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AIDS IN CANADA $\square$ CANCER TRENDS $\square$ VIOLENT CRIME

# A JOURNEY OF 1000 MILES BEGINS WITH A SINGLE STEP 




Cover: Tadoussac, by Charles Fraser Comfort, $0 . C$., is a depiction of the harbour of the Saguenay River. Mr. Comfort reduced the subject to basic geometric form, the houses into box-like shapes and the remaining landscape into a series of arcs. ${ }^{-}$Charles F. Comfort, O.C.; National Gallery of Canada.

## About the artist:

Chartes F. Comfort, 0.C., was born in 1900 in Edinburgh, Scotland. Tweive years later, he and his family moved to Canada and settled in Winnipeg. After studying at the Winnipeg School of Art, he continued his training in New York, returning to Canada in the early 1920 s. During his career, he lectured at the University of Toronto, went to Europe during World War II as the Senior Official War Artist, and was Director of the National Gallery of Canada from 1960 to 1965. He is best known for his brilfiant water colours, as well as his large mufals.

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CONTENTS |  | LIBRAPY |  |
| AIDS in Canada by Carol Strike |  | BIBLIOTHEQUE | 2 |
| Women Teaching at Canadian Universities by Judith Hollands |  |  | 5 |
| Trends in Cancer Since 1970 by Leslie Gaudette and Georgia Roberts |  |  | 8 |
| The Film Industry in Canada by Carol Strike |  |  | 14 |
| Annual Update on Labour Force Trends by David Gower |  |  | 17 |
| Travel within Canada by Laurie McDougall |  |  | 21 |
| Violent Crime <br> by Holly Johnson |  |  | 24 |
| Employment of Disabled Canadians by David Gower |  |  | 30 |
| Loss of Prime Agricultural Land: The Example of Southern Ontario by Mary Anne Burke |  |  | 33 |
| Social indicators |  |  | 35 |
| Annual Index of Articles - See Winter Issue, Outside Back Cover |  |  |  |
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| Associate Editor and Marketing Manager <br> Mary Anne Burke |  |  |  |
| Associste Edtor and Production Manager <br> Jo-Anne Parliament |  |  |  |
| Production Co-ordinator | Chery Sarazin |  |  |
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Women Teaching at Canadian Universities ..... 5
Trends in Cancer Since 1970 ..... 8
The Film Industry in Canada ..... 14
Annual Update on Labour Force Trends ..... 17by David Gower
by Laurie McDougall
by Holly Johnson
Employment of Disabled Canadians ..... 30Loss of Prime Agricultural Land:The Example of Southern Ontario33by Mary Anne Burke35
Annual Index of Articles - See Winter Issue, Outside Back Cover

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# AIDS IN CANADA 

by Carol Strike

Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome, or AIDS, continues to represent a formidable challenge to Canadian society. AIDS is primarily a sexually transmitted disease caused by the Human Immunodeficiency Virus(HIV). This infection may result in development of life-threatening opportunistic infections and/or malignancies. While research for a cure or vaccine is ongoing, and education programs highlighting the dangers of this disease have been developed and introduced both to the public and in schools, the total number of cases of AIDS in Canada continues to increase.

## AIDS cases and deaths

The first AIDS case in Canada was diagnosed in 1979; by the end of 1987, a total of 1,654 cases had been documented. ${ }^{1}$

A record number of new AIDS cases (615) were diagnosed in Canada in 1987. In fact, this figure was over $28 \%$ higher than the number of new cases diagnosed the previous year. As a result, the total number of AIDS cases in Canada rose $59 \%$ in 1987. This overall rate of growth, however, was down from 1986, when there had been an $86 \%$ increase. As well, by the end of 1987 , 963 people in Canada had died from AlDS, Individuals can carry the HIV for an indefinite period without developing either

All data in this article are from the Federal Centre for AIDS, a branch of Health and Welfare Canada. In September 1987, the Federal Centre for AIDS accepted a revision proposed by the U.S. Center for Disease Conirol and broadened the criteria for an AIDS diagnosis. The new criteria will be applied to cases not previously identified as AIDS that occurred before this date. The resulting reclassification of some of these cases as AIDS may increase the total number of reported cases of this disease

the illnesses characteristic of AIDS, or any of the symptoms of the infection. The Federal Centre for AIDS has estimated, for example, that about 30,000 people in Canada carry the HIV. Current evidence suggests that around $35 \%$ of carriers will develop AIDS within six years of infection. The Federal Centre for AIDS has projected that by the end of 1991 , between 4,0000 and 7,000 people in Canada will have been diagnosed as having AIDS.

## Major risk factors for AIDS

The mapority of AIDS patients have been homosexual or bisexual men. This group made up $80 \%$ of all cases through the end of 1987, as well as $84 \%$ of new pratients in 1987.
People from countries where the HIV is widespread made up the second largest group of AlDS patients. Through $1987,5 \%$ of all cases were in this category, with most likely acquiring the infection through sexual activity.
Intravenous ( $1 . \mathrm{V}$ ) drug abusers made up $3 \%$ of the total number of AIDS cases. Of these, $2.5 \%$ were also homosexuals or bisexuals, while the remaining $0.6 \%$ were people with no other risk factor.

Recipients of blood transfusions or other blood producis made up another $5 \%$ of all AIDS patients, while heterosexuals who contracted the HIV infection through sexual contact with someone in a high risk group made up $2 \%$ of all cases. In another $3 \%$ of cases, risk factors were not identified.

In addition, $2 \%$ of AIDS patients have been children under age 15. Through 1987, 33 such cases had been reported. In 29 of these calses, transmission was from mother


10 ferus; the others contracted the infection through transfusions received prior to the implementation of universal testing of blood donors.

## Additional risk factors: age and sex

Men aged $20-49$ make up the vast majority of AIDS patients. Through 1987,83\% of all those diagnosed with AIDS were men in this age range. Men aged $30-39$ had the highest cumulative incidence of AIDS, with 38 cases per 100,000 men in this age group. Men aged 40-is) and 2029 also hatel higher

than average rates: 24 and 13 cases per 100,000 population, respectively.

Men aged 50 and over had a cumulative AIDS rate of 5 cases per 100,000 population. In no other group did the AIDS rate exceed 1.5

## Most AIDS cases in three provinces

AIDS cases in Canada are concentrated in three provinces - Ontario, Quebec, and

## Public perception of AIDS

Public awareness of AIDS in Canada was measured by Environics Research in a 1987 focus Canada Report poll. Answers to the question, "Have you heard of the disease AIDS?" indicated that virtually all Canadians ( $99 \%$ ) were aware of AIDS. In addition, the survey results suggested that most Canadians view AlDs as a serious problem. To the question, "Do you think that the disease AIDS is a very serious, somewhat serious, not very serious or not at all serious problem in Canada today?", almost $80 \%$ responded that it was a very serious problem. This was up from 1985 , when only $56 \%$ of Canadians rated AIDS a very serious problem.

Perception of the seriousness of AIDS generally increases with age For example, $85 \%$ of people aged 60 and over regarded AlDS as a very serious disease compared with $74 \%$ of those aged 20-29. Married people $(81 \%)$ were also more likely than single people ( $74 \%$ ) to regard AIDS as a very serious problem.

Concern about AIDS exiends to specific issues. For example, the Decima Quarterly Report asked Canadians the following question in 1987:

In determining the cost and availability of life insurance, life insurance companies might feel it is necessary for a person applying for life insurance to take medical tests for various diseases like AlDS Would you strongly approve, approve, disapprove or strongly disapprove ol life insurance companies requiring applicants to take such medical tests if they feel it was necessary?"

In response, $16 \%$ of those surveved strongly approved resting. $57 \%$ approved, $20 \%$ disapproved, and $7 \%$ strongly disapproved. Only $1 \%$ had no opinion.


## (1)

## AIDS in Canada in an intemational perspective

The incidence of AIDS is much lower in Canada than in the United States. By the end of 1987, almost 50,000 cases had been reported in the United states. When expressed on a per capita basis, the incidence of AIDS was more than three times higher in the U.S. than in Canada.

For the most part, though, AIDS patients in Canada and the United States have similar characteristics. In both countries, most patients are men between the ages of 20 and 49 , with those aged $30-39$ having, by far, the highest cumulative rates.

Homosexual or bisexual men also account for the majority of AIDS cases in both countries, although their share
is greater in Canada ( $80 \%$ ) than in the United States ( $65 \%$ ). Intravenous drug abusers, including homosexual or bisexual drug abusers, make up a much greater proportion of AIDS victims in the United States. Through $1987,25 \%$ of American AIDS patients compared with just $3 \%$ of those in Canada were I.V. drug abusers.

As in Canada, AlDS in the United States is regionally concentrated. Just two states, California and New York, account for almost half of all U.S. cases.

On the other hand, the incidence of AIDS in Canada is roughly similar to that in European countries.


British Columbia. Through 1987, these provinces, representing about $73 \%$ of the Canadian population, accounted for $89 \%$ of all AIDS cases. As well, $87 \%$ of new cases diagnosed in 1987 occurred in these provinces.

British Columbia had the highest cumulative rate of AIDS of any province. Through 1987, 10.9 AIDS cases had been diagnosed in British Columbia for every 100,000 residents of that province.

Quebec and Ontario also had very high cumulative AIDS rates. Through 1987, there were 7.8 AIDS cases per 100,000 population in Quebec and 6.9 in Ontario. Trends in these two provinces, however, took different directions in 1987. The number of new cases rose $46 \%$ in Ontario; in contrast, the number of new cases in Quebec was almost the same in 1987 as in the previous year.

With a rate of 3.9 . Alberta was the only other province in which the cumulative incidence of AlDS was over 3.5 cases per 100,000 population. Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories both reported their first AIDS case in 1987, while the Yukon had yet to report a case through the end of 1987.

Note: As of May 9, 1988, 1,737 cases of AIDS had been reported in Canada.

Carol Strike is a staff writer with Canadian Social Trends.

# WOMEN TEACHING AT CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES 

by Judith Hollands

canadian universities have experienced phenomenal growth in the past twenty-five years. In this period, thousands of new teaching positions were created. many of which have been filled by women. ${ }^{1}$ However, while women entered this profession at a more rapid rate than men, they remain a minority in Canadian university faculties. As well, they tend io be concentrated in the lower academic ranks, and at all ranks, are paid less than men.

