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Cover: The Wind Flower (acquired 1916) oil on academy board, $61.2 \times 45.7 \mathrm{~cm}$. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

## About the Artist:

Lorna Fyte Reid was born in London, Ontario in 1887. She studied with F. McGillvray Knowles, Toronto and Kenneth Hayes Miller at the Ant Students League, New York.

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# PROFLLE OF CANADIANS WITH DISABBLITIES 

by Katherine Nessner

The integration of Canadians with disabilities into mainstream society remains one of this country's major social objectives. In 1986, disabled people numbered 3.3 million and made up $13 \%$ of Canada's population. ${ }^{1}$


## One in four severely disabled

A relatively large proportion of people with disabilities are severely impaired. In $1986,23 \%$ of the disabled population had a severe disability. Most people with disabilities, though, had a condition which was less than severe: $32 \%$ had a moderate disability, while $45 \%$ had a mild disability.

## Restricted movement

The moss common disabilities involve some restriction of movement. In 1986, $66 \%$ of the disabled population aged 15 and over had mobility problems. These included limitations in their ability to walk, move from room to room, carry an object a short distance, or stand for a long time. Another $58 \%$ of people with disabilities reported difficulty in performing activities such as bending, reaching, dressing themselves, getting in and out of bed, or grasping objects.

Hearing problems were the next most common disability, affecting $32 \%$ of disabled people. Another $18 \%$ were visually impaired, while $8 \%$ had difficulty speaking. A variety of other conditions, such as psychiatric problems or developmental delay, affected over $30 \%$ of people with disabilities.

## Number of disabilities

Most adults who reported that they were disabled had more than one disability. In fact, in 1986, this was the case for $64 \%$ of disabled people: $31 \%$ had two types of disability, and $3.3 \%$ had three or more.

## Most prevalent among elderly

Elderly people are the most likely to be disabled. In 1986, nearly half ( $46 \%$ ) of the population aged 65 and over reported having some form of disability. Furthermore, among those aged 85 and over, $82 \%$ were disabled.

In contrast, $16 \%$ of 35 -64-year-olds, $6 \%$ of people aged $15-34$, and $5 \%$ of children under age 15 had a disability.

As well, older people are more likely than those in younger age groups to have a severe disability. In 1986, 35\% of disabled people aged 65 and over had a severe condition. This compared with $16 \%$ of the disabled population aged 15 (34, and 9\% of disabled children.

[^0]Multiple disabilities also tend to be more common among elderly people. In 1986, $75 \%$ of the disabled population aged 65 and over reported more than one disabilit $y$, whereas the proportion for those aged 15-64 was $56 \%$.

Women aged 65 and over are slightly more likely than men in this age range to be disabled. While $47 \%$ of elderly women reported some form of disability in 1986, the corresponding figure for men was $44 \%$. At rounger ages, the proportions of
males and females with a disability were almost identical.

## Few in institutions

Although most people with disabilities live in private households, a significant minority are in institutions. In 1986, 7\% of the disabled population lived in facilities such as special care homes and institutions for the elderly and chronically ill; general hospitals; psychiatric treatment centres; institutions for the physically


handicapped; and orphanages and children's homes.

The elderly account for the vast majority of disabled people living in institutions. In 1986, $79 \%$ of all institutionalized people with disabilities were aged 65 and over.

Disabled elderly women are more likely than their male counterparts to live in institutions. In 1986, 19\% of disabled women aged 65 and older were in institutions, compared with $11 \%$ of elderly men. In addition, for both women and men, the rate of institutionalization climbs sharply at progressively older ages. Among those aged 85 and over, for example, $46 \%$ of disabled women and $34 \%$ of disabled men were in institutions.

In contrast, fewer than $5 \%$ of disabled men and women aged 15-64 lived in institutions, and among children, the proportion was less than $1 \%$

Not surprisingly, the more severe the disability, the more likely the disabled person is to be in an institution. In 1986, $24 \%$ of people with severe disabilities were in institutions, whereas the figure was $4 \%$ for those who were moderately disabled, and just $1 \%$ for those with mild disabilities.

## Living alone

At all ages, a relatively high proportion of people with disabilities live alone. In 1986, $12 \%$ of non-institutionalized disabled people aged $15-64$ lived alone, compared with $7 \%$ of the non-disabled in this age range. As well, $30 \%$ of disabled people aged 65 and over lived alone, compared with $26 \%$ of those without disabilities.

Still, most non-institutionalized disabled people live in a family setting, although the proportion is less than for non-disabled people. In $1986,78 \%$ of disabled people aged $15-64$ were living in families as husbands, wives, lone parents, or children. The corresponding figure for the non-disabled population was $86 \%$.

The remainder of both people with ( $9 \%$ ) and without ( $7 \%$ ) disabilities were living with other family members such as brothers, sisters, aunts and uncles, or with non-relatives.

## Marital status

As is the case for the non-disabled population, most adults with disabilities are married. In 1986, $62 \%$ of both disabled and non-disabled 15-64-year-olds were married. Among people aged 65 and over, $52 \%$ with disabilities were married, while the figure for the non-disabled was $61 \%$

Disabled adults, however, are more likely than people without disabilities to


Educational attainment of disabled and non-disabled population aged $15 \cdot 64,1986$


Seurces: Statistics Canara, Catalogues 82-602 and 93-110.
be divorced, separated, or widowed. At ages $15-64,11 \%$ of disabled people were divorced or separated, compared with $6 \%$ of their non-disabled contemporaries. As well, $6 \%$ of the disabled population aged $15-64$ were widowed, in contrast to $2 \%$ of non-disabled people

On the other hand, non-institutionalized disabled adults are less likely than their non-disabled counterparts to be single. In 1986, $22 \%$ of people aged $15-64$ with disabilities were single, compared with $31 \%$ of those without disabilities.

Differences in marital status, however are largely a reflection of the age distribution of these two populations, with the disabled more concentrated in older age groups

## Less formal education

Disabled people tend to have less formal education than non-disabled Canadians. For example, in $1986,5 \%$ of non-institutionalized disabled people aged $15-64$ were university graduates, whereas the corresponding figure for the non-disabled population was $11 \%$. Similarly, $10 \%$ of people with disabilities had earned a postsecondary certificate or diploma, compared with $14 \%$ of those without disabilities.

At the same time, people with disabil ities are much more likely than other Canadians to have low levels of education In 1986, $29 \%$ of non-institutionalized dis abled people aged $15-64$ had less than Grade 9, while the figure was $11 \%$ for wher people in this age group.

Some of these differences in educational attainment, though, may be due to the fatt that the disabled population is older, on average, than the non-disabled population, and older people generally have lower levels of education.

## Lower labour force participation

In recent vears. the role of disabled workers in the Canatian labour force has expanded. Technology has allowed many more disabled people to perform in a wide variety of jobs, and special training has become more readily available. Still, com pared with non-disabled adults, a much smaller proportion of the disabled popula tion is employed.

In 1986, only $40 \%$ of the 1.8 million dis abled people aged $15-64$ were employed This compared with $70 \%$ of non-disabled adults.

This discrepancy holds among both men and women. While $50 \%$ of disabled men aged 15-64 were employed, the figure was $80 \%$ for non-disabled men.

Similarly, only $31 \%$ of disabled women had jobs, in contrast to $60 \%$ of nondisabled women.

Employment rates for disabled people are low, not because their unemployment rates are high, but rather because a large proportion of them do not participate in the labour force. In $1986,51 \%$ of people with disabilities were not in the labour force: $40 \%$ of men and $61 \%$ of women. By contrast, just $22 \%$ of non-disabled people did not participate in the labour force: $12 \%$ of men and $32 \%$ of women.

## Occupations

While disabled people are enuployed in moss fields, they are less likely than other workers to have managerial or professional jobs, and are more likely to work in skilled and semi-skitled trades or manual jobs.
In 1986, workers with disabilities accounted for $6 \%$ of total employment. However, they made up just $5 \%$ of senior managers, middle managers, and professionals.
On the other hand, $10 \%$ of people in skilled crafts and trades were disabled, as were $12 \%$ of semi-skilled workers and $1+\%$ of other manual workers


## Income gap

Disabled adults generally have lower incomes than other Canadians. In 1985, disabled men aged 15 and over had a median income of $\$ 13,000$, compared with $\$ 20,900$ for non-disabled men. The difference was not as great among women: disabled women had a median income of $\$ 8,200$ in 1985 , compared with $\$ 10,000$ for those without disabilities.

