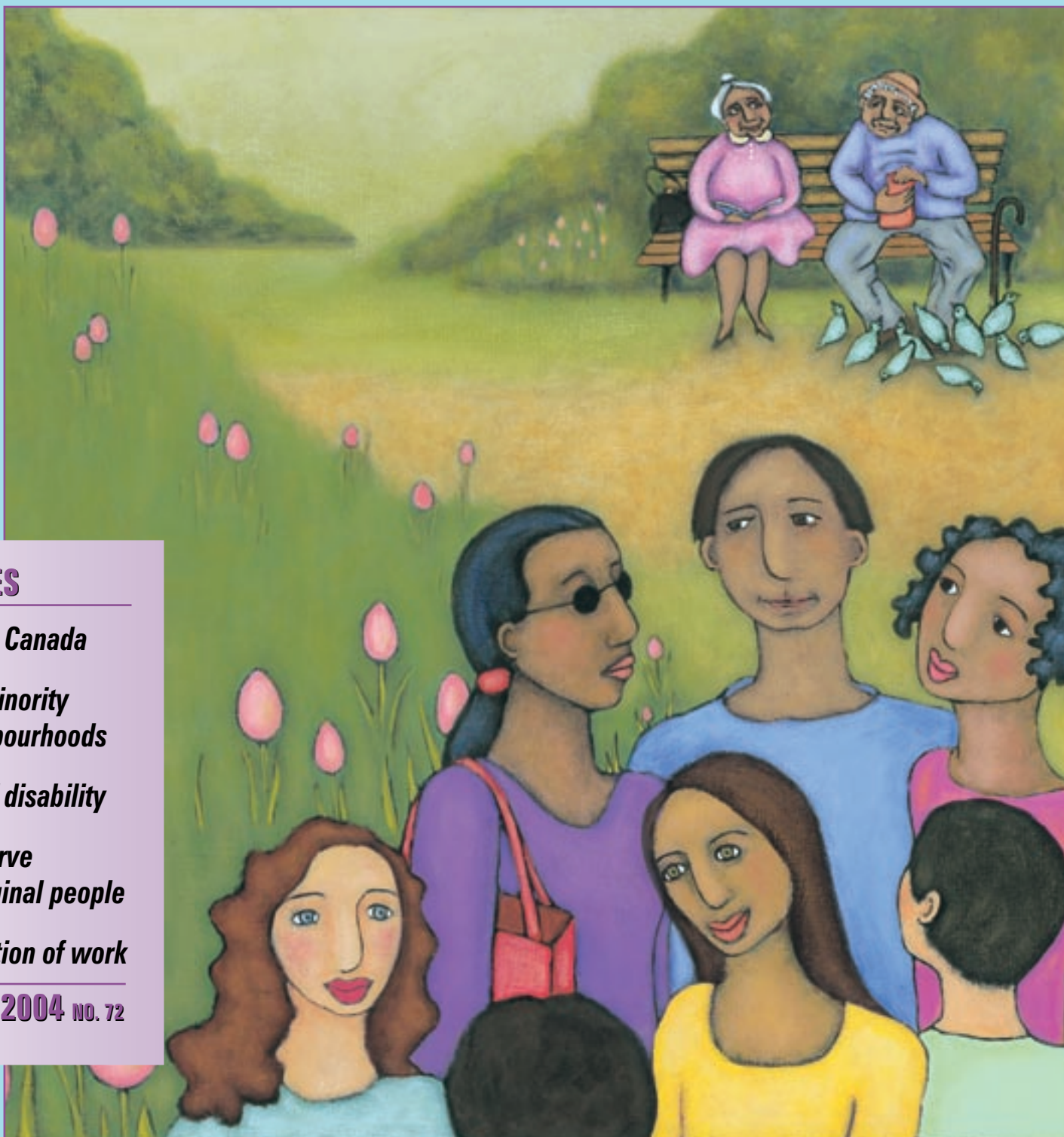




CANADIAN

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SOCIAL TRENDS



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*Visible minority
neighbourhoods*

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K1A 0T6

Fax number: (613) 951-0387
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Research Officer

GILBERT MANSOUR

Production Manager

CYNTHIA FORTURA

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SHIRLEY LI

Marketing/Dissemination

ALEX SOLIS

Art/Printing Direction

DISSEMINATION DIVISION,
STATISTICS CANADA

Design

GRIFFE DESIGN INC.

Cover Illustration

SHARON (LAFFERTY) FLETCHER

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Cover illustrator

Sharon (Lafferty) Fletcher has a background in art education and now paints full time. Her focus is primarily on figurative works characterized by bold lines and strong colour. Humour is a common element and the artist takes pleasure in creating pieces that bring a quick smile to the viewer or remind them of someone they know. Sharon currently resides in Ottawa, Ontario, where she displays her work locally and via the Internet.

Blacks in Canada: A long history

by Anne Milan and Kelly Tran

Canada is home to many visible minority groups,¹ some of whom have a long history here, while others have immigrated in recent years. In 2001, the three largest visible minority groups were Chinese, South Asians, and Blacks. There is, however, much diversity between and within minority groups. Blacks, in particular, vary extensively in their roots, with some born in the Caribbean, others in Africa, while yet others have been in Canada for many generations.

The experience of Canadian-born Blacks in this country differs from

that of foreign-born Blacks. This analysis will examine the historical and current residential settlement patterns of Blacks, and the places of birth of Black immigrants, especially those who arrived during the 1990s. In addition, the labour market experience of Blacks, and some family characteristics will also be explored.

First Blacks came to Canada 400 years ago

The first Black person in Canada, who served as an interpreter under Governor de Monts in Nova Scotia, was

reported in 1605.² From 1628 until the early 1800s, Black slavery existed, particularly in Eastern Canada, where Loyalists immigrating from the United States would often bring slaves with them. In the late 1700s, Canada also became home to some Black Loyalists who had been promised land grants for supporting the British during the American Revolution.³ Many early Blacks chose to remain in Canada and founded settlements in Nova Scotia and Ontario, and, later, in Western Canada with the opening of the frontier in the mid-1800s.

The 1901 Census of Population reported 17,400 Blacks (or what the early censuses refer to as "Negro") living in Canada, or 0.3% of the population. In the early 1900s, the growth in the Black population did not keep pace with that of other visible minority groups, particularly the Chinese. For example, while the number of Blacks actually decreased from 21,400 in 1881 to 19,500 in 1931, the number of Chinese grew tenfold from



1. Visible minorities are defined by the *Employment Equity Act* as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-White in colour". "Black" is one of the groups which make up the visible minority population, as identified by Employment Equity regulations.
2. Saney, I. 1998 "Canada: The Black Nova Scotian odyssey: a chronology." *Race & Class* 40, 1: 78-91.
3. Henry, F., C. Tator, W. Mattis, and T. Rees. 1998. *The Colour of Democracy: Racism in Canadian Society*. Scarborough, ON: Nelson Thomson.

CST What you should know about this study

This analysis uses data from the 2001 Census of Population, which asked respondents to identify themselves as belonging to one or more population groups. Blacks self-reported by checking a mark-in category on the questionnaire. Respondents could identify with several groups and could therefore check several boxes on the questionnaire, but most chose only one. With the exception of a small number of respondents who identified themselves as belonging to both Black and White groups, multiple responses are excluded from this analysis.

This type of question, used to identify visible minorities, was first introduced in the 1996 Census. Prior to 1996, data on visible minorities were derived from responses to the ethnic origin question, in conjunction with other ethnocultural information, such as language, place of birth and religion. Because different Census questions are used to identify the Black population over time, there may be some comparability problems in the time series.

4,400 to 46,500 during the same period.⁴ Most Blacks living in Canada during this time resided in Ontario or the Maritime provinces. Over the next several decades, the number of Blacks in Canada grew slowly, to 32,100 in 1961, accounting for 0.2% of the population.

During the 1960s, immigration policy reforms eliminated preferences for immigrants of European origin and implemented a points-based system for economic immigrants to ensure maximum employability in an economy where skilled labour was becoming a priority.⁵ Immigrants gained points based on criteria such as occupational skills, educational level, knowledge of English or French and age. Consequently, the source countries of immigrants became more diversified, including increasing numbers of Blacks from the Caribbean and Africa. By 1991, there were 504,300 Blacks living in Canada, roughly 1.9% of the total population.

Blacks are the third largest visible minority group

In 2001, Blacks were the third largest visible minority group in Canada, behind Chinese and South Asians. The 2001 Census enumerated 662,200 Blacks, representing just over 2% of Canada's total population and 17% of the visible minority population.

CST Number of Blacks increase substantially in recent decades

	Black population	Blacks in population (%)
1871*	21,500	0.6
1881	21,400	0.5
1901	17,500	0.3
1911	16,900	0.2
1921	18,300	0.2
1931	19,500	0.2
1941	22,200	0.2
1951	18,000	0.1
1961	32,100	0.2
1971	34,400	0.2
1981	239,500	1.0
1991	504,300	1.9
2001	662,200	2.2

*Includes Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

Note: 1996 was the first time a question on the population group was asked and used to derive counts for visible minorities. Prior to 1996, data on visible minorities were derived from responses to the ethnic origin question, in conjunction with other ethnocultural information, such as language, place of birth and religion.

Source: Statistics Canada, censuses of population.

4. Statistics Canada. 1936. 1931 *Census of Canada* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 98-1931, vol. 1).
5. Reitz, J.G. 2002. *Immigration and Canadian Nation-building in the Transition to a Knowledge Economy*. www.utoronto.ca/ethnicstudies/Reitz_june2002.pdf (accessed March 11, 2003). p. 3-4; Reitz, J.G. 2001. "Immigrant success in the knowledge economy: Institutional change and the immigrant experience in Canada, 1970-1995." *Journal of Social Issues* 57, 3: 579-613.

In 2001, in Atlantic Canada, Blacks represented just over 1% of the population. Yet many Blacks in the Atlantic provinces have a history dating back several centuries. Most Black residents in Atlantic Canada are third-generation Canadian or beyond. Like their counterparts across Canada, Blacks who settled in Halifax more than 200 years ago were promised land grants and adequate food, clothing and shelter, but instead, many experienced destitute conditions. Despite these difficulties, Blacks established communities throughout Nova Scotia, one of the most famous located in the part of Halifax known as Africville.¹ A tightly-knit social network, Africville was formed by Black families as a way to maintain their culture and to resist poor treatment by the broader society.

Over time, several facilities were developed near the area, including a slaughterhouse, an infectious diseases hospital and a garbage dump. By the early 1960s, these residents were still without water or sewer services, and many residents were living in substandard housing. Consequently, Africville was perceived by outsiders

to be a slum area. The residents of Africville were relocated into public housing. This meant many Blacks became renters instead of landowners, and many felt that they lost the sense of belonging and neighbourhood which they had previously shared. A monument to Africville now stands in a park where the vibrant community once stood.

Today, in Nova Scotia, and especially in Halifax, there is a large population of Blacks who have called Canada home for many generations. In 2001, over 90% of Blacks living in Halifax were Canadian-born, the highest proportion among census metropolitan areas. Eight in 10 Haligonian Blacks aged 15 and older were third-generation or beyond, compared with one in 10 Blacks in Canada overall. There were nearly 13,100 Blacks in Halifax in 2001, representing close to 4% of the population, the third largest proportion behind Toronto and Montréal.

1. Clairmont, D.H. and D.W. Magill. 1999. *Africville: The Life and Death of a Canadian Black Community*. Toronto: Canadian Scholars' Press.

In comparison, Blacks accounted for 13% of the population of the United States.⁶ Between 1991 and 2001, the population of Canada increased by 10% while the Black population grew by 31% and the total visible minority population grew by 58%. The rapid growth of the Black population and other visible minorities has contributed to Canada's changing cultural mosaic.

Nearly half of Blacks are born in Canada

The recent rapid growth of many visible minority groups has been driven by immigration. However, many Blacks have a long history of residing in

Canada. In 2001, nearly one half (45%) of Blacks were born in Canada, second only to Japanese (65%), and much higher than South Asians (29%) or Chinese (25%). In fact, that year only one in five Blacks was an immigrant who came to Canada in the previous 10 years compared with more than one in three Chinese and South Asians.

Among the Black population aged 15 and older, second-generation Blacks, or those who were Canadian-born with at least one parent born outside of Canada, accounted for 19% of the Black population. This proportion is behind only that of the Japanese population (31%) and was slightly higher than the national average (16%).

The third generation and beyond are those who have a longer ancestral history in Canada. These are people whose parents were also born in Canada. In 2001, 10% of Blacks were third-generation Canadian. In areas

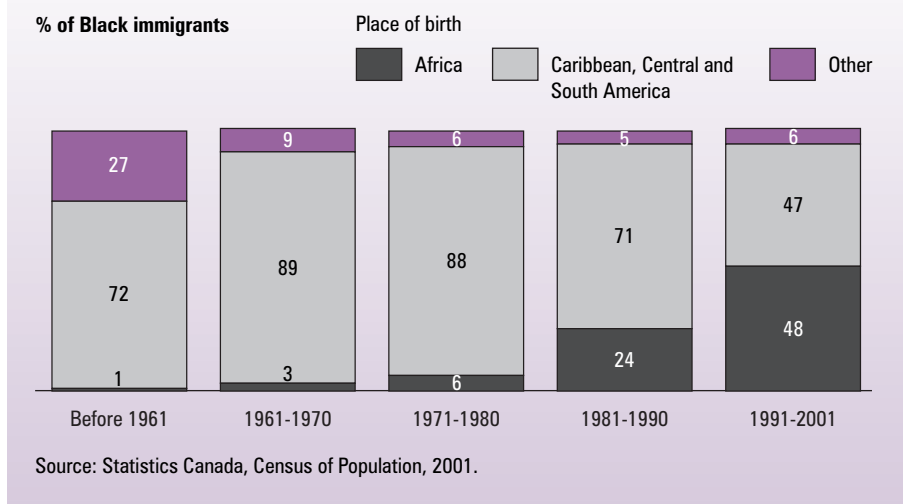
which have a longer history of Black settlement, such as Nova Scotia, more than four in five (84%) Black residents were at least third-generation Canadian.