## Large proportional increases

The number of women teaching fill-timein Canadian universities rose from fewer than 750 in 1960 to almost 6,000 in 1985. This was an increase of $713 \%$. In the same period, the number of male university teachers rose $410 \%$, from 5,700 to 29,200 .
Most of the growth in the number of both male and female university teachers occurred berween 1960 and 1975 when the baby-boom population flooded into Canadian universities. During this period, female faculty increased $487 \%$, compared with $363 \%$ for male faculty
The number of women teaching in Canadian unjversities continued to rise more rapidly than the number of men in the late 1970s and 1980s, although increases for both in this period were considerably below those of the previous decade and a half. Between 1975 and 1985 , the number of women teaching at the university level rose $39 \%$ while the number of men increased just $10 \%$.

Despite the relatively large proportional increases in the number of women teaching at Canadian universities, women remain a minority in this profession. In 1985, they made up just $17 \%$ of all full-time university

[^0]
teachers; this was a gain of only 6 percentage points from 1960 when $11 \%$ of fulltime faculty were women

## Women a minority in all disciplines

The majority of both male and female university teachers are employed in four broad fields of study: social sciences, health sciences, humanities, and education. A considerably higher proportion of female than male faculty, though, are concentrated in these disciplines. In 1985, $81 \%$ of all female faculty (compared with $64 \%$ of men) taught in one of these fields.

Women, however, are a minority in all disciplines. In 1985, their share of all fulltime positions ranged from roughly onequarter of those in education (26\%), health sciences ( $24 \%$ ), and fine and applied arts ( $24 \%$ ) to just $6 \%$ of those in mathematics and physical sciences, and $2 \%$ of those in engineering and applied sciences. In addition, $21 \%$ of teachers in humanities, $17 \%$ of those in biological sciences, and $16 \%$ of those in social sciences were women.

The number of women as a percentage of all teachers has risen in each of these dis. ciplines in the last decade. The largest in creases, over four percentage points, were in social sciences, humanities, and fine and applied arts. The smallest increase, just one percentage point, occurred in biological sciences.

The wide range in the proportion of women teaching in various academic fields reflects, in part, that women are more likely to earn graduate degrees in some disciplines than in others. In 1986, for example, just over half ( $51 \%$ ) of all doctoral degree recipients in education were women, as were more than a third of those in social sciences ( $37 \%$ ), health professions ( $35 \%$ ), and humanities ( $34 \%$ ). Women's representation among doctoral graduates, however, was considerably lower in biological sciences ( $23 \%$ ), mathematics and physical sciences ( $15 \%$ ), and, especially, engineering and applied sciences ( $3 \%$ ).

## More women teachers in lower academic ranks

Generally, women teaching at Canadian universities make up a much greater proportion of all full-time faculty in the lower academic ranks than they do at higher levels. In 1985, women made up $44 \%$ of lecturers and instructors and $29 \%$ of assistant professors. In comparison, only $16 \%$ of associate professors and just $6 \%$ of full professors were women

As well, women's share of full professorships in 1985 was just 2 percentage points higher than in 1960 when $4 \%$ of full pro-
fessors were women. In the same period, the proportion of associate professors who were women increased 6 percentage points, while the figure rose 17 points for assistant professors and 20 points for lecturers and instructors.

The slow movement of women into the higher academic ranks may be attributable, in part, to the generally long time lag between entry into university teaching and attainment of full or associate professor
status. Because the entry of large numbers of women into Canadian university faculties occurred only recently, a large proportion of them have not yet had time to acquire the seniority necessary to advance into the higher ranks.

## Fewer female faculty with doctoral degrees

Another reason why women are concentrated in the lower academic ranks is that fewer female than male teachers have

doctoral degrees. In 1985, 47\% of all female faculty compared with $69 \%$ of male teachers had doctorates. The difference in qualifications, however, has been closing. In 1975, 34\% of female faculty members had doctoral degrees compared with $62 \%$ of male teachers.
A much smaller proportion of female than male university teachers with doctorates, though, are full professors. In 1985, just 20\% of all female teachers with doctorates compared with $47 \%$ of similarly educated male teachers were full professors. Again. much of this difference may be attribuable to differences in experience and senority.

## Women's salaries lower

The concentration of female faculty in the lower academic ranks is reflected in lower median salaries for women teaching at Canadian universities. In 1985, the median salary of full-time female teachers was $\$ 41,300$, about $\$ 10,000$ less than the median salary for men $(\$ 51,400)$.

As well, the median salary of women university teachers has changed little in
relation to that of their male counterparts in the last decade. In 1985, the median salary of female faculty was $81 \%$ that of men, down slightly from $82 \%$ in 1975.

While much of the overall difference in salary between male and female university teachers is attributable to differences in academic rank, median salaries of female faculty were also lower than those of men at each rank. As well, the higher the rank the larger was the difference. In 1985, the median salary of female full professors was $\$ 3,100$ below that of male full professors. At the same time, female associate professors made about $\$ 1,900$ less than men in this category, while the differences were $\$ 1,100$ for assistant professors and $\$ 1,000$ for lecturers and instructors.

The differences between the median salary of male and female university teachers at the various academic ranks remained when just faculty with doctoral degrees were compared. Female full professors with doctorates made $\$ 2,800$ less than similarly educated male professors. For associate professors, the difference was $\$ 1,800$ and
for assistant professors it was $\$ 1,200$. The comparison of the median salaries of lecturers and instructors with doctorates was not meaningful because of the small numbers of both men and women in this category.

As mentioned previously, the experience and seniority of men and women teaching in university differ, and these factors may explain some or all of the salary differences.

Female faculty also make less than their male counterparts in each of the major fields of study in which women are concentrated, although the size of the gap varies considerably. For example, the difference between the median salary of male and female full professors with doctorates was $\$ 3,800$ in social sclences, $\$ 3,400$ in health sciences, and $\$ 2,800$ in education, but only $\$ 1,600$ in humanities.

Judith Hollands is a staff writer with Canadian Social Trends.

# Our Report on Health and Social Support has some fascinating things to say... 

## about smoking and drinking

Half of adult Canadians either smoke or are exposed to second-hand smoke in their homes.Young women are more likely than young men to smoke regularly. $\square$ In 1978, one in five drinkers consumed more than 13 drinks a week. By 1985, the proportion had decreased to one in about overall health .
$\square$ Eight in ten Canadians rate their health as good or excellent. $\square$ Close to $40 \%$ of adults are overweight. $\square$ Lower income Canadians see their doctor more and their dentist less than higher income Canadians.
about happiness.
In 1985, only $4 \%$ of Canadian adults said they were unhappy; unhappiness was most common among the elderly, separated/divorced and unemployed.
Plus there's social support information on the help given and received by the elderly and on the links between their social participation, health and happiness. $\square$ Find out more in the report on Health and Social Support, 1985.

# TRENOS IN CANGER SINGE 1970 

by Leslie Gaudette and Georgia Roberts

5ew Canadian families remain untouch ed by cancer ${ }^{1}$. Just over one in three Canadians will develop some form of this disease during their lifetime. Cancer is currently the second leading cause of death after heart disease, accounting for one in four deaths each year; in 1988, an estimated 50,800 Canadians will die from this disease. Also, because mortality due to heart disease has been falling, the percentage of all death.: attributable to cancer has risen. This trend is expected to continue as the number of older Canadians (the group most at risk from cancer) grows as a proportion of the overall population.

There has been considerable variation though, in trends for the major types of cancer. For some types. such as lung cancer. rates have increased; for others, such as stomach cancer, rates have fallen. For still others, rates have been relatively stable

The cost of caring for cancer patients is a major concern. Because the elderly population in Canada is growing rapidly, cancer care facilities can expect both caseloads and costs to increase. The introduction of new drugs and trearment technologies in the last decade has also meant rising costs for the care of cancer patients.

## Incidence of cancer rising

The overall incidence rate for cancer (i.e., the number of new cases diagnosed each

1 Cancer includes all invasive malignant neoplasms with the exception of nonmelanoma skin cancer.

The cooperation of provincial cancer registries and vital statistics registrars in supplying the dala used in this report is gratefult? acknouledged.

## Estimated new cases and deaths for major types of cancer,' 1988

|  | New cases |  |  | Deaths |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Men | Women | Total | Men | Women | Total |
| Lung | 11,200 | 4,200 | 15,400 | 9,300 | 4,100 | 13,400 |
| Colorecta | 7,100 | 6,900 | 14,000 | 2,900 | 2,800 | 5,700 |
| Breast |  | 11,500 | 11,500 |  | 4,600 | 4,600 |
| Prostate | 8.400 |  | 8,400 | 3,000 |  | 3,000 |
| Uterine |  | 4,300 | 4,300 |  | 900 | 900 |
| Stomach | 1,900 | 1,100 | 3,000 | 700 | 300 | 1,000 |
| Other types | 22,000 | 17,700 | 39,700 | 12,100 | 10,100 | 22,200 |
| Total | 50,600 | 45,700 | 96,300 | 28,000 | 22,800 | 50,800 |

${ }^{1}$ Excludes non-melanoma skin cancer
ligures not applicable.
Source: Canadian Cancer Society. Canadian Cancer Slatistics, 1988

year per 100,000 population) has risen among both men and women, although the rate is higher and has increased more rapidly among men. Between 1970 and 1983 , the age-standardized ${ }^{2}$ incidence rate for men rose $27 \%$, from 243 cases per $100,(0) 0$ men to 309 ; for women, the cancer rate rose $16 \%$, from 216 cases per 100,000 women (r) 250 .

There has been considerably less change in mortality from cancer. The cancer mortality rate for women was stable between 1970 and 1986 , while there was a small increase, about $8 \%$, in the rate for men.

The cancer mortality rate is also higher among men than women. In 1986, there were 168 cancer deaths for every 100,000 men, compared to 111 for every 100,000 women.

The pattern of increasing incidence combined with stable mortality is not unique to Canada, but has occurred in other countrics as well. Some of the increase in Canada's incidence rate, however, is attributable to more comprehensive registration, more thorough diagnostic procedures, and changes in the definition of an invasive malignancy. Nevertheless, it appears that better medical treatment, which has improved survival for some types of cancer, is at least partly responsible for differences in cancer incidence and mortality trends.

