularly the "younger" elderly, for "lifestyle" housing with an emphasis on recreation, leisure, and travel.

Inevitably, this burgeoning of the older population will have implications for the provision of geriatric care, and especially health care, since the maladies of older people differ from those of young people. As well, the retail and food industries may face changing demands for consumer goods and for innovations in such things as food packaging; new opportunities for the service sector could also present themselves.

### Education of the young

Because of the smaller number of children being born, cohorts of labour force participants in the next century will likely decrease in size. Education of these young people may well be Canada's key to

remaining competitive in an increasingly technological world.

A large number of Canadian children, however, are economically disadvantaged. Many may lack the opportunities and financial ability to afford an education to prepare them for the highly skilled labour force of the future.

In 1988, more than 15% of all Canadian children under age 16 lived in families below the low-income cut-offs, down from 19% in 1985 but the same as in 1981. This meant that in 1988, 875,000 Canadian children were living in families with low incomes, compared with 1,047,000 in 1985, and 885,000 in 1981.

Children in lone-parent families are particularly likely to be in the low-income category. In 1988, 58% of children in lone-parent families were below the low-income cut-offs, down from 64% in 1985 and 57% in 1981. However, a growing number of Canadian children are growing up in lone-parent families. In 1988, 628,000 children under age 16 were in lone-parent families, compared with 571,000 in 1985 and 500,000 in 1981.

Nonetheless, most children in low-income families are in two-parent families. In 1988, 55% of all low-income children were in two-parent families, down from 62% in 1985 and 64% in 1981.

Access to Canadian postsecondary educational institutions may be problematic for an increasing number of Canadian youths. If present trends continue, the 1990s will see proportionately

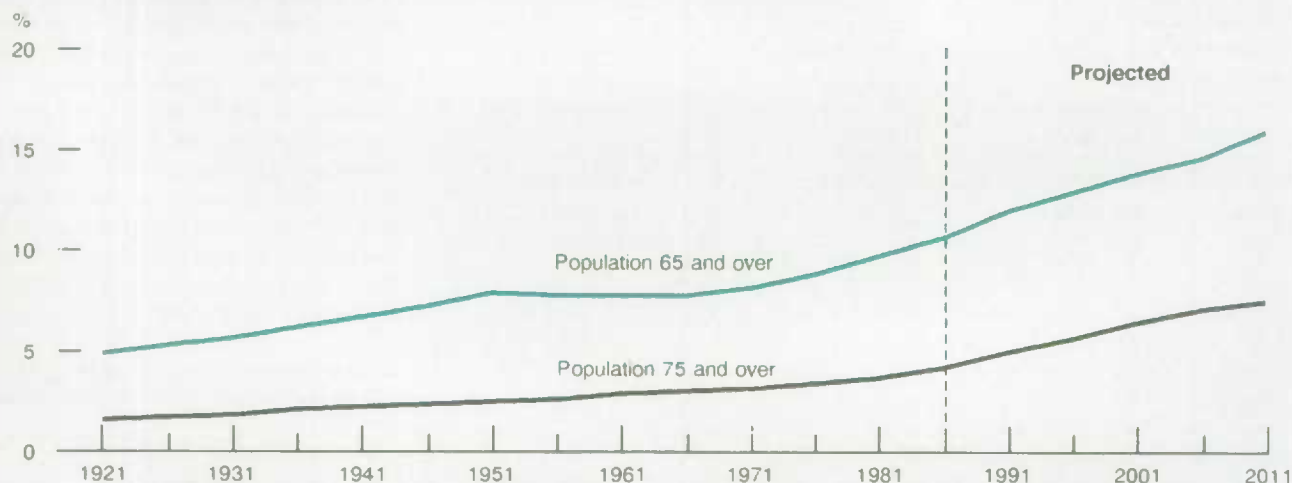
fewer children than in recent decades, with relatively more living in economically disadvantaged families. Given these trends, provision of universal access to higher education, regardless of ability to pay, may be one way to meet the demand for an increasingly skilled and educated labour force. This solution, however, will not be easy in a deficit-conscious society already aware of the monetary and fiscal implications of providing for the special needs of a growing number of elderly people.

### Survival of the French language and culture

Perhaps nowhere else in Canada is there greater concern about declining population than in Quebec, where fertility has fallen below the national level. The total fertility rate (the average number of births a woman can be expected to have over her lifetime) for Quebec stood at 1.4 in 1989, compared with 1.7 for Canada as a whole. Moreover, between 1981 and 1986, Francophone fertility fell below Anglophone fertility in Quebec and in the rest of Canada. Lower fertility will considerably alter the number and proportion of Francophones in Canada and North America. The relatively rapid decline in Francophone fertility will likely lead to a much earlier onset of absolute population decline among Francophones, and in Quebec. Immigration of large numbers of Francophones to Canada may help stem this projected decline, but the gravitational mass of English-speaking North

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Actual and projected<sup>1</sup> elderly population as a proportion of total Canadian population, 1921-2011



<sup>1</sup> Assumes total fertility rate = 1.7, net migration = 64,000, constant mortality.  
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished data.



America is great, and its power to assimilate new immigrants is considerable. Many Francophone immigrants might be assimilated into the larger English-speaking community, or alternatively, change or displace the unique North American French culture.

### Integrating new Canadians

Since World War II, people born outside Canada have comprised 16% of the population. In the past decade, net migration has accounted for an average of 22% of Canadian population growth. Future migration will play an even more important role in population change if current mortality and fertility patterns continue.

While the origins of immigrants to Canada have varied considerably over the years, until the 1970s the majority of immigrants came from Europe. Since then, most immigrants have been Middle Eastern, Asian, Caribbean, Indo-Pakistani, and South American.

Characteristics of the Canadian population of the future will reflect those of

today's immigrants. Recent changes in the ethnic and religious composition of Canada reflect the changing patterns in origins of immigrants over the past few decades.

If policymakers turn to immigration to offset low fertility, it is unlikely that migration from Western Europe will be increased. Low birth rates have existed there for some time, and many of these countries already have experienced absolute population declines and shortages of workers. Political changes in Eastern Europe could lead to an upturn in European migration to Canada. However, for the foreseeable future, it seems likely that the majority of immigrants will continue to come from the Middle East, Asia, and South America.

### Into the future

Demographically, Canada has changed significantly in the past twenty years. The baby boom generation is aging, and fertility has fallen dramatically. The prospect of a population decline exists. The needs



A number of articles in previous issues of CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS have dealt with demographic topics. These include:

<i>Canada in the 21st Century</i>	Summer 1986
<i>Children in Low-Income Families</i>	Winter 1986
<i>Low Income in Canada</i>	Spring 1987
<i>Increased Life Expectancy, 1921-1981</i>	Summer 1987
<i>1986 Census Highlights: Aging of the Canadian Population</i>	Winter 1987
<i>Changes in Fertility Among Canada's Ethnic Groups</i>	Autumn 1988
<i>Income of Canada's Seniors</i>	Autumn 1988
<i>Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly"</i>	
<i>Population</i>	Autumn 1988
<i>1986 Census Highlights: Changes in Living Arrangements</i>	Spring 1989
<i>Ethnic Origins of the Canadian Population</i>	Summer 1989
<i>Canada's Immigrant Population</i>	Autumn 1989
<i>South Asians in Canada</i>	Autumn 1989
<i>Help Around the Home: Support for Older Canadians</i>	Autumn 1989
<i>Residential Care</i>	Autumn 1989
<i>Hospital Care in the 21st Century</i>	Winter 1989

The following Statistics Canada publications also offer more detail on demographic trends in Canada:

	Catalogue No.
<i>Women in Canada: A Statistical Report</i>	89-503E
<i>Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors</i>	89-508
<i>The Seniors Boom: Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Prospects for Better Health</i>	89-515E
<i>Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada 1986</i>	91-209E
<i>Fertility in Canada from Baby-boom to Baby-bust</i>	91-524E
<i>Canada's Population from Ocean to Ocean</i>	98-120
<i>Canada's Seniors</i>	98-121
<i>Ethnic Diversity in Canada</i>	98-132

of the economy may well dictate an increase in levels of immigration, unless technology and automation change the rules. Europe is no longer the prime source of immigrants, and thus, new immigrants will come not only with diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, but with a wide range of religious and cultural beliefs, traditions, values, and customs. This will change the nature of needed services from various Canadian institutions. Technology may affect the need for job skills to the degree that education will become a lifelong pursuit, not just that of the young. Concerns about the survival of the French language and North American French culture will continue.

**Gordon Priest** is Director of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.





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# VIOLENT VICTIMIZATION

by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

**W**hen asked which crimes are of greatest concern, Canadians are most likely to say an attack or those involving the threat of violence. Four out of ten people cite violent assault as the crime they fear most. Overall, about one-quarter of Canadians feel unsafe walking alone at night in their own neighbourhoods.

For a substantial number of people, these fears were realized in 1987. According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS), an estimated 1.7 million incidents of assault, robbery, and sexual assault were committed that year. In the majority of these violent victimizations, offenders and victims were acquainted; about a fifth of incidents involved family members. Weapons were present or used in one in five incidents. Half of all assaults happened in a private residence, while robberies were more common in a public place.



### The General Social Survey

The third cycle of the General Social Survey (GSS), conducted early in 1988, asked Canadians about their experiences with certain crimes during 1987 and their perceptions of crime and the criminal justice system.

A representative sample of 10,000 adults was interviewed. From these interviews, estimates were made for the population aged 15 and over. By counting both incidents that were and were not reported to the police, the GSS provides information not available from police records.

### Assault most frequent

In 1987, incidents of assault, robbery, and sexual assault reported to the GSS worked out to a rate of 83 per 1,000 people aged 15 and over. There were 68 assaults per 1,000 adults, while the rate of robbery or attempted robbery was 13 per 1,000. The reported number of sexual assaults was too small to produce reliable estimates. The sensitive nature of this crime may have resulted in some underreporting, even in a confidential interview.

### Physical attacks

Violent victimization may be a threat of violence or an actual attack; the majority of victims, however, were directly attacked. In 1987, 65% of violent incidents (74% of robberies and 62% of assaults) involved a physical attack.

A weapon (including a gun, knife, or something functioning as a weapon such as a rock or bottle) was present or used in 20% of violent incidents. Weapons were more commonly used in robberies (28%) than assaults (19%).

Of those incidents in which a physical attack occurred, a majority of victims (67%) reported being hit, kicked, slapped, or knocked down. In a somewhat smaller proportion (42%) of incidents, victims reported being grabbed, held, tripped, or pushed.<sup>1</sup>

Victims received medical attention in 15% of incidents involving a physical attack. As well, 21% of attacks caused the victims to experience some difficulty conducting their normal activities. In half these incidents, the impairment lasted one day; in one-quarter, the difficulty persisted two or three days; and in another quarter, four or more days.

### Victimization highest in west

The risk of violent crime tended to be greater in the west than in the east. In 1987, British Columbia residents reported the highest rate of violent victimization with 157 incidents per 1,000 adults. The rate in the Prairies was also relatively high (111), while rates in Ontario (83) and the Atlantic Region (86) were close to the national level. By contrast, Quebec residents reported the lowest rate of violent victimization at 33 incidents per 1,000 adults.

Violent victimization rates were higher in urban than in rural areas. The rate

among urban dwellers in 1987 was 88 per 1,000 adults, while for rural residents, it was 68.