Black immigrants come from many countries

In 2001, about 48% of Black immigrants who came to Canada in the 1990s were born in Africa, virtually the same proportion as those born in the Caribbean, Central and South America (47%). Compared with Black immigrants from earlier decades, the source regions have shifted dramatically. Among foreign-born Blacks who came to Canada before 1961, only 1% was born in Africa, and 72% came from the Caribbean, Central and South America.

The Black foreign-born community consists of people from many different parts of the world, but predominantly from countries in the Caribbean and Africa. According to the 2001 Census,

6. McKinnon, J. April 2003. "The Black population in the United States: March 2002." *Current Population Reports*. U.S. Census Bureau. www.census.gov/prod/2003pubs/p20-541.pdf (accessed October 30, 2003).



one third of the 4,400 Blacks who arrived in Canada prior to 1961 were born in Jamaica. Those from Barbados accounted for 15%, the United Kingdom (6%), Trinidad and Tobago (6%), and the United States (5%).

During the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, the number of Black newcomers to Canada grew. Jamaica remained the leading source of Black immigrants with 30% to 40% of all immigrants while Haiti became the second largest source. Haiti accounted for nearly 20% of Black immigrants during the 1970s and 1980s. During this period, declining proportions of Black immigrants arrived from Barbados, the United Kingdom and the United States.

According to the Census, about 139,800 Black immigrants residing in Canada in 2001 had arrived between 1991 and 2001. One fifth (20%) were from Jamaica, followed by Haiti (12%), Somalia (10%), Ghana (8%), and Ethiopia (5%).

Black population younger than the overall population

In 2001, Blacks had a much younger age structure than the total Canadian population. Children under age 15 accounted for nearly 30% of the Black population, compared with 19% of

the total population. In addition, 17% of Blacks were aged 15 to 24 compared with 13% in the overall population. However, only 5% of Blacks were aged 65 or over, less than half the proportion of the Canadian population (12%). Possible explanations for this pattern include higher fertility and mortality rates for Blacks than the overall population.

Black children more likely to live in lone-parent families

According to the 2001 Census, a much higher proportion of Black children aged 0 to 14 lived with only one parent than other children (46% versus 18%).⁷ Canadian-born Black children were more likely to live with a lone parent (47%) than were foreign-born Black children (40%). Some researchers have argued that the economic obstacles faced by Blacks have affected their family circumstances.⁸ Census data also found that Black children were more likely than other children to be living in low-income households (44% compared to 19%).⁹

Of the nearly 118,000 couples involving Blacks in 2001, 57% involved two Black partners, while 43% were comprised of a Black person and a non-Black person, most often a Black male

and a white female. The duration of residence in Canada for many Blacks may partially explain why they have one of the highest proportions of mixed marriages or common-law relationships among visible minority couples.

Almost half of Canada's Blacks live in Toronto

In 2001, almost all Blacks (97%) lived in urban areas and nearly one half (47%) of the Black population, about 310,500, lived in the Toronto census metropolitan area (CMA), one of the most ethnically and culturally diverse urban areas in the world.¹⁰ Blacks represent 7% of Toronto's total population, the highest proportion among CMAs. In some municipalities within Toronto, Blacks represented even larger shares of the population: Brampton (10%), Ajax (10%), and Pickering (9%).

In Toronto, 57% of Blacks were foreign-born. Close to three-quarters (73%) of the 178,200 foreign-born Blacks in Toronto were born in the Caribbean, and South and Central America, mainly from Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana. Indeed, every year since 1967 Toronto has celebrated its Caribbean presence with a carnival known as Caribana, which displays Caribbean culture in costume, music and dance.

7. Data for children aged 0 to 14 excludes a small proportion of children living in the territories or on Indian reserves.

8. Calliste, A. 1996. "Black families in Canada: Exploring the interconnections of race, class, and gender." In M. Lynn (ed.), *Voices: Essays on Canadian Families*. Toronto: Nelson Canada.

9. These are households below the low income cut-offs. The cut-offs convey the income level at which a family may be in difficult circumstances because it has to spend a greater proportion of its income on the basics (food, shelter and clothing) than the average family of similar size.

10. Statistics Canada. 2003. *Canada's Ethno-cultural Portrait: The Changing Mosaic* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 96F0030XIE2001008).

Selected census metropolitan areas	Black population (number)	% of total population who are Blacks	% of Blacks who are Canadian-born	% change in Black population 1991-2001
Canada	662,200	2.2	45	31
Toronto	310,500	6.7	40	29
Montréal	139,300	4.1	41	37
Halifax	13,100	3.7	91	24
Ottawa-Gatineau	38,200	3.6	38	75
Windsor	8,100	2.7	60	87
Oshawa	7,200	2.4	52	34
Hamilton	12,800	2.0	48	30
Kitchener	7,300	1.8	46	29
London	7,600	1.8	52	43
Winnipeg	11,400	1.7	45	17
Edmonton	14,100	1.5	49	20
Calgary	13,700	1.4	45	34
Vancouver	18,400	0.9	48	20
Non CMAs	41,000	0.4	72	14

Source: Statistics Canada, censuses of population.

Montréal has the second largest Black population in the nation (139,300), representing over 4% of its population. In some Montréal communities, Blacks represent even larger proportions of the population: Montréal-Nord (15%), LaSalle (9%) and Pierrefonds (9%). Like Toronto, most Blacks in Montréal (55%) are foreign-born and predominantly from the Caribbean, South and Central America. In 2001, 78% of Montréal's 76,200 foreign-born Blacks were born in this region, primarily Haiti where French is the official language. Fewer than one fifth (18%) of foreign-born Blacks living in Montréal in 2001 were born in Africa.

Canadian-born Blacks are just as likely to be university educated as others born in Canada

Blacks of prime working age (age 25 to 54) are less likely to be university educated and more likely to have a college education than the total population. In 2001, foreign-born and Canadian-born Blacks of prime working

	Total population					Blacks			
	Canadian-born		Foreign-born			Canadian-born		Foreign-born	
	1991	2001	1991	2001		1991	2001	1991	2001
Highest level of education	%								
Less than high school graduation	27	20	26	19		30	17	24	18
High school graduation	27	25	24	22		27	27	26	25
Trades	14	14	13	10		13	12	15	14
College	15	20	14	16		15	23	19	24
University	17	21	23	32		15	21	15	20
Labour force outcomes									
Age-standardized employment rate	78	81	77	76		72	76	77	77
Age-standardized unemployment rate	9.0	6.0	9.6	7.0		12.5	7.9	12.5	9.6
	1990	2000	1990	2000		1990	2000	1990	2000
Employment income	\$								
Average	34,100	37,200	34,900	34,800		29,200	29,700	30,100	28,700
Average age-standardized	34,100	37,200	34,900	34,800		30,000	32,000	30,700	29,200

Note: Includes prime working age population aged 25 to 54.

Source: Statistics Canada, censuses of population.

age are just as likely as all Canadian-born persons aged 25 to 54 to have a university education — about one in five. However, foreign-born Blacks are much less likely than other immigrants to have a university education. In 2001, 20% of foreign-born Blacks of prime-working age have a university education compared with 32% of all prime-working age immigrants. Recent Black immigrants tend to be better educated and more highly skilled than Canadian-born Blacks because admission of immigrants has increasingly emphasized skills which promote economic independence once in Canada.

Over the last decade, employment rates for Canadian-born Blacks improved while those of foreign-born Blacks remained the same. In 2001, the age-standardized employment rate of prime working age Canadian-born Blacks (76%) remained lower than the rate for all Canadian-born persons of prime working age (81%).¹¹ Although foreign-born Blacks aged 25 to 54 were substantially less likely to be university educated than other immigrants, employment rates were the same for both groups in both 1991 and 2001 at about 77%.

Unemployment rates in 2001 were substantially lower than they were in 1991, but rates for Blacks were higher than those for all prime working age adults. In 1991, Canadian-born and foreign-born Blacks of prime working age both had a 12.5% age-standardized unemployment rate. Like other visible minority groups, the unemployment rate of Canadian-born Blacks dropped more than that of foreign-born Blacks. In 2001, Canadian-born Blacks had a 7.9% unemployment rate compared with 9.6% for foreign-born Blacks.

Although Canadian-born Blacks aged 25 to 54 were just as likely to be university educated as all Canadian-born persons in the same age group, in 2000, Canadian-born Blacks' average employment income was substantially lower than all Canadian-born persons

(\$29,700 versus \$37,200). The younger age distribution of the Black population may contribute to the earnings gap, as younger people usually have lower earnings. Age-standardizing average employment earnings of Canadian-born Blacks aged 25 to 54 increases their average employment income to \$32,000 and reduces the earnings gap.¹² Between 1990 and 2000, the age-standardized average employment income of Canadian-born Blacks aged 25 to 54 increased by 7% compared with a 9% increase for all Canadian-born persons in the same age group.

Although foreign-born Blacks were less likely to be university educated than all foreign-born persons aged 25 to 54, the earnings gap was narrower than for Canadian-born Blacks, and earnings dropped between 1990 and 2000. Foreign-born Blacks aged 25 to 54 earned less than all foreign-born persons in the same age group (\$28,700 versus \$34,800). Age-standardizing foreign-born Blacks average employment income increases it to \$29,200. Between 1990 and 2000 the age-standardized average employment income for foreign-born Blacks decreased by 5% while it decreased by less than 1% for all foreign-born Canadians aged 25 to 54.

Lower employment rates and employment income and higher unemployment rates for Blacks may be related to discrimination or unfair treatment. According to the Ethnic Diversity Survey, Blacks are more likely to feel that they had been discriminated against or treated unfairly by others because of their ethnicity, culture, race, skin colour, language, accent or religion. Nearly one third (32%) of Blacks aged 15 and over said they had had these experiences sometimes or often in the past five years, compared with 20% of all visible minorities and 5% of those who were not a visible minority. Another 17% of Blacks rarely reported these experiences, compared with 15% for all

visible minorities and 5% of those who were not a visible minority.

Summary

Blacks in Canada have diverse backgrounds and experiences in Canada. Some Blacks can trace their roots in Canada back several centuries, while others have immigrated in recent decades, and are just putting down roots. In many ways, Blacks have helped shape the cultural mosaic of the local and national landscape.

The Black population is growing faster than the Canadian population and is concentrated in Canada's largest cities, especially Toronto. Blacks are younger and their children are more likely to be living in lone-parent families and in low income households. Canadian-born Blacks are just as likely to be university educated as all persons aged 25 to 54 born in Canada, but foreign-born Blacks are much less likely to have a university education than other foreign-born persons. Blacks, in particular those who were Canadian-born, are slightly less likely to be employed and had lower employment incomes and have higher unemployment rates than all 25- to 54-year-olds.

11. All employment and unemployment rates are age-standardized. Rates for Canadian-born Blacks age 25 to 54 are age-standardized to the same age distribution as all Canadian-born persons in this age group while rates of foreign-born Blacks are standardized to the age distribution of all foreign-born people.

12. Average employment earnings of Canadian-born Blacks age 25 to 54 is age-standardized to the same age distribution as all Canadian-born people in this age group.



Anne Milan is an analyst with *Canadian Social Trends* and **Kelly Tran** is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

Visible minority neighbourhoods in Toronto, Montréal, and Vancouver

by Feng Hou and Garnett Picot

Within Canada's large cities, ethnic neighbourhoods with a significant presence of a visible minority group vividly reflect how successive waves of immigrants have adjusted and adapted to Canadian society. The once up-and-coming neighbourhoods of some earlier European immigrant groups, such as "Little Italy" or "Little Greece," have gradually dispersed or stopped growing as the result of declining immigration from these countries.

Unlike the 19th and early 20th century, immigrants arriving in the later half of the 20th century have settled primarily in a few large metropolitan areas. Many of these recent immigrants belong to visible minority groups.¹ In 2001, nearly three-quarters (73%) of the nation's 4 million visible minorities lived in Canada's largest census metropolitan areas (CMAs): Toronto, Montréal, and Vancouver.² According to the 2001 Census of Population, about one third (34%) of the visible minority population entered Canada during the 1990s, one third (33%) are immigrants who entered Canada before

1991 and another one third (30%) are Canadian-born.³ In 2001, the three largest groups, in the decreasing order of their population size, were the South Asians, Chinese, and Blacks in Toronto; Blacks, Arabs and West Asians, and South Asians in Montréal; and the Chinese, South Asians, and Filipinos in Vancouver.

In this article, the expansion of visible minority neighbourhoods in Canada's three largest CMAs is examined using Census data from 1981 to 2001. The article explores how visible minority neighbourhoods were formed. In particular, are they formed by non-visible minority residents moving out as large numbers of a visible minority group move into the neighbourhood?