## Different trends for different cancers

Trends for the most common types of cancer have differed. Since the early 1970s, tates for lung and prostate cancer have increased, white those for breast cancer have remained relatively stable. In the same period, rates for stomach and uterine cancer have declined, while colorectal cancer has heen characterized by increasing incidence but declining mortality:

## Lung cancer

The incidence of lung cancer, overall the most common type of cancer in Canada, thas increased among both men and women since the early 1970 s.

Lung cancer mortality among men, however, appears to have peaked in 1984. Because current levels of lung cancer mortality are closely related to past smoking rates, the decline in smoking first seen

2 All rates are age-standardized, that is, they are calculated to show what they would have been If the age distribution was the same over time. The world population was used as a basis for the standardization. For more detail on the methodoiogy and data. interested readers may refer to Canadian Cancer Shatistics. 1988. produced jointly by Statistics Canadta and the Canadian Cancer Society: Detailed data on cancer incidence, mortality, and hospital morbidity are available in Cancer in cianada. Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82.207.


quently, the full impact of smoking on female lung cancer rates has yet to be felt.

## Prostate cancer

Rates for prostate cancer, the second most prevalent cancer in men, have also risen since the early 1970s. The incidence of this disease, however, has increased more rapidly than mortality.

Much of the increased incidence of prostate cancer, though, is generally attributed to improved diagnostic procodures and io more reporting of its
discovery during an auropsy. Cancer of the prostate is very much a disease of elderly men, and it is common to find evidence of this cancer when an autopsy is conducted. As a result, less serious forms of this disease, which in the past may have remained undetected, are being identified and reporred.

## Breast cancer

Breast cancer, currently the most common type of cancer among women, accounts for about one out of crecy 20 acaths of

women in Canada. As well, almost one Canadian woman in 10 will develop breast cancer during her lifetime.

Both incidence and mortality rates for breast cancer were approximately the same in the mid-1980s as in the early 1970s. The incidence rate for breast cancer, however, did fluctuate in this period. Although these fluctuations could have been random, they closely reflect patterns reported in the United States. In 1974, for example, the breast cancer incidence rate jumped suddenly in both countries. This has generally been attributed to increased detection of breast cancer following widespread publicity about the diagnosis of this condition in several prominent American women.

Despite intensive research, little has been discovered regarding risk factors for breast cancer which would be of use in planning preventive programs.

## Stomach cancer

Stomach cancer rates have fallen since the early 1970 s. The death rate due to this discase was nearly cut in half for both men and women between 1970 and 1986. Incidence rates also declined, though not as sharply. Both incidence and mortality rates for stomach cancer are more than twice as high for men as for women.

The decline in stomach cancer in Canada is similar to that reported in other industrial countries and is generally attribured to changes in diet.

## Cancer of the uterine body and cervix

There have been sharp drops in both incidence and mortality rates for cervical cancer since the early 1970s. These declines are considered to be at least partially attributable $\omega$ screening programs such as Pap smears, although some of the decline may be due to other factors.

Despite the overall drop in cervical cancer rates, the incidence rate for this disease has been stable in recent years. This levelling off reflects rising rates of cervical cancer among young women.

The mortality rate for cancer of the uterine body has also declined since the early 1970s. The incidence rate for this condition, however, was roughly the same in 1983 as in 1970, although there was a temporary increase in the incidence of this disease in the 1970s. This rise was also observed in other countries and has been related to use of replacement estrogen therapy at menopause:


## Cancer survival rates

Survival rates represent the percentage of cancer cases diagnosed between 1979 and 1981 who are still alive five years after the diagnosis. They are crude rates in that deaths may have resulted from orher causes.

Survival rates for different types of cancer are available only for Alberta, but these are likely typical of current Canadian experience. There appear to be three distinct categories when survival from the major types of cancer is considered.
Breast and uterine cancer and melanoma are characterized by relatively high survival rates, while colorectal and prostate cancer show moderate survival levels, Survival rates for lung and stomach cancer. on the other hand. are very low:


## Colorectal cancer

Trends for the incidence and mortality of colorectal cancer, which includes cancer of the large intestine and rectum, have diverged since the early 1970s. The incidence rate for this type of cancer has risen. while the mortality rate has fallen.
Both incidence and mortality rates for colorectal cancer are higher in men than in women. Moreover, incidence rates have increased faster in men, while mortality rates have declined more rapidly in women.
As with breast cancer, risk factors for this type of cancer are not well understond, although diet has been implicated

## Melanoma

While melanoma skin cancer is not one of the leading forms of cancer, it should be mentioned because the incidence of this

## Smoking patterns of men and women

Overall, men are more likely than women to smoke. In 1986, $31 \%$ of men compared with $26 \%$ of women were regular cigarette smokers.

For people under age 25 , though, a slightly higher percentage of women than men smoke regularly. In $1986,32 \%$ of women compared with $31 \%$ of men aged $20-24$ smoked cigarettes daily, The pattern was similar among people aged 15-19

The fact that slightly more women than men aged $20-24$ were regular smokers in 1986 is a change from the late 1970s when a higher proportion of men than women smoked. This reversal occurred because the per centage of men in this age group who smoked regularly declined more than it did among women Between 1978-79 and 1986, the proportion of men aged 20-24 who smoked regularly fell almost 18 percentage points; for women in this age group, the decline was 1.3 percentage points.
smoking rates also declined sharply for boul men and women aged $15-19$, falling over 15 percentage points for eath in the period from 1978-79 (0) 1980, Smoking fell in all other age groups, with the exception of women aged 65 and over, how ever, these declines were considerably snmaller than those for men aged 20-24 and men and women aged 15-19.

disease nearly doubled among both men and women between 1970 and 1983. Mortality from melanoma also increased significantly among men, rising over $70 \%$ between 1970 and 1986. The mortality rate for this condition also rose for women in this period, but by a much smaller margin, just $20 \%$.

The major risk factor for melanoma is exposure to sunlight, although the exact nature of the relationship is not well understood.

Both cuathors umenk at Statisthes Fanada Leslie Gaudelte is an anallyst with the Health Division: Georgla Roberts is a methodenogist with ibe Soctal Surreys Methodology Division.
$\square$

# THE FLLM INDUSTRY IN CANADA 

by Carol Strike


The introduction of television in the 1950 s , and the growth in popularity of home entertainment innovations such as VCRs and pay television in more recent years have had a profound impact on the movie industry in Canada. Movie attendance has dropped substantially, and there has been a major reduction in the number of motion picture theatres in Canada. As well, ownership of movie theatres is becoming increasingly concentrated. At the same time, the vast majority of feature films shown in this country are foreign.

Going to the movies: a declining pastime
Perhaps the most striking trend related to the film inctustry has been the sharp decline in movie attendance in Canada. In the early 1950 s, close to 250 million movie tickers were sold each year; in 1985, there were just under 75 million paid admissions to movie theatres.

Most of the decline in movie attendance occurred during the 1950s. The annual number of paid admissions to theatres had fallen below the 100 million mark by 1961 ; then throughout the $1960 \mathrm{~s}, 1970 \mathrm{~s}$, and early

1980s, total movie attendance ranged between 80 and 90 million.

The decline in movie attendance is even more dramatic when expressed in per capita terms. In 1985, Canadians went to the movies an average of fewer than 3 times per person. In comparison, in the early 1950 s, they had attended an annual average of around 17 movies per person. Again, most of this decline took place in the 1950 s . Average movie attendance has continued to decline in recent years, falling from 3.7 movies per person in 1980 to 2.9 in 1985.

Attendance at drive-in theatres has also fallen, although the trend followed a somewhat different pattern than that for regular movie theatres. Drive-in attendance did not peak until 1976 when these theatres attracted a total of 13 million viewers. Attendance at drive-ins, however, declined substantially in the subsequent decade, such that by 1985 , total paid admissions to these theatres had fallen below 6 million.

Theatre attendance statistics no longer represent the number of movies that Canadians actually see each year. Movies are
common fare on regular television, while VCR ownership and subscriptions to pay television continue to increase. In 1986, virtually all Canadian homes ( $94 \%$ ) had televisions, and two-thirds ( $65 \%$ ) were hooked up to calble. At the same tine, more than a third ( $35 \%$ ) of all homes had VCRs, and $10 \%$ subscribed to pay television.

## Theatres and drive-ins closing

The drop-off in movie attendance has resulted in the closure of hundreds of thearres. The number of regular motion pic-
ture theatres declined from a peak of 1,950 in 1955 to 788 in 1985; the number of drivein theatres has also fallen, from a high of 315 in 1975 to 219 in 1985.

While the overall number of movie theatres has declined, the number of screens has increased. This is because of the growing number of multi-screened theatres. In 1985, there were 1,450 screens in Canada, about 1.8 per theatre. This was up from fewer than 1,200 screens in 1972. The trend toward multi-screened theatres also occurred at drive-ins, although the overall number of drive-in screens fell from 328 in 1979 to 279 in 1985.

## Concentration of theatre ownership increasing

A growing proportion of movie theatres are operated by chains. In 1985, theatre chains owned an estimated $64 \%$ of all regular motion picture theatres and made $88 \%$ of all operating revenues. These proportions were up from $61 \%$ ownership and $86 \%$ of revenues in 1980

A somewhat different trend is emerging for drive-in theatres. Chains owned 54\% of all drive-ins and made $77 \%$ of operating revenue in 1985 . These figures were down from 1980 when chains owned $63 \%$ of all drive-ins and generated $80 \%$ of revenues.

## Few Canadian films

Only a small proportion of feature films shown in Canada are of Canadian origin. In 1983, Canadian productions made up just $14 \%$ of all new features shown that year. This figure, however, represents an increase from the 1972-1982 period when domestic productions made up only $4 \%$ of all new features released in Canada during this period.

Most new films released in Canada are from the United Scates. Over the past quarter contury, between a third and half of all new features came from the United States each year; in 1983, $54 \%$ were American.