### Young men most at risk

Men experienced higher rates of violent victimization than did women. In 1987, the overall rate of violent victimization for men was 90 per 1,000, compared with 77 per 1,000 women.

This pattern held for both assault and robbery. The rates of assault and robbery among men were 74 and 17 per 1,000, respectively. The comparable rates among women were 63 assaults and 10 robberies.

Young people, and particularly young men, were at greatest risk of violent victimization. There were 214 incidents per 1,000 men aged 15-24, and for women in this age range, 161.

While men were generally more likely than women to be victims of violence, this was not the case at ages 25-44. The victimization rates were 97 incidents per 1,000 women in this age group and 88 per 1,000 men.

Canadians aged 45-64 reported a much lower rate of violent victimization: 23 per 1,000. The number of violent incidents among those aged 65 and over was too small to produce reliable estimates.

### High rate among separated/divorced

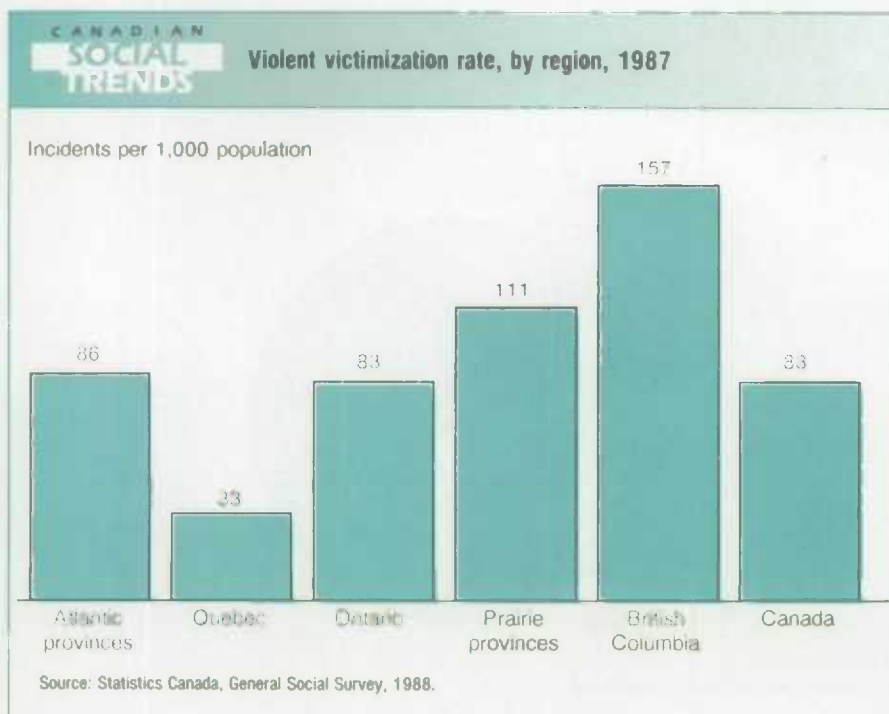
Victimization rates of men and women varied according to their marital status. Separated and divorced women reported higher rates of violent victimization than other women. Also, their rate was higher than that of men in any marital status category.

In 1987, the rate of violent victimization was 265 per 1,000 separated or divorced women.<sup>2</sup> By contrast, the level was 140 for single women and 45 for married women.

The rate of violence against men was highest for those who were single (190 per 1,000). The rate for married men was 45 per 1,000, while the number of separated or divorced male victims was too small to produce reliable estimates.

### Acquaintances and relatives

Most victims of violent crime that occurred in 1987 knew their assailants. In nearly two-thirds of the incidents, victims



<sup>1</sup> Each incident could involve more than one type of attack.

<sup>2</sup> See also Holly Johnson, "Wife Abuse," *Canadian Social Trends*, Spring 1988, pages 17-20, and Eugen Lupri, "Male Violence in the Home," *Canadian Social Trends*, Autumn 1989, pages 19-21.



reported some familiarity with the offenders: 41% of incidents involved an acquaintance, and a further 22%, a relative. Strangers were involved in 30% of incidents. In the remaining 7%, victims did not provide a description.

Victims of assaults were much more likely to know the offender than were victims of robbery. Assaultants were known in 65% of assaults, but just 52% of robberies.

### High risk at home

Violent incidents most often occurred in a private residence, usually the victim's home. Overall, about half of victimizations happened in a private residence: 40% in the victim's home and 8% in another dwelling. Public places accounted for 25% of incidents; restaurants and bars, 8%; and other commercial establishments, 18%.

Assaults were especially likely to take place in a private residence. In 1987, private homes were the location of 50% of all assaults. Robbery, on the other hand, was more frequent in public places (42%) than in private homes (36%).

### Night life

Lifestyle appears to expose certain groups to increased risk of victimization. People who engaged in many evening activities outside the home had particularly high rates of violent victimization.

In 1987, women involved in more than 30 evening activities a month were victimized more often than equally active men. There were 184 violent incidents per 1,000 women engaged in more than 30 evening activities a month, compared with 175 for men with this level of activity. Men and women who participated in fewer than 10 activities a month had much lower victimization rates at 35 and 26 per 1,000, respectively.

Young men and women involved in a large number of evening activities had exceptionally high rates of violent victimization. The rate was 281 violent incidents per 1,000 men aged 15-24 who participated in 30 or more night-time activities; among young active women the rate was 211.

### Alcohol consumption

Violent victimization was also associated with alcohol consumption. The victimization rate was 220 incidents per 1,000 people who consumed 14 or more drinks a week. On the other hand, the rate was 48 violent incidents per 1,000 non-drinkers.



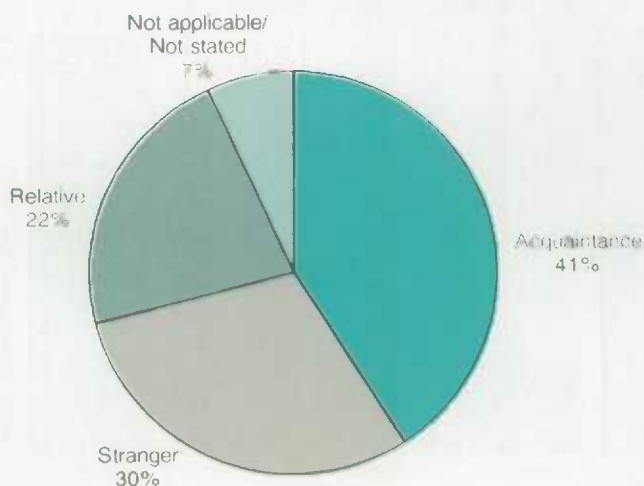
Risk was especially great among young adults who were heavy drinkers. The violent victimization rate was 532 incidents per 1,000 people aged 15-24 who consumed 14 or more drinks a week.

### A private matter

Most violent incidents that occurred in 1987 did not come to the attention of the police. The police found out about just 31% of those victimizations. The like-

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Relationship between assailants and victims of violent incidents, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.



likelihood that incidents would be reported was about equal for male and female victims.

Although young people have the highest rate of violent victimization, such incidents were least likely to be reported to the police. The police learned of just 20% of attacks against 15-24-year-olds, compared with 37% of those against people aged 25-44, and 60% against people aged 45-64.

Victims' major reasons for not reporting were that the incident was too minor

(cited by 65% of victims who did not report) and that it was a personal matter (63%). As well, more than half of victims said that they did not want to get involved with the police (57%) and that the police could not do anything about the incident (54%). About one in five (21%) was deterred from reporting by the fear of revenge by the offender.

When incidents were reported, it was usually the victim who did so. Two-thirds of the attacks that came to the attention of

the police were reported by the victim, while the remainder were reported by someone else or detected by the police themselves.

The main reasons given by victims for reporting a violent incident were to stop it or prevent a recurrence (87%), to catch and punish the offender (73%), and to receive protection (68%).

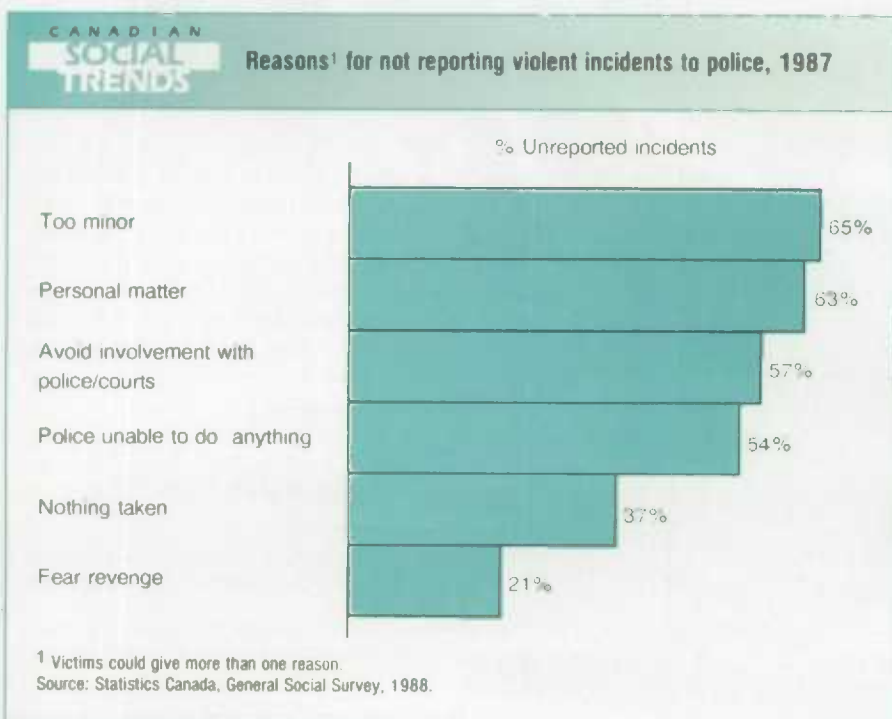
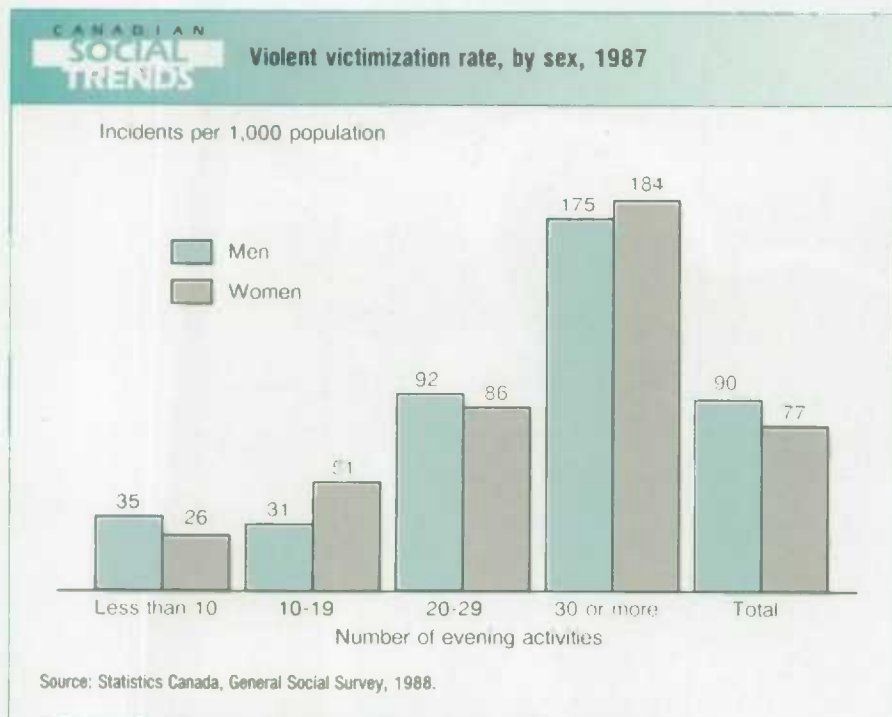
Women were more likely than men to seek police assistance to stop or prevent further violence (94% compared with 81%). As well, more women than men cited protection as a reason for reporting (82% versus 54%). By contrast, the desire to catch the offender more frequently motivated men than women (80% versus 65%).