Visible minority neighbourhoods are formed in a variety of ways

There are many possible reasons for the establishment of visible minority neighbourhoods in Canada's largest cities. International immigration has historically provided a demographic base for the emergence of ethnic neighbourhoods. Kinship ties and community

bonds associated with immigration may draw together newcomers of the same origin.⁴ Visible minority neighbourhoods could form rapidly if immigrants from a minority group settle exclusively

1. Visible minorities are defined by the *Employment Equity Act* as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour." Chinese, South Asians and Blacks are among the groups identified as visible minorities in the Employment Equity regulations.
2. Statistics Canada. 2003. 2001 Census: analysis series. *Canada's Ethnocultural Portrait: The Changing Mosaic* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no: 96F0030XIE 2001008).
3. In 2001, another 3% of visible minorities were non-permanent residents.
4. The Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada, conducted during 2000 and 2001, found that family and friends were a strong magnet for newcomers. In fact, 41% of newcomers chose where they live because they had a family member living there and 18% chose because they had friends living there. Statistics Canada. 2003. *Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada: Process, Progress and Prospects* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-611).

This study used data from the 1981 to 2001 censuses. Census tracts are small geographic areas that usually have a population of a few thousand. In 2001, the median population size of tracts was about 4,000 to 5,000. In this article, a census tract is the basic unit of neighbourhood. A census tract becomes a visible minority neighbourhood if a visible minority group represents over 30% of the population of the tract.

The isolation index measures the extent to which minority group members are exposed only to one another in their neighbourhood.¹ The index ranges from 0 to 100, and is interpreted as the probability that a member of one group will only meet other members of the same group. In this article, the groups are particular visible minorities. For example, an isolation index value of 13 for Blacks in Toronto is interpreted as Blacks having a 13% chance of only meeting other Blacks in their neighbourhood.

The isolation index depends on a group's residential segregation where a group becomes increasingly concentrated in particular neighbourhoods and on its proportion in the CMA's population. The effect upon the isolation index of changes in a group's proportion in the CMA's population between two time points can be estimated by holding the group's initial distribution constant.

Changes in the composition of visible minority neighbourhoods

Between 1981 and 2001, the population in some neighbourhoods grew substantially. When substantial growth occurs within a tract, the census divides it into two or more tracts. New tracts are also added as the boundaries of CMAs expand. To study changes in neighbourhoods over the 20-year period, census tracts were longitudinally

matched using published conversion tables. New tracts created due to CMA expansion are excluded from the longitudinal analysis of visible minority neighbourhoods.

The composition of the population in census tracts is traced between 1981 and 2001 using longitudinally-matched census tracts. Each tract is classified into one of four types based on the characteristics of the change in composition: relative concentration, rapid replacement, gradual transition and stable or in decline. In the case of "relative concentration", both non-visible minorities and a visible minority group increased in numbers in a neighbourhood, but the visible minority group increased at a faster pace. For both "rapid replacement" and "gradual transition", the non-visible minority population in the neighbourhood decreases while a visible minority group increases. "Rapid replacement" and "gradual transition" only differ in the rate of decrease of the non-visible minority population. "Rapid replacement" implies that the rate of decrease of the non-visible minority population is faster than that of "gradual transition."² Lastly, a minority neighbourhood is classified as "stable or in decline" if the percentage of the minority group did not increase between 1981 and 2001.

1. Massey, D.S. and N.A. Denton. 1993. *American Apartheid: Segregation and the Making of the Underclass*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
2. Visible minority neighbourhoods formed by rapid replacement have a non-visible minority population that decreases at a rate higher than the median rate among all tracts that experienced decreases in the non-visible minority population. The median rate of decrease between 1981 and 2001 was 24% in Toronto, 20% in Montréal and 21% in Vancouver.

How visible minority neighbourhoods are formed

Method of formation	Number of longitudinally-matched census tracts that are visible minority neighbourhoods in 2001
Total	142
Relative concentration	12
Gradual transition	15
Rapid replacement	111
Stable or in decline	4

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

in neighbourhoods where members of the same minority already live.

Concentration of a visible minority is most likely to occur in neighbourhoods with new housing developments and owner-occupied housing. Members of a visible minority group who arrive in large numbers may have a strong demand for home ownership, which can only be satisfied where housing is in plentiful supply. Group differences in housing demand and the spatial concentration of the supply of housing in a given period may influence the formation of visible minority neighbourhoods.

New immigrants could also be restricted to poor neighbourhoods with affordable housing since they often come at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder in the receiving society. Many neighbourhoods experience a life cycle as the neighbourhoods age and as relative housing values change. The composition of the population of the neighbourhoods also changes as families in a neighbourhood are often at similar life stages (child-birth, children in school, children leaving home, retirement). When neighbourhood housing no longer meets the needs for the residents' stage in the life course, they may move away to be replaced by new immigrant groups.

Residential segregation may also endure because of "social distance."⁵ There may be own-group preference in choosing neighbours, either on the part of minority group members to stay in proximity to each other, or as an avoidance strategy on the part of dominant group members. This tends to preserve ethnic residential segregation.⁶ Racism and discrimination may also play a role.

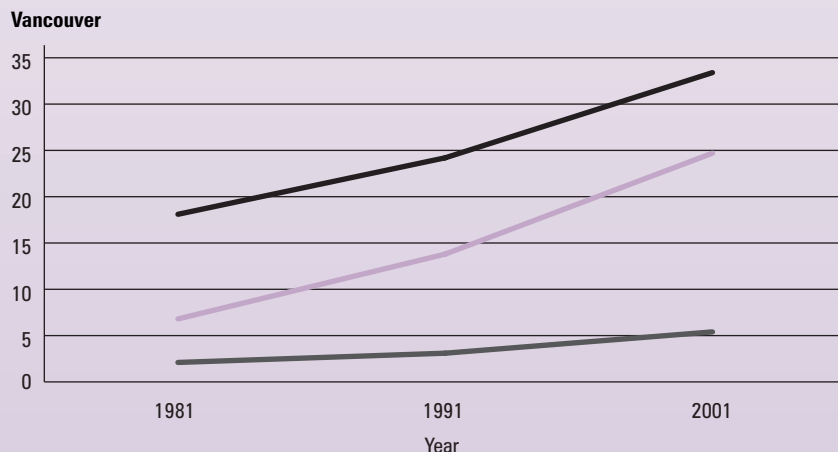
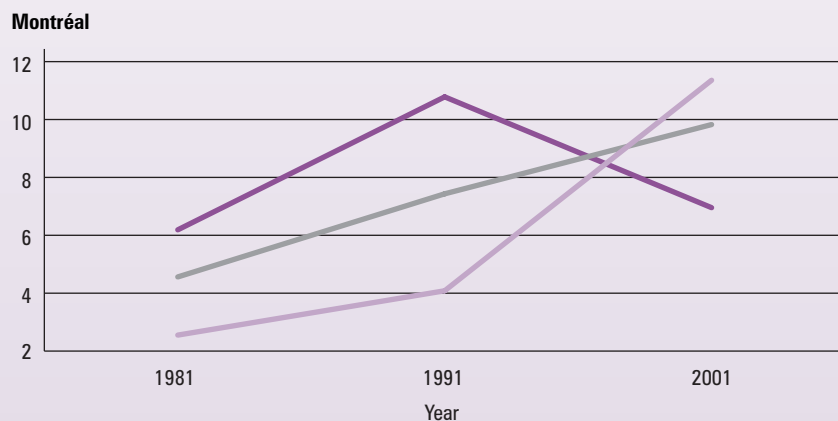
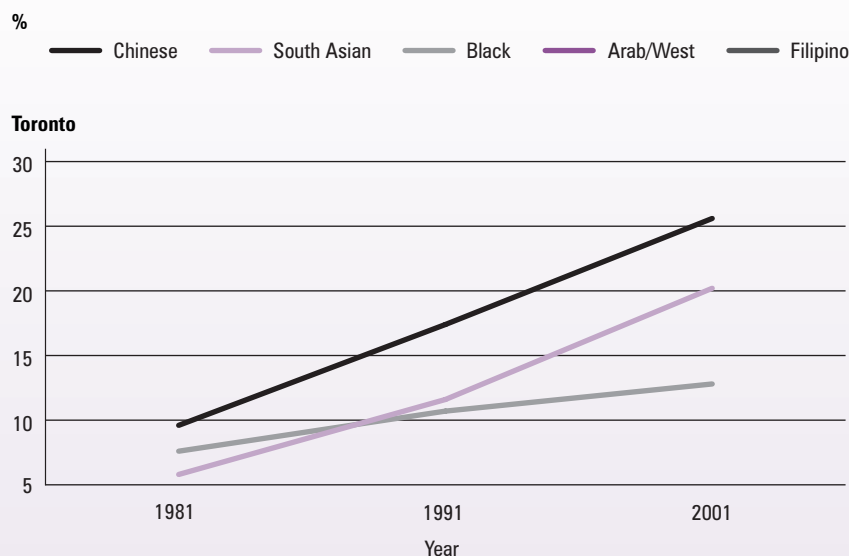
The number of visible minority neighbourhoods is growing

In this article, a visible minority neighbourhood has over 30% of its population from a particular visible minority group. The number of such

CST Visible minorities have an increasing share of the population in Canada's three largest CMAs			
		Visible minority group as a % of the total population	Isolation index
Toronto			
South Asian	1981	2.7	6
	1991	6.0	12
	2001	10.6	20
Chinese	1981	3.1	10
	1991	6.4	17
	2001	9.2	26
Black	1981	4.1	8
	1991	6.2	11
	2001	6.9	13
Montréal			
Black	1981	1.8	5
	1991	3.2	8
	2001	4.2	10
Arab/West Asian	1981	1.2	6
	1991	3.0	11
	2001	2.4	7
South Asian	1981	0.6	3
	1991	1.0	4
	2001	1.7	12
Vancouver			
Chinese	1981	6.8	18
	1991	10.9	24
	2001	17.4	33
South Asian	1981	3.0	7
	1991	5.4	14
	2001	8.4	25
Filipino	1981	0.9	2
	1991	1.6	3
	2001	2.9	5

Source: Statistics Canada, censuses of population.

- Massey, D.S. 1981. "Social class and ethnic segregation: A reconsideration of methods and conclusions." *American Sociological Review* 46, 5: 641-650; Driedger, L. 1989. *The Ethnic Factor: Identity in Diversity*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited.
- Schelling, T. 1971. "Dynamic models of segregation." *Journal of Mathematical Sociology* 1: 143-186; Clark, W. 1989. "Residential segregation in American cities: Common ground and differences in interpretation." *Population Research and Policy Review* 8: 193-197.



Note: 1996 was the first time a question on the population group was asked and used to derive counts for visible minorities. Prior to 1996, data on visible minorities was derived from responses to the ethnic origin question, in conjunction with other ethnocultural information, such as language, place of birth and religion. These changes in particular affected counts of the Arab/West Asian group.

Source: Statistics Canada, censuses of population.

neighbourhoods increased dramatically between 1981 and 2001 in Canada's three largest metropolitan areas; 6 in 1981, 77 in 1991 and 254 in 2001.⁷ More than 60% of these minority neighbourhoods were Chinese (157 out of 254), and they were primarily in Vancouver and Toronto. About one third were South Asian (83), distributed primarily in Toronto and Vancouver. There were relatively few Black neighbourhoods in Canadian cities: 13 in 2001. This may be because the Black population in Canada is a diverse population made-up of people who have been in Canada for several generations as well as immigrants from diverse regions, especially the Caribbean and Africa. Toronto and Vancouver have many more visible minority neighbourhoods (135 and 111, respectively in 2001) than Montréal (8).

In Toronto, most of the Chinese neighbourhoods are located in Scarborough, Markham and Richmond Hill, and less than 10% of Chinese neighbourhoods are in the old Chinatowns east and west of the downtown core. South Asian neighbourhoods are scattered over East York, North York, Scarborough, Mississauga and Brampton. Blacks are concentrated in Etobicoke and North York. In Montréal, the few minority neighbourhoods are scattered around the downtown area. In Vancouver, Chinese neighbourhoods are primarily located in the City of Vancouver and in parts of Richmond and Burnaby, while most of the South Asian neighbourhoods are in Surrey.

7. There was little overlap in the minority neighbourhoods of different groups. Among the 135 visible minority neighbourhoods in Toronto, only in three did both Chinese and South Asians represent at least 30% of the neighbourhood population. In addition, in only one neighbourhood did both South Asians and Blacks each have at least a 30% share of the population.

Visible minorities increased their presence in most neighbourhoods
Not only has the number of minority neighbourhoods increased, but the presence of visible minorities has also increased in other neighbourhoods. One of the measures of the average presence of a group in neighbourhoods across a CMA is the isolation index. This index is interpreted as the probability that a member of a visible minority group will meet only members of the same group in a particular neighbourhood.

The isolation index for the Chinese in Toronto and Vancouver and for South Asians in all three CMAs increased substantially. This was influenced by the arrival of new immigrants from the same visible minority groups and by the natural increase in visible minorities already in Canada. The Chinese in Toronto had an isolation index of 26% in 2001. This was up from 10% in 1981. The isolation index for the Chinese in Vancouver increased to 33% in 2001 from 18% in 1981. In 2001, the isolation index for South Asians in Vancouver was 25%; in Toronto, 20%; and in Montréal, 12%. Other visible minorities also experienced increases in their isolation indexes, although their isolation indexes remained much lower than those for South Asians and the Chinese.