The income gap between people with and without disabilities narrows after retirement age. At age 65 and over, $8 \%$ of the disabled and $10 \%$ of the non disabled population had 1985 incomes less than $\$ 5,000$. However, $52 \%$ of disabled elderly people received $\$ 5,000$ to $\$ 10,000$, compared with $41 \%$ of their non-disabled counterparts. At the other end of the income scale, $7 \%$ of elderly disabled people had 1985 incomes greater than $\$ 25,000$, whereas the figure for those without disabilities was $13 \%$

Only a minority of the disabled population receive disability-related pensions. Moreover, disabled people in the 15-64 age range are more likely than those aged 65 and over to have some income in this form. In 1985, such payments were made to $23 \%$ of disabled 15-64-year-olds, while the proportion among those aged 65 and over was just $7 \%$.

## The Healith and Activity Limitation Survey

As part of Statistics Canada's com mitment to build and maintain a national database on disability, the Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS) was conducted in the autumn of 1986 and the spring of 1987.

The survey covered approximately 112,000 people with disabilities who lived in private households and 20,000 who lived in institutions.

More information on Canadians with disabilities is available in Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82.602; or by calling Janet Pantalone, Post-Censal Survey Program, 1-613-951-0025.

Katherine Nessner is a Contributing Edifor with Canadian Soclal Trends.

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# THE INDO-CHINESE IN CANADA 

by Pamela M. White


Canada has a small but growing Indo-Chinese community. Most of these people are from Vietnam, but there are also significant numbers from other countries in Southeast Asia, such as Kampuchea, Laos, and Thailand. As well, most IndoChinese Canadians are recent immigrants. Despite their low numbers, the Indo-Chinese have attracted considerable attention, largely because of the circumstances surrounding their immigration to Canada.

## A small minority

In 1986, 125,000 people of Indo-Chinese descent were living in Canada. That year, they accounted for $0.5 \%$ of the total population. Although small, these figures were considerably above those recorded five years earlier, when Indo-Chinese people in Canada numbered 44,000 and made up just $0.2 \%$ of the country's population.

The overwhelming majority of Canada's Indo-Chinese community are immigrants.

Of people of Indo-Chinese descent living in the country in 1986,90\% were immigrants, while just $10 \%$ had been born here.

As well, most Indo-Chinese immigrants have been in Canada only a short while. Almost three-quarters ( $71 \%$ ) of IndoChinese immigrants living in Canada in 1986 had arrived after 1980, and another $21 \%$ had immigrated during the 1976 1980 period. Just $6 \%$ had arrived from 1971 to 1975, while only $2 \%$ had immigrated before then.


Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

The vast majority of the Indo-Chinese, however, have become citizens. By 1986, for example, $92 \%$ of those eligible to apply had obtained Canadian citizenship.

## Most from Vietnam

The majority of Indo-Chinese Canadians are Vietnamese. Of those living in Canada in 1986, two-thirds ( $66 \%$ ) were natives of Vietnam. Another $10 \%$ had been born in Kampuchea, $9 \%$ were from Laos, and $2 \%$ originated in Thailand. The remaining $13 \%$ came from a variety of other countries.

## Provincial distribution

As is true of the Canadian population overall, the Indo-Chinese are concentrated in just four provinces. In 1986, $91 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people lived in Ontario, Quebec, Alberta, or British Columbia; these provinces accounted for $83 \%$ of the total population.

Almost four out of ten ( $38 \%$ ) IndoChinese people lived in Ontario in 1986, while $25 \%$ lived in Quebec, $16 \%$ in Alberta, and $11 \%$ in British Columbia. In contrast, the four Atlantic provinces together were home to just over $1 \%$ of all Indo-Chinese in Canada.

As a proportion of a provincial population, however, the largest Indo-Chinese community is in Alberta. In 1986, IndoChinese people made up $0.9 \%$ of that province's residents. They also accounted for $0.6 \%$ of Manitoba's population, and $0.5 \%$ of people in each of Ontario, Quebec, and British Columbia. On the other hand, no more than $0.1 \%$ of residents in any of the Atlantic provinces were Indo-Chinese.

## An urban group

Virtually all the Indo-Chinese live in urban areas, particularly large cities. In 1986, $98 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people were residents of metropolitan areas, compared with $76 \%$ of all Canadians.

In fact, close to half ( $45 \%$ ) of all IndoChinese lived in either Toronto or Montreal in 1986. That year, Toronto accounted for $24 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese, and Montreal, $21 \%$. Together, these two urban areas made up one-quarter of Canada's total population.

There were also relatively large IndoChinese communities in Vancouver, Calgary, and Edmonton. In 1986, $8 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people lived in Vancouver, compared with $5 \%$ of all Canadians. At the same time, Calgary and Edmonton each accounted for $7 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese versus $3 \%$ of the total population.


## Many children, few elderly

Canada's Indo-Chinese people tend to be younger than Canadians overall. In 1986, for example, nine out of ten Indo-Chinese people, compared with seven out of ten other Canadians, were under the age of 45 .
Of all Indo-Chinese living in Canada in $1986,27 \%$ were under age 15 , compared with $22 \%$ of the total population. Another $22 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese were aged 15-24, whereas $17 \%$ of all Canadians were in this age group. People in the prime working-age range (25-44) accounted for
$40 \%$ of the indo-Chinese, but just $32 \%$ of Canada's population.

On the other hand, while $9 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese were aged 45-64 in 1986, $19 \%$ of all Canadians were in this age range. As well, only $2 \%$ of the IndoChinese were aged 65 and older, while the corresponding figure for the total population was $10 \%$

## Family status

As is the case for Canadians in general, most Indo-Chinese live in families. In

$1986,83 \%$ of all Indo-Chinese in Canada were husbands, wives, or lone parents, or children of these people. This proportion was almost the same as for all Canadians ( $86 \%$ ).

The Indo-Chinese, however, are more likely than other Canadians to live with members of their extended family. While I $0 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people lived with relatives such as aunts, uncles, brothers, and sisters, just $3 \%$ of Canada's total population had similar living arrangements. As well, the Indo-Chinese are more likely than Canadians overall to live with nonrelatives: $5 \%$ compared with $3 \%$.

On the other hand, a comparatively small proportion of Indo-Chinese people live alone. While just $2 \%$ of the IndoChinese lived alone in 1986, this was the case for $8 \%$ of all Canadians.

## Language ability

The majority of Indo-Chinese people are able to speak at least one of Canada's official languages. In $1986,83 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese could speak English, French, or both languages.

Compared with other recent immigrants, however, the proportion of Indo-Chinese who know English is low, while the percentage who speak French is high. In 1986, $59 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people could speak English, compared with $72 \%$ of all immigrants who arrived in Canada after 1977. At the same time, $12 \%$ of the Indo-Chinese could speak French, whereas the figure for all recent immigrants was just $6 \%$.

In addition, $12 \%$ of Indo-Chinese people could function in both English and French, compared with $10 \%$ of all immigrants who arrived after 1977.

Still, a relatively high proportion of the Indo-Chinese did not know either official language. In 1986, 17\% of Indo-Chinese people spoke neither English nor French, while the percentage for all recent immigrants was $12 \%$

## Education

Indo-Chinese men have roughly the same levels of formal education as Canada's total male population. However, IndoChinese women have less formal education than Canadian women overall.
In 1986, 10\% of Indo-Chinese men had a university degree, almost the same figure as for all men in Canada ( $11 \%$ ). At the other end of the education continuum, $19 \%$ of Indo-Chinese men had less than Grade 9, compared with $17 \%$ of all Canadian men.