Few victims contacted a support agency for advice or assistance. In fact, victims approached support agencies in just 10% of cases of victimization. However, in over half (56%) of incidents, victims did not know that such assistance was available. Of those incidents involving victims who were aware of the existence of support agencies, the victims' main reason for not seeking help was that they believed it was unnecessary (64%).

### Precautions

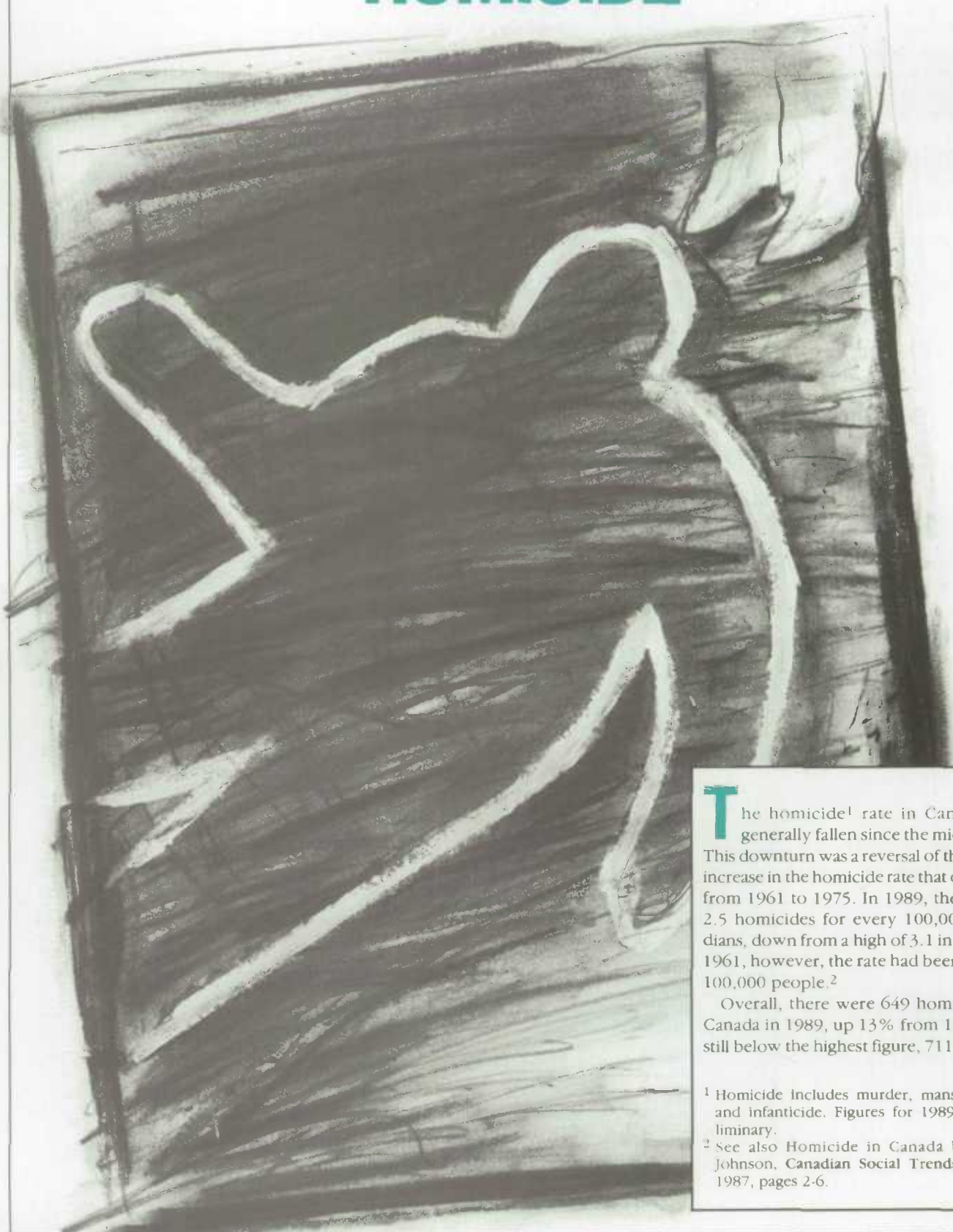
Relatively large proportions of Canadians who were victims of violent crime took safety precautions during 1987. Fully 43% of victims of violence changed their daily activities, compared with 21% of the population who had not been victimized during the survey year. One-third of people who had suffered violent victimization installed home security devices such as locks or alarm systems; the proportion was 20% among those who were not victimized. As well, 14% of victims of violence changed their telephone numbers, and 9% took self-defense courses; the corresponding figures for people not victimized were 4% and 2%, respectively.

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# HOMICIDE



**T**he homicide<sup>1</sup> rate in Canada has generally fallen since the mid-1970s. This downturn was a reversal of the steady increase in the homicide rate that occurred from 1961 to 1975. In 1989, there were 2.5 homicides for every 100,000 Canadians, down from a high of 3.1 in 1975. In 1961, however, the rate had been 1.3 per 100,000 people.<sup>2</sup>

Overall, there were 649 homicides in Canada in 1989, up 13% from 1988, but still below the highest figure, 711 in 1977.

<sup>1</sup> Homicide includes murder, manslaughter, and infanticide. Figures for 1989 are preliminary.

<sup>2</sup> See also Homicide in Canada by Holly Johnson, *Canadian Social Trends*, Winter 1987, pages 2-6.



### Homicide rates highest in west

As with other violent offenses, homicide rates in Canada are generally highest in the Western provinces. In 1989, Manitoba had the highest provincial rate, with 4.0 homicides for every 100,000 residents. Rates in British Columbia (2.9) and Alberta (2.7) were also relatively high, as was that in Quebec (3.2).

The same year, there were 2.5 homicides per 100,000 residents in New Brunswick, 2.2 in Saskatchewan, and 1.8 in Ontario. The rate in the other Atlantic provinces ranged from 1.7 per 100,000 people in Nova Scotia to 0.8 in Prince Edward Island and 0.7 in Newfoundland.

In 1989, the homicide rates in the Northwest and Yukon Territories, at 11.2 and 7.9 per 100,000 population, respectively, far exceeded the national level.

Homicide rates varied considerably in different Census Metropolitan Areas. Montreal and Edmonton had the highest homicide rates of any major urban areas. In 1989, there were 4.2 homicides for every 100,000 residents in Montreal and 3.9 in Edmonton. Winnipeg (3.2) and Vancouver (3.1) also had relatively high rates.

In contrast, rates were low in Sudbury (0.7), Thunder Bay (0.8), and Saskatoon (1.0), while there were no homicides in St. John's in 1989.

### Not strangers

Most homicides involve people who know each other. In 43% of homicides solved in 1988, the victims and suspects were acquainted, and in another 36%, the parties were in a domestic relationship. Only 21% of incidents involved people who did not know each other.

### Suspect/victim relationship

Female homicide victims are far more likely than men to have been killed by an immediate family member. In 1988, 57% of all female homicide victims were killed by a family member, whereas the figure for men was 24%.

As well, husbands were far more likely than wives to have murdered their spouse. In 1988, 70 women were killed by their husband, compared with 21 men who were killed by their wife. Still, the number of husbands who murdered their wives in 1988 was one of the lowest in the last ten years.

### Most suspects/victims men

Historically, the majority of homicide suspects have been men. In fact, in 1988, 89% of all homicide suspects were men.

People aged 18-29 make up the largest share of both men and women suspected of

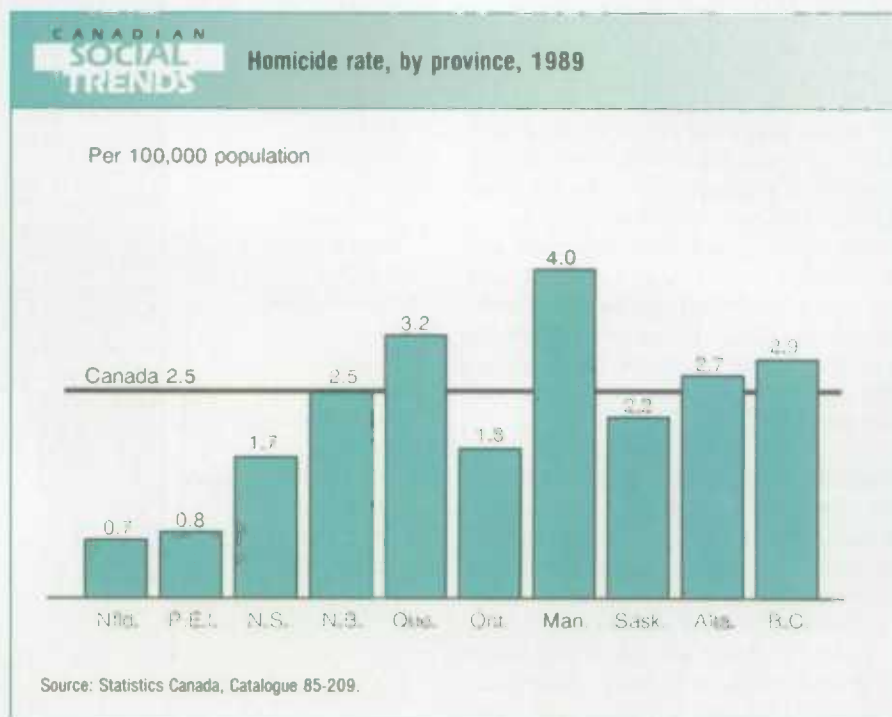
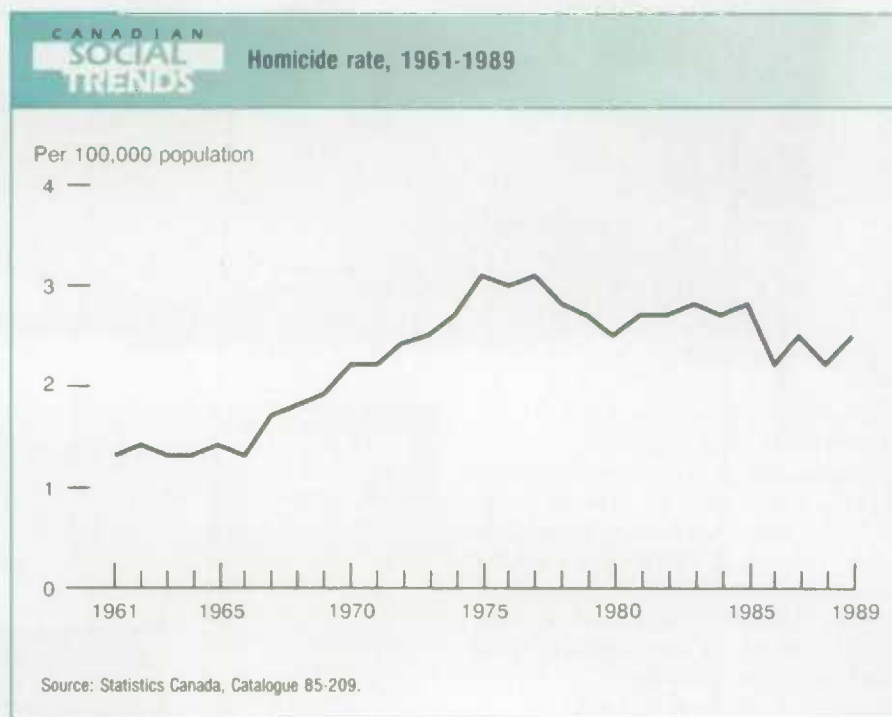
committing homicide. In 1988, 47% of male and 43% of female suspects were in this age range. Another 22% of male and 31% of female suspects were in their thirties.