The calculation of the isolation index is dependent on a group's residential segregation and upon the group's proportion of the total population in the CMA. In nearly all of the cases where the isolation index has increased, most of the increase is associated with the growth in a group's share of the city population rather than increased concentration of the group in particular neighbourhoods. Visible minority groups have a much larger share of the populations of Toronto, Montréal, and Vancouver in 2001 than in 1981.⁸ The increase is particularly strong among South

Asians, whose share almost tripled in Montréal and Vancouver and quadrupled in Toronto.

For the Chinese in Vancouver, all of the increase in their isolation index was due to the increase in their population share. For South Asians and Blacks in Toronto, Blacks in Montréal and Filipinos in Vancouver, over 70% of the increase in their isolation index was associated with a larger population share. Only among South Asians in Vancouver and Montréal was increased residential segregation the dominant factor in growth in their isolation index.

Visible minorities replace some non-visible minority residents in minority neighbourhoods

Most of the newly-formed visible minority neighbourhoods went through a transition where the population of the visible minority group increased while the numbers of those who did not identify themselves as visible minorities decreased. When the rate of decrease of the non-visible minority in a neighbourhood is greater than the median of all neighbourhoods losing non-visible minority population, this transition is called "rapid replacement," as a visible minority group replaces some of the non-visible minority residents.

In Toronto, 23 out of 26 newly-formed South Asian neighbourhoods, 24 out of 32 newly-formed Chinese neighbourhoods, and 5 out of 6 of Black neighbourhoods were created through rapid replacement in which many non-visible minority residents

moved out while visible minority group members moved in. In Montréal, all 3 Black and 3 South Asian neighbourhoods experienced rapid replacement. In Vancouver, 48 out of the 55 newly-formed Chinese neighbourhoods and 5 out of 12 South Asian neighbourhoods experienced rapid replacement.⁹

The visible minority presence increased in visible minority neighbourhoods and it also increased in neighbourhoods with lower concentrations of visible minorities. Even for the Chinese, who had the highest concentration level in Vancouver and Toronto among the selected groups, only about half of its population lived in Chinese neighbourhoods (i.e. with over 30% of the population who were Chinese). Less than 5% of the Blacks in Toronto and Montréal lived in Black neighbourhoods, probably because the Black population is diverse.

As visible minority neighbourhoods have become more common, analysis suggests that rapid replacement occurs only in the initial stage of neighbourhood transition. It is unlikely to lead to a complete turnover of population groups. This suggests that co-residence of members from different groups is an important element of communities, even in visible minority neighbourhoods.

Visible minority neighbourhoods have higher unemployment rates

Visible minority neighbourhoods are more likely to experience higher unemployment and low income rates than other neighbourhoods.¹⁰ As the

8. The exception is Arabs/West Asians in Montréal, which had a larger share of the CMA population in 1991 than in 2001. This is mostly likely due to changes in the definition of the Arab/West Asian group.

9. The numbers of visible minority neighbourhoods in this paragraph refer to longitudinally matched census tracts where over 30% of the population belongs to a visible minority group.

10. Hou, F. and G. Picot. 2003. *Visible Minority Neighbourhoods and Labour Market Outcomes of Immigrants*. Analytical Studies Branch research paper series (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 11F0019MIE, no. 204).

presence of a minority group increases, so does the unemployment rate and low-income rate. For example, in Toronto, even though the proportion of the population with university degrees is similar across neighbourhoods with a Chinese presence,¹¹ the unemployment rate¹² rises from 5.7% in neighbourhoods with a minor presence of Chinese (less than 10%) to 7.1% in neighbourhoods where the Chinese account for at least 50% of the population, and the low-income rate increases from 17% to 23%.

Chinese communities in Vancouver and South Asian communities in all three CMAs have similar trends in unemployment and low-income rates. In 2001, the Black neighbourhoods in Montréal had particularly high unemployment and low-income rates, and high proportions of lone-parent families; the three neighbourhoods with a “strong” Black presence (over 30% Black) experienced an average unemployment rate of 21.7%, a low-income rate of 54%, and 41% of the families were lone-parent families. A growing body of literature in the U.S. and Europe points to the negative consequences of living in deprived neighbourhoods on individuals’ socio-economic mobility, health status, and criminal activity.¹³

There are, of course, many reasons for the poor economic outcomes in

visible minority neighbourhoods. Through the 1980s and 1990s, the economic outcomes of successive waves of immigrants to Canada have been declining,¹⁴ while their low-income rate has been rising.¹⁵ Recent immigrants tend to cluster in minority communities, and their economic outcomes are inferior. This affects overall economic conditions of the neighbourhoods where they live.

Summary

The mass immigration of visible minorities has made the ethnic mosaic in Canadian cities more diverse and visible. Visible minority neighbourhoods in Canada’s large metropolitan areas rapidly expanded between 1981 and 2001. These minority neighbourhoods were primarily concentrated among the Chinese and South Asians in Toronto and Vancouver. The rapid emergence of visible minority neighbourhoods in Canada’s three largest CMAs is associated more with the increase in a group’s share in the city population than with an increased concentration of the group in particular neighbourhoods. Most of the visible minority neighbourhoods were formed through an increase in the visible minority group in a neighbourhood, with a corresponding decline in the non-visible minority population.

Ethnic neighbourhoods may affect the socio-economic interaction both within a minority group and between the group and the rest of the society. Residential concentration enables the retention of ethnic identity and the maintenance of religious, educational, and welfare institutions that are crucial for the social interaction of the group. On the other hand, residential concentration of minority groups may result in social isolation and reduce minorities’ incentives to acquire the host-country language or to gain work experience and educational qualifications. Although neighbourhoods with a large concentration of visible minorities tend to have poor economic status, in terms of high unemployment rates and low-income rates, this may be because about one third of visible minorities are recent immigrants.



Feng Hou is a senior analyst with Business and Labour Market Analysis Division and **Garnett Picot** is the Director General of Socio-economic and Business Analysis Branch, Statistics Canada.

11. “Neighbourhoods with a Chinese presence” refers to census tracts with at least one person who identified themselves as Chinese.

12. Unemployment rate is as of May 2001.

13. Massey, D.S. and N.A. Denton. 1993. *American Apartheid: Segregation and the Making of the Underclass*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.; Pickett, K.E. and M. Pearl. 2000. “Multilevel analyses of neighbourhood socioeconomic context and health outcomes: A critical review.” *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 55, 2: 111-122.

14. Reitz, J. 2001. “Immigrant success in the knowledge economy: institutional changes and the immigrant experience in Canada, 1970-1995.” *Journal of Social Issues* 57: 579-613; Frenette, M. and R. Morissette. 2003. *Will They Ever Converge? Earnings of Immigrants and Canadian-born Workers over the Last Two Decades*. Analytical Studies Branch research paper series (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 11F0019MIE, no. 215).

15. Picot, G. and F. Hou. 2002. *Rising Low-income among Recent Immigrants in Canada*. Paper presented at the Canadian Employment Research Forum Conference and annual conference of the Canada Economics Association, May 30-June 2, 2002, Calgary.

Profile of disability in 2001

This article is adapted from several Statistics Canada reports released earlier from the Participation and Activity Limitation Survey, 2001, including: *A Profile of Disability in Canada, 2001*, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-577; *Disability Supports in Canada, 2001*, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-580; *Children with Disabilities and Their Families*, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-585; and *Education, Employment and Income of Adults with and without Disabilities*, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-587. These releases were prepared by Behnaz Behnia, Lucie Cossette and Renée Langlois from Statistics Canada and Edith Duclos from Human Resources Development Canada.

Disabilities that limit everyday activities may have a profound impact on peoples' lives. They vary in severity and tend to become more common and severe with age. They affect different aspects of people's lives with impacts on mobility, agility, independence, the ability to find and hold a job, income levels, leisure activities, psychological well-being and other dimensions of life. As anyone with a child who has disabilities can attest, people's disabilities can also affect the lives of their caregivers.

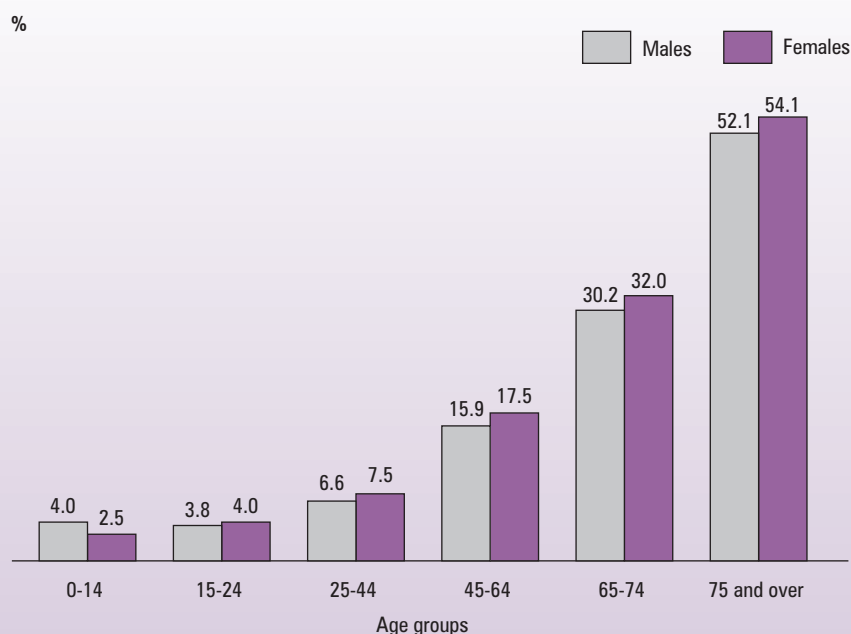
This article profiles disability in Canada using data from the 2001 Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS). It looks at the prevalence of disability in the Canadian population, the severity of disability, types of disability, the impact of child disabilities on parental employment, the need for specialized aids for help with everyday activities, and for specialized modifications to homes, barriers to travel and the impact of disabilities on economic well-being. Persons with disabilities include those who report having difficulties with

CST What you should know about this study

The Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS) is a post-censal survey that sampled about 43,000 people (35,000 adults and 8,000 children) with disabilities whose everyday activities are limited because of a health-related condition or problem. Human Resources Development Canada funded the survey, which took place between September 2001 and January 2002. The survey covers persons residing in private households in the 10 provinces, and excludes people living in institutions and on Indian reserves. Persons with disabilities include those who report having difficulties with daily living activities, or who indicate that a physical, mental or health condition reduces the kind or amount of activities they could do. The respondents' answers to the disability questions represent their perception of the situation and are therefore subjective.

Severity of disability

The severity of disability is based on the intensity and frequency of activity limitations reported by the respondent. For each type of disability, a single score is computed and then standardized. The overall disability score for each respondent is the average score of all disability types. For school-aged children (aged 5 to 14) and adults, these overall scores are divided into four groups — mild, moderate, severe and very severe. For children under age 5, severity of disability scores is divided into two groups — mild to moderate and severe to very severe.



Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey, 2001.

daily living activities, or who indicate that a physical, mental or health condition reduces the kind or amount of activities they could do.

One in eight Canadians has disabilities

In 2001, 3.6 million Canadians living in households experienced limitations in their everyday activities because of physical, psychological or health conditions. This represents a disability rate of 12%. Not surprisingly, the disability rate increases with age. About 3% of children aged 0 to 14 have a disability, compared with 53% of seniors aged 75 and over. In general, women over age 25 have slightly higher disability rates than men in this age group.

Disabilities of children often affect their parents' employment

Among children aged 0 to 4, 26,000 have a disability representing 2% of all children in this age group. Developmental delay¹ is the most common

type of disability for children in this age group, experienced by about two-thirds of children under age 5 with disabilities. Three in five young children are also limited in their activities because of a chronic health condition.

About 155,000 children aged 5 to 14 have a disability, representing a 4% disability rate. Chronic health conditions² and learning disabilities are the two most common forms of disability among these school-aged children. About 66,000 school-aged children experience severe to very severe disabilities.

One in four school-aged children with disabilities receive help with everyday activities including personal care, such as bathing, dressing, feeding or moving within the home, because of a condition or health problem. Mothers provide most of the personal care for 62% of children requiring care while both mothers and fathers provide it in 30% of the cases. Only in 3% of the cases did the father primarily provide help.

Children's disabilities have an impact on the entire family. Parents of 84,000 school-aged children with disabilities report that their child's condition has an impact on their family's employment situation.³ Not surprisingly, this impact is greater in families where children have more severe disabilities. About 40% of children with mild to moderate disabilities have family members whose employment is affected by the child's disability, while among children with severe to very severe disabilities the proportion is 73%. Because mothers are usually the primary caregiver for their children, it is their employment that is most often affected by their child's condition. Households with disabled children had a lower household income than households without disabled children. Parents may work fewer hours or choose jobs based on the availability of flexible hours rather than high pay. On average, in 2000, households of children with disabilities had 88% of the income of households of children without disabilities.