On the other hand, in 1986, one-third ( $33 \%$ ) of Indo-Chinese women had less than Grade 9, compared with $18 \%$ of all Canadian women. However, there was little difference between the proportions of women with a degree: $6 \%$ of Indo-Chinese women were university graduates, compared with $8 \%$ of all Canadian women.

## Employment

Indo-Chinese men and women are less likely than other Canadians to be employed.
In 1986, $67 \%$ of Indo-Chinese men aged 15-64 were employed, compared with $77 \%$ of the total male population in this age range. This discrepancy prevailed at all ages. For instance, among 35-44-yearolds, $81 \%$ of Indo-Chinese men were working, while the comparable figure for all men in Canada was $89 \%$.

Similarly, a lower proportion of IndoChinese women have jobs. In 1986, 55\% of Indo-Chinese women aged 15-64 were working, while the corresponding proportion for all women in Canada was $57 \%$. However, at ages $35-44$, IndoChinese women had an employment rate slightly above the national level for women in this age group: $68 \%$ compared with $66 \%$. At other ages, Indo-Chinese women were less likely than other Canadian women to have jobs.

## Unemployment

Unemployment among Canada's IndoChinese labour force is relatively high. The unemployment rate of Indo-Chinese men aged $15-64$ was $14.6 \%$ in 1986 , con-

siderably above the $9.8 \%$ level in the total male labour force. Similarly, unemployment among Indo-Chinese women aged $15-64$ was higher than among Canadian women overall: $15.2 \%$ versus $11.3 \%$.

## Occupation

The occupational distribution of the IndoChinese differs sharply from that of other Canadian workers. For example, IndoChinese people are more likely to work in product fabricating or processing machining occupations. In $1986,42 \%$ of employed 1ndo-Chinese men held jobs in these fields, compared with $18 \%$ of all employed men.

This difference was even more pronounced among women. In 1986, $41 \%$ of Indo-Chinese women employed outside the home worked in product fabricating or processing/machining occupations, whereas only about $7 \%$ of all employed women were in these types of jobs.

The Indo-Chinese were also more likely than other working Canadians to hold service jobs. However, they were less likely to be employed in managerial, sales, clerical, primary, or construction jobs.

As well, smaller proportions of IndoChinese workers than of all employed Canadians were in professional occupations. In 1986, $11 \%$ of Indo-Chinese men had professional jobs, compared with $13 \%$ of all employed men. The difference was particularly marked among women. The figures were $8 \%$ for Indo-Chinese women and $21 \%$ for working women overall.

## Self-employed

The Indo-Chinese are less likely than other people in Canada to have their own business. In 1986, just $4 \%$ of male IndoChinese workers were self-employed, compared with $13 \%$ of all male workers. Among women, rates were lower, but the pattern was the same: $3 \%$ of female indoChinese workers and $5 \%$ of all Canadian working women were self-employed.

## Employment income

The income of Indo-Chinese Canadians is relatively low. In 1985, the average employment income of Indo-Chinese men who worked full-time all year was $\$ 20,200$, or $66 \%$ of the $\$ 30,500$ earned by all men working full-time year-round.

Among women, employment incomes were lower, but the discrepancy between Indo-Chinese and other female workers was not as wide as for men. Indo-Chinese women who worked full-time all year earned an average of $\$ 14,500$ in 1985 , $72 \%$ of the $\$ 20,000$ earned by all comparable women.

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


Between 1984 and 1986, the number of young people charged under the Act rose $59 \%$, from 22,000 to 35,200 . This rise resulted primarily from the new legislation, which increased the number of young people governed by youth courts in several provinces. The new Act created a uniform age ( $12-17$ years) for young people coming under its jurisdiction, whereas before 1984, each provincial government defined its own upper age limit; in some cases, this was as low as 15.

Since 1986, little change has occurred in the number of young offenders. In 1988, 35,000 adolescents were brought before youth courts, almost the same number as two years earlier. As well, the number of people charged under the Young Offenders Act, as a proportion of all 12-17-year-olds, remained constant at $2.5 \%$ during this period.

## Provincial differences

The proportion of 12-17-year-olds
brought before youth courts tends to be highest in the Western provinces. In 1988, the number of youths charged under the Young Offenders Act represented $4.6 \%$ of Alberta residents aged 12-17 and 4.4\% of those in Saskatchewan. The figures were also relatively high in Manitoba (3.6\%) and British Columbia ( $2.9 \%$ ).

In the Atlantic provinces, the number of adolescents appearing in youth courts made up $2.5 \%$ of the population aged $12-17$ in Nova Scotia, 2.4\% in Newfoundland, and $2.3 \%$ in Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick.

By contrast, in Quebec, the proportion of 12-17-year-olds appearing in youth courts was very low. In 1988, people charged under the Young Offenders Act represented just $1.0 \%$ of adolescents in that province.

## Most young offenders male

Boys are far more likely than girls to appear in youth courts. In fact, in 1988, young males accounted for $84 \%$ of those charged under the Young Offenders Act. This proportion had not changed since 1984.

In 1988, the number of boys charged represented $4.1 \%$ of all boys aged $12 \cdot 17$, while the comparable figure for girls was just $0.8 \%$.

## Older youths

Older adolescents are the most likely to appear in youth courts. This is particularly true in the case of males. For example, in 1988 , the number of 17 -year-old boys charged under the Young Offenders Act represented $7.5 \%$ of all boys this age. The corresponding figures were $4.4 \%$ at age 15 and $0.7 \%$ at age 12 .

The same pattern held for girls, although at all ages, smaller proportions of girls than boys were brought before the courts. In 1988, $1.2 \%$ of girls aged 17 were charged, while the proportions were $1.0 \%$ for 15 -year-old girls and $0.2 \%$ for 12-year-olds.

## Small increase in charges

Berween 1986 and 1988, the number of charges processed by youth courts increased slightly. In 1988, there were 106,100 charges against young people, up $10 \%$ from 96,200 in 1986.

But as with the number of young offenders, the 1986 figure for charges marked a large increase over 1984, when youth courts heard 59,800 charges. The $61 \%$ rise in the number of charges from 1984 to 1986 was, to a large extent, an

effect of implementing the uniform age provision in the Young Offenders Act.

The difference between the number of adolescents appearing in youth courts and the total number of charges exists because many young people are charged with several offences. In 1988, over half of all adolescents appearing in youth courts had at least two charges against them: $20 \%$ had two, $19 \%$ had three to five, and $8 \%$ had six to ten. Also, that year, $5 \%$ of adolescent offenders had more than ten charges against them.

## Property offences most common

Most charges heard in youth courts are related to property offences such as break and enter, theft, and possession of stolen property. These offences accounted for $62 \%$ of the principal charges against adolescents in 1988.

Violent offences constituted another $18 \%$ of principal charges against young offenders in 1988. Six out of ten of these charges were assaults, while another quarter were weapons-related offences or robberies

## Juvenile justice legislation

The Young Offenders Act came into effect in 1984 and replaced the Juvenile Delinquents Act, which dated back to 1908.

The Juvenile Delinquents Act was based on a child welfare approach to youth crime. The function of the court was not so much to determine innocence or guilt, as to prescribe treatment or care that was in the best interest of the child.

The Young Offenders Act also incorporates the child welfare philosophy. It attempts to balance that approach with both society's demands for protection from crime and the need to protect young people's legal rights. As a result, youth courts are now designed primarily to ascertain innocence or guilt. Youths appearing in court are informed of and guaranteed all the legal rights of the adult court system. Nonetheless, youth courts still acknowledge that young people have special needs and should be held accountable in a manner appropriate to their age and maturity,

Under the Young Offenders Act, four forms of sentences are most commonly used by youth court judges: probation, custody, community service, and fines.

Probation allows young people to serve their dispositions in the community and may include such conditions as maintaining a curfew, attending school, working full-time, or abstaining from the use of alcohol and non-prescription drugs. Most youths must also report regularly to a probation officer.

Custody may be open or secure. Open custody may be served in a halfway house, wilderness camp, or facility designated appropriate by provincial authorities. Secure custody involves admission to facilities specially designated for detainment of young offenders.

Although custodial dispositions for some offences may be for as long as three years, the vast majority are for six months or less. Longer custodial dispositions must be reviewed after one year.