Males also make up the majority of homicide victims. In 1988, they made up 65% of homicide victims, while females accounted for 35%. The proportion of female victims has remained stable at around 35% since the early 1970s. During the 1960s, however, they made up over 40% of homicide victims.

As well as accounting for the largest share of suspects, people aged 18-29 also made up the largest proportion of homicide victims. In 1988, 27% of male victims were in this age group, as were 33% of female victims.

### Home setting

Most homicides are committed in the victim's home. In 1988, 50% of all homicides took place in the victim's residence (which may also have been the







home of the suspect). Another 9% occurred in the suspect's residence.

Another 18% of homicides happened in a public place, and 12% at work or in a private setting other than the home of the victim or suspect. In addition, 1% of all homicides occurred in a correctional institution, while 3% happened in other places. The site of the remaining 8% of homicides was not known.

#### Homicide by guns down

The proportion of homicides involving firearms has fallen in recent years. In fact, since gun control legislation was enacted in 1978, the proportion of homicides involving firearms decreased from almost 40% to fewer than 30%. Overall, the number of shooting homicides fell from 250 in 1978 to 169 in 1988.

During the same period, the number of homicides resulting from stabbings increased. In 1988, there were 167 stabbing homicides, up from 146 in 1978. As a result, in 1988, stabbings accounted for the same proportion of homicides as did shootings (29%).

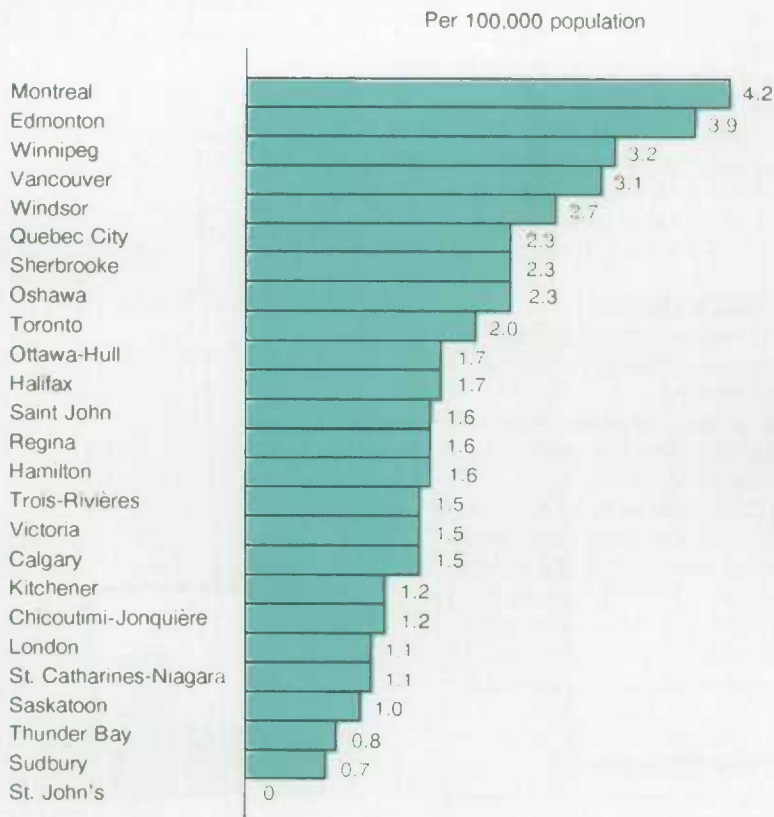
#### Homicides during another criminal act

In 1988, approximately 19% of all homicides occurred during commission of another crime. This was the highest proportion since 1982, when 20% of all homicides involved other crimes.

Robbery, theft, and break and enter accounted for the majority of criminal acts that resulted in a homicide. In 1988, 71%

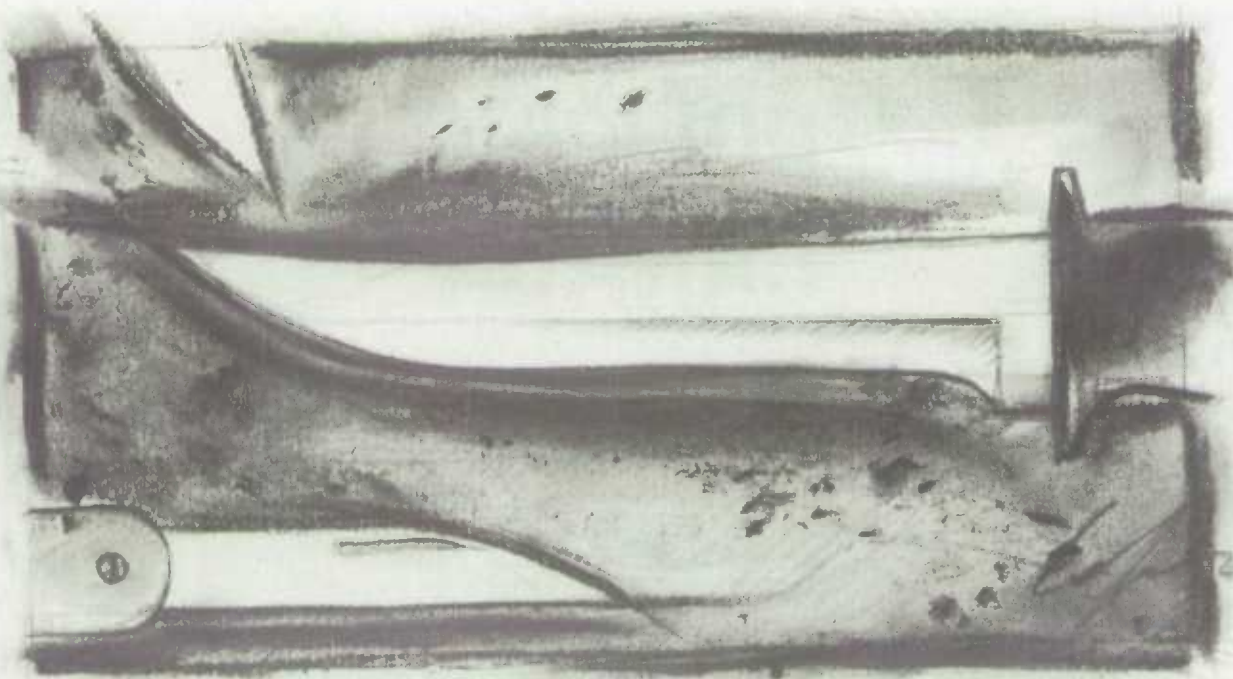
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#### Homicide rate, by Census Metropolitan Area, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.





### Homicide in Canada and the United States

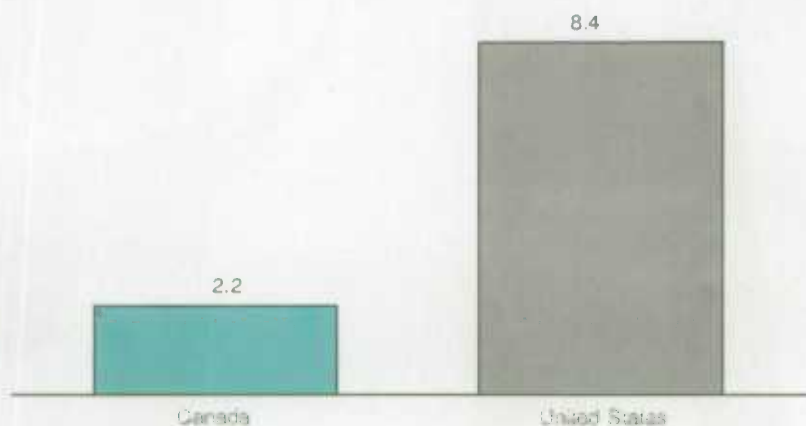
Historically, the American homicide rate has been several times greater than that in Canada. In 1988, the homicide rate in Canada was 2.2, compared with 8.4 in the United States.

However, recent trends in the two countries have differed. Whereas Canada's homicide rate has declined since the mid-1980s, it has risen in the United States.

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### Homicide rate, Canada and the United States, 1988

Per 100,000 population



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.

of all homicides that occurred during commission of another criminal act involved one of these offenses. Homicides committed during a sexual assault made up another 24%.

#### Murdered while on duty

Between 1961 and 1989, 98 police officers were murdered while on duty. These incidents accounted for 0.7% of all homicides during this period.

For the second consecutive year, no police officers were murdered while on duty in Canada in 1989. Since such statistics were collected (1961), this is the longest period of time in which no officers have been killed. The last on-duty police officer to be murdered was in March of 1987.

For the fourth consecutive year, no correctional staff were murdered while on duty in 1988. Since 1961, 17 on-duty staff members of correctional institutions have been murdered.

- The information in this article was supplied by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada. Additional information on homicide in Canada is available in Statistics Canada Catalogue 85-209. Further information may be obtained by calling (613) 951-0647.





# POLICING IN CANADA

by Johanna Ewins

**T**he number of police in Canada has risen substantially since the early 1960s. Most of this increase, though, occurred before 1975. Growth since then has been relatively slow.

The number of police officers per person is also higher now than during the 1960s. This ratio, however, varies considerably by province, with the Atlantic region having fewer police per person than the rest of Canada.

## Police increase slowing

The number of police officers<sup>1</sup> in Canada has climbed since the mid-1970s, but at a much slower pace than in previous years. In 1988, there were 53,300 police in Canada, up 12% from the 1975 count of 47,700. However, the 1975 total was an 83% increase over 1962 when there had been 26,100 police officers.

## Police officers per 100,000 population

The number of police per 100,000 population in 1988 (206) was almost one and a half times greater than in 1962, (141). The increase, however, did not occur uniformly throughout the two and a half decades.

The 1960s and early 1970s witnessed a sharp climb in the number of police per 100,000 population. This ratio peaked in 1975, when there were 210 police officers for every 100,000 population, up considerably from 141 in 1962.

By the mid-1980s, the ratio had slipped slightly to 200 officers per 100,000 population. However, by 1988, the figure had almost recovered, reaching 206.