Depending on the type of disability and its severity, children may use specialized aids. Specialized aids such as hearing aids, wheelchairs, magnifiers and voice amplifiers may help a child with daily activities. Of the 155,000

1. Developmental delay refers to children who are delayed in their physical, intellectual or another type of development. Of the 1% of young children with developmental delay, 59% had a delay in their intellectual development, 54% in their physical development and 38% had other types of delay such as speech difficulties.
2. Examples of chronic health conditions, which limit everyday activities, are asthma or severe allergies, complex medical care needs, cerebral palsy, migraines, autism, heart condition or disease, and attention deficit disorders with or without hyperactivity.
3. Examples of an impact on employment include situations where family members had to work fewer hours or change their work hours to a different time of day or night in order to take care of the child.

school-aged children with disabilities, about 94,000 or three out of every five required specialized aids, according to their parents. Of those requiring specialized aids, about 37% had some but needed more, and about 15% did not have any but needed some. Cost was a contributing factor for about half the children with unmet needs for specialized aids.

While specialized aids help the child with daily activities, parents may also need help with housework, or time off for personal activities because of their child's condition. Help can come from family, friends and neighbours and from government organizations and agencies. About 52,000 children with disabilities have parents who need help with housework, family responsibilities and time off for personal activities because of their child's condition. Of these, about one third or 18,000 receive all the help they need, while parents of 34,000 (65%) children with disabilities have unmet needs for help. Once again, cost contributes to preventing parents from getting help (71%), but the unavailability of help from family and friends is also a factor for many (62%).

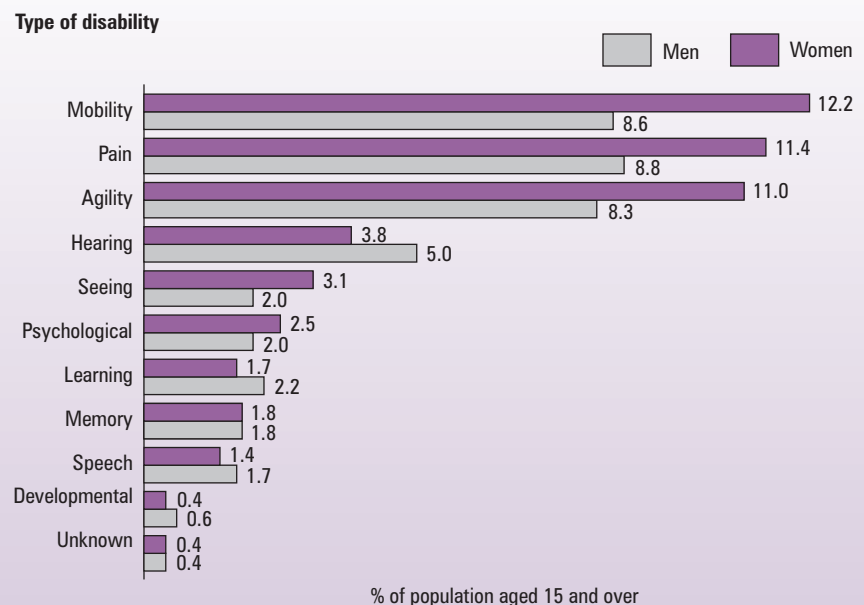
One in seven adults has disabilities
About 3.4 million adults aged 15 and over or 15% of the adult population have a disability. People have various levels of severity of disability varying from mild to very severe. About one third of these adults (1.2 million) have a mild degree of activity limitation, one quarter (860,000) have a moderate level, one quarter have a severe level (920,000) and one seventh have a very severe disability (480,000). Like the number of disabilities, the severity of disabilities increases with age. Men are more likely than women to experience a mild degree of limitation, whereas a higher proportion of women experience a severe level.

CST Government disability initiatives

Governments have implemented policies to address issues of equality and access to the workplace and the costs of disability. The *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* of our Constitution guarantees persons with disabilities the right to equality and to equal protection and benefit of the law without discrimination. The *Canadian Human Rights Act* ensures that federal employers and service providers are supportive of, and accessible to, persons with disabilities. Federal-provincial-territorial agreements under the Employability Assistance for People with Disabilities (EAPD) initiative reflect an increased focus on helping people with disabilities prepare for, find and keep jobs.^{1,2} Other measures, such as the Disability Tax Credit, reduce federal income tax for taxpayers with severe and prolonged disabilities. The Medical Expenses Tax Credit provides tax relief for people who have sustained significant medical expenses.

1. Government of Canada. 2002. *Future directions to address disability issues for the Government of Canada: Working together for full citizenship*. <http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/sp-ps/socialp-psociale/reports/disability/futdire.pdf> (accessed Sept. 24, 2003).
2. EAPD funding depends on local priorities and the needs of people with disabilities. Examples of funded interventions include employment counselling and assessment, employment planning, pre-employment training, postsecondary education, skills training, assistive aids and devices, wage subsidies or earning supplements and other workplace supports.

CST Mobility and pain-related disabilities are most prevalent among those aged 15 and over



Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey, 2001.

Disability takes many forms

About 2.5 million adults have mobility-related disabilities and have difficulty walking, climbing stairs, carrying an object for a short distance, or moving from one room to another. Regardless of age, women are more likely than men to have a mobility-related disability. Some 2.4 million adults (10%) have activity limitations related to chronic pain,⁴ which is more prevalent among women (11%) than among men (9%). In fact, pain-related disability is the most common form of disability among the working-age population, affecting 8% of persons aged 15 to 64. Another 2.3 million or 10% of adults have agility difficulties such as bending down to pick up an object, getting dressed or undressed, or cutting one's food.

About 1 million adults (4%) have a hearing-related disability while about 590,000 have vision difficulties (3%) and 360,000 report a speech-related disability.⁵ Hearing limitations are more common among men, while women are more likely to have vision difficulties. About 520,000 adults have psychological disabilities and 450,000 report learning disabilities.

Mobility, agility, hearing, vision and pain disabilities increase in prevalence with age whereas disabilities related to psychological problems and learning disabilities are most prominent in the 45 to 64 age group. Women live longer than men and therefore outnumber men in the senior age groups, where mobility, pain and agility disabilities are more prevalent. This may partially explain why women have much higher disability rates than men for these types of disabilities.

Nearly half of adults with disabilities need specialized aids and services

Specialized aids and services enable persons with disabilities to carry out their everyday activities, such as getting around (wheelchair, hand or arm support) or by helping them to hear, see or speak (hearing aid, Braille reading

materials, keyboard device for communicating).⁶ Of the 3.4 million adults aged 15 and over with disabilities, nearly half (1.6 million) need specialized aids and devices. The majority of adults requiring specialized aids (61%) have all the aids they need; however, 29% use aids but need more, and 10% have none of their needed aids.

The more severe the disability, the more likely adults requiring specialized aids report having unmet needs. Only 10% of those with mild disabilities requiring specialized aids have some but not all of the aids they need. This percentage climbed to 50% for those with very severe disabilities. Regardless of the severity of the disability, 10% have none of the specialized aids they need. Cost or lack of insurance coverage are the most frequent reasons given to explain why adults with disabilities have unmet needs for specialized aids.

Adults with disabilities often need help with their everyday activities

Some 2.2 million adults with disabilities reported requiring help with everyday activities.⁷ About two-thirds of this group receive all the help they require, but 35% or 765,000 have unmet needs for help. Help comes from many sources. According to PALS, 63% of adults with disabilities who receive help get it from members of their family living with them, 42% receive it from family members not living with them, 24% from friends or neighbours, 22% from organizations or agencies, and 14% from other sources.⁸

Of those with unmet needs, over half cite cost as the reason for not getting needed help. One quarter indicate that help from family and friends is not available and a quarter indicate that the cost of help is not covered by their insurance plan. Lastly, just under a quarter of respondents do not know how to obtain the help they need, suggesting that many adults with disabilities do not know about available resources for assistance.

Most people with disabilities have all the home modifications they need

Adults with disabilities can live more easily if their home has specialized features to help them with their activity limitations. Special features such as handrails, visual or audio alarms, adapted bathrooms and accessibility aids such as ramps or lifts can help. In 2001, 483,000 adults with disabilities needed special features in their dwelling. Most of them (63%) have all the modifications they need, 26% have none of their needed modifications and 11% have some but need more. High costs or lack of insurance coverage are the most common reasons for unmet needs. Persons with more severe disabilities are more likely to have unmet needs for special features in their home than people with mild disabilities.

Travel is a barrier for some adults with disabilities

Travel enables people to visit family and friends, attend appointments, participate in recreational and volunteer

4. Persons who have pain but who did not associate it with any activity limitation are not considered to have a pain-related disability.

5. Hearing-related disabilities refer to difficulty hearing one other person in a conversation with three or more persons or in a telephone conversation when using a hearing aid if needed. Vision difficulties refer to difficulty seeing ordinary newsprint or clearly seeing the face of someone from 4 metres (12 feet) when wearing glasses or contact lenses if needed.

6. Assistive aids do not include glasses and contact lenses, as most people who use them report not having activity limitations caused by their visual problems.

7. Examples of everyday activities include: meal preparation, housework, heavy household chores, transportation for grocery shopping or getting to appointments, personal finances, child care, personal care and moving around within the home.

8. Help can come from more than one source.

activities, find and retain a job and live independently. For most people with disabilities, their condition does not pose problems with transportation. According to PALS, during the 12 months preceding the survey, 135,000 adults with disabilities (4%) could not use public transportation services, while 59,000 (2%) could not travel locally by car.⁹ Another 179,000 who used public transportation had some difficulty.

An even larger number of adults with disabilities experienced problems with long distance travel. About 270,000 adults with disabilities are completely prevented from travelling long distances. Of the 1.2 million adults with disabilities who travel long distances only by car, about 32% have difficulties during those trips because of their condition.

Adults with disabilities have high unemployment rates

Accessible transportation is one of the barriers faced by adults with disabilities, but other barriers also limit participation in society. There are barriers that limit physical access to buildings and facilities, to training necessary for jobs and to technologies that assist persons with disabilities to find and keep jobs.

According to PALS, the result of these barriers is that many adults with disabilities are unemployed and are more likely to live at the bottom of the income scale. In 2001, the unemployment rate among adults aged 25 to 54 with disabilities was 10.7%, compared with 5.9% for adults the same age without disabilities. For adults aged 25 to 54 with disabilities, 47% have personal income below \$15,000, compared with 25% of adults without disabilities.

Part of the reason for the lower income of adults with disabilities and higher unemployment rates may be the lower educational attainment of adults with disabilities. In 2001, 14% of adults aged 25 to 54 with disabilities

had a university education while 30% had not obtained a high school diploma. In contrast, those without disabilities were nearly twice as likely to have a university education (25%) and were much less likely to have not obtained a high school diploma (18%). Although efforts have been made to reduce barriers to education for young adults with disabilities, half (51%) of 15- to 24-year-olds with a disability have not completed high school, compared with 42% of those without disabilities.¹⁰

Summary

Large numbers of Canadians have various disabilities, especially limitations related to mobility, agility and pain. Many disabilities increase in prevalence and severity with age. As the Canadian population ages, Canada may face rising numbers of people with more severe disabilities. This occurs at a time when families are getting smaller and more widely dispersed, so the traditional network of family care is not as strong.

People with disabilities seem to be at a disadvantage in the labour market, partly related to their lower levels of education. They have higher unemployment rates and are more likely to have low personal income.

9. Public transportation services include buses, specialized buses, subways and taxis.

10. Some 15- to 24-year-olds are still attending school and may eventually obtain a high school diploma or higher qualification.



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Well-being of the non-reserve Aboriginal population

by Vivian O'Donnell and Heather Tait

This article has been adapted from *Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2001 – Initial findings: Well-being of the non-reserve Aboriginal population*, September 2003, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-589-XIE.

The concept of well-being is a complex one with physical, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects. The interrelation between these facets is a theme explored by many indigenous cultures. For example, many Aboriginal societies use the “Medicine Wheel”, a symbol of holistic healing that embodies these four elements of “whole health.” The natural world is also an essential part of well-being because of the intrinsic connections and interrelationships between people and the environment in which they live. Well-being flows from balance and harmony among these elements.

CST What you should know about this study

The Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS), conducted between September 2001 and June 2002, surveyed about 117,000 individuals to collect information regarding the lifestyles and living conditions of Aboriginal people. It was developed in partnership with several national Aboriginal organizations, including the Congress of Aboriginal Peoples, Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami, Métis National Council, National Association of Friendship Centres and the Native Women’s Association of Canada.

Aboriginal identity population refers to those people who reported being North American Indian, and/or Métis and/or Inuit. Also included are those who did not identify as an Aboriginal person but who had registered Indian status as defined by the *Indian Act* of Canada and/or Band or First Nation membership.

The non-reserve population includes the over 700,000 Aboriginal people who do not live on Indian reserves, except in the Northwest Territories, where both on- and off-reserve Aboriginal populations are included. According to the 2001 Census, the total non-reserve Aboriginal population represents about 70% of the total Aboriginal population in Canada.