Most of the remaining new movies that have been shown in Canada originated in France or Italy. Between 1972 and 1983. 19\% of new relcases were from France, while 9\% were made in Italy.
The number of new feature films ( 75 minutes or more) shown in Canada has dropped sharply in recent years. Between 1979 and 1983, the number of new releases fell from 97010474 . In fact, the 1983 total was the smallest annual number of new releases in the past 25 years

## The film production industry

There were over 500 tilm production companies in Canada in 1985 . Only $11 \%$ of


## Movie going varies widely by province

Albertans were Canada's most avid movie-goers in 1985, averaging a total of over four paid admissions per person to theatres and drive-ins. Residents of Ontario and British Columbia followed with close to four admissions per person. On the other
hand, residents of New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, and Quebec were relatively infrequent movie-goers, averaging only about two admissions per person
these producers, however, specialized in feature films and theatrical shorts. The largest proportion of film producers in Canada, over $40 \%$, made industrial and educational films, while $31 \%$ specialized in television programs and commercials. The other $17 \%$ of producers either did not have, or did not report, a specialization.

Television programs and commercials generated the greatest share of film production revenue. While fewer than a third of film producers specialized in these areas in 1985 , they made $62 \%$ of all operating revenue. There has been a shift, however, in the distribution of revenue generated by television programs and commercials. The share of all film production revenue coming from commercials fell from $49 \%$ in 1980 to $34 \%$ in 1985 ; in the same period, revenue from TV programs increased from $19 \%$ of the total to $28 \%$.
Of the remaining film revenue in 1985 , $22 \%$ came from the production of indusirial and eclucational films, $8 \%$ came from feature films, and $3 \%$ came from theatrical shorts. The final 5\% came from other sources.

Carol Strike is a staff writer with Canadian social Trends.

# ANNUAL UPDATE ON LABOUR FORCE TRENDS 

by David Gower

Last year was the fifth consecutive year of economic growth in Canada dating back to the end of the last recession. In the labour market, this grow th translated into an increase in the number of Canadians with jobs. In 1987 , almost 12 million people were employed; this was a $2.8 \%$ increase over 1986 , and continued a trend that has seen total employment rise between $2.5 \%$ and $2.9 \%$ each year since 1984 .

Throughout much of the last decade, the number of part-time jobs grew at a faster rate than total full-time employment. This was not the case in 1987 , however, when the number of full-time jobs rose $3.1 \%$ compared with an increase of only $0.7 \%$ for part-time employment.

The slow growth in part-time emplos: ment in 1987 was linked to a $5.7 \%$ drop in the number of people working part-time because they were unable to find a full-time job. While this figure declined, there were still almost half a million Canadians working part-time last year because it was the only work they could find. The number of people working part-time voluntarily. though, rose $3.2 \%$ in 1987 , virtually the same increase as for full-time workers.

In keeping with allong-standing trend, employment growth was higher among women than men in 1987 . The number of employed women rose $3.7 \%$ compared w an increase of $2.0 \%$ in the number of men with jobs.

More than half of all women are now employed outside the home. Overall. $50.9 \%$ of women had jobs in 1987 , up from $49.7 \%$ a year earlicr. As recently as 1973. fewer than $40 \%$ of women had been employed.

On the other hand, the percentage of men with jobs in 1987 (70.1 \%) was below levels recorded in the early 1970s. In 1973.

for example, $74.3 \%$ of men were employed. In the past few years, though, the proportion of men with jobs has been rising from a post-recession low of $67.4 \%$ in 1983.

The percentage of men aged 55-64 who were employed declined in 1987, from $63.5 \%$ in 1986 to $61.8 \%$. While this represents the continuation of a long-term trend - in the mid-1970s, for example, over $75 \%$ of men in this age range had been employed - last year's decline was particularly large.

## Service sector continues rapid growth

As has been the case for several decades. employment grew at a faster rate in the service sector of the economy than in the goods-producing industries in 1987. Total service employment rose $3.0 \%$ compared to $2.1 \%$ in the goods-producing sector. In $1987.70 .8 \%$ of all jobs were in the service sector; this was up from $67.5 \%$ in 1981

While employment has grown in the goods-producing industries during the last several years, the total number of Canadians working in this sector in 1987 was still down close to 100,000 from the pre-recession total in 1981. In contrast, total service sector employment in 1987 was more than one million above the 1981 level.

## Unemployment falling

The unemployment rate continued is decline last year. In 1987, 8.9\% of the labour force was unemployed, down from $9.6 \%$ in 1986 and $11.9 \%$ in 1983 . Still, in 1987, almost 1.2 million Canadians were unemployed, and the unemployment rate remained above the pre-recession level of $7.5 \%$ recorded in 1980 and 1981

Declines in unemployment have been particularly large among young Canadians in recent years. In 1983, the unemployment rate for men aged $15-24$ was $22.4 \%$, while for women in this age range it was $17.0 \%$. By 1987 , these figures had fallen to $14.8 \%$ for men and $12.5 \%$ for women.

Unemployment rates have also declined among the population aged 25 and over. although not as dramatically as among younger workers. Between 1983 and 1987 , the unemployment rate for men in this age range fell from $9.2 \%$ to $7.0 \%$; among women, the decline was from $9.6 \%$ to $8.4 \%$.

Unemployment levels continue to vary widely by province. In 1987, the unemployment rate ranged from $6.1 \%$ in Ontaris) to $18.6 \%$ in Newfoundland. Unemployment rates were also above the national average ( $8.9 \%$ ) in Prince Edward 1sland (13.3\%), New Brunswick (13.2\%), Novat

- Cominued page 20



LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, ANNUAL AVERAGES, 1946-1987

|  | Population aged 15 and over (000s) | Labour Farce (000s) |  |  | Participa. tion rate <br> (\%) | Unemployment rate (\%) | Employment population patie (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Tolal | Employed | Unemployed |  |  |  |
| 1946 | 8.779 | 4.829 | 4.666 | 163 | 55.0 | 3.4 | 53.1 |
| 1947 | 9.007 | 4,942 | 4,832 | 110 | 54.9 | 2.2 | 53.6 |
| 1948 | 9.141 | 4.988 | 4.875 | 114 | 54.6 | 2.3 | 53.3 |
| 1949 | 9.268 | 5,055 | 4.913 | 141 | 54.5 | 2.8 | 53.0 |
| $1950{ }^{1}$ | 9,615 | 5.163 | 4.976 | 186 | 53.7 | 3.6 | 51.8 |
| 1951 | 9.732 | 5,223 | 5.097 | 126 | 53.7 | 2.4 | 52.4 |
| 1952 | 9.956 | 5.324 | 5,169 | 155 | 53.5 | 2.9 | 51.9 |
| 1953 | 10,164 | 5,397 | 5.235 | 162 | 53.1 | 3.0 | 51.5 |
| 1954 | 10.391 | 5,493 | 5,243 | 250 | 52.9 | 4.6 | 50.5 |
| 1955 | 10,597 | 5,610 | 5,364 | 245 | 52.9 | 4.4 | 50.6 |
| 1856 | 10,807 | 5,782 | 5,585 | 197 | 53.5 | 3.4 | 51.7 |
| 1957 | 11,123 | 0.008 | 5,731 | 278 | 54.0 | 4.6 | 51.5 |
| 1958 | 11,388 | 6.137 | 5,706 | 432 | 53.9 | 7.0 | 50.1 |
| 1959 | 11,605 | 6,242 | 5,870 | 372 | 53.8 | 6.0 | 50.6 |
| 1960 | 11.831 | 6,411 | 5.965 | 446 | 54.2 | 7.0 | 50.4 |
| 1961 | 12.053 | 6,521 | 6,055 | 466 | 54.1 | 7.1 | 50.2 |
| 1962 | 12,280 | 6,615 | 6,225 | 390 | 53.9 | 5.9 | 50.7 |
| 1963 | 12,536 | 6.748 | 6,375 | 374 | 53.8 | 5.5 | 50.9 |
| 1964 | 12,817 | 6,933 | 6,609 | 324 | 54.1 | 4.7 | 51.6 |
| 1965 | 13,128 | 7,141 | 6,862 | 280 | 54.4 | 3.9 | 52.3 |
| $1966^{2}$ | 13,083 | 7.493 | 7.242 | 251 | 57.3 | 3.4 | 55.4 |
| 1967 | 13,444 | 7.747 | 7.451 | 296 | 57.6 | 3.8 | 55.4 |
| 1968 | 13.805 | 7.951 | 7.593 | 358 | 57.6 | 4.5 | 55.0 |
| 1969 | 14,162 | 8.194 | 7.832 | 362 | 57.9 | 4.4 | 55.3 |
| 1970 | 14,528 | 8,395 | 7.919 | 476 | 57.8 | 5.7 | 54.5 |
| 1971 | 14,872 | 8,639 | 8.104 | 535 | 58.1 | 6.2 | 54.5 |
| 1972 | 15.186 | 8.897 | 8,344 | 553 | 58.6 | 6.2 | 54.9 |
| 1973 | 15.526 | 9,276 | 8.761 | 515 | 59.7 | 5.5 | 56.4 |
| 1974 | 15,924 | 9.639 | 9,125 | 514 | 60.5 | 5.3 | 57.3 |
| 1975 | 16.323 | 9.974 | 9,284 | 690 | 61.1 | 6.9 | 56.9 |
| 1976 | 16,701 | 10.203 | 9,477 | 726 | 61.1 | 7.1 | 56.7 |
| 1977 | 17,051 | 10,500 | 9,651 | 849 | 61.6 | 8.1 | 56.6 |
| 1978 | 17.377 | 10.895 | 9.987 | 908 | 62.7 | 8.3 | 57.5 |
| 1979 | 17,702 | 11,231 | 10.395 | 836 | 63.4 | 7.4 | 58.7 |
| 1980 | 18,053 | 11.573 | 10.708 | 865 | 64.1 | 7.5 | 59.3 |
| 1981 | 18,375 | 11,904 | 11,006 | 898 | 64.8 | 7.5 | 59.9 |
| 1982 | 18,664 | 11.958 | 10,644 | 1.314 | 64.1 | 11.0 | 57.0 |
| 1983 | 18.917 | 12,183 | 10,734 | 1,448 | 64.4 | 11.9 | 56.7 |
| 1984 | 19.148 | 12.399 | 11.000 | 1.399 | 64.8 | 11.3 | 57.4 |
| 1985 | 19.372 | 12,639 | 11.311 | 1.328 | 65.2 | 10.5 | 58.4 |
| 1986 | 19.594 | 12.870 | 11.634 | 1.236 | 65.7 | 9.6 | 59.4 |
| 1987 | 19,825 | 13,121 | 11.855 | 1,167 | 66.2 | 8.8 | 60.3 |