<sup>1</sup> This figure excludes private security guards and investigators, military police, Ports Canada Police, Canadian National and Canadian Pacific Railway Police, and Special Constables.





### Provincial variation

The four Eastern provinces have fewer police per capita than the rest of Canada. Prince Edward Island had the lowest ratio with just 140 police officers per 100,000 residents. In contrast, there were 214 police officers per 100,000 population in Ontario and 207 in Quebec. Rates in the four Western provinces were also relatively high, at 175 in Alberta and about 190 in the three remaining provinces.

### Non-police personnel

Since the early 1960s, the number of civilians and other personnel involved in policing such as cadets and special constables has more than tripled. In 1988, these non-police personnel numbered 19,000 up from 5,700 in 1962. Most of this growth had occurred by 1982.

Civilians, who more and more have taken on duties once performed by police officers, and other non-police personnel now make up a much larger component of total personnel than in the 1960s. Since 1982, they have made up about 26% of total personnel, up from 18% in 1962, and 22% in 1975.

### Few women, visible minorities, and Aboriginal people

While women continue to account for a small percentage of all police officers, their representation is increasing. In 1988, 5% of all police were women, up from under 1% in the early 1970s. During the 1960s, the proportion of women remained fairly static at less than 1%.

According to the 1986 Census, few police officers are members of visible minority groups. In 1986, 1% of police were from these groups, whereas people with these origins made up 6% of all workers.

The representation of Aboriginal people on police forces, however, was the same as that among workers overall. In 1986, 2% of police had Aboriginal origins, the same proportion as among all workers.

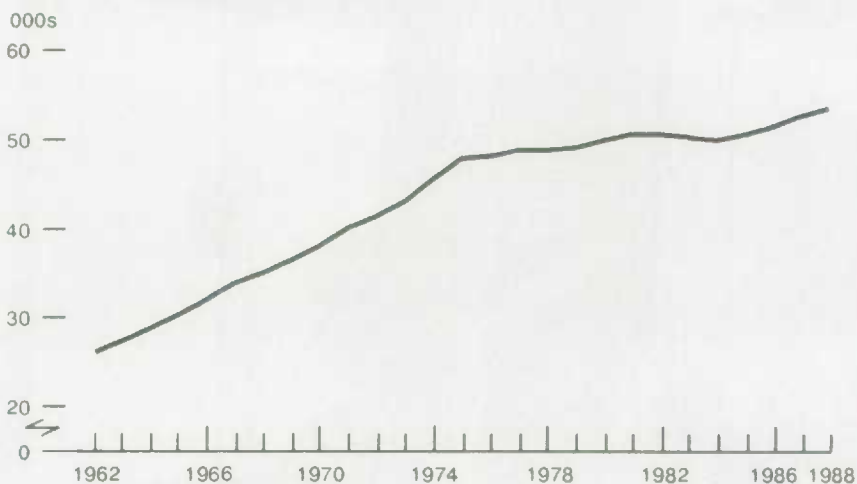
### Middle-aged men, younger women

According to the 1986 Census, the average age of police in Canada was 37.3 years. However, men tend to be older than women in this occupation. In 1986, the average age of policemen was 37.6 years, compared with just 31.6 years for women.

Male police officers are concentrated in a higher age bracket than other male workers. In 1986, 52% of policemen were aged 35-54, compared with 38% of all men in the labour force.

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Number of police officers, 1962-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

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Police officers, by province, 1988

Per 100,000 population



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002.

On the other hand, female police officers tend to be concentrated in a younger age range than working women overall. In 1986, 73% of women in the police force were aged 15-34, whereas this age group made up 53% of the total female labour force.

As is the case with the labour force overall, relatively few police were aged 55 and over in 1986. That year, just 6% of policemen and 4% of policewomen were in that age range.

### RCMP recruiting

The RCMP are currently attempting to recruit greater numbers of visible minorities and Aboriginal people, as well as women. Through its National Recruiting Team, the RCMP are working to increase the proportion of visible minorities to 6% and the proportion of Aboriginal people to 3% by the year 2003. Total representation of women is targeted for 20% by the year 2013.









### Education

Most police officers have attended post-secondary educational institutions. In 1986, 66% of police officers had at least some training beyond high school, compared with 48% of the labour force overall. However, whereas 6% of police were university graduates, the comparable figure for the labour force was 12%. On the other hand, while just 15% of police had not completed high school, the figure for the labour force was 35%.

### Income

According to the 1986 Census, the average employment income of police working full-time for the whole year was considerably higher than the average for all comparable workers. The average 1985 employment income of police working full-time all year was \$36,900, compared with \$26,800 for all workers.

Policemen earned more, on average, than did policewomen. This is likely due, in part, to women's relatively recent entry into the occupation and their more limited police experience. In 1985, policewomen's average earnings amounted to 79% that of policemen: \$29,400 compared with \$37,300. However, this ratio was much higher than for the labour force overall. The employment income of all women working full-time year-round was 65% that of comparable men: \$20,000 versus \$30,600.

### Expenditures on policing

Overall, expenditures on policing amounted to \$4.4 billion in 1988. That year, costs for policing worked out to an average of \$169 per person. Per capita costs varied considerably by province, from \$174 in Quebec to \$105 in Prince Edward Island.

Most police spending goes toward salaries. In 1988, salaries, wages, and benefits accounted for 82% of all costs. Operating expenditures accounted for the remainder.

Municipal policing (including RCMP and provincial police contracts) accounted for the largest portion of expenditures, at 53% in 1988. Provincial costs followed at 30%, with federal costs making up 9%. The remaining 8% was accounted for by other RCMP expenditures.

### Police system in Canada

Policing in Canada is the responsibility of the municipal, provincial, and federal governments. In 1988, municipal policing, including Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) and Ontario Provincial Police municipal contracts, accounted for 63% of all police officers in Canada. Provincial policing, including RCMP contracts, made up another 26%, while RCMP federal policing accounted for 6% of Canada's police. RCMP administrative and Canadian Police Services represented the remaining 5%.

Municipal police are responsible for enforcing the Criminal Code, Provincial Statutes, and Municipal By-Laws in their jurisdiction. In most provinces, legislation requires that municipalities over a certain size (1,500 to 5,000, depending on the province) maintain their own (either independent or contract) police force. For smaller jurisdictions, establishing a municipal force is optional, and policing tends to be performed as part of provincial (rural) policing. All provinces except Newfoundland, Quebec, and Ontario have some RCMP municipal contract policing.

Provincial police officers enforce the Criminal Code and Provincial Statutes in rural areas not under the authority of municipal police. Ontario and Quebec have their own provincial police forces. In the other eight provinces, the RCMP provide provincial contract policing. In Newfoundland, provincial policing is shared with the Royal Newfoundland Constabulary.

Federally, the RCMP, under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Solicitor General, are responsible for enforcing Federal Statutes and for providing protective services and airport and native policing. They are also solely responsible for policing in the Yukon and Northwest Territories.

*Johanna Ewins is a staff writer with Canadian Social Trends.*





# ACCIDENTS

by Wayne Millar and Owen Adams



**D**uring the course of a year, about one in five Canadians is involved in an accident.<sup>1</sup> Most commonly, these are traffic accidents, although substantial proportions are sports- or work-related.

While the majority of accidents result in injury, these injuries are usually not serious enough to require an overnight hospital stay. Nonetheless, accident victims account for a substantial number of disability days.

## Five million accidents

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, close to 3.8 million Canadians aged 15 and over were involved in 5.1 million accidents in 1987. Accident victims made up 19% of the adult population: 14% had one accident, and 5% had two or more.

At most ages, men were more likely than women to have an accident. Young men were especially accident-prone. In

1987, 41% of men aged 15-24 had an accident, while the proportion for women that age was 25%. The comparable figures were 24% and 15%, respectively, for 25-44-year-old men and women. The proportions for 45-64-year-old men and women were almost the same, at 11% and 10%.

<sup>1</sup> An accident that restricted normal activity for at least half a day or resulted in personal expenses of \$200 or more.



Contrary to the pattern for people between the ages of 15 and 64, elderly women were more likely than elderly men to have an accident. In 1987, 9% of women aged 65 and over were involved in an accident, compared with 5% of men. This difference is partly due to the older age distribution of elderly women compared to elderly men.

### Motor vehicle accidents most prevalent

Motor vehicle accidents were the most common type of mishap in 1987, accounting for 33% of the total. Another 23% were sports accidents, and 21% were work-related. Home accidents made up 13%, while there was not enough information to classify the remaining 10%.

### Regional variations

The age-standardized accident rate for Canada in 1987 was 254 accidents per 1,000 population. Accident rates, however, differed across the country, with levels generally higher in the west.

British Columbia had the highest rate, with 424 accidents per 1,000 population. Rates were also above the national level in the Prairie provinces (313). By contrast, accident rates were below the national average in Ontario (244), Quebec (171), and the Atlantic provinces (202).

Motor vehicle mishaps accounted for the largest proportion of accidents in most regions. This percentage ranged from 29% of accidents in British Columbia to 35% in Ontario and Quebec, and 36% in the Prairies. The exception was the Atlantic region where traffic accidents made up just 24% of the total, while sports accidents accounted for 30%.

### Accidents and alcohol

The risk of having an accident was higher among people who consume alcohol than among non-drinkers. Fully 42% of current drinkers (those who consume an alcoholic beverage at least once a month) reported that they were involved in at least one accident during the three years from January 1985 to January 1988. The corresponding figures were 34% for occasional drinkers (those who consume an alcoholic beverage less than once a month) and 27% for non-drinkers.

Moreover, the frequency of accidents was related to increased alcohol consumption. While 56% of drinkers who averaged 14 or more drinks in a typical week had an accident in the three-year period, the proportion was 51% among those who consumed 7-13 drinks, and 40% for those who had fewer than 7 drinks.

As well, heavy drinkers were more likely than others to have been involved in more than one accident. Between 1985 and 1988, 32% of those who averaged 14 drinks or more during the course of a week had more than one accident. In contrast, the proportion for non-drinkers was 10%.

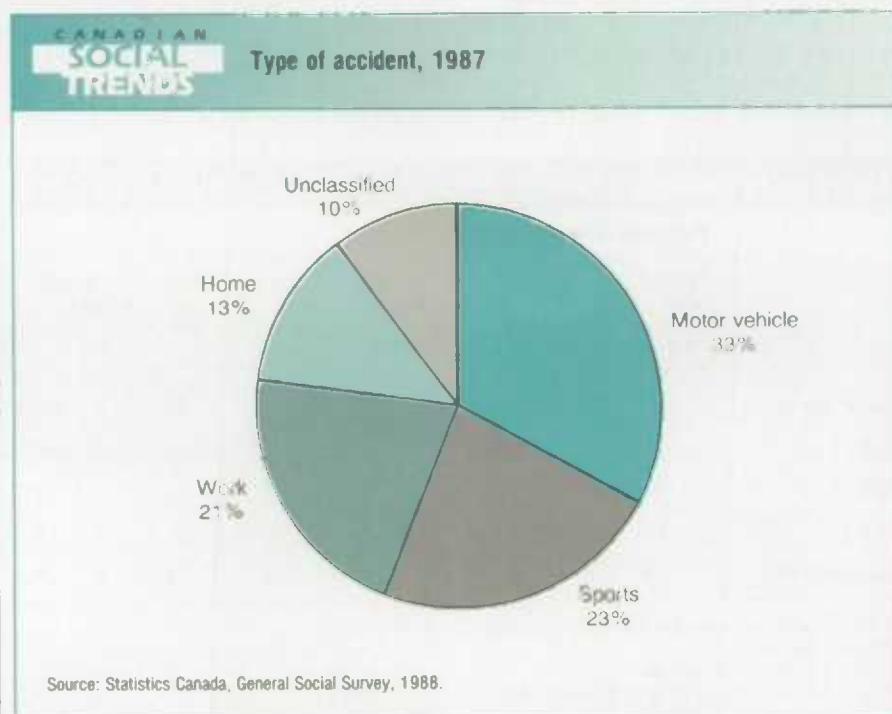
### Injuries and financial loss

In 1987, 79% of accidents resulted in injury. However, while virtually all work,

sports, and home accidents caused injury, this was the case for just 42% of motor vehicle accidents.