A community service order requires the young person to work unpaid in a community setting for a period not exceeding 240 hours, while fines may be up to $\$ 1,000$.

## Altemative measures

One of the innovative provisions of the Young Offenders Act is the use of alternative measures in dealing with young persons alleged to have committed their first offence. Such measures are usually considered before the adolescent is charged. A few jurisdictions, though, also allow a referral to be made after a charge is laid.

Under the Young Offenders Act, these alternative measures must conform to general guidelines. Each jurisdiction, however, is responsible for formulating and implementing its own alternative measures programs. Consequently, the scope of alternatives available to young people varies considerably from one jurisdiction to another. Alternative measures programs include community work, personal service to the victim, an apology, counselling, education programs, and restitution.

Successful completion of the program results in the charge being dropped or dismissed, or the case being closed without a record of formal conviction.

More serious attacks, such as sexual assault and murder, account for a small proportion of charges against adolescents. About $2 \%$ of all charges were for sexual assault, while murder and attempted murder made up $0.2 \%$. Overall, in 1988, 64 young people were charged with either murder/manslaughter (26) or attempted murder (38).

Other Criminal Code offences, such as impaired driving, escape or failure to appear in court, conspiracy, and disorderly conduct, accounted for $9 \%$ of principal charges against young offenders in 1988, while $4 \%$ were drug-related.

## Most found guilty

In $1988,80 \%$ of all adolescents appearing in youth courts were found guilty of at least one charge. In a further $17 \%$ of cases, the proceedings were stayed, dismissed, or withdrawn. Only $2 \%$ of young people appearing in these courts were found not guilty of any charge. The remaining cases were transferred to another jurisdiction or to the adult court system.

## Probation most common

The most common disposition for adolescents who plead guilty or are found guilty in court is probation. In 1988, $51 \%$ of young offenders received probation. Another 20\% received custodial disposi-


tions, $16 \%$ had to pay fines, and $7 \%$ were ordered to perform community service work. Absolute discharges were given to $4 \%$, while the remaining $2 \%$ received dispositions such as detention for treatment, counselling, and paying restitution.

Boys are more likely than girls to receive a custodial disposition. In $1988,21 \%$ of boys who pleaded guilty or were found guilty received custody as their principal disposition, while the proportion among girls was $13 \%$.

Similarly, older offenders were more likely than younger ones to receive a custodial disposition. For instance, in $1988,22 \%$ of 16 - and 17 -year-olds received such dispositions, compared with $13 \%$ of those aged 12 or 13.

Derrick Doige is a staff uriter with Canadian Social Trends.

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As the 1990 s begin, it appears likely that many labour force trends that started at some point during the past two decades will continue. The work force is still growing, largely because of women's increasing participation. Also, the labour force will get older, as the baby-boom generation reaches middle age and beyond. Service industries have gained in importance, while the proportion of em ployment in goods-producing industries has dropped. As well, although unemploy: ment has returned to pre-recession levels. unemployed people have to look longer, on average, for another job.

## Labour force increasing

The labour force continued to grow in 1989, but at a somewhat slower pace than in previous years. In 1989, the number of people in the labour force increased by 228,000 or $1.7 \%$. By comparison, increasc in 1987 and 1988 were about $2 \%$ each year. During the 1980 s overall, annual labour force increases averaged $1.9 \%$.
labour force growth in the 1980s, though, was considerably stower than in the previous decade. During the 1970s. average annual increases amounted to $3.2 \%$, as the large generation born during the baby boom entered the job market.

## Provincial growth uneven

Growth of provincial labour forces varied considerably during the 1980 s . British Columbia led the nation with an average annual increase of $2.4 \%$. This included a $4.2 \%$ gain in 1989, by far the largest in Canada that year.

Alberta had the second highest average growth rate $(2,2 \%)$ during the 1980 s, despite the drop in oil prices and the severe recession early in the decade. However, in 1989. Alberta's labour force growth ( $1.4 \%$ ) was below the national average.

Growth during the 1980s was especially slow in Manitoba and Saskatchewan. where economies were adversely affected by declining international grain and potash prices, and severe drought conditions. During the decade, the labour force in each of these provinces increased an average of $1.2 \%$ annually.

In 1989, Manitoba's labour force grew by just $0.6 \%$. And in Saskatchewan, the labour force actually declined in both 1988 and 1989. The province had a $1.2 \%$ drop in the size of its labour force in 1989. following a small downturn of $0.2 \%$ the previous year. These were the only declines in any provincial labour force since the recession in the early 1980 s.


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71.201.

Ontario's labour force growth was almost the same as the national average in the 1980s. During this period, annual labour force increases in Ontario averaged $2.0 \%$, with a 1989 figure of $1.9 \%$.
The rate of increase in the number of labour force participants in the Atlantic provinces also roughly matched the national average during the 1980 s . Average annual increases amounted to $1.9 \%$ in Prince Edward Island and $1.8 \%$ in each of the other three Atlantic provinces.

However, in 1989, Newfoundland's labour force grew $3.0 \%$, which was the second largest increase in Canada that year. New Brunswick's labour force also expanded relatively quickly in 1989, increasing by $2.2 \%$. Growth was somewhat slower in Prince Edward Island ( $1.6 \%$ ) and Nova Scotia ( $1.5 \%$ ).
Quebec's labour force, on the other hand, grew quite slowly during the 1980s, a trend that continued in 1989. The province's labour force increased an average of $1.4 \%$ per year during the decade, and just $1.0 \%$ in 1989 .

## More women in the labour force

One of the most notable labour force trends has been the increase in women's participation. In 1989, $58 \%$ of all women were in the labour force, up from $49 \%$ in 1979 and $38 \%$ in 1969.
Over the same twenty years, men's participation rate declined slightly. In 1989, $77 \%$ of men were in the labour force, down from $78 \%$ in 1969. Almost all of this small drop, however, had taken place by the end of the recession. In fact, men's participation rate has been stable since 1983.

As a result of these changes, women now constitute a much larger proportion of the total labour force. In 1989, $44 \%$ of all labour force participants were women, compared with $39 \%$ in 1979 and $33 \%$ in 1969.

## Mothers in the labour force

The past decade witnessed an especially sharp increase in the labour force participation of women with children. Overall, the participation rate of mothers with children under 16 at home was $69 \%$ in 1989, up from $49 \%$ in 1979.
This trend includes both mothers with pre-school children and those with children in school. In 1989, 62\% of women with pre-school-aged children were in the labour force, compared with $43 \%$ in 1979 . Over the same period, the participation rate of mothers with schoolaged children rose from $56 \%$ to $75 \%$.

## Labour force aging

Another major development of the 1980 s has been the aging of the labour force. The average age of labour force participants was 36.3 in 1989, up from 35.5 in 1979. This aging phenomenon was due mainly to the large numbers of the baby-boom generation in the labour force.

## Better educated

Labour force participants are much better educated now than in the past. In 1989,
$15 \%$ of labour force participants had a university degree, compared with $10 \%$ in 1979. As well, a larger proportion of the work force now has at least some education beyond high school. In 1989, 42\% of people in the labour force had some postsecondary education, compared with $29 \%$ in 1979.
At the other end of the cducation spectrum, just $9 \%$ of labour force participants had less than Grade 9 in 1989, down from $17 \%$ in 1979.


These trends are likely to continue as older people, who often have less education, leave the labour force.

## Part-time work

lart-time employment accounted for a larger proportion of total employment at the end of the 1980s than in the mid1970s. However, since the mid-1980s, the proportion of Canadian workers employed part-time has declined slightly.
in $108 \%$ ) $15 \%$ of all employed people
worked part-time, compared with $13 \%$ in 1979 and $11 \%$ in 1975. The 1989 figure, however, was down somewhat from the level recorded from 1983 to 1986. This drop reflects the slightly faster growth of full-time than part-time employment during the last half of the 1980 s. Between 1984 and 1989, the number of full-time jobs increased $14 \%$, compared with $13 \%$ for part-time employment.