1 Inclidets Newfuludlatd beginning in 1950.
${ }^{2}$ Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estmates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

The year at a glance: labour market changes in 1987

|  | 1986 | 1987 | Purcentage change 1986-1987 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Population aged 15 and over | 19,594,000 | 19,825,000 | 1.2 |
| Employment | 11,634,000 | 11,955,000 | 2.8 |
| Men | 6,657,000 | 6,793,000 | 2.0 |
| Women | 4,977,000 | 5,161,000 | 3.7 |
| Percentage employed | 59.4 | 60.3 |  |
| Men | 69.5 | 70.1 |  |
| Women | 49.7 | 50.9 |  |
| Part-rime employment | 1,810,000 | 1,822,000 | 0.7 |
| Men | 520,000 | 514,000 | -1.1 |
| Women | 1,290,000 | 1,308,000 | 1.4 |
| Involuntary part-time ${ }^{1}$ | 514,000 | 485,000 | $-5.7$ |
| Employment by industrial sector |  |  |  |
| Goods producing | 3,417,000 | 3,489,000 | 2.1 |
| Service | 8,217,000 | 8,465,000 | 3.0 |
| Unemployed | 1,236,000 | 1,167,000 | -5.6 |
| Unemployment rate (\%) | 9.6 | 8.9 |  |
| \% unemployed one year or more | 9.0 | 9.4 |  |
| Discouraged workers ${ }^{2}$ | 60,000 | 48,000 | -19.6 |

1 Unable to lind full-time work
2 Not in the labour force and no longer seeking work because of a belief that no work is available. Source: Statistics Canada. Catalogue 71.001.

Scotia (12.5\%), British Columbia (12.0\%), Quebec ( $10.3 \%$ ), and Alberta ( $9.6 \%$ ). Unemployment rates, though, fell in all provinces in 1987, with the largest declines generally occurring in the central and eastern provinces.

The number of Canadians unemployed for a year or longer declined marginally last year. There were $1.9 \%$ fewer persons who had been unemployed for 12 months or more in 1987 than a year earlier.

The number of people not in the labour force because they believed no work was available dropped by almost $20 \%$ in 1987 to 48,000 . This was the lowest number of so-called discouraged workers since 1977.

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

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# TRAVEL WITHIN CANADA 

by Laurie McDougal!

Figures from the Canadian Travel Survey ${ }^{1}$ indicate that we are, indeed, a nation of travellers. In 1986, for example, Canadians made an average of almost four overnight trips ${ }^{2}$ per person to destinations within the country.

The amount of domestic travel by Canadians, however, dipped sharply in the early 1980s, largely as a result of the recession. Between 1979 and 1984 , the annual number of overnight trips fell $13 \%$, from $?^{7}$ miltion to 67 million. The level of domestic travel recovered somewhat by 1986. when Canadians went on more than 75 miltion trips. This, however, was still $2 \%$ below the number of trips taken in 1979 .

The difference in levels of domestic travel between 1979 and 1986 is even greater when considered on a per capita basis. The annual number of trips per person aged 15 and over declined $12 \%$, from 4.3 in $19^{-9}$ to 3.8 in 1986. The 1986 figure, however. was up from a low of 3.5 in 1984.

## Westerners most tikely to travel

The likelihood of travelling varied considerably for residents of different provinces. ${ }^{3}$ with people from the Prairie region, by far, the most likely to travel. In 1986, Saskatchewan residents made an

I This survey is carried out by Statistics Canada on behalf of Tourism C.anada. Data were collected in 1979. 1980. 1982, 1984 and 1986.
${ }^{2}$ A domestic trip was defined as an overnight trip within Canada with a one-way distance of at least 80 km .
${ }^{3}$ Prince Edward island has not been included in mose of the provincial comparisons. Because the definition of domestic rravel refers only. fo trips with a one-way distance of 80 km , few erips within this province would be far enough (o) qualify.

average of 6.0 overnight trips per person within Canada, while the figure was 5.7 for Alberta residents and 4.9 for those living in Manitoba.

Residents of Newfoundland, on the other hand, were the least likely to travel. People from this province made just over 2 trips per person in 1986. In the remaining provinces, the average number of trips per person ranged between 3 and 4

## Interprovincial travel

Most domestic trips take place within the traveller's own province. During the 1976). 1986 period, in-province trips accounted for $80 \%$ or more of all domestic travel. Still, in 1986, about one in five domestic trips (over 14 million in total) were o another province.

Travellers from New Brunswick, Novid Scotia and the Prairie region were the most likely to set out on interprovincial journeys. In $1986,36 \%$ of all domestic overnight trips taken by residents of New Brunswick and $28 \%$ of those by Nova Scotians were to another province. At the same time, more than a quarter of domestic trips taken by people from Manitoba ( $27 \%$ ), Saskatchewan ( $26 \%$ ), and Alberta ( $26 \%$ ) also were to other provinces.

Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia on the other hand, were characterized by below-average levels of interprovincial travel. Fewer than $17 \%$ of trips taken by people from these provinces in 1986 involved crossing a provincial boundary

Newfoundland, perhaps because of its relative isolation, had the lowest level of out-of-province travel of any province. Just $12 \%$ of domestic trips taken by Newfound landers were to other parts of Canada.

The destination of travellers who leave their own province is usually an adjacent province. This is especially true for travellers from Quebec and Ontario. In 1986, for example, $58 \%$ of out-of-province travellers from Ontario went to Quebec, while $82 \%$ of those from Quebec went to Ontario.

There was also a substantial exchange of travellers between Alberta and British Columbia. In 1986, each was the destination of about $60 \%$ of the other's out-ofprovince traffic.

The pattern was similar in the Maritimes where $79 \%$ of out-of-province travellers from Prince Edward Island and more than half of those from both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick went to another Maritime province.

## More business travel

There has been a particularly large increase in the amount of business travel in Canada


in recent years. While the number of nonbusiness trips declined $6 \%$ between 1979 and 1986 , the number of business trips increased $26 \%$ in the same period. As a result, business trips accounted for $15 \%$ of all domestic travel in 1986, up from $11 \%$ in 1979.

A relatively high proportion of business travel is interprovincial. In 1986, about 30\% of business trips compared with $17 \%$ of other domestic trips were from one province to another

The growth of business travel has contributed to several other changes in domestic travel pattems including more weekday trips, more flying, and greater hotel usage.

## Vacations and visits

Roughiy: $80 \%$ of all trips within Canada in the 1980s were either pleasure trips or visits
to friends or relatives. The distribution of the overall share of domestic travel between these types of travel, however, shifted somewhat during this period. Pleasure trips made up $45 \%$ of all travel in 1980 , but only $39 \%$ in 1986 . In the same period, the proportion of trips taken to visit friends or relatives increased from $36 \%$ to $40 \%$

## Home away from home

Because of the high percentage of trips that are visits, a large proportion of all travel nights are spent with friends or relatives. In both 1979 and 1986 , over half ( $51 \%$ ) of all overnight stays in which the type of accommodations was known were with family or friends.

Hotels and motels account for a growing share of overnight stays. In 1986, 23\% of
all travel nights were spent in these types of accommodations; this was up from $18 \%$ in 1979. All of this increase was due to growth in hotel usage. Between 1979 and 1986, the number of overnight stays in hotels rose $60 \%$, while the number of motel stays dropped 6\%

Most of the remaining travel nights are spent in either cottages or campgrounds. While the proportion of overnight stays in cottages remained relatively stable at around $18 \%$ in the 1980 s, the share accounted for by campground usage declined from $10 \%$ in 1979 to $7 \%$ in 1986.

## In the summer, on the weekend

Not surprisingly, summer is the most popular season for travel in Canada. Just over a third of all domestic travel takes place in July, August or September. Another quarter of trips occur during the spring. while winter and fall each account for roughly a fifth of all travel.

Most trips, approximately six out of ten, are taken on the weekend. The proportion of weekend trips, however, slipped from $66 \%$ in 1984 to $60 \%$ in 1986. The growth of business travel was partly responsible for this trend.

## Who travels?

lixcept for people aged 70 and over, a large percentage of Canadians in all age groups ravel. In each quarter of 1986, around $35 \%$ of people aged $20-54$ made at least one domestic trip. The travel rate was somewhat lower for those aged 15-19 and 55 . 69 : still, an average of around $30 \%$ of people in these age ranges travelled each quarter.

Canadians aged 70 and over, on the other hand, were less likely to travel than younger people. In 1986, only $18 \%$ of people in this age range travelled each quarter.

High levels of education and income were also associated with high rates of travel. In 1986, over half of university graduates ( $52 \%$ ) travelled within Canada each quarter This was three times greater than the rate for people with only elementary education ( $18 \%$ ). Similarly, the travel rate for people with incomes of $\$ 70,000$ and over was $53 \%$, compared with $20 \%$ for those with annual incomes of less than $\$ 10,000$.

Laurie McDougall is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Ditision, Statistics canada.


by Holly Johnson

Several sources indicate that many Canadians are apprehensive about crime. In 1981, 40\% of respondents to the Canadian Urban Victimization Survey said they felt unsafe walking alone in their own neighbourbood at night. The bighest levels of fear were reported by elderly people and women: $59 \%$ of those aged 65 and older and $56 \%$ of women fell unsafe walking alone at night. In comparison, $37 \%$ of those under 65 and just $18 \%$ of men expressed this fear.

A 1984 Decima Quarterly Report poll found a similar level of concern among Canadians. More than 4 in $10(44 \%)$ of those surveyed agreed with the statement: "I don't feel safe when I go out alone at night in my neigbborbood. "Again, people aged 65 and over ( $58 \%$ ) and women ( $57 \%$ ) were more likely to express this fear than were those under age 65 (44\%) or men (32\%).

has risen in Canada. Growth in the incidence of this type of criminal activity, however, has been similar to increases in other types of crime, and violent offences continue to account for only a small proportion of all crime. In addition, less serious offences, such as simple assaults, make up the majority of all violent crime. Few violent offences involve a weapon or result in bodily harm to the victim. As well, increases in the less serious violent offences have accounted for most of the overall growth in violent crime, particularly in recent years. In fact, incidence rates for more serious offences, such as homicide, attempted murder, aggravated sexual assault, and robbery, have either fallen or been stable in the last several years.