Work accidents tended to have the most serious health consequences. Almost two-thirds of people involved in work accidents were treated in a hospital: 9% as in-patients and 56% as out-patients. As well, 95% of work accidents caused some activity loss.

By contrast, about one-quarter of traffic accidents resulted in hospital treatment:





7% involved hospital admission, and 16%, out-patient care.

Traffic accidents, however, were most likely to entail financial loss. In 1987, 66% of motor vehicle accidents caused a financial loss, compared with 38% of work accidents, 23% of home accidents, and 19% of sports accidents.

### Bruised and battered

The most frequent injuries resulting from accidents were dislocations, sprains, and bruises, which occurred in 34% of all accidents in 1987. Another 14% involved cuts or scrapes. Broken bones were reported in 9% of accidents. Just 4% of accidents were poisonings, and 3%, burns or scalds.

As well, 8% of accidents caused more than one injury.

People aged 65 and over were more likely than younger people to be injured. In 1987, 86% of accidents involving the elderly resulted in injury. The proportions were lower for accidents among younger people, varying from 80% of those in which 15-24-year-olds were involved to 76% of those involving people aged 45-64.

Elderly accident victims were also admitted to hospital more frequently than younger people. In 1987, 14% of accident victims aged 65 and over received treatment as in-patients, compared with 7% of those younger than 65.

### Lost days

As a result of accidents, Canadians experienced more than 51 million days of restricted activity in 1987. Most of these "disability days" (82%) were days when temporary impairments hampered normal activities. The remainder were lost through confinement to bed (14%) or hospitalization (4%).

Overall, 34% of accident disability days were attributable to work mishaps. Motor vehicle accidents accounted for the second largest proportion (24%), followed by sports (17%) and home accidents (14%). The remaining 11% of disability days were caused by a variety of other mishaps.

### Most hazardous time

Accidents tended to be seasonal, with summer accounting for almost a third (31%) of all mishaps. Roughly equal proportions of accidents happened in fall and winter (23% and 22%), and 18% occurred in spring. Data were insufficient to determine when the remaining 6% took place.

Accidents were most likely to happen in the afternoon. In 1987, 45% of accidents occurred in the afternoon. But as might be expected, this is related to the time at which particular activities are undertaken. For instance, work accidents tended to be daytime events, with 41% happening in the afternoon and 36% in the morning. The prime times for sports accidents were afternoon (53%) and evening (32%). Home accidents were also most likely in the afternoon (39%), although substantial proportions happened in the evening (29%) and in the morning (24%). Nearly half (48%) of motor vehicle accidents took place in the afternoon, and 23%, in the evening. As well, 9% of motor vehicle mishaps occurred at night, a higher proportion than for any other type of accident.

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### Consequences of accidents, 1987

	Percentage of accidents resulting in:					
	Personal injury	Out-patient hospital treatment	In-patient hospital treatment	Days confined to bed	Activity loss	Financial loss
Motor vehicle	42	16 <sup>1</sup>	7 <sup>1</sup>	23 <sup>1</sup>	60	66
Work	98	56	9 <sup>1</sup>	40	95	38
Sports	99	45	--	41	86	19 <sup>1</sup>
Home	99	44 <sup>1</sup>	--	46 <sup>1</sup>	88	23 <sup>1</sup>
All accidents <sup>2</sup>	79	37	8	36	79	39

<sup>1</sup> Data are subject to considerable sampling error and should be used with caution.

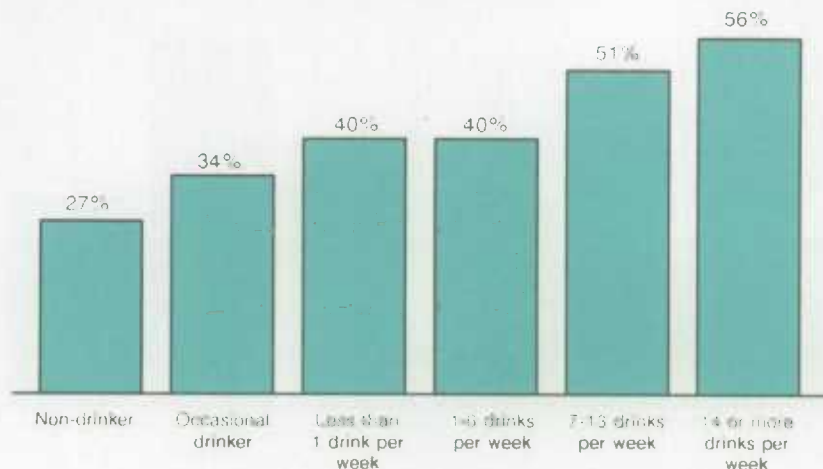
<sup>2</sup> Includes unclassified.

-- Amount too small to be expressed.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

CANADIAN  
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### Percentage of population in an accident, by alcohol consumption, 1985-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.



# SECRETARIES

by Carol Strike

**S**ecretarial jobs are the largest occupational category for women in Canada. Compared with other occupations, however, the number of secretaries grew at a slower pace in the early 1980s.

In recent years, secretarial work has changed. Traditionally, a secretary's job consisted of taking dictation, typing, making appointments, and answering telephone calls. These duties still constitute a large part of secretarial work, but today, office technology has made secretarial tasks increasingly specialized and complex. As well as typing, secretaries are now just as likely to be familiar with computer spreadsheets. Yet despite this growing technological complexity, secretaries' salaries are low relative to those of other workers.





### Almost half a million

In 1986, there were 465,250 secretaries in Canada, 459,725 of whom were women. The number of female secretaries had risen 77% since 1971. This rate of growth compared with an 86% rise in the rest of the female labour force. But despite the slower increase in numbers, secretaries remained the single most common female occupation, accounting for nearly 8% of all working women in 1986.

### Information industries

Secretaries are concentrated in industries with a high demand for correspondence and written material. Thus, in 1986, service industries such as business, education, health, government, and finance/insurance accounted for seven out of ten secretaries.

However, as a proportion of all the women working in a particular industrial sector, the representation of secretaries is much higher in some industries than in others.

For instance, 22% of women employed by construction industries in 1986 were secretaries, considerably above the proportion of secretaries in the female labour force overall (8%). As well, secretaries made up 13% of the women in government service industries and 12% of those in finance/insurance.

In transportation/communications and business, education, and health services, the percentages of women who were secretaries were almost the same as in the total female labour force.

On the other hand, relatively few women working in trade (4%), primary industries (5%), and manufacturing (6%) were secretaries.

### Working full-time, earning less

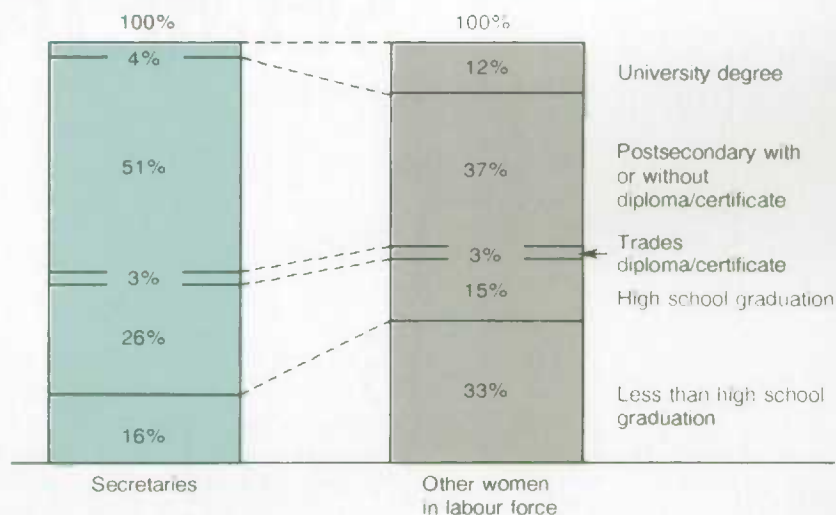
Secretaries are more likely than other women in the labour force to work full-time all year. In 1985, 54% of women who were secretaries had full-time year-round jobs, compared with 38% of other female workers.

As well, unemployment is less prevalent among secretaries than among other women. In June 1986, 6.7% of secretaries were unemployed, compared with 8.8% of the rest of the female workforce.

Secretaries' earnings, however, tend to be relatively low. In 1985, the average employment income of secretaries working full-time all year was \$18,400 versus \$20,000 for other women with full-time year-round jobs.

CANADIAN  
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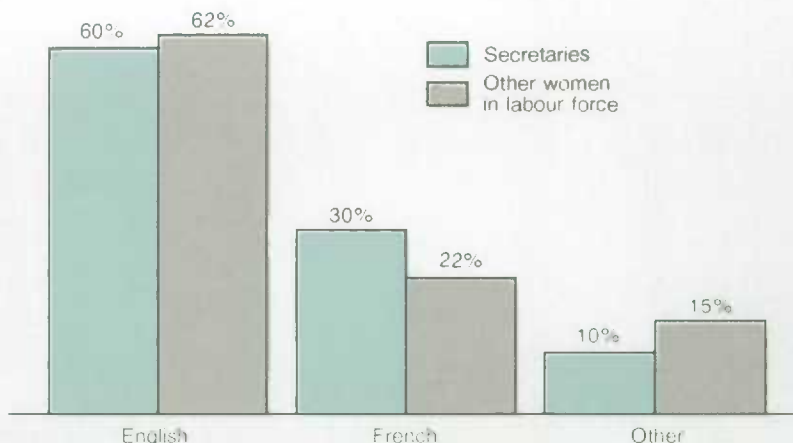
### Educational attainment of secretaries and other women in the labour force, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN  
SOCIAL  
TRENDS

### Secretaries and other women in the labour force, by mother tongue, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

### High school and beyond

Most secretaries have at least some formal education beyond high school. In 1986, 55% of secretaries had attended a post-secondary educational institution such as a university or community college. This compared with 49% of other women in the labour force.

The majority (69%) of secretaries with postsecondary qualifications (degrees, diplomas, or certificates) had studied secretarial science. Just under 8% had

studied commerce, management, or business administration; 5%, humanities; 5%, education, recreation, or counselling; and 4%, social sciences.

At the other end of the education scale, only 16% of secretaries had not graduated from high school, compared with (33%) of other working women.

### Mother tongue

The proportion of secretaries with French mother tongue is relatively high. In 1986,





### Male secretaries

Although secretarial work has traditionally been a field dominated by women, 5,500 men reported themselves as secretaries in 1986. They made up just over 1% of the entire occupational group.