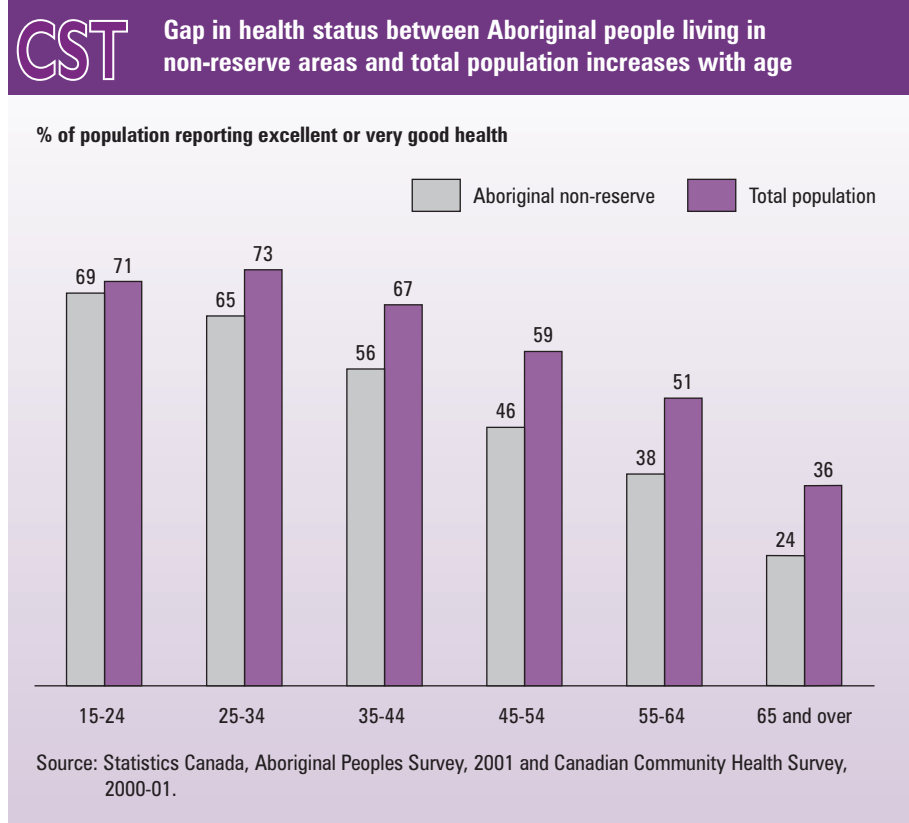
For this analysis, the Canadian Arctic consists of the four Inuit regions as defined by the Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami, where the majority of Inuit live: the northern coastal and south-eastern part of Labrador, Nunavik in Northern Quebec, the territory of Nunavut, and the Inuvialuit region in the northwestern corner of the Northwest Territories.

While it is difficult to completely measure well-being using quantitative methods, this article uses several different health, education, housing and language indicators to contribute to an understanding of the experiences and living conditions of Aboriginal people living outside of reserves. Data from the 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) and the 1996 and 2001 Censuses are used to provide a more complete picture of the well-being of the non-reserve Aboriginal population across Canada.

Most non-reserve Aboriginal people report excellent or very good health. Health is a key component of well-being. Self-rated health status is considered a reliable indicator of health that successfully crosses cultural lines.¹ In 2001, the majority of non-reserve Aboriginal adults (56%) reported that their health was excellent or very good. By comparison, 65% of the total Canadian adult population reported excellent or very good health.²

While the total non-reserve Aboriginal population rated their health status lower than the total Canadian population, this gap was negligible among young adults. The APS data showed some promise for the new generation of Aboriginal young people. Seven out of 10 Aboriginal people (69%) aged 15 to 24 in non-reserve areas rated their health as very good or excellent, virtually on par with 71% of the total Canadian population in the same age group. As the Aboriginal population is the fastest growing component of the youth population, these young people will play a pivotal role in the future.

The gap between the health status of the Aboriginal population and the total Canadian population widened significantly in the older age groups. For every 10-year age group between the ages of 25 and 64, the proportion of Aboriginal people with fair or poor



health was about double that of the total Canadian population. This was even more pronounced among Aboriginal women. For example, four in 10 (41%) Aboriginal women aged 55 to 64 reported fair or poor health, more than double the 19% of women in the same age group in the total Canadian population.

Differences in health ratings are also linked to the existence of chronic conditions, that is, a health condition that had been diagnosed by a health-care professional and had lasted, or was expected to last, at least six months. Individuals with chronic conditions rated their health as fair or poor more often than those without chronic conditions. Nearly one half, or 45%, of all Aboriginal adults reported the presence of one or more chronic conditions. The most common chronic conditions for the adult non-reserve Aboriginal population were arthritis or rheumatism (19%), high blood pressure (12%), and asthma (12%).

Prevalence of diabetes is increasing

In 2001, diabetes was the fifth most prevalent health problem among the adult non-reserve Aboriginal population, with 7% reporting the disease compared with an age-standardized rate of 2.9% for the total Canadian population. It has also become an important health issue because rates are rising among the non-reserve Aboriginal population, particularly among North American Indian adults. In addition to high rates, according to Health Canada, diabetes is a significant concern for the Aboriginal population because of “early onset,

1. Idler, E.L. and Y. Benyamini. 1997. “Self-rated health and mortality: A review of twenty-seven community studies.” *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour* 38, 1: 21-37; Shields, M. and S. Shooshtari. 2001. “Determinants of self-perceived health.” *Health Reports* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 82-003) 13, 1: 35-52.

2. Age-standardized to the Aboriginal population.

greater severity at diagnosis, high rates of complications, lack of accessible services, increasing trends, and increasing prevalence of risk factors for a population already at risk.”³ In 2001, 8.3% of non-reserve North American Indian adults stated that they had been diagnosed with diabetes, compared to 5.3% in 1991. The percentage of Métis and Inuit adults diagnosed with diabetes remained almost the same from 1991 to 2001. For Métis adults, the 2001 rate was 5.9% compared with 5.5% in 1991. Among Inuit adults, the rate remained almost unchanged: 2.3% for 2001 compared to 1.9% in 1991.

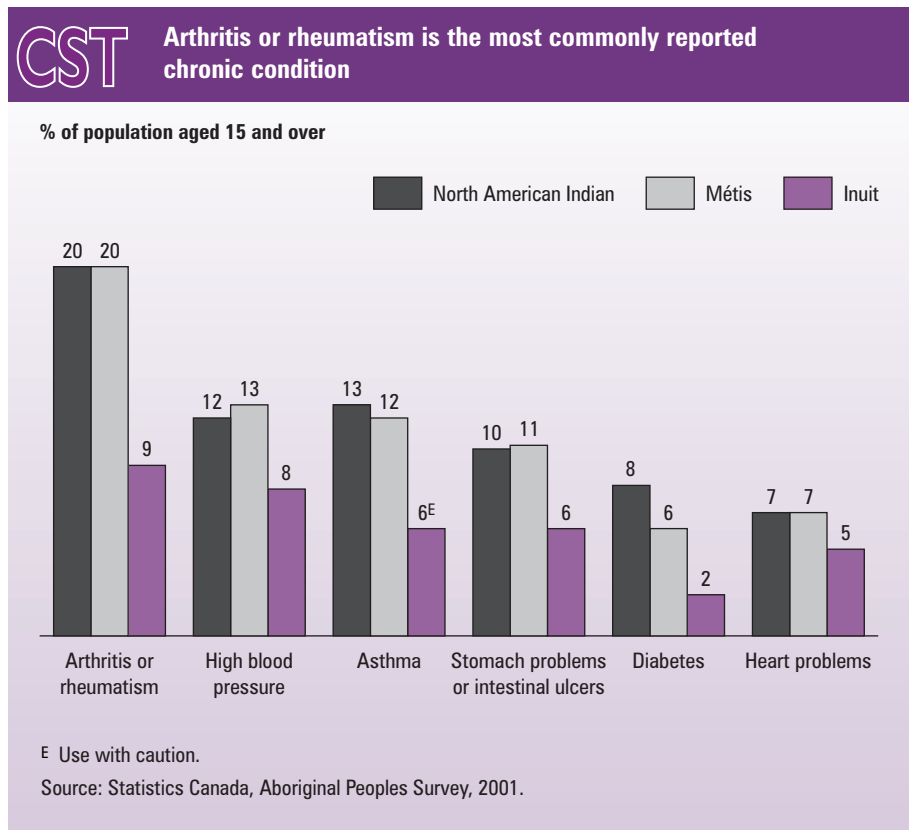
Diabetes was particularly prevalent among older Aboriginal women in 2001. Among Aboriginal women aged 65 and over, one in four reported they had been diagnosed with diabetes, compared with one in 10 for all Canadian senior women. For Aboriginal men the gap was smaller, with one in five Aboriginal senior men reporting diabetes compared to one in seven for all Canadian senior men.

Schooling: Aboriginal young people making progress at all levels

Education has been called “the key that unlocks the door to the future.”⁴ There are many types of knowledge and many things of great value that can be learned outside the classroom. However, a sound formal education is increasingly important for participation in today’s workforce and is often a key component of mental and intellectual well-being.

Progress is being made at the secondary level as fewer young Aboriginal people in non-reserve areas are leaving secondary school prior to graduation. Census data showed that in 1996, 52% of Aboriginal youth aged 20 to 24 had incomplete secondary school as their highest level of schooling, declining to 48% in 2001.⁵

Despite this progress, completing elementary or secondary school



remains a challenge for some. APS data show that for those aged 15 to 19, the most common reason for leaving school early was boredom. One-fifth (20%) of young non-reserve Aboriginal people who did not complete high school reported this reason. Data from the 1999 Youth in Transition Survey also show that boredom was the top reason given for not completing high school by Canadians aged 18 to 20 years living in the 10 provinces.

There has also been positive change at the postsecondary level. In 1996, 5% of young Aboriginal people aged 25 to 34 living in non-reserve areas had completed university compared with 8% in 2001.⁶ For other types of postsecondary education (including college and trades), there was an increase from 27% to 30% over the five-year period. Young people in each of the three main Aboriginal groups have made progress at the postsecondary level. The proportion of Métis people aged 25 to 34 with a completed postsecondary education rose from 34% to

40%; the proportion of North American Indian people rose from 31% to 36%; and the proportion of Inuit rose slightly from 27% to 29%. As large numbers of people retire and leave the work force in coming years, employment opportunities will exist for many well-educated young Aboriginal people. Aboriginal youth are making strides that could contribute to their success in the paid labour market.

However, APS indicates that there are still some obstacles to overcome. For women aged 25 to 44 who had

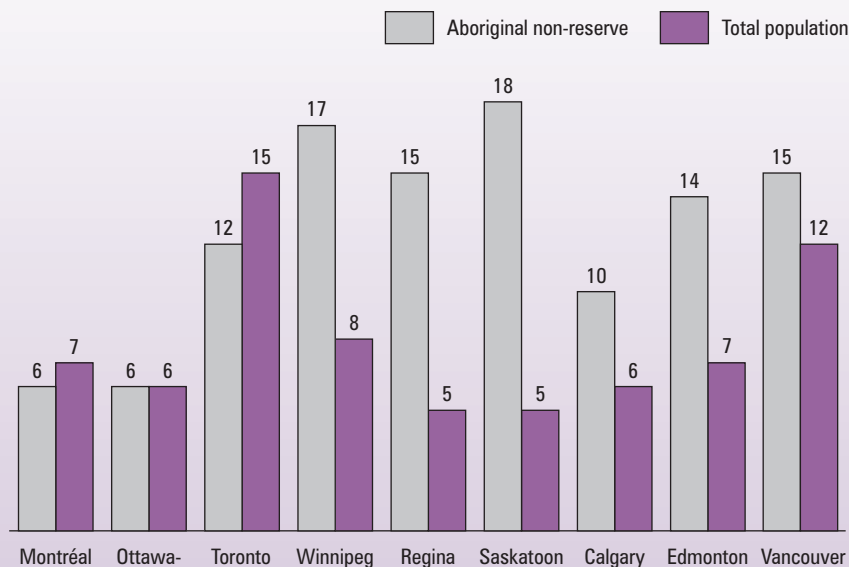
3. Health Canada. 2000. *Diabetes among Aboriginal (First Nations, Inuit and Métis) People in Canada: The Evidence*. Ottawa: Health Canada.

4. Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples. 1996. *Report of the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples: Gathering Strength* vol. 3. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada. p. 161.

5. Excluding people who were attending school at the time of the 2001 Census.

6. See footnote 4.

% of population with 1.0 or more persons per room



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2001.

started their postsecondary schooling, the most common reason for not completing their education was family responsibilities (34%). Financial reasons topped the list for men, with nearly one in four (24%) stating this reason.

Non-reserve Aboriginal people are more likely to live in crowded conditions and be concerned about water quality

Health experts maintain that inadequate housing can be associated with a host of health problems. For example, crowded living conditions can lead to the transmission of infectious diseases such as tuberculosis and hepatitis A, and can increase risk for injuries, mental health problems, family tensions and violence.⁷ The census found that Aboriginal people were more likely to live in crowded conditions, that is, one or more people per room, than the total Canadian population, although the situation has improved slightly over time. In 2001, about 17% of non-reserve Aboriginal

people lived in crowded conditions, down from 22% five years earlier. In comparison, about 7% of all Canadians lived in crowded conditions in 2001.

Crowding continues to be an issue in the Canadian Arctic, where four-fifths of Inuit live. In 2001, more than one half (53%) of Inuit living in this region were in crowded conditions, down slightly from 61% five years earlier. This was particularly true in Nunavik in northern Quebec, which was the only Inuit region in which the crowding situation did not improve between 1996 and 2001.

In addition to adequate housing, a safe source of drinking water is also fundamental to good health. There were concerns over water quality among Aboriginal people, especially among Inuit in the Canadian Arctic. Just over one third (34%) of Inuit in the Arctic said there were times of the year when their water was contaminated. The problem was most serious in the Nunavik region in northern

Quebec, where nearly three-quarters (73%) of Inuit felt that their water was contaminated at some point in the year.