In contrast, part-time employment growth considerably outpaced full-time
during the first half of the decade. Between 1979 and 1984, part-time employment rose $28 \%$, whereas the number of fulltime jobs increased only $2 \%$.

## Service industries expanding

The distribution of employment by industry has continued to shift over the past decade, with service industries now accounting for more than two-thirds of all workers.

Between 1979 and 1989, service industry employment grew by $29 \%$. In contrast, employment growth in goodsproducing industries amounted to just $4 \%$. Consequently, in 1989, $70 \%$ of all workers were in service industries; this was up from $65 \%$ in 1979.

## Unemployment

By the end of the 1980s, unemployment had fallen to pre-recession levels. In 1989, the unemployment rate was $7.5 \%$, the same as in the 1979-1981 period. Although the 1989 rate was down only slightly from $7.8 \%$ in 1988, it was much lower than the 1983 peak of $11.8 \%$.

Unemployment varies considerably across the country, with the Eastern provinces experiencing the highest rates. Newfoundland had the highest level of unemployment in 1989, with $15.8 \%$ of the province's labour force out of work. As well, Prince Edward Island (14.1\%), New Brunswick (12.5\%), and Nova Scotia ( $9.9 \%$ ) had unemployment rates above the national average ( $7.5 \%$ ).

Unemployment was also relatively high in Quebec and British Columbia. In 1989, Quebec's rate was $9.3 \%$, while the rate in British Columbia was $9.1 \%$.

On the other hand, rates in the three Prairie provinces were close to the national average. Ontario had the lowest provincial unemployment rate in 1989, at $5.1 \%$

Although unemployment had declined to pre-recession levels by the end of the 1980 s, the average length of time people were out of a job remained considerably above the figure in the late 1970s. The average job search lasted 3 weeks longer in 1989 than in 1979: 17.9 weeks compared with 14.8 weeks. The 1989 figure, though, was down from a high of 21.8 weeks in 1983.

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

- More information on this topic is available in "The labour force: Into the '90s" by Michel Cotte in Perspectites on Labour and Income. Vol. 2, No.I, Statistics Comada, Catalogue $75-011$

[^1]
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# CHANGES IN WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS 

by Catherine Shea



continucal increases in wommen labour force participation over the last decade have been accompanied by several shifts in the types of jobs they hold. Despite these changes, a large majority of women employed outside the home are still concentrated in occupations in which women have fraditionally worked.

In 1989, almost three-quarters of women employed outside the home
worked in clerical jobs, service, sales, nursing and related health occupations, or teaching. That year, $72 \%$ of all working women held a job in one of these fields. By contrast, just $29 \%$ of employed men worked in one of these occupations.

There has been a small decline, how. ever, in the proportion of women holding these jobs since the early 1980 s. In 1982. for example, $77 \%$ of all working women
had been employed in one of these occupations. 1
${ }^{1}$ It is important to note that the way occupational data are classified by the Labour Force Survey was changed in 1984 . This had a noticeable statistical impact on several occupational groupings referred to in this article and, as such, 1982 and 1989 data are not always strictly comparable.

## Largest group in clerical jobs

Clerical jobs constitute, by far, the largest single occupational category for women, accounting for almost a third of female employment. In $1989,31 \%$ of all working women were in clerical positions. By contrast, just $6 \%$ of employed men were in such jobs.

The share of female employment in clerical occupations, though, did decline during the last decade. In 1982, 34\% of all working women held a clerical position.

Nonetheless, women still account for the vast majority of clerical workers. In fact, in 1989 , over $80 \%$ of clerical workers were women, a slight increase over the 1982 figure of $79 \%$.

## Other traditional jobs

There were also relatively large shares of working women in service, sales, nursing and related health occupations, and teaching. Together, these occupations accounted for $41 \%$ of working women in 1989, compared with $23 \%$ of employed men.

In I989, 17\% of women working outside the home were employed in service positions, while $10 \%$ were in sales, $9 \%$ were in nursing, and $6 \%$ were teachers. This distribution is similar to the pattern in the early 1980 s.

As with clerical occupations, these fields continue to have relatively large female components. In 1989, 85\% of people employed in nursing and related health occupations were women. They also made up $66 \%$ of teachers, $57 \%$ of service personnel, and $46 \%$ of salespersons. As well, these proportions were all above their 1982 levels.

## More managers and administrators

During the last decade, there was a dramatic increase in the employment of women in managerial and administrative positions. Between 1982 and 1989, the number of female managers and administrators more than doubled. As a result, in $1989,11 \%$ of working women were in these occupations, up from $6 \%$ in 1982. Also because of the increase, the managerial and administrative category had become the third largest occupational group for women by 1989, whereas it had ranked fifth in 1982 . Still, by the end of the decade, women filled just $38 \%$ of all managerial and administrative positions, although this was up from $29 \%$ in 1982.

Changes in the managerial and administration group, however, should be interpreted with some caution. Refinement in the way occupational data are classified by the Labour Force Survey in 1984 had a

## camapian SOClal <br> Employed women, by occupational group, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71.001.


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71.001.
particularly dramatic effect on employment figures in this category. As much as $40 \%$ of the increase in the proportion of women employed in this group may be attributable to new occupational definitions. But even without this artificial boost, there was still considerable growth in the employment of women in this category

## Growth in other professions

Participation of women also increased in
several other professional occupational categories during the last decade. ${ }^{2}$ For example, between 1982 and 1989, the number of women employed in social science professions, excluding university teachers, rose $52 \%$. In fact, by 1989 , women made up well over half $(57 \%$ ) of all people working in these fields.

2 For more detail on women in professional occupations, see Katherine Marshall, Canadian Soclal Trends, Spring 1989, pages 13-16.


Employed women, by eccupational group, 1882 and 1989


There was also substantial growth in women's share of employment among health professionals such as doctors. The number of women in these occupations more than doubled between 1982 and 1989. As a result, by 1989, one in three people (33\%) in these professions was female, compared with fewer than one in five ( $18 \%$ ) in 1982.

On the other hand, women still account for only about one in five people employed in natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. In 1989, just $19 \%$ of people in these fields were women, although this was up from $15 \%$ in 1982.

## Few women in blue collar occupations

Women continue to be significantly under-represented in what have traditionally been male-dominated blue collar jobs. In 1989, women made up around $20 \%$ of all people employed in both pri. mary occupations and manufacturing jobs such as processing, machining and product fabricating. As well, there was little change in this pattern during the decade

In both transportation and construction, however, women did make some gains. Still, in 1989 , just $9 \%$ of people employed in transportation and only $2 \%$ of those in construction were women.

Catherine Shea is a staff writer with Canadian Social Trends.


#### Abstract

\section*{-}


# WOMEN IN SCHOOL ADMIIISTRATION 

by Sandra Cusson

While women continue to make up the majority of public school teachers, they remain under-represented among administrative staff in public elementary and secondary schools. However, women have made moderate gains in administrative positions since the 1970s. As well, once in the administrative ranks, women earn almost the same as their male counterparts.

## Few female administrators

Women hold only a small proportion of administrative jobs in public schools. In the 1985-86 academic year, women made up just $15 \%$ of principals and vice-principals in these schools, despite the fact that the majority of teachers - $57 \%$ - were women.

Female administrators are in the minority at both the elementary and secondary levels. In 1985-86,20\% of all elementary school principals and vice-principals were women, compared with $72 \%$ of teachers at this level. At the same time, just $9 \%$ of secondary school principals and viceprincipals were women, whereas women accounted for $35 \%$ of teachers in these schools.

## Small increases

Women's representation in public school administration has increased slightly since the late 1970s, In 1985-86, $17 \%$ of elementary school principals were women, up from $15 \%$ in 1979-80. Over the same period, women's share of elementary viceprincipal jobs rose from $20 \%$ to $26 \%$.

At the secondary level, women accounted for $6 \%$ of principals in 1985-86, up from $4 \%$ in 1979-80; their share of viceprincipal positions rose from $8 \%$ to $12 \%$.