## Crime statistics

Official statistics on crime in Canada are obtained from the Uniform Crime Reporting system which counts all criminal incidents recorded by the police. However, because many crimes are never reported to the police, official statistics represent only a portion of all crimes committed. The Canadian Urban Victimization Survey estimated, for example, that in 1981, only $34 \%$ of violent crimes were reported to the police. Victims tend not to report violent incidents because they feel the offence is
minor, the police likely can't do anything about it, reporting would be inconvenient, or the offence is a personal matter and of no concern to the police. Fear of revenge from the offender, and a concern with the attitudes of criminal justice workers toward this type of incident are additional reasons why victims of sexual assault often do not involve the police.

Official crime statistics underrepresent even the actual occurrence of criminal activity reported to police. This is because when an incident
involves several separate offences. only the most serious is recorded. If, for example, an incident involves sexual assault, break and enter, and wilfull damage to property, only sexual assault, the most serious offence, is recorded.

The way police record violent and property crimes also differs. For violent crimes, one offence is recorded for every victim in each incident. For property crimes, though, one offence is recorded for every separate incident.

Still, violent crime accounts for only a small proportion of all crime in Canada. In 1986, violent crimes made up just 9\% of all Criminal Code offences, a figure similar to that recorded throughout the period since 1962.

The majority of violent crimes are nonaggravated assaults. Assaults made up threequarters ( $76 \%$ ) of all violent crime in 1986 and most were the least serious type of assault. In 1986, close to $70 \%$ of assaults were simple assaults, while just $20 \%$ involved bodily harm or the presence of a weapon, and only $2 \%$ were aggravated assaults. The remainder were evenly split between assaults involving a peace officer and other types.

Most of the remaining violent crimes in 1986 were either sexual offences $(12 \%)$ or
robberies $(11 \%)$. Homicides and attempted murders made up less than I\% of all violent offences that year.

As with assauls, the majority of sexual offences were the least serious type. In 1986, over $90 \%$ of all sexual assaults did not involve a weapon or result in injury to the victim.

Long-term trends for different types of violent crime have varied, with both assault and sexual assault characterized by particu. larly large increases. The number of non-sexual assauls per 100,000 population, for example. increased 290\% between 1962 and 1986.

The incidence of rape also increased substantially. The number of rapes recorded by the police rose from 3.1 per 100,000 population in 1962 to 10.3 in 1982, an increase of $233 \%$. In the same period, the

## Violent crime lower in Canada than in the United States

Levels of violent crime in Canada are well below those in the United States. The incidence of the most serious types of violent crime* in the United States, for example, was more than five times the rate for Canada in 1985. That year, there were well over 500 such crimes per 100,000 population in the United States compared with just over 100 in Canada.

As well, the incidence of the most serious violent crimes has been rising in the United States in ficent years,
while the rate has been falling in Canada. Between 1983 and 1985, the serious violent crime rate rose $3 \%$ in the United States, but fell $10 \%$ in Canada.

- These figures refer only to sericious violent crimes, whereas the data in the rest of the article include all violent offences. The Canadian rate includes homicide, attempted murder, rape and aggravated sexual assault, weunding and aggravated assault, and robbery The U.S. rate includen murder forcible rape, isgrasated assault. and mbbery

incidence of indecent assaults, most of which are committed against women, also increased, though not as sharply as the rate for rape. Between 1962 and 1982, the indecent assault rate rose $62 \%$, from 21 per 100,000 population to 34 .
Legislation on sexual offences was changed in 1983. Rape and indecent assault were replaced in the Criminal Code with three levels of sexual assault: aggravated sex ual assault, which involves endangering the


## Victims of violent crime

One of the ironies of crime in Canada is that those who express the greatest fear of crime are often the least victimized. While women and elderly people are the most likely to fear for their personal safety, they are not the groups at highest risk of victimization. In 1981. men were twice as likely as women to be victims of violent crime, and for both sexes, victimization rates were highest, by far, for young adults.

Despite a lower overall risk of victimization, women and the elderly may feel greater vulnerability to violent criminal activity because they are less able to resist an attack, and are more likely to be injured. Women experience the added danger of sexual assault a threat uncommon to most men.
Violent crimes are most likely to occur in public places such as pubs or bars, other commercial establishments, and streets or parking lots. In 1981, $44 \%$ of sexual assaults, $50 \%$ of robberies, and $52 \%$ of assaults took place in one of these locations.

There were marked differences, though, in the circumstances surrounding assaults on men and women. While public places were the mosi common location for assaults on both, women were more likely than men to be assaulted in their uwn homes or in the home of someone else. In 1981, $2.3 \%$ of assaults against women, compared to $5 \%$ of those against men. occurred in their own home; another $14 \%$ of assaults on women and $10 \%$ of those against men occurred in the home of someone else. Women were also more likely than men to be assauted by relatives: $12 \%$ of female victims compared to just $2 \%$ of men were assaulted by a family member.
life of, or maiming or disfiguring the victim; sexual assault causing bodily harm, or using or threatening to use a weapon; and simple sexual assault. Because of these changes data collected on sexual offences after 1982 are not comparable with earlier data.

The incidence of sexual offences as defined in the revised legislation has increased. Between 1983 and 1986, the number of reported sexual offences rose from 48 per 100,000 population to 80 . Most of this increase, however, was accounted for by growth in the incidence of simple sexual assdults. These increased from 92 incidents per 100.000 population in 1983 10. 75 in 1986.

On the other hand, the incidence of the nore serious forms of sexual assault changed little in the 1983-1986 period. There were about 2 aggravated sexual assaults per 100,000 population throughout this period, while the rate for sexual assaults invotving a weapon or causing bodily harm increased slightly, from 3 to 4 incidents per 100,000 population.

Overall rates for homicide, attempted murder, and robbery also increased significantly since 1962; however, the incidence of these offences has been falling in recent years.

The number of homicides rose from 1.4 per 100,000 population in 1962 to 3.1 by 1977. This rate remained fairly stable at around 2.8 between 1978 and 1985, and then dropped to 2.2 in 1986, the lowest it has been since 1971 .

Rates for attempted murder increased from alow of 0.4 per 100,000 population in 1962 to a high of 3.8 in 1982 , but then fell to 3.4 in 1985 and 1986.

The incidence of robbery, which in. volves violence or the threat of violence to steal from another person, followed a similar pattern. The number of robberics per 100,000 population rose from 27 in 1962 to 111 in 1982 . Berween 1982 and 1986, though, the robbery rate fell to 91.

The incidence of robberies involving guns has also declined in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of rohberies using guns fell from 37 per 100,000 population to 26. In comparison, the rate for robberies involving other weapons rose slightly, from 22 to 24 , in the same period.

## Violent crime higher in western Canada

Rates of violent crime are generally highor in the western provinces than in central or eastern Canada. In 1986, British Columbl:I had the highest violent crime rate of any province, with 1,254 violent offences per 100,000 population. Manitoba ( 1,035 ), Alberta (918), and Saskatchewan (878) also had relatively high violent crime rates.

Prince Edward Island and Quebec had the lowest violent crime rates with just 499 and 550 offences per 100,000 population, respectively. In the other Atlantic provinces, the violent crime rate was just over 600 , while the rate in Ontario (791) was just under the national level ( 80 r ).

This pattern varies, however, for some types of violent crime. Perhaps the most interesting example is that Quehec, with the second lowest overall violent crime rate, had the highest robbery rate of any province. As well, the number of robberies using
guns per 100,000 population in Quebec was more than three times greater than in the province with the next highest rate.

## Violent crime in cities and towns

The generally higher incidence of violent crime in the west also appears when major metropolitan areas are compared, although there are some exceptions. While Victoria, Vancouver, and Edmonton reported the highest violent crime rates in 1986, Calgary had the lowest rate of any major Canadian city. On the other hand, Montical had the

fourth highest urban violent crime rate, and Halifax, Toronto and Charlottetown all had higher rates than Winnipeg and Regina.

Violent crime rates are generally higher in large urban areas than in small cities or towns, although the incidence of violent crime generally increased more rapidly in smaller centres in the last decade.

In 1986, cities with a population of 250,000 or more had an average of 933 violent crimes per 100,000 population. This compared with rates of 822 in cities with a population between 50,000 and 250,000 . 769 in cities with 10,000 ) to 50,000 people. and 729 in centres with a population of between 750 and 10,000 .
Between 1977 and 1986, the violent crime sate in towns with less than 10,000 population increased $48 \%$, compared with $44 \%$ for cities with 10,000 to 50,000 people, $42 \%$ in cities with population between 50,000 and 250,000 , and $38 \%$ in the largest urban areas.

## Police solve most violent crimes

The police generally solve, or clear, about three-quarters of reported violent crimes In $1986,44 \%$ of all violent offences were cleared by charge, while another $29 \%$ were cleared otherwise.?

There is some variation, though, in the percentage of the different types of violent offences that are cleared by charge. In 1986 . $76 \%$ of homicides and $77 \%$ of attempted murders resulted in charges. At the same time, only about half of assaults ( $56 \%$ ) and sexual assaults ( $47 \%$ ) were cleared by charge, while the figure was just $29 \%$ for robberies.
Most violent offenders are men. In 1986, $76 \%$ of those charged with violent crimes were men, while $8 \%$ were women and $16 \%$ were young offenders.
${ }^{2}$ Offences can be cleared by charge or cleared otherwise Offences are cleared by charge when an arrest is made, a summons to appeair is issued, or a warrant to apprehend is lat! against at least one person. An offence is cleared otherwise when the offender has been identified and enough is known to issue a warrant. yet, there is a reason outside of police corntrol that prevents charging. Clearance rates for homicide are from Homicide in Canada. Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-20). Rates for other crimes are from Canadian Crime Statistics, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

Molly Johnson is a semior analyst with the late finforcement Program of the Canadian Centr: for fustice Statistics, Statistics Camada.