Aboriginal languages:

Some evidence of revitalization

Language is often recognized as the essence of a culture. The Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples has stated that the revitalization of traditional languages is a key component in the creation of healthy individuals and communities.⁸ Language is “not only a means of communication, but a link which connects people with their past and grounds their social, emotional and spiritual vitality.”⁹ The retention and revitalization of Aboriginal languages presented some challenges, as many people have found their Aboriginal languages slipping away from lack of use. However, the importance of Aboriginal languages is still widely recognized by Aboriginal people.

In general, the vitality of many of the Aboriginal languages spoken by North American Indian and Métis people in non-reserve areas declined between 1996 and 2001. In 2001, among non-reserve North American Indian adults aged 15 and over, just under one third (32%) said they could speak or understand an Aboriginal language. Less than 15% said they were able to speak an Aboriginal language very well or relatively well. Aboriginal languages among North American Indian children in non-reserve areas were not as strong, as

7. Health Canada. 1999. *A Second Diagnostic on the Health of First Nations and Inuit People in Canada*. Ottawa: Health Canada. p. 14.

8. Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples. 1996. *Report of the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples: Perspectives and Realities* vol. 4. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada. p. 163.

9. Norris, M. Winter 1998. “Canada’s Aboriginal Languages.” *Canadian Social Trends*. p. 8.

only 25% could speak or understand an Aboriginal language. Of the three main groups, the Métis were least likely to know an Aboriginal language. In 2001, only 16% of Métis adults reported being able to speak or understand an Aboriginal language and only 5% were able to speak very well or relatively well. Moreover, only 11% of Métis children less than 15 years of age could speak or understand an Aboriginal language.

Inuktitut is one of the healthiest Aboriginal languages

Inuktitut, spoken by many Inuit, remains one of the healthiest Aboriginal languages in the country. APS found that the vast majority (90%) of Inuit aged 15 and over living in the Canadian Arctic said they could understand or speak Inuktitut. Eighty percent said they could speak it very well. Inuktitut remains strong among Inuit children in Canada's Arctic, as nine in 10 could speak or understand this language, and 63% could speak it very well or relatively well.

The 2001 Census showed some evidence of language revitalization. A slightly larger percentage of people could converse in an Aboriginal language than the share who reported having an Aboriginal mother tongue. Mother tongue is the first language learned in childhood and still understood. While 12% said they had an Aboriginal mother tongue, 15% said they could converse in an Aboriginal language. This perhaps suggests that some people are learning to speak an Aboriginal language later in life.

Parents are most likely language teachers

In non-reserve areas, parents were cited as the people most likely to help young language learners. Data from the 2001 APS show that almost seven in 10 children (68%) who could understand or speak an Aboriginal language received some help from their parents. This

was followed by grandparents, who were cited by 51% of children able to speak or understand an Aboriginal language.¹⁰

APS data showed that schools also help facilitate language learning. Although parents contribute much to teaching their children an Aboriginal language, schools have an important role to play. For example, children enrolled in Aboriginal Headstart, a pre-school program designed specifically for Aboriginal children, are introduced to the basics of many Aboriginal languages. Just over one third (35%) of children who could speak an Aboriginal language received help in learning their language from their school teachers. This was especially the case in the Canadian Arctic, where 54% of Aboriginal children received some help with language learning from their teachers.

The majority of Aboriginal people recognized the importance of Aboriginal languages. About six in 10, or 59%, of non-reserve Aboriginal adults stated that keeping, learning or relearning an Aboriginal language was very or somewhat important. The same proportion of people responding on behalf of children reported that it was very or somewhat important to them that the child speak and understand an Aboriginal language.

The greatest support for Aboriginal languages came from the Inuit, as nearly nine in 10 Inuit adults stated that their language was very or somewhat important. A similar proportion was provided by those answering on behalf of Inuit children. The comparable proportions for Métis and North American Indian people were one half and two-thirds respectively.

Summary

Gains are being made as the data for young Aboriginal people show health ratings similar to the national average and increasing numbers completing secondary school and moving on to finish postsecondary studies. However,

Canada's non-reserve Aboriginal population, consisting of North American Indian, Métis, and Inuit, face ongoing challenges in health, education, housing and language.

Despite their progress, Aboriginal people are more likely to have poorer health, including chronic conditions, lower levels of education and are more apt to live in crowded homes compared to the overall population in Canada. In addition, Inuit in the Far North have concerns about water quality. There is also a declining knowledge of Aboriginal languages, although it remains high for Inuktitut, the language spoken by many Inuit.

10. The person who knew the most about the child usually provided responses for children.



Vivian O'Donnell is a PhD student at Trent University and an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, and **Heather Tait** is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

The feminization of work

by **Melissa Cooke-Reynolds and Nancy Zukewich**

The increased presence of women has been a defining characteristic of the Canadian labour force in recent decades. Some have described this as the “feminization of work,”¹ a concept encompassing three distinct developments: the entry of women into the paid labour force; their continued concentration in certain kinds of employment; and “harmonizing down,” or the increasing tendency for men to do the kinds of jobs traditionally performed by women.² Thus, the feminization of work describes a process that affects both women and men and influences gender equality.

Using data from the Labour Force Survey, the General Social Survey, the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics and the Survey of Self-Employment, as well as data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and the International Labour Organization, this article describes trends in the feminization of work, and compares the situation in Canada with those in Australia, France, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Canadian women have made greatest gains in labour force participation

In 1971, only 44%³ of Canadian women were in the labour force, the lowest proportion among the study countries.^{4,5} By 2001, this figure had risen to about the same level (71%) as that in the United States, and had outstripped the rate in Australia, the United Kingdom and France. Female labour force participation is still highest among women in Sweden (76%).

Looking at the growth in another way, women in the study countries currently account for about half of all labour force participants. Again, the growth has been most dramatic in Canada. In 2001, Canadian women accounted for 46% of the labour force, up from 34% in 1971.

In Canada, married women and women with children accounted for much of this increase. Despite earlier writings, which described women as a “reserve army of labour” that could be called upon temporarily when needed, many of today’s women interrupt their employment only for relatively short periods of time.^{6,7}

Men’s labour force participation declines but still exceeds that of women

While the presence of Canadian women in the labour force has grown, that of men has fallen slightly, from around 85% in 1971 to 82% in 2001. Men aged 55 and over, many of whom are taking early retirement, accounted for most of the drop.⁸ The average

retirement age has declined from 63.9 in 1976 to 60.4 in 2002 for women and from 65.3 to 61.7 for men. The situation was similar in the other study countries. In the early 1970s, Canadian, French and American men were least likely to participate in the labour force while British men had the highest participation rate (94%). By 2001, the labour force participation of Canadian men was in the middle of the six study countries (82%) while France was lowest at 76%.

Although participation rates are rising for women and falling for men, men of all ages are still more likely than women to be employed or looking for work. For example, labour force participation peaks between the ages of 25 and 54 for both women and men. In each of the six study countries, at least 90% of men this age were active in the labour force in 2001. Women’s rates ranged from a high of 86% in Sweden to 79% in Canada and France, 76% in the United States and the United Kingdom and a low of 71% in Australia. It is during these years that individuals are most likely to both work for pay and care for children.⁹

Most women work in traditionally female occupations

An important aspect of the feminization of work is the tendency for women to work in occupations that resemble the kinds of unpaid work they have traditionally done in the household.¹⁰ In 2002, about 70% of employed Canadian women worked as

nurses, teachers, and clerks and in sales and service occupations, compared with just 30% of employed men.¹¹

In most study countries, the broad occupational grouping of “clerk” has the highest concentration of female workers. About three-quarters of clerical workers in Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States and Sweden were female in 2001.¹²

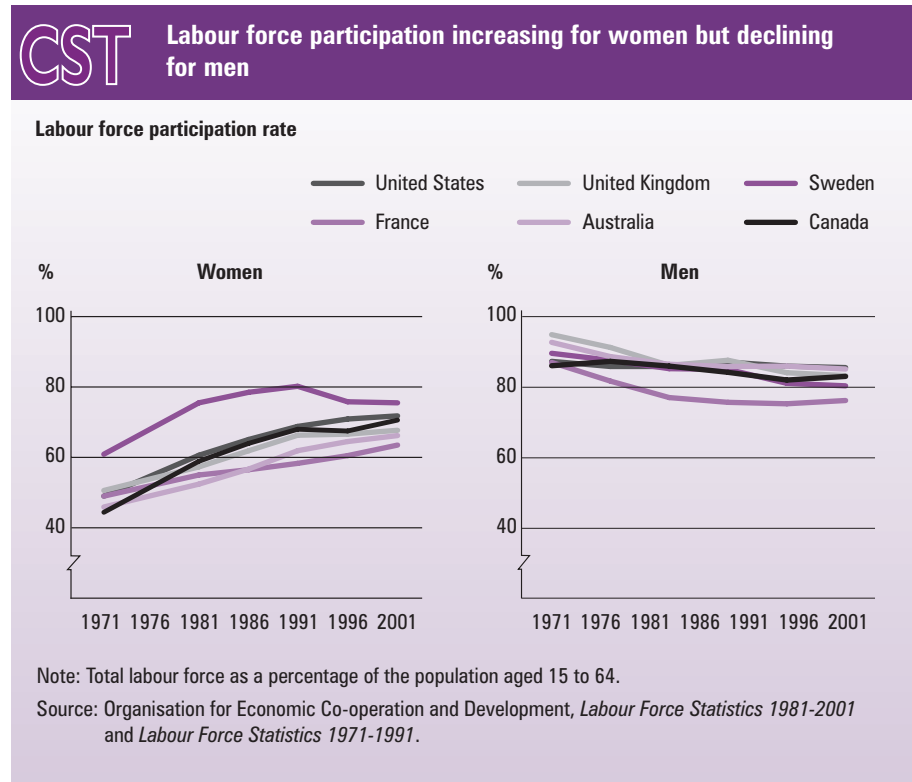
Women’s presence in professional jobs on the rise

While most women do work in traditionally female occupations, their presence in professional jobs has been rising over the past three decades in most study countries. For example, among doctors and dentists in Canada, the proportion who were women rose from 44% in 1987 to 54% by 2002, an increase of 10 percentage points in only 15 years. Since professional jobs are typically well-paying, this increase represents a substantial economic improvement for certain women.¹³

In Canada, Australia, Sweden and the United States, women have also made gains in the managerial category, a high status and well-paying

one, traditionally dominated by men. In 2001, Canadian women made up 35% of managers, up from only 17% in 1972.¹⁴ In most study countries, however, women still account for a relatively small share (one fifth to one third) of managers except the United

States where nearly half (46%) of managers are women. In addition, women managers do not often hold the top positions. For instance, Canadian women are more likely to be employed as administrative or “other” managers.¹⁵



CST In 2001, women of all ages were less likely than men to be in the labour force

Age	Sex	Labour force participation rate (%)					
		Canada	United States	United Kingdom	Australia	France	Sweden
15 and over	Women	71	71	69	66	62	77
	Men	82	83	84	82	74	81
15 to 24	Women	63	62	64	68	27	54
	Men	66	67	72	71	33	54
25 to 54	Women	79	76	76	71	79	86
	Men	91	91	91	90	94	91
55 to 64	Women	42	53	44	37	34	67
	Men	61	68	64	60	44	74
65 and over	Women	3	10	3	3	1	6
	Men	9	18	7	10	2	14

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Labour Force Statistics 1981-2001*.

Women double their presence in agriculture and manufacturing

In most of the study countries, women have also increased their presence in agriculture and manufacturing jobs. Canadian women essentially doubled their representation in these two fields between 1971 and 2001. In Australia and Sweden, women's share of manufacturing jobs also doubled. The proportion of women in agriculture increased nearly fivefold in Australia. Despite these gains, however, women remain a small minority of workers in these occupations. For example, in 2001, in all study countries except Australia, less than one quarter of employees in manufacturing were women.

Women's increased presence in professional, managerial, agricultural and manufacturing jobs suggests that they are slowly moving into traditionally male-dominated occupations. However, while professional and managerial jobs often result in better pay, in Canada those in agriculture pay below average weekly wages and manufacturing pays about average.¹⁶ In addition, the wage gap is particularly large for jobs unique to primary industry.¹⁷ In 2002, on average, Canadian women in primary industry jobs had hourly wages that were 63% those of men's; in manufacturing jobs, 71% those of men's; and across all occupations, 82% those of men's.^{18,19}

The large hourly wage gap between women and men in manufacturing jobs may be influenced by the fact that women and men typically perform different types of work. For example, men are more likely than women to be in unionized jobs that offer benefits.²⁰

Non-standard work more common for women

In all study countries women are still responsible for the majority of housework and child care, which may affect the types of paid work in which they engage. In Canada, women make

up the majority of those with non-standard employment.^{21,22} Non-standard forms of work may offer advantages for balancing work and family, such as flexible hours and easy "entry/exit/re-entry" to the labour force.²³ For example, a notable increase in part-time employment seems to coincide with a rise in the labour force participation of women and a growth in service sector employment.²⁴ These forms of work, however, can also mean relatively lower pay, reduced access to social benefits and training and limited career possibilities.²⁵ Indeed, the 2000 Survey of Self-Employment finds that financial security is a concern for many self-employed people, as is the lack of employer-sponsored and government benefits like extended medical coverage, pension plans and maternity and parental leave.²⁶

In Canada in 2002, 15% of women working part-time, compared with just 1% of men, worked part-time because of childcare responsibilities. Similarly, in 2000, 10% of self-employed women and only 1% of men cited balance of work and family as the main reason for becoming self-employed. In some instances, part-time or self-employment reflects the unavailability of full-time paid jobs. In 2002 in Canada, slightly over one quarter (27%) of all part-timers were working part-time because of poor business conditions or because they could not find full-time work, and in 2000 just over one fifth of the self-employed (22%) said that they became self-employed because they could not find suitable paid employment.