## Similar education; slightly less experience

The academic qualifications of women and men in public school administration are similar. In fact, at the high school level, a somewhat higher percentage of women than men in administrative positions hold


## CANADIAN SOCTAL <br>  <br> Women as a percentage of public school administrators and teachers, 1985-861

Elementary
Secondary


[^2]
## Women in teaching

While teaching has long been dominated by women, their share of jobs in this profession varied considerably during the last century

At the time of Confederation, fewer than half of all full-time staff in public schools in Canada were women. Over the next five decades, however, women accounted for almost all the growth in the number of teachers, as teaching was the must aecessible profession for women wishing to pursue a career. As a result, by $1920.83 \%$ of teachers were women.
since then, the proportion of female teachers has fallen. largely because of the entry of a relatively large number of men into the teaching ranks. Consequently, women's share of full-time positions in public schools had fallen to $55 \%$ by 1980 . The figure remained around that level through the first half of the 1980 s, during which time the numher of both male and female teachers declined. There were $4 \%$ fewer male teachers in the system in 1985 than in 1980 , while the number of women fell by just under $3 \%$.

Several differences exist between the qualifications and experience of female and male teachers in public schools.

Female elementary school teachers tend to be less qualified academically than their male colleagues. However, women and men teaching at this level have about the same number of years of classroom experience.

In $1985-86,69 \%$ of female teachers in elementary schools had at least a bachelor's degree, compared with $90 \%$ of men. And while just $5 \%$ of women teaching in these schools had either a master's or doctoral degree, the proportion for men was $16 \%$.

Women and men teaching in elementary schools in 1985-86 each averaged about 13.5 years of teaching experience. although a slightly smaller proportion of female ( $63 \%$ ) than of male ( $70 \%$ ) staff had been teaching for 12 or more years.

At the secondary level, a greater proportion of female than of male teachers are university graduates. However, women teaching at this level are less likely to have a postgraduate degree, and they generally have less experience than their male counterparts. In $1985.86,94 \%$ of female high school educators had at least a bachelor's degree, compared with $90 \%$ of men. Only $11 \%$ of female high school teachers, though, had a master's or doctoral degree, compared with $17 \%$ of their male colleagues.

Women teaching in high schools in $1985-86$ had been doing so for an average of 12 years, compared with 15 years for men. Also that year, a much lower proportion of female than male high school teachers had 12 or more years of experience in the classroom: $58 \%$ compared with $77 \%$.

CANAO:AN
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Full-time staff in public schools, by sex, 1867-1985


Source: Statistics Canada, Education. Cutiure and Tourism Division.
postgraduate credentials. In 1985-86, 46\% of female administrators in secondary schools had a master's or doctoral degree, whereas the figure for male administrators was $43 \%$. On the other hand, a slightly smaller proportion of female than male administrators in elementary schools had a master's or doctoral degree. In 1985-86, $41 \%$ of women in these administrative jobs had a postgraduate degree, compared with $46 \%$ of men.

Women in public school administration, though, tend to have somewhat less experience in the school system than thetr mate counterparts. In 1985-86, female administrators at both the elementary and secondary levels had an average of about three years less experience than the men.

## Salaries roughly equal

Salaries of female public school administrators are almost the same as those of men in similar positions. In 1985-86, the average annual salary of female elementary school principals with 12 or more years of experience was $96 \%$ that of men with the same experience; at the secondary level, the corresponding proportion was $97 \%$.

The discrepancy between the salaries of female and male school administrators was less in 1985-86 than in the early 1970s. In 1972-73, the average salary of femate principals with 12 or more years of experience was $91 \%$ that of comparable men at the elementary level, and $88 \%$ at the secondary level.

Also, while salary differences are small among those who have considerable years of experience, they disappear completely for female and male principals with fewer than 12 years of experience.

## Different school sizes

Women are more likely to be administrators in small schools than in larger ones at the elementary level, while the opposite is true at the secondary level.

In 1985-86, women made up $35 \%$ of principals and vice-principals in elementary schools with fewer than 100 students, but only $20 \%$ of those in schools with more than 100 students.

By contrast, at the high school level, women accounted for $15 \%$ of administrators in schools with 1,000 or more students, $12 \%$ of those in schools with 400 1,000 students, and $10 \%$ in schools with enrolment under 400 .

Sandra Cusson is an analyst with tbe Census and Demograpbic Statistics Branch. Statistics Canada.

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# PEOPLE IN CO.OPERATIVE HOUSING 

by Mary Anne Burke



Although there is a concentration of low and moderate income Canadians in co－ operatives，households are diverse with respect to income，as well as household and family type，age，education，and occu－ pation．In 1986，people most likely to experience housing affordability problems were well－represented in co－operative housing．Thus，young families，families with young children，lone－parent families， families headed by women，low－income families，recent immigrants，members of visible minorities，low－income individuals， and women over age 55 living alone were well－represented in co－operatives．While proportionately more co－operative house－ holds were in affordable housing than their rental counterparts，some co－operative members still spent a large share of their income on housing．

## Family housing

Co－operative housing，for the most part， is family housing．In 1986，nearly three－ quarters（ $72 \%$ ）of co－operative units housed families．This compared with $54 \%$ of rental and $84 \%$ of owner－occupied dwellings．Non－family households occupied just $27 \%$ of co－operative units， compared with $45 \%$ of rental and $15 \%$ of owner households．

## A younger population

People in co－operatives tend to be relatively young．In $1986,65 \%$ of household maintainers in co－operatives were under age 45 ，compared with $62 \%$ of rental and $45 \%$ of owner households． At the other end of the age spectrum， $13 \%$ of co－operative maintainers were aged 65 and over，compared with $17 \%$ of renters and $19 \%$ of private owners．

## More lone parents

Lone－parent families make up a large pro－ portion of co－operative households．In $1986,30 \%$ of co－operative families were headed by a lone parent，compared with $24 \%$ of renter and just $8 \%$ of owner families．

Women head the majority of all lone－ parent families．However，they are more likely to maintain lone－parent families in co－operatives．Women headed $92 \%$ of lone－parent families in co－operatives in 1986，compared with $88 \%$ in rental and $67 \%$ in privately owned accommodations．

Female lone parents in co－operatives are younger than their renter and owner counterparts．In 1986， $77 \%$ of female lone parents in co－operatives were under age 44 ，compared with $75 \%$ of renter and just $41 \%$ of owner female lone parents．

## More families with children

Families in co－operatives are more likely than other Canadian families to have children．While $69 \%$ of co－operative husband－wife families had children living at home in 1986，comparable figures were $51 \%$ for renter and $66 \%$ for owner husband－wife families．

Relatively few families in co－operatives， however，are large．In part，this may reflect the younger age distribution of the co－ operative population，as well as the typically
small size of the housing units．Only $12 \%$ of husband－wife families in co－operatives had three or more children in 1986，com－ pared with $20 \%$ in rental housing and $16 \%$ in privately owned housing．Similarly，large families were less common among lone－ parent families in co－operatives．Just 9\％ of co－operative lone parents had three or more children，compared with $13 \%$ of renter and $14 \%$ of owner families．

Children in co－operatives are younger than those in privately owned housing．


Source：Statistics Canada， 1986 Census of Canada．

## CANADIALN <br> リトリホNロ <br> Proportion of all families headed by lone parents，by tenure， 1986



[^3]but of similar age to those in rental housing. In 1986, $71 \%$ of children living in co-operatives and $70 \%$ in rental accommodations were under age 15 , compared with $58 \%$ in privately owned housing. On the other hand, $17 \%$ of co-operative children were aged 18 and over, compared with $19 \%$ in rental housing and $27 \%$ in privately owned housing.

## Women living alone

Most people living alone are women. This is particularly so in co-operatives. In 1986, $67 \%$ of people living alone in co operatives were women, compared with $59 \%$ of both renters and owners living alone. This tendency is more pronounced at older ages. For example, at ages 55-64, women accounted for $81 \%$ of people
living alone in co-operatives, compared with $63 \%$ of both renters and owners living alone. Among those aged 65 and over, the figures were $83 \%$ for cooperatives, $81 \%$ for renters, and $74 \%$ for owners.