In several ways, the characteristics of men in secretarial jobs differ from those of their female counterparts.

Male secretaries tend to be older than women with similar occupations. Whereas 20% of these men were aged 55 and over in 1986, the figure for women was 9%.

A relatively high proportion of male secretaries are unmarried. Fully a third (33%) of the men in this occupational group were single, compared with 22% of the women.

As well, the proportion of male secretaries who are university graduates is considerably above the figure for women. While 13% of these men were degree-holders, the percentage among women was just 4%.

The employment status of male secretaries vis-à-vis women in these jobs is counter to the general trend in the labour force. In 1985, there was almost no difference in the proportions of male and female secretaries working full-time all year: 52% and 54%, respectively. By contrast, in the rest of the labour force, 56% of male workers had full-time year-round jobs, compared with 38% of female workers.

Male secretaries who worked full-time all year have higher employment incomes than women in similar positions. The earnings gap between them, however, is not as wide as among other workers. Female secretaries working full-time full-year averaged \$18,400 in 1985, which was 72% of the \$25,500 that their male counterparts received. By contrast, the average income of other women who worked full-time was just 66% of the average for comparable men.

French was the mother tongue of 30% of all secretaries, compared with just 22% of the rest of the female workforce. English was the mother tongue of 60% of secretaries, almost the same proportion as among other female workers (62%). On the other hand, just 10% of secretaries had a mother tongue other than English or French, while the figure among other working women was 16%.

### Secretarial science education

From 1977 to 1988, the number of women enrolled full-time in secretarial science programs at community colleges rose 18% from 10,900 to 12,800. Enrolment, however, peaked at 13,700 in 1986, and then dropped in the next two years. Throughout the period, the field remained heavily female-dominated, with women accounting for at least 97% of students.

As a proportion of all female college students, those enrolled in secretarial science declined from a high of 14% in 1979 to 11% in 1986.

In 1986, 3,500 people graduated from community colleges with a secretarial science diploma. Virtually all of them (98%) were women, and they made up 10.5% of female college graduates that year.

**Carol Strike** is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.





# TIME USE OF THE ELDERLY

by Marion Jones

**A**s people move into the 65 and over age group, their lives often undergo dramatic changes. For many seniors, it is the time of retirement, loss of a spouse, reduced mobility, and deteriorating health. All these factors affect the way individuals spend their time.

According to the 1986 General Social Survey, a typical day of an elderly person differs considerably from that of a younger person. The transition from the labour force to retirement gives many people aged 65 and over considerably more free time. Because of this additional free time, they are more likely to participate in leisure activities and to spend more time on them. However, the daily patterns of older people in the labour force are similar to those of younger workers.

## Free time

In 1986, elderly people, the majority of whom were retired, had more free time<sup>1</sup> than did younger people. People aged 65 and over had, on average, 7.7 hours of free time a day,<sup>2</sup> compared with 5.1 hours for 15-64-year-olds.

Men tended to have more free time than women, regardless of age. In 1986, men aged 65 and over, as well as those in the 15-64 age range, had half an hour more free time each day than did their female contemporaries. Older men had 8 hours of free time a day, compared with 7.5 hours for older women. Men in the younger age range had 5.4 hours of free time, compared with 4.9 hours for women.

<sup>1</sup> Includes everything but time spent on paid work, education, and personal and family care.

<sup>2</sup> All amounts of time have been averaged over 7 days.





### Living alone - more free time

At all ages, people living alone had more free time than did those living with their spouse. The difference, however, is greater among those aged 65 and over than among 15-64-year-olds. In 1986, elderly men living alone had 9.3 hours of free time a day, compared with 7.8 hours for men living with their wife. At ages 15-64, men living alone had 5.8 hours of free time, compared with 5.0 hours for those living with their spouse.

Similarly, women aged 65 and over who lived alone had 8.2 hours of free time, compared with 6.7 hours for those living with their husband. In the younger age group, women living alone had 5.3 hours a day of free time, compared with 4.8 hours for those living with their spouse.

### How they spend their free time

Elderly people were more likely than younger people to participate in various leisure activities. Fully 85% of people aged 65 and over reported watching television on any given day in 1986; the figure for those aged 15-64 was 73%. Older people who watched T.V. did so an average of 3.9 hours a day, compared with 3.0 hours for younger viewers. In both age ranges, men were more likely than women to watch television and to devote a slightly longer time to it.

Older people were twice as likely as younger people to spend time reading. In 1986, 27% of people aged 65 and over read a book or magazine on any given day, compared with 14% of 15-64-year-olds. Older people who read a book spent 2.3 hours a day doing so, compared with 1.5 hours for younger people. Also in 1986, while 33% of elderly people read a newspaper on any given day, the proportion among those aged 15-64 was just 16%.

Almost half of both men and women aged 65 and over participated in sports or hobbies, compared with one-quarter of those aged 15-64. In 1986, 42% of older men and 44% of older women were involved in these activities, compared with 27% for both younger men and women. And while older women spent slightly longer on these activities than older men (2.9 hours compared with 2.6 hours), the reverse was true among 15-64-year-olds (2.4 hours for women compared with 2.7 hours for men).

Older people were more likely than younger ones to participate in hobbies and domestic crafts, and also to play cards or games. Overall, 4% of people aged 65 and over were actively involved in hobbies in 1986, compared with 2% of those aged



15-64. Older women were particularly likely to participate in domestic crafts (22%), compared with 9% of younger women. Fewer than 1% of both older and younger men engaged in these activities. Cards and games were played by about 9% of older men and women, compared with 5% of younger people.

Older people were also more likely to walk or hike than were younger people. This was especially true for men. Fully 15% of men aged 65 and over reported

walking or hiking, compared with just 5% of men aged 15-64. The proportion of older women who engaged in these activities was 7%, compared with 5% of younger women.

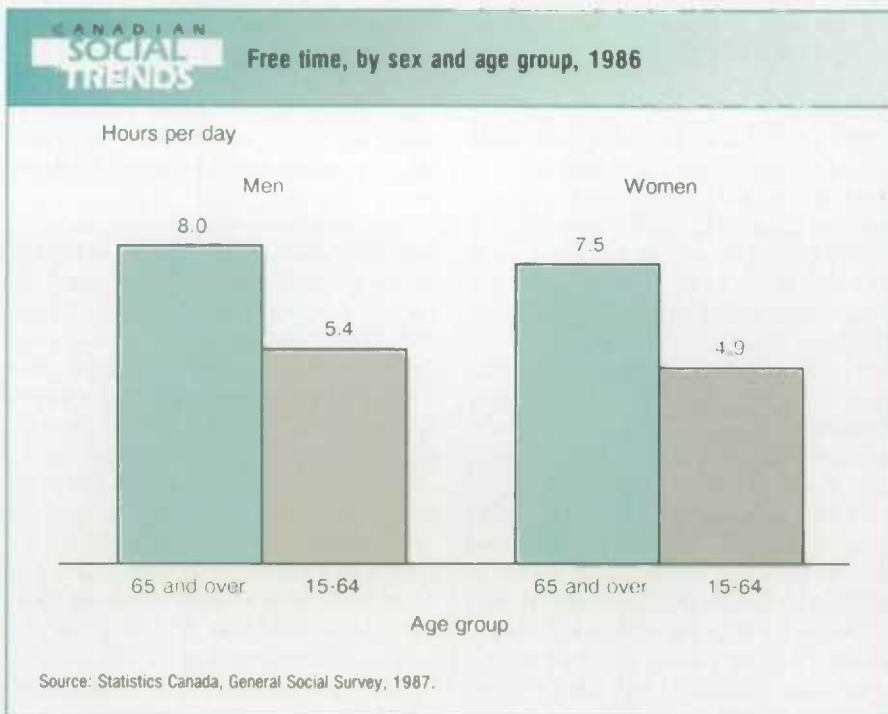
The likelihood of engaging in religious activities was greater among older than younger people. In 1986, 13% of people aged 65 and over took part in some religious activity on any given day, compared with 6% of those aged 15-64. This difference, may, in part, reflect changing religious practices, rather than age or amount of free time.

### Sleeping/eating

People aged 65 and over spent more time on personal care activities than did those aged 15-64. In 1986, older people spent just over half of their day (12.4 hours) on personal care, compared with 10.8 hours for younger people. Sleep accounts for most of this time, regardless of age.

Elderly people slept longer than 15-64-year-olds. In 1986, people aged 65 and over slept about half an hour more each day than did younger people: 8.7 hours compared with 8.1 hours.

Older people also spent more time on meals at home. Such meals accounted for 1.6 hours in the day of people aged 65 and over, while taking up 1.2 hours in the day of 15-64-year-olds. The elderly, however, were somewhat less likely than younger people to eat out (15% compared with 20%). Those who did eat out spent just over an hour in a restaurant, regardless of their age.







Older men spent a little more time on personal care than did older women, while the reverse was true among younger people. In 1986, men aged 65 and over engaged in personal care activities for an average of 12.5 hours a day, compared with 12.3 hours for women that age. By contrast, women aged 15-64 spent almost half an hour more on personal care than did men that age: 11.0 hours versus 10.6 hours.

### Family care

Family care, which includes household chores, shopping, and child care, took up about the same amount of time for older and younger people. In 1986, people aged 65 and over who engaged in family care spent 3.9 hours a day on these activities, compared with 3.8 hours for those in the 15-64 age range.

Women spent more time on family care than did men, regardless of their age. However, the gap between women and men was narrower at older ages. As well, older women actually devoted slightly less time to family care than did younger women. In 1986, women aged 65 and over who did family care activities spent 4.2 hours a day on them, compared with 4.6 hours for those aged 15-64. For men aged 65 and over, family care took up 3.4 hours a day, compared with just 2.8 hours for younger men.

### Labour force versus retired

While age appears to affect how people spend their time, retirement is one of the main factors influencing the time use of elderly people. In fact, the relatively small number of older people in the labour force had daily patterns similar to those of younger working people. For example, working men aged 65 and over spent 10.8 hours a day on personal care in 1986, compared with 10.4 hours for those aged 15-64. Working women aged 65 and over spent 10.4 hours on personal care activities, compared with 10.7 hours for those in the 15-64 age range.

Nonetheless, younger working men and women spent more time at their jobs than did older people. In 1986, men aged 15-64 in the labour force worked 6.6 hours a day (averaged over 7 days), and their female counterparts, 5.5 hours a day. This compared with an average of 5.3 hours of work for both men and women aged 65 and over who were in the labour force.

Consequently, older workers had more free time than did younger people. In 1986, men aged 65 and over in the labour force had 6 hours of free time a day, one hour more than younger working men. The difference was not as great for women: older women in the labour force had 5.1 hours of free time, compared with 4.3 hours for younger women.