# EMPLOYMENT OF DISABLED CANADIANS 

by David Gower

Being disabled remains a substantial impediment to finding and keeping a job in Canada. While a significant proportion of those with disabilities are employed, disabled people are much less likely to be working than their non-disabled peers. As well, gaps between the employment levels of disabled and non-disabled populations exist regardless of sex, age, or educational attainment.

## Low level of employment for people with disabilities

In 1984, 42\% of disabled Canadians aged 15-64 were employed. In comparison, $67 \%$ of the non-disabled population in this age range had jobs. Overall, close to 640,000 disabled people aged 15-64 were working in 1984; they made up about $6 \%$ of the total number of Canadians with jobs that year.

Employment levels of those with disabilities declined markedly the more serious the disability. ${ }^{1}$ While almost half ( $48 \%$ ) of those with a low level of disability were employed in 1984, just $33 \%$ of the moderately disabled, and only $17 \%$ of those with major disabilities, had jobs.

Of the population with physical and sensory disabilities, those with hearing difficulties were the most likely to be employed, while the sight-impaired had the lowest employment level. People aged 35 64 with mobility and agility difficulties also had relatively low employment rates.

Disabled less often employed at all ages
Excluding full-time students, $59 \%$ of disabled men and $47 \%$ of disabled women

1 The degree of disability was rated as low, moderate, or major. Those with a low level of disability had some difficulty performing at least one activity; those regarded as moderately disabled were completely unable to perform one or two activities; those with major disabilities were completely unable to perform three or more activities.


## The disabled population in Canada

The Canadian Health and Disability Survey defined the disabled as those who had trouble performing one or more of 17 daily living activities, such as walking upstairs, lifting packages, reading ordinary newsprint (with glasses, if usually wom), or hearing what is said in a normal conversation between two people. The disabled also included people with mental handicaps and those limited in the kind or amount of activity they can do because of a long-term physical condition or health problem. People who experienced activity limitation solely due to mental illness, as weli as those in institutions, were not included in the disabled population.

Disabled people identified in this study ranged from those who had occasional difficulty performing one
activity to those who were completely unable to perform a number of functions.

According to the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, an estimated 2.4 million adult Canadians, $13 \%$ of the non-institutionalized population aged 15 and over, had some form of disability in 1983-84. Almost one million of these people were aged 65 and over. The remaining 1.5 million disabled Canadians were aged 15-64; they made up 9\% of this population.

The prevalence of disabilities within the population aged $15-64$ increased significantly with age. Less than $5 \%$ of those aged $15-34$, and $10 \%$ of those ag. ed $35-54$ were disabled in 1984. In comparison, $25 \%$ of those aged 55-64 were classified as disabled.


## Percentage of disabled and nen-disabled populations employed,

 by educational attainment, 1984|  |  | Disabled |  | Mon-disabled |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Elementary or ne education | Postsecondary education | Elementary or no education | Pasisecondary ducation |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Aged | Men | 33 | 78 | 71 | 88 |
| $15.34\}$ | Women | 28 | 69 | 38 | 77 |
| Aged | Men | 42 | 70 | 82 | 93 |
| 35.64, | Women | 18 | 52 | 39 | 68 |

[^1]aged 15-34 were employed in 1984. In comparison, $83 \%$ of men and $65 \%$ of women in this age range without disabilities had jobs.

Differences between employment levels of disabled and non-disabled people were even greater among those aged 35-64. Just $51 \%$ of men and $29 \%$ of women in this age range with disabilities were working in 1984 , compared with $88 \%$ of men and $55 \%$ of women without disabilities.

Some of the variation berween the employment levels of disabled and nondisabled people aged 35-64, however, are the result of differences in the age distribution and family circumstances of these populations. For example, a much higher proportion of disabled people in this age range, compared with the overall population, are aged 55-64, an age group generally characterized by low levels of employment.

When the survey results were standardized (i.e., the employment figures for the disabled population aged 35-64 were recalculated to show what they would have been if the age distribution and family circumsrances of this group were the same as that for the non-disabled population) $62 \%$ of disabled men and $36 \%$ of disabled women were estimated to have been employed. While these figures were closer to those for the non-disabled population than the non-standardized results, most of the gap between the employment levels of disabled and non-disabled people in this age range remained.

## Education enhances employment chances

Employment levels for both disabled and non-disabled people increase with rising education; however, the impact of education on employment is greater for those with disabilities. This was especially the case for men.

In 1984, the employment rate ( $33 \%$ ) for disabled men aged 15-34 with elementary or no education was less than half that for comparable non-disabled men ( $71 \%$ ). In comparison, the employment rate of disabled men in this age range with postsecondary training was only 10 percentage points below that of non-disabied men: $78 \%$ compared to $88 \%$.

The pattern was similar for men aged 35 64. There was a difference of 40 percentage points between the employment levels of those with little or no education - for those with postsecondary training the gap was 23 percentage points.

Increased education also had a major impact on the employment of disabled women in that a much higher percentage of those with postsecondary education than those with littie or no education were employed. Increased education, however,
had less effect in reducing employment disparities between disabled and nondisabled women than it did for men, because employment levels of non-disabled women also increased substantially with higher education.

A possible explanation for the particularly large differences between the employment rates of disabled and non-disabled men with low levels of education is that those with little education may be more inclined to seek or hold jobs requiring manual labour. A disability could therefore represent a serious obstacle to the employment of these men.

The actual relationship between education, disability and employment can be complicated. In some cases, the disability will have occurred after the completion of education, and the level of education already attained may affect the ability of a person to adjust to the new situation. in other instances, the type and degree of disability may affect the level of education an individual can attain. This is especially true in the case of the mentally handicapped.

## Higher unemployment rates for disabled Canadians

Disabled people have higher unemployment rates than the non-disabled. In 1984. $22 \%$ of disabled men aged $15-34$ in the labour force and $10 \%$ of those aged 35-64 were unemployed. These rates compared with $13 \%$ and $6 \%$ for men who were not disabled. Among women aged 35-64, 13\%, of those with disabilities were uncmployed

compared with $7 \%$ of those without disabilities.

The unemployment rate for women aged 15-34 with a disability ( $14 \%$ ) was almost the same as that for the non-disabled ( $13 \%$ ).

## Many disabled people not in the labour force

Even more significant than differences in unemployment rates is the fact that a far higher proportion of disabled than non-

disabled people are not in the labour force at all; that is, they are neither employed nor looking for work.

In 1984, 24\% of disabled men aged 15. 34 and $44 \%$ of those aged $35-64$ were not in the labour force. The comparable figures for non-disabled men were about $5 \%$ for both groups.

Among disabled women, $45 \%$ of those aged 15-34 and 67\% of those aged 35-64 were not in the labour force. These figures compare with $26 \%$ for non-disabled women in the younger age range and $40 \%$ in the older group.

## Questions for the future

Disabled people in Canada are less likely to be employed than non-disabled people regardless of age, sex, or education, although education seems to have some effect in reducing differences in employment levels. Many issues related to the employment of disabled people, however, still must be examined.

- What kinds of jobs do disabled workers have? How many work in jobs specifically designed for those with disabilities?
- Does the low employment rate of disabled people stem from a lack of demand for their services or from factors such as poor transportation or inaccessible buildings and facilities?
- What effects do local labour market conditions have on the employment of disabled people? Are disabled people who live in rural regions at an even greater disadvantage than their urban counterparts?
- How do disabled people fare in terms of income, benefits. and opportunities for career advancement?
- If more disabled people received a higher cducation, would they achieve the same degree of labour market integration as those who are currently well-educated? Does the type of education make a difference?

David Gower is an analyst with the labour and Houschold Surney Analysis Division. Statistics Canada.
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- More detail on the labour market activity of the physically disabled is available from two sources. The first is the report by the same author, Labour Market Activity of Disabled terrons in Canada: Results fnom the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71.535 (No. 1).

The second source is the Health and Activity Limitation Survey conducted in 1986. Results from this survey were not available at the time this article was written; however, preliminary results are available through Statistics Canada Regional Offices or the Disability Data Base Program, Statistics Canada.

# LOSS OF PRIME AGRICULTURAL LAND THE EXAMPLE OF SOUTHERN ONTARIO 

by Mary Anne Burke

The last 60 years have seen sweeping changes in Canadian agriculture. Both the rural population and total employment in agriculture have fallen sharply. Many smaller farms have been consolidated into larger ones. As well, agriculture's share of the Gross Domestic Product has dropped considerably, although the value of agricultural output has increased in absolute terms. At the same time, food imports have climbed.

In addition, the amount of land availabic for farming has declined. In 1986, farmland in Canada totalled 167.6 million acres, 6.5 million less than in 1051.

The loss of agricultural land is significant because, despite Canada's size, very little land - just $11 \%$ - is suitable for farming. Moreover, less than half of one percent of the toral land base, an area slighely smallet than Nova Scotia, is prime agricultural land. Increasingly, contlicting demands are being placed on Canata's farmind paticulaty the prime arcas.

Prime agriculfural hanct has been bost parsly as a resule of the urbanzation protess Early settlements were on prime farmland. and these communities set the pattern for later development. For example, as cities such as Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver have grown, the prime agricultural land base has been eroded in response to hous. ing, transportation, mat recreation pressures.

The net lass of famband in Canadabetween 1951 and $198 \%$ was a product of gains and losses in different regions. For example. some marginal land was gained on the northernedge of the Prairies; on the other hand, large amounts of prime land in Ontario were lost to agriculture.

## Changes in Canadian agriculture

The shift from traditional labourintensive farming to highly technical. mechanized methods resulted in fewer people farming larger areas. The percentage of the population living in rural areas has dropped, as has the proportion of the labour force employed in agriculture. In 1986, about a quarter ( $24 \%$ ) of Canada's population was rural; this was down from more than half ( $53 \%$ ) in 1921 During the same period, the proportion of the work force employed in agriculture fell from $3.3 \%$ to $4 \%$. Meanwhile aterage monsiate tose
from 198 acres in 1921 to 572 acres in 1986.

Agricultural output, as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product. fell from a high of $18 \%$ in 1926 (o) just $2 \%$ in 1986. This decrease, however, was uneven with major declines occurring in the late 1920s and again in the mid-1950).