## More immigrants

A relatively high percentage of co-operative members are immigrants. Nearly a quarter ( $24 \%$ ) of those living in co-operatives in 1986 were immigrants, compared with $16 \%$ for the Canadian population.
Many immigrants living in co-operatives have recently arrived in Canada and settled into co-operatives after an initial period of acculturation. In 1986, $23 \%$ of immigrants in co-operatives had been in Canada 4 to 8 years, whereas this was the

Percentige distibution of chithen living at houme, by age of chlldren and tenure of dwelling, 1986

| Age of children | Co-operative <br> owners | Renlers | Private <br> owners |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\%$ |  |
| Under age 6 | 31 | 33 | 22 |
| $6-14$ | 40 | 37 | 36 |
| 15.17 | 12 | 11 | 13 |
| 18.24 | 13 | 14 | 21 |
| 25 and over | 4 | 5 | 7 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Consus of Canada.


Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.
maintainers had completed less than Grade 9, compared with $3 \%$ of renters and $5 \%$ of owners. Likewise, $26 \%$ of cooperative maintainers aged $65-74$ had completed less than Grade 9, compared with $43 \%$ of renters and $40 \%$ of owners in the same age group.

## Higher labour force activity

People living in co-operatives generally are more likely to participate in the labour force than Canadians overall. While 70\% of co-operative members aged 15 and over were in the labour force in 1986, the figure for the total Canadian population was $66 \%$.

At the same time, unemployment levels of co-operative members are slightly higher than those of other Canadians. In 1986, 12\% of people in co-operatives were unemployed, compared with $10 \%$ of the overall Canadian labour force. Since unemployment levels tend to be higher among younger age groups, the young age distribution in co-operatives may account for some of the difference.

## More working parents

Compared with both owner and renter families, proportionately more spouses in co-operative families are in the labour force. While both spouses in $63 \%$ of co-
operative husband-wife families were in the labour force in 1986, the proportion was $57 \%$ for comparable renter families and $53 \%$ for husband-wife owner families.

Among lone parents, differences in labour force participation rates are even greater. In co-operatives, $79 \%$ of all lone parents were in the labour force in 1986, compared with just $60 \%$ of renter lone parents and $63 \%$ of owner lone parents.

## Occupation

Household maintainers in co-operatives, like both renter and owner maintainers, have diverse occupations. Clerical jobs were the most common occupation

among co-operative household maintainers. This is not surprising, given that women, who traditionally have been employed predominantly in clerical positions, maintain a large proportion of cooperative households.
In 1986, 17\% of household maintainers in co-operatives had clerical occupations, compared with $12 \%$ of renters and $7 \%$ of owners. Managerial occupations accounted for the next largest group of co-operative maintainers. In 1986, 15\% of household maintainers in co-operatives fell into this group, compared with $13 \%$ of renter and $12 \%$ of owner houschold maintainers.
Professional ( $8 \%$ ), service ( $8 \%$ ), and product fabricating ( $7 \%$ ) occupations were the next most common occupational groups in co-operatives, followed by sales ( $5 \%$ ), processing ( $4 \%$ ), construction ( $3 \%$ ). and primary occupations ( $1 \%$ ).

## Ancome

Many co-operative households are below Statistics Canada's low-income cutoffs In $1985,25 \%$ of family house holds and $40 \%$. of people living alone in co-operatives had low incomes. This compared with $33 \%$ of families and $41 \%$ of people tiving alone in rental situations, and $10 \%$ of families and $32 \%$ of people living alone in owneroccupied dwellings.

In co-operatives, however, people with low incomes are well integrated with people from all income levels. In 1985, $42 \%$ of co-operative households had incomes below $\$ 20,000$, compared with $50 \%$ of rental and $30 \%$ of owner house-
holds. At the same time, $38 \%$ of cooperative households, compared with $34 \%$ of both renter and owner households, had incomes between $\$ 20,000$ and $\$ 39,999$. Another $21 \%$ of co-operative households, compared with $16 \%$ of renter and $44 \%$ of owner households, had incomes above $\$ 40,000$.

Income is closely associated with life cycle stage and household type. People at either end of the age spectrum tend to have the lowest incomes. Women living alone and lone-parent families, particularly those headed by women, also tend to have

## Co-operative ownership

The Co-operative Housing Program Was officially created by the federal government in 1973. when the National Housing Act was amended to allow mortgage financing for cooperatives

In 1989, there were almost 61,000 housing units in 1,560 not-for-profit continuing co-operatives under federal and provincial housing programs. While this was up from almost 23.000 units in 1981 and only 2,000 in 1973, co-operatives still accounted for just $0.6 \%$ of all Canadian housing units in 1989.

The growth of this type of housing is discussed in more detail in the article, "Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form," by Mary Anne Burke in the Spring 1990 issue of Canadian Social Trends.

## Percentage distribution of hausthold maintainers, by cecupation and tenure of dwelling, 1986

|  | Co-operative <br> owners | Reniers | Private <br> owners |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Professional | 8 | $\%$ |  |
| Managerial | 15 | 7 | 13 |
| Clerical | 17 | 13 | 12 |
| Sales | 5 | 12 | 7 |
| Service | 8 | 6 | 6 |
| Primary | 1 | 10 | 6 |
| Processing | 4 | 2 | 4 |
| Product fabricating | 7 | 4 | 6 |
| Construction | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| Other | 32 | 36 | 7 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 32 |

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.
low incomes. In co-operatives, the income distribution by age and household type follows the expected pattern, slightly above renter but below owner households, with one exception. That is, people living alone in co-operatives tend to have lower incomes than both their renter and owner counterparts. For example, $92 \%$ of people under age 25 living alone in cooperatives had incomes below $\$ 20,000$ compared with $84 \%$ of comparable renters and $65 \%$ of owners. Similarly, $80 \%$ of people aged $55-64$ living alone in co-operatives (typically women) had incomes below $\$ 20,000$, compared with $72 \%$ of comparable renters and $62 \%$ of owners.

## Affordable housing

Houscholds paying $30 \%$ or more of their income on shelter costs have a potential housing affordability problem. Cooperative houscholds are less likely than renter households to be in this situation. In fact, the percentage of co-operative household income spent on shelter more closely resembles owner- than renteroccupied households. In 1986, just 18\% of one-family co-operative households spent more than $30 \%$ of their income on shelter, compared with $30 \%$ of renter and $12 \%$ of owner one-family households.

## About the data

The data in this study are from the 1986 Census of Canada. Cooperative households in the Census were identified using individual postal codes. Overall, 19,980 units, or $41 \%$ of co-operative units in 1986, were covered in the study. Co-operatives included were most typically large, urban co-operatives, primarily from Ontario westward.

Most rural, small, and geographically scattered cooperatives could not be identified by postal code, and were therefore excluded. Since the majority of cooperatives in the Arlantic provinces and Quebec fit this description, a large share of these co-operatives were excluded from the study.

To reduce this bias, data were weighted to reflect the provincial distribution of co-operatives in Canada.

Mary Anne Burke is an Associate Eiditor with Canadian Social Trends.


## Large families down

One of the most striking aspects of the changing composition of Canadian families has been the decline in the proportion of families with a large number of children. In 1986, just $14 \%$ of husbandwife families had three or more children at home, down considerably from $32 \%$ in 1966.

There was an especially sharp decline in the share of families with five or more children. In 1986, only $1 \%$ of husbandwife families had this many children living at home, down from $9 \%$ in 1966 .

The decline in the percentage of families with at least three children occurred regardless of the husband's age. The steepest drop was among families in which the husband was under 35 . In 1986, $10 \%$ of these families had three or more children: twenty years earlier, the proportion had been $28 \%$.

## More small families

sunce the baby-boom years, families with one or two children living at home have become more common. In 1986, 22\% of husband-wife families had one child, and $27 \%$ had two children. These figures were up from $18 \%$ and $21 \%$, respectively, in 1966 .

Increases in the proportion of small families occurred in all age groups. However, the most striking increase was among families with the husband aged 35 44 . In $1986,61 \%$ of these families had either one or two children, up from $37 \%$ in 19 (x).

## No children at home

The percentage of families without children at home has also risen in the last two decades. Such families accounted for $37 \%$ of all husband-wife families in 1986 , up from $29 \%$ in 1966.