### About the General Social Survey

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

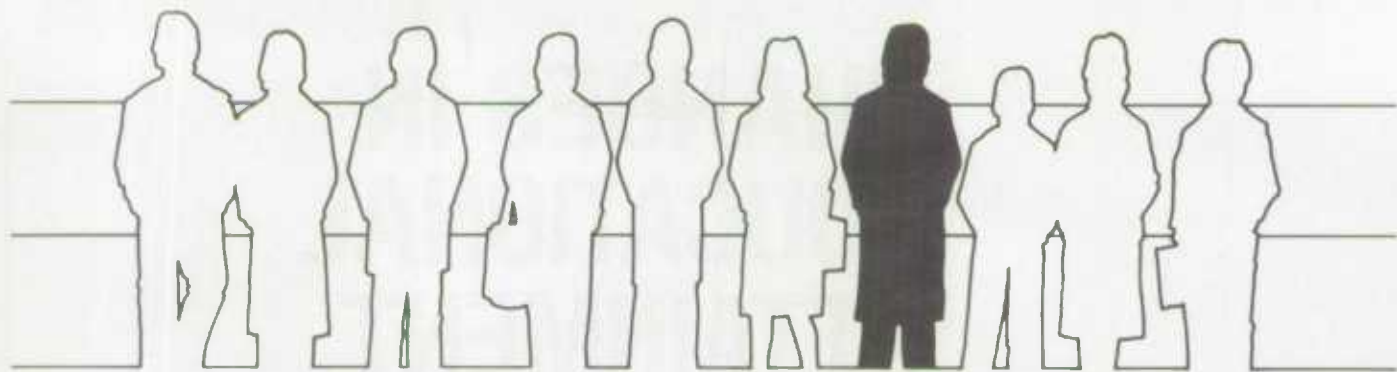
More information on this survey is available from:

General Social Survey  
Housing, Family and Social  
Statistics Division  
Statistics Canada  
R.H.Coats Bldg., 17-F  
Ottawa, Ontario  
K1A 0T6  
(613) 951-0466

**Marion Jones** is an analyst with the General Social Survey, Statistics Canada.







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- socio-economic conditions specific to women with disabilities

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# CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

by George Mori and Brian Burke

**A**ccording to the 1986 Census, the educational attainment of the Canadian population continues to rise. This is particularly evident in the growing number of people who have graduated from a university or community college. At the same time, the share of the population, particularly young adults, with less than Grade 9 education is falling.

## More graduates

The increase in the population with a university degree was particularly rapid. In fact, between 1961 and 1986, the number of university graduates rose 432%, nearly seven times the growth rate of the adult population overall (65%). As a result, in 1986, 10% of Canadians aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from 8% in 1981, and just 3% in 1961.

The proportion of adults who had graduated from other postsecondary institutions, such as community colleges, Quebec CEGEPs, or institutes of technology, has also risen dramatically. In 1986, 10% of the population had graduated from one of these institutions, up slightly from 9% in 1981. In 1961, there were too few graduates of these institutions to measure accurately.

As well, a relatively large proportion of adult Canadians have attended postsecondary institutions without graduating. In 1986, 20% of adults had taken some courses beyond high school, but not enough to obtain a degree or diploma.

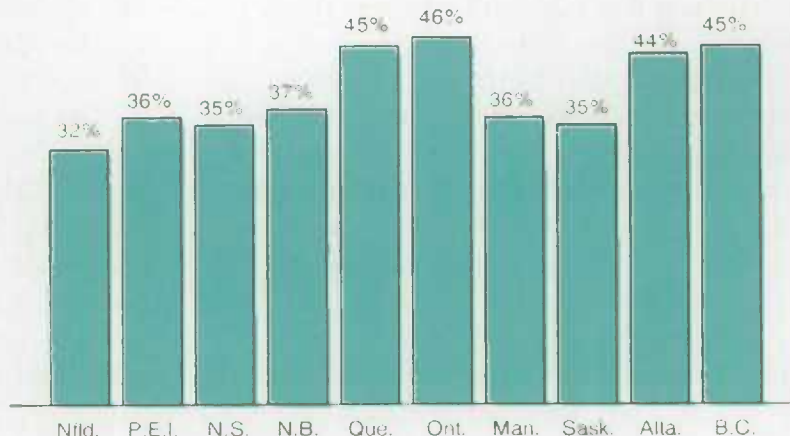
## Fewer with less than Grade 9

Growth in the share of people with a degree or diploma coincided with sharp declines in the proportion with lower levels of education. In 1986, 3.5 million people, or 18% of the population aged 15 and over, had less than Grade 9. In 1961, there had been 5.3 million people in this category, representing 44% of the adult population.



CANADIAN  
SOCIAL  
TRENDS

Percentage of adults with high school certificate, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 98-134.



The diminishing size of the less educated population is most pronounced at younger ages. For example, in 1986, just 4% of people aged 20-24 and only 8% of those in the 25-44 age range had not gone

past Grade 8. In contrast, the figures were 29% for people aged 45-64 and 46% for those aged 65 and over. In fact, one-third of all Canadians with less than Grade 9 were aged 65 and over.

### The great dividing line: high school graduation

In many ways, high school graduation is a significant benchmark in educational achievement. It is the first formal credential conferred by educational institutions. It is also usually the first item mentioned on job applications and résumés. Furthermore, secondary school graduation is required for entry into university studies and the majority of college programs.

Overall, in 1986, 44% of Canadians aged 15 and over were secondary school graduates. The proportion of the people with a high school diploma, however, varied substantially in different age groups. It was lowest, by far, among the elderly. Only one in five (21%) Canadians aged 65 and over were secondary graduates. In comparison, 32% of people aged 45-64 and 56% of those aged 25-44 had completed high school.

Provincial variations in the proportion of high school graduates were considerable. The percentage of adults with a high school certificate ranged from around 45% in Quebec, Ontario, Alberta, and British

Columbia to about 35% in the other provinces. Prince Edward Island, at 32%, had the lowest proportion of high school graduates among its adult residents.

The majority of high school graduates have taken at least one course at the postsecondary level. In 1986, four out of ten secondary school graduates had completed university courses, and three out of ten, college or trades courses. Only three out of ten secondary graduates had not completed any further postsecondary studies.

Secondary school graduation is a key factor in determining labour force activity and income. In 1986, high school graduates aged 25-44 had a labour force participation rate of 88%, compared with 79% for those without a secondary certificate. Also, the unemployment rate for 25-44-year-olds with secondary graduation was lower at 7% than the 12% for those without a high school certificate. The average employment income of full-time full-year workers in this age range was \$29,600 for high school graduates, compared with \$23,400 for those without a certificate.

### Regional variation

There is considerable provincial variation in educational attainment. People in Alberta and Ontario generally have the highest levels of education.

Alberta and Ontario were the provinces with the largest proportion of university graduates. In 1986, 11% of adults in each of those provinces were degree-holders. The figure was 9% in British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec, and Nova Scotia; 7% in Saskatchewan, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island; and 6% in Newfoundland.

At the same time, British Columbia, Alberta, and Ontario had the smallest proportions of residents who had not gone beyond Grade 8. In 1986, just 11% of adults in both British Columbia and Alberta, and 15% in Ontario had less than Grade 9. In contrast, around one in four residents of Quebec (24%), New Brunswick (24%), and Newfoundland (27%) had not attended high school.

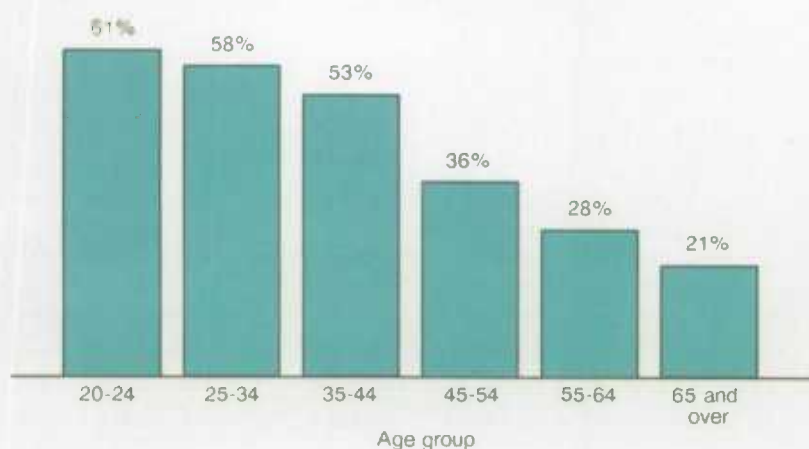
### Different provincial education systems

Each province has its own education system. One of the most important differences is the total number of years students normally require to graduate from secondary school (not counting kindergarten). At the time of the 1986 Census, this ranged from 11 years in Quebec to 13 years in Ontario.

The system of final examinations in the last year of high school also varies from province to province. In British Columbia, Alberta, Quebec, and Newfoundland, provincial examinations in academic subjects count for half of the students' final marks. In contrast, Manitoba, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island do not have province-wide final exams; instead, they award school-leaving diplomas based on a number of criteria including performance on exams and tests, school records, and teachers' assessments. Saskatchewan and New Brunswick use a combination of provincial exams and other factors.

**George Mori** is a senior analyst and **Brian Burke** is a senior technical officer with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

**CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS**  
Percentage of high school graduates, by age group, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-110.





# SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
<b>POPULATION</b>								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2
Immigration <sup>1</sup>	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024
Emigration <sup>1</sup>	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314
<b>FAMILY</b>								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	*
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	776
<b>LABOUR FORCE</b>								
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	*	*
<b>INCOME</b>								
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	*
<b>EDUCATION</b>								
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 <sup>p</sup>	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	836.6 <sup>p</sup>
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.4	*
<b>HEALTH</b>								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.1	5.9	5.9	*
<b>JUSTICE</b>								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	949 <sup>p</sup>
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,517 <sup>p</sup>
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5 <sup>p</sup>
<b>GOVERNMENT</b>								
Expenditures on social programmes <sup>2</sup> (1988 \$000,000)	135,536.6	141,988.2	143,661.4	148,891.5	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.1	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.5	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 <sup>m</sup> (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 <sup>m</sup> (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
<b>ECONOMIC INDICATORS</b>								
GDP (1981 \$) - annual % change	-3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0	+2.9
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	183,323

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

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

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



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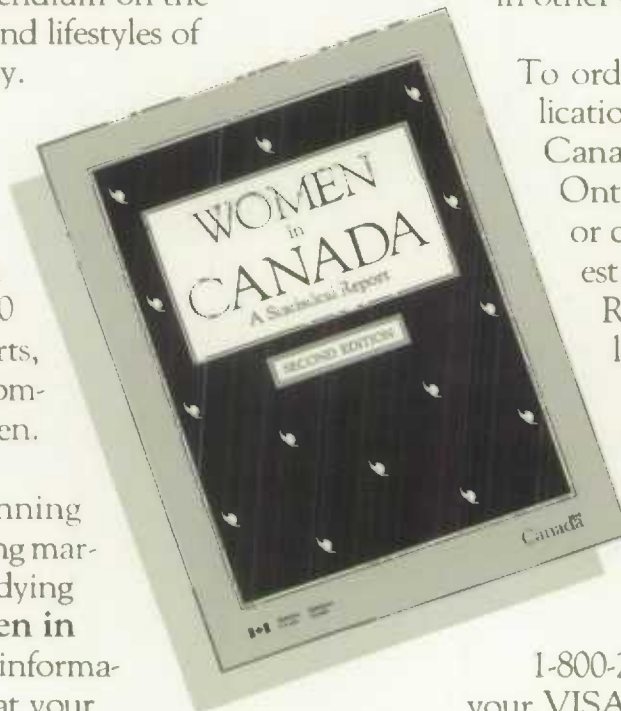
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