The dollar amount of imported foodstuffs has risen substantially. In 1986. Canada imported $\$ 6.7$ billion worth of foodstuffs; aflowing for inflation. this was a $264 \%$ increase from the $19+6$ tental



# PRIME FARMLAND IN ONTARIO 

Magara zone
Niagara - $\$ 1,085$ sales per acre*
$\square$ intensive zone
Waterloo - \$941 sales per acre
0xford - $\$ 796$ sales per acre
Hamilton-Wentworth - $\$ 758$ sales per acre
Halton - $\$ 724$ sales per acre

## Very high productivity zone

York - $\$ 642$ sales per acre
Perth - $\$ 632$ sales per acre
Essex - $\$ 630$ sales per acre

- Based on 1986 per acre value of sales of agricultural products.


## Loss of farmland in Ontario

The amount of agricultural land in Ontario has been falling since 1931. Between 1931 and 1986 , the province experienced a net loss of 8.9 million acres of farmland, as total farm acreage dropped from 22.8 to 13.9 million acres. Of this decline, 5.7 million acres $(64 \times 6)$ were unimproved land, ${ }^{1}$ while
the remaining 3.2 million acres ( $36 \%$ ) were improved land. ${ }^{2}$

Of prime importance is the loss of agricultural land in southern Ontario. This region contains some of Canada's most productive farmland including the Niagara Peninsula, a unique tender fruit- and grapestowing area, and the Holland Marsh.

north of Toronto. A high proportion of the land lost to farming in these arcas was improved.
The number of farm acres in the prime agricultural zones of southern Ontario fell $26 \%$, from 3.0 mitlion to 2.2 million between 1931 and 1986. Of this decline, almost half a million acres, or $63 \%$ of the total, were improved land.

The greatest proportional loss of prime agricultural land in southern Ontario occurred in the Niagara zone, which had the highest per-acre dollar yield. In this zone. the amount of farmland fell by over a third ( $35 \%$ ) from 366,000 to 237,000 acres. More than three-quarters $(77 \%)$ of this loss was improved land.

During the same period, the other prime agricultural zones lost about a quarter of their farmland, again with improved land accounting for the largest proportion of the loss.
${ }^{1}$ Unimproved land includes areas such as woodland, wood lots. Christmas tree lots, grazing or hay lands, bogs and marshes; it excludes large tracts of timber.
2 Improved land includes all land under crops, as well as land such as summer fallow land and improved pashure land.

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

## SOCIAL INDICATORS

|  | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| POPULATION |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Canada, June 1 (000s) | 24.042.5 | 24.341.7 | 24.583 .1 | 24.787 .2 | 24.978 .2 | 25,165.4 | 25.353.0 | 25,625.10 |
| Annual growth (\%) | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 1.10 |
| Immigration ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | 138,079 | 129,466 | 134,920 | 105,286 | 87.504 | 84,062 | 88,051 | 123.076 ${ }^{\circ}$ |
| Emigration ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | 51,060 | 43,609 | 45.338 | 50,249 | 48.826 | 46,252 | 44,816 | $41.090^{\circ}$ |
| FAMILY |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Birth rate (per 1,000) | 15.5 | 15.3 | 15.1 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 14.8 | 14.7 | - |
| Marriage rate (per 1,000) | 8.0 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 7.3 | 6.9 | - |
| Divorce rate (per 1,000) | 2.6 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.4 | . | - |
| Faimilues experiencing unemployment (000s) | 671 | 694 | 986 | 1,072 | 1.037 | 991 | 918 | 870 |
| LABOUR FORCE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Totai entploymeni (000s) | 10,708 | 11,006 | 10,644 | 10,734 | 11.000 | 11,311 | 11,634 | 11.955 |
| - granes sector (000s) | 3,514 | 3,581 | 3,260 | 3,209 | 3.309 | 3.348 | 3.417 | 3.489 |
| - services sector (000s) | 7,194 | 7.425 | 7,384 | 7,525 | 7.692 | 7,963 | 8.217 | 8.465 |
| Total unemployment (000s) | 865 | 898 | 1.314 | 1.448 | 1,399 | 1.328 | 1.236 | 1.167 |
| Unemployment rate | 7.5 | 7.5 | 11.0 | 11.9 | 11.3 | 10.5 | 9.6 | 8.9 |
| Part time employment \% | 13.0 | 13.5 | 14.4 | 15.4 | 15.4 | 15.5 | 15.6 | 15.2 |
| Women's participation rate | 50.4 | 51.7 | 51.7 | 52.6 | 53.5 | 54.3 | 55.1 | 56.2 |
| Unimization rate - \% of paid workers | 32.2 | 32.9 | 33.3 | 35.7 | 35.1 | 34.4 |  | - |
| INCOME |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Median tamly income - 1986 \$ | 37.855 | 36,923 | 35,420 | 34,862 | 34,828 | 35.455 | 36,042 | * |
| \% un tanilies with low income | 12.2 | 12.0 | 13.2 | 14.0 | 14.5 | 13.3 | 12.3 | * |
| Women's tullttime earnings as a \% of men's | - | 63.6 | 64.0 |  | 65.5 | 64.9 | 66.0 | - |
| EDUCATION |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Elementary and secondary enromeni (000s) | 5,106.3 | 5.024 .2 | 4.994 .0 | 4,974.9 | 4.946.1 | 4.927.8 | 4,938.0 | - |
| Full time postsecondary enrolment (000s) | 643.4 | 675.3 | 722.0 | 766.7 | 782.8 | 789.8 | 796.9 | $804.2^{\text {p }}$ |
| Doctoral degrees awarded | 1.738 | 1.816 | 1.713 | 1.821 | 1.878 | 2.000 | 2.218 | * |
| Government expendifure on education (1987 \$000,000) | 28,095.8 | 28,790.5 | 28,929.6 | 29.475 .2 | 28.642 .5 | 31,381.7 | 30.013 .5 | $30,232.6{ }^{\text {p }}$ |

## HEALTH

Suicide rate (per 100.000)

| - men | 21.2 | 21.3 | 22.3 | 23.4 | 21.4 | 20.5 | 22.8 | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - women | 6.8 | 6.8 | 6.4 | 6.9 | 6.1 | 5.4 | 6.4 | - |
| $\%$ of population $15+$ who are regular cigarette smokers - men | - | 36.7 |  | 34.0 | . | 33.1 | 30.8 | * |
| - women | - | 28.9 | - | 28.3 | - | 27.8 | 25.8 | - |
| Govemment expenditure on heath (1987 \$000,000) | 24,416.9 | 25,982.5 | 27,046.9 | 28,501.8 | 29,552.9 | $30,267.1$ | 31.271 .0 | $32.149 .8{ }^{\circ}$ |
| HSTICE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Crime rates (per 100.000) - videlent | 648 | 666 | 685 | 692 | 714 | 749 | 808 | $853^{p}$ |
| - property | 5.551 | 5,873 | 5.955 | 5.717 | 5.607 | 5.560 | 5.714 | $5.700^{\text {P }}$ |
| - homicide | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.2 | $2.5{ }^{\circ}$ |
| GOVERNMENT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Expenditures on social programmes ${ }^{2}$ $(1987 \$ 000,000)$ | 118.984 .6 | 121,610.7 | 130,153.6 | 136,395.7 | 139,371.6 | 144,606.4 | 146,052.0 | 147.464. $2^{p}$ |
| - as a \% ol total expenditures | 57.8 | 57.3 | 58.1 | 59.5 | 58.2 | 59.2 | 59.8 | $60.4{ }^{\text {p }}$ |
| - as a \% of GDP | 24.7 | 24.7 | 27.9 | 28.5 | 27.7 | 27.7 | 27.4 | $26.6{ }^{\text {P }}$ |
| Ull beneficiaries (000s) | 2.274 .1 | 2,432.4 | 3.123 .1 | 3,396.1 | 3,221.9 | 3.181 .5 | 3.136 .7 | 3,079.9 |
| OAS/GIS Deneticiaries ${ }^{\text {m }}$ ( 000 s ) | 2,236.0 | 2,302.8 | 2,368.6 | 2.425 .7 | 2.490 .9 | 2,569.5 | 2.652.2 | 2.748 .5 |
| Canada Assistance Plan beneticiaries (000s) | $1,334.3$ | 1.418 .4 | 1,502.8 | 1.832 .9 | 1.894 .9 | 1.923 .3 | 1.892 .9 | 1,902.9 |
| ECOMOMEIC INDICATORS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| GDP (1981 \$) - annual \% change | +1.5 | +3.7 | -3.2 | +3.2 | +6.3 | +4.3 | +3.3 | $+4.0{ }^{6}$ |
| Annual inflation rate (\%) | 10.2 | 12.5 | 10.8 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 4.4 |
| Uriban housing stafts | 125,013 | 142.441 | 104,792 | 134,207 | 110,874 | 139.408 | 170,863 | 215,340 |

[^2]For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:
Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland -
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and
Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia - 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192
Quebec
Montréal, Québec - 1-514-283-5725 or 1-800-361-2831
Nipissing (Ont.)
Sturgcon Falls, Ontario - 1-705-753-3200
Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario - 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-268-1151

## Manitoba

Winnipeg, Manitoba - 1-204-983-4020 or 1-800-542-3404
Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan - 1-306-780-5405 or 1-800-667-7164

## Alberta \& Northwest Territories

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

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708
British Columbla and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia -
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia -
Zenith 08913
National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

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$\square$ Bill to
$\square$ Ship to


Please provide future service in:
$\square$ English
$\square$ French

## REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

| Catalogue No. | Title | Price (\$ Can.) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Canada | Elsewhere |
| 11-516E | Historical Statistics of Canada | \$60.00 | \$72.00 |
| 13.201 | National Income and Expenditure Accounts | \$30.00 | \$31.00 |
| 63-207 | Motion Picture Theatres and Film Distribulors | \$5.00 | \$6.00 |
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[^0]:    I This article refers only to full-time university teachers.

[^1]:    Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Mousohold Surveys Analysis Division.

[^2]:    - Not availabie: "Not yet available: ${ }^{\rho}$ Preliminary estimates; ${ }^{m}$ Figures as of March.
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