Families with no children at home include all couples who have chosen to remain childless as well as younger couples who have not yet had children and older couples who have reached the cmpty-nest stage.

While the proportion of families with no children has risen among couples at all ages, the increase was particularly large among young families. The proportion of couples with the husband under age 35 , who had no children, rose to $36 \%$ in 1986 from $21 \%$ in 1966.

Over the same period, the proportion of families without children at home rose from $8 \%$ to $13 \%$ among couples with the husband aged $35-44$, and from 19\% to $23 \%$ in families with the husband aged 45.54.

## SSOCIÅAN Husband-wife families, by number of children at home, <br> 1073185 1941-19861

\% of families
40 -


${ }^{1}$ Data for 1941-1966 include only children under age 25. Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.
hushand-wite familiet, by number of children at heme and age of hushand, 1966 and 1986

| Age of husband | Number of children |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Ment |  | One |  | Twe |  | Three ar mere |  |
|  | 1966 | 1986 | 1966 | 1986 | 1966 | 1986 | 1966 | 1988 |
|  | \% |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Less than 35 | 21 | 36 | 25 | 26 | 26 | 28 | 28 | 10 |
| 35-44 | 8 | 13 | 12 | 17 | 25 | 44 | 55 | 26 |
| 45-54 | 19 | 23 | 20 | 26 | 23 | 31 | 38 | 20 |
| 55 and over | 67 | 69 | 16 | 19 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 4 |
| Total | 29 | 37 | 18 | 22 | 21 | 27 | 32 | 14 |

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The families least likely to include children are those in which the husband is aged 55 and over. In 1986, 69\% of families with the husband in this age range had no children living at home; this was up only slightly from $67 \%$ in 1966.

## Wide provincial variations

The number of children per husband-wife family varies across the country. Families are generally more likely to be large in the Atlantic region, while they are more likely to have no children living at home in British Columbia.

In 1986, the proportions of families with three or more children were highest in Newfoundland and Prince Edward 1sland, at $24 \%$ and $21 \%$, respectively. As well, figures were relatively high in New

Brunswick ( $17 \%$ ) and Nova Scotia ( $16 \%$ ). Saskatchewan also had a high proportion of large families. In 1986, 18\% of husband-wife families in Saskatchewan had at least three children.

On the other hand, just $13 \%$ of families in Quebec and $12 \%$ in British Columbia had three or more chlldren. In the remaining provinces, the percentage was around $15 \%$.

Couples with no children at home were most common in British Columbia, where they accounted for $43 \%$ of all husband-

I A family consists of a husband and wife, with or without never-married children of any age living at home, or a lone parent with one or more never-married children at home. Other relatives living in the same household are not included in this concept of family.

## Births

The decline of large families reflects fertility patterns during the last quarter century.

The annual number of births in 1986 was 373,000 , down from almost 480,000 in the late 1950 s and early 1960 s.

The number of births per woman aged 15-49 dropped even more dramatically. From 3.9 in 1959, the rate fell to 1.7 in 1986. In fact, since 1972 the fertility rate in Canada has been below the replacement level of 2.1 .

This decrease in fertility is particularly evident in the proportion of births that are the mother's third or subsequent child. In 1986, just $21 \%$ of births were a third or later child. By contrast, in 1960, the figure had been $52 \%$.

## cANADIAN <br> SOCCAL Births per woman aged 15-49, 1941-1986

Number
$3.0-$
1.0 -


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84.205.


Proportion of husband-wife familles with three or more children, by province, 1986


Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.
wife families. The figure was also relatively high in Manitoba and Saskatchewan (both $39 \%$ ). By contrast, at just $24 \%$, Newfoundland had the lowest percentage of couples with no children at home.

## Lone parents

L.one-parent families tend to have fewer children than husband-wife families that have children. In 1986, more than half ( $57 \%$ ) of lone-parent families had only one child, whereas the figure for husbandwife families was about a third ( $35 \%$ )

In contrast, $30 \%$ of lone-parent families had two children at home in 1986, compared with $43 \%$ of husband-wife families. And while $13 \%$ of lone-parent families had three or more children in 1986, the proportion for husband-wife families was $23 \%$

Mary Sue Devereaux is a Managing Editor uith Canadian Social Trends.

## SOCIAL INDICATORS

|  | 1782 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 198? | 1988 | 1484 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| POPULATION |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Canada, June $1(000 \mathrm{~s}$ ) | 24,583.1 | 24,787.2 | 24,978.2 | 25,165.4 | 25.353.0 | 25,617.3 | 25,909.2 | 26,223.2 |
| Alriual growth (\%) | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.2 |
| Immigration ${ }^{1}$ | 134,920 | 105,286 | 87,504 | 84.062 | 88.051 | 125,696 | 152,285 | 161,024 |
| Emigration' | 45,338 | 50,249 | 48,826 | 46,252 | 44.816 | 51.040 | 40,528 | 37.314 |
| FAMILY |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 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 | 3.1 | * |
| Families experiencing unemployment (000s) | 984 | 1.066 | 1.039 | 990 | 915 | 872 | 789 | 776 |
| 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 unemptoyment (000s) | 1.308 | 1,434 | 1,384 | 1,311 | 1,215 | 1.150 | 1.031 | 1,018 |
| Unemptorment 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 paricipation 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 lamily income | 30,110 | 30,986 | 32,739 | 34.736 | 36,858 | 38.851 | 41.238 | - |
| \% of tamilies with low income | 12.6 | 13.8 | 13.9 | 12.6 | 11.8 | 11.3 | 10.5 | - |
| Wornen's tull time eamings as a \% of men's | 64.0 | 64.6 | 65.6 | 64.9 | 65.8 | 65.9 | 65.3 | * |
| EDUCATION |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Elementary and secondary enroiment (000s) | 4,994.0 | 4,974.9 | 4.946 .1 | 4.927 .8 | 4,938.0 | 4,972.9 | 5,024.1 | * |
| Full time postsecondary enroment ( 000 s ) | 722.0 | 766.7 | 782.8 | 789.8 | 796.9 | 805.4 | 817.1 | $836.6{ }^{\circ}$ |
| Doctoral degrees awarded | 1,713 | 1,821 | 1,878 | 2.000 | 2,218 | 2,384 | 2.415 | . |
| Govermment expendifures on education as a \% of GDP | 6.2 | 6.2 | 5.8 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 5.6 | 5.4 | . |
| HEALTH |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| \% if 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 | - |
| Govermment expendifures on heath as a \% of GDP | 5.8 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 5.9 | - |
| HUSTHCE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Crime rates (per 100,000) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| - violent | 685 | 692 | 714 | 749 | 808 | 856 | 898 | $949{ }^{\text {p }}$ |
| - property | 5,955 | 5.717 | 5,607 | 5,560 | 5.714 | 5.731 | 5,630 | $5.517^{\circ}$ |
| - homicide | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.2 | $2.5{ }^{\text {p }}$ |

## GOVERNMENT

Expeudiures on social programmes ${ }^{2}$

| (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 | * |
| Ul beneticiaries ( 000 s ) | 3,123.1 | 3,396.1 | 3.221 .9 | 3,181.5 | 3.136 .7 | 3.079 .9 | 3,016.4 | 3,025.2 |
| DAS/GIS beneticiaries ${ }^{\text {m }}$ (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 (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 | $+4.8$ | +3.3 | +4.0 | +4.4 | +3.0 |
| 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 | 183.323 |

[^4]For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you

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[^0]:    I The World Health Organization defines a disability as "any restriction or lack of ability resulting from impairment to perform an activity in the manner, or within the range, considered normal.

[^1]:    Source: Statistics Canada, Calalogue 71-201

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Excludes Quebec and British Columbia.
    Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-202.

[^3]:    Sources：Statistics Canada．Catahogue $93-107$ and 1986 Census of Canada．

[^4]:    Not available - Not yet available ${ }^{\text {P Preliminary estimates }}{ }^{m}$ Figures as of March.
    ${ }^{1}$ For year ending May 31 st.
    ${ }^{2}$ Includes Protection of Persons and Property: Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Cuture.