Women are still far more likely to work part-time than men

While women's part-time work as a proportion of women's employment has stayed reasonably stable in Canada, Sweden and the United Kingdom in the past 20 years, it has grown in Australia and France and declined

in the United States.²⁷ In comparison, the men's percentage has been rising in most study countries. The United States is an exception to this trend. This indicates a process of "harmonizing down," since more men are moving into an employment situation typically thought of as "female."

Nonetheless, in all six countries, employed women are still substantially more likely than employed men to work part-time. In the United Kingdom and France, for example, employed women are five times more likely than employed men to work part-time hours, four times more likely in Sweden, three times as likely in Canada and Australia, and twice as likely in the United States. Part-time employment among women ranged from a high of 42% in Australia to 27% in Canada to a low of 18% in the United States. Canadian men had the second highest rate of part-time employment (10%) behind Australia (16%). France had the lowest rate (5%).

Temporary employment on the rise

In Canada, temporary employment is slightly more common among women than men (14% compared to 12% in 2002).²⁸ This is up from 8% for women and 7% for men in 1989. However, Canadian women and men generally perform different kinds of temporary jobs. Men usually work at full-time seasonal jobs, while women make up the majority of casual temporary employees, the majority of whom work part-time.²⁹ In addition to the insecurity of not having long-term employment, temporary jobs also tend to pay less than permanent jobs and recent wage growth has been slower for temporary than permanent work.³⁰

In most study countries (except the United States), women are somewhat more likely than men to have a job with a pre-determined end date. As in Canada, temporary work is on the rise among both sexes in France. However,

there has been little change in the share of employees with temporary work in the United Kingdom (7% for women and 5% for men) or the United States (4% for both women and men), the two study countries with the lowest prevalence of temporary work. In contrast, the temporary employment rate has virtually doubled in Canada and France since the mid-to late 1980s. Temporary work is also very common in Sweden, which has reported rates of 17% for female employees and 12% for male employees each year from 1997 to 2002. In 2002, women made up about half of all temporary employees in most study countries, while they accounted for nearly six in 10 in Sweden.³¹

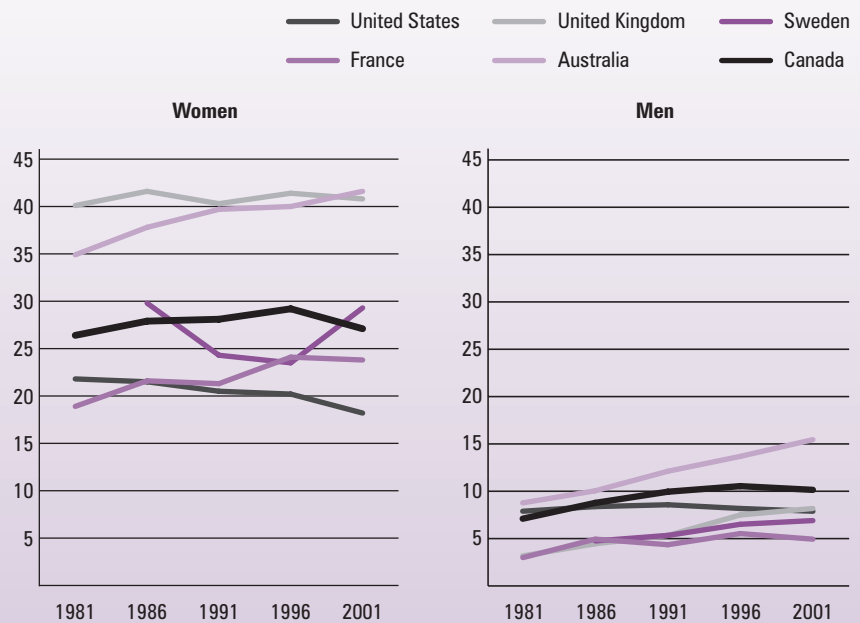
Self-employment grows fastest in Canada

In Canada, men have historically been more likely than women to be self-employed. This also holds true in the other study countries. In 2002, Canadian women had among the highest rates of non-agricultural self-employment. Along with women in Australia (9%), Canadian women (8%) had the highest prevalence of self-employment, while this form of work was most common among men in Australia and the United Kingdom (15%). The comparable figure for Canadian men was 9%.

Between 1990 and 1997, non-agricultural self-employment in Canada grew faster for women than for men (average annual growth of 6.5% versus 3.8%).³² However, self-employed women working on their own without paid help account for most of this growth.³³ The “solo” self-employed generally work fewer hours and earn less money than those who employ others.³⁴ Self-employed women are also much more likely than men to work part-time.³⁵

Self-employment grew marginally in the 1990-1997 period in Sweden and for women in France and the

% of employment that is part-time



Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Labour Force Statistics 1981-2001*.

United States, but was stable for women in Australia. In contrast, self-employment declined slightly for both sexes in the United Kingdom and for men in the United States and Australia. By the end of the 1990s, non-agricultural self-employment had fallen slightly for both sexes in most study countries. Men in Australia were the exception, experiencing a marginal increase in self-employment between 1996 and 2002. By 2002, women accounted for a high of 42% of non-agricultural self-employment in Canada and a low of 26% in Sweden and the United Kingdom.

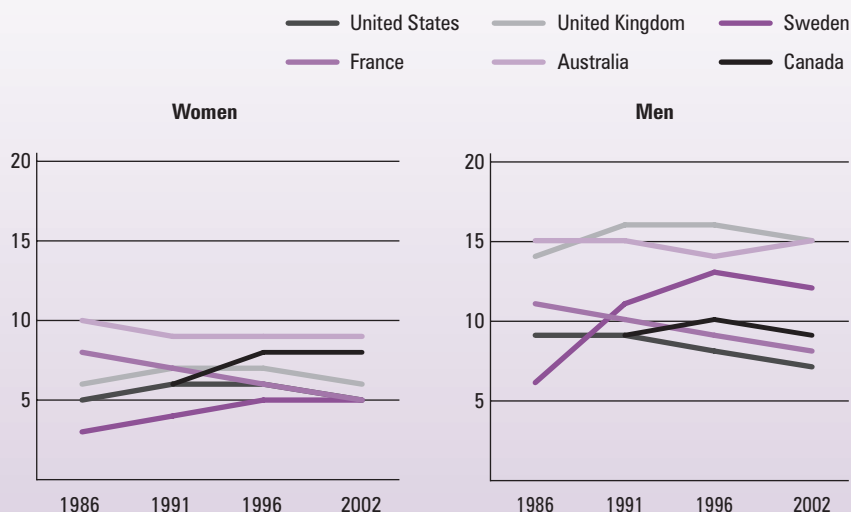
Earnings gap narrows over time

In Canada, the gap between the earnings of men and women has narrowed over time, due to an increase in women's and a slight decline in men's earnings.³⁶ In 2000, women employed full-time earned 72% of men's earnings, up from 59% in 1976. In both

the mid-1970s and today, the earnings ratio in Canada is among the lowest of the study countries. The ratio was close to 80% in both Australia and Sweden even 20 years ago. Over the past two decades, the gap narrowed dramatically in Canada, France, the United Kingdom and the United States, but changed little in Australia and Sweden. By the end of the 1990s, the earnings ratio was highest in Australia and France, where women earned 82% as much as men, while the gap was still greatest in Canada.

Some of the wage gap between men and women can be attributed to characteristics such as education, experience, job tenure, union status, firm size, presence of children, marital status and part-time status. However, a substantial proportion of the gap remains unexplained by factors measured in Canadian labour market surveys.³⁷

% of employment that is self-employed



Note: Excludes the agricultural sector and unpaid family workers.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. September 26, 2002. Table on "Labour market statistics - Data — Employment (civilian) by professional status." www.oecd.org (accessed October 23, 2003).

have declined slightly, with the drop being most pronounced in France.

Most of the study countries also demonstrate the persistent concentration of women in particular kinds of work, despite greater gender parity in certain occupations. A process of harmonizing down is occurring in each country. More men are now starting to experience employment situations typical of female employment, such as part-time and temporary work. The prevalence of part-time employment has increased everywhere except in the United States, while temporary employment has become more common among men and women in Canada and France. The earnings gap has also narrowed, and is the smallest in France and Australia, where some aspects of harmonizing down are most pronounced.

These indicators of the feminization of work illustrate that gender equality has improved not only because of gains made by women but also by relative declines in men's status.

Is Canada a leader in labour force gender equality? According to the United Nations, in 2003, Canada ranked ninth in the world in terms of gender empowerment. Sweden was third, the United States 10th, Australia 11th and the United Kingdom 17th.¹ Iceland and Norway were first and second in this measure. The Gender Empowerment Measure encompasses a wide array of indicators that relate to the feminization of work, including labour force participation, occupational segregation and earned income of men and women.

1. France is not ranked on the gender empowerment measure but ranks 17th on the Gender development index, another measure of gender equality, behind all of the other countries studied in this article.

Summary

The past 30 years have seen a substantial increase in women's labour force participation rate in all the industrialized countries included in this study. This is the most basic indicator of the feminization of work. Canadian

women have made the most progress in terms of participation rates, and have caught up with women in most other countries. However, women in Sweden continue to have the highest rate of labour market participation. At the same time, male participation rates

1. Armstrong, P. and H. Armstrong. 1994. *The Double Ghetto: Canadian Women and Their Segregated Work*. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart; Vosko, L. 2000. *Temporary Work: The Gendered Rise of a Precarious Employment Relationship*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press; Vosko, L. 2002. *Rethinking Feminization: Gendered Precariousness in the Canadian Labour Market and the Crisis in Social Reproduction*. Presentation given at the 18th Annual Roberts Lecture, April 11, York University, Toronto.
2. Armstrong and Armstrong. 1994.
3. Total labour force as a percentage of 15- to 64-year-olds.
4. The Labour Force Survey undergoes a redesign every 10 years following the decennial census. Data from 1976 have been revised, but data prior to 1976 have not been revised.
5. Sweden had the highest women's labour force participation rate at 63%.

6. Armstrong, P. and H. Armstrong. 1990. *Theorizing Women's Work*. Toronto: Garamond Press.
7. Fast, J. and M. Da Pont. Autumn 1997. "Changes in women's work continuity." *Canadian Social Trends*. p. 2-7; Marshall, K. 1999. "Employment after childbirth." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 11, 3: 18-25; Statistics Canada and Status of Women Canada. 2000. *Women and Men in Canada: A Statistical Glance* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 12F0084XPE). Ottawa: Status of Women Canada.
8. Statistics Canada and Status of Women Canada. 2000; Habtu, R. 2002. "Men 55 and older: work or retire?" *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XIE) 3, 12: 27-34.
9. Statistics Canada and Status of Women Canada. 2000; Johnson, K., D. Lero and J. Rooney. 2001. *Work-Life Compendium 2001: 150 Canadian Statistics on Work, Family and Well-being*. Ottawa: Human Resources Development Canada, Strategic Policy Branch.
10. Armstrong and Armstrong. 1994; International Labour Organization (ILO). 1999. *World Employment Report: Women and Training in the Global Economy*. Geneva: ILO.
11. Statistics Canada. 2003. *Women in Canada: Work Chapter Updates* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89F0133XIE).
12. Data were not available for France.
13. In 2002, female professionals earned on average \$23.71 an hour, while men earned \$26.22, for an earnings ratio of 90%.
14. Occupational coding has changed over the years, which means that the time series may not be completely comparable.
15. Marshall, K. 1996. "The diversity of managers." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 8, 4: 24-30.
16. Statistics Canada. 2002. *Labour Force Historical Review 2002* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 71F0004XCB).
17. About 60% of jobs unique to primary industry are agricultural jobs.
18. Statistics Canada. 2002. *Labour Force Historical Review 2002* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 71F0004XCB). Table Cd1T38an.
19. Manufacturing includes occupations unique to processing, manufacturing and utilities.
20. Akyeampong, E. 1999. "Unionization: an update." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 11, 3: 45-65.
21. Non-standard work includes part-time employment, own-account self-employment and temporary work which has a fixed termination date.
22. Krahn, H. 1995. "Non-standard work on the rise." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 7, 4: 35-42; Vosko, L.F., N. Zukewich and C. Cranford. 2003. "Precarious jobs: A new typology of employment." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XIE) 4, 10: 16-26.
23. Anker, R. 1997. "Theories of occupational segregation by sex: An overview." *International Labour Review* 136, 3; Arai, A.B. 2000. "Self-employment as a response to the double day for women and men in Canada." *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology* 37, 2: 127-42.
24. International Labour Organization. 1997. "Part-time work: Solution or trap?" *International Labour Review* 136, 4.
25. *ibid.*; Fudge, J., E. Tucker and L. Vosko. 2002. *The Legal Concept of Employment: Marginalized Workers*. Report prepared for the Law Commission of Canada.
26. Hughes, K. May 1, 2003. "How are women faring in the entrepreneurial economy?" *Breakfast on the Hill Seminar Series*. Ottawa: Canadian Federation for the Humanities and Social Sciences. www.fedcan.ca/english/policyandadvocacy/breakfastonthehill/breakfast-hughes0503.pdf (accessed October 29, 2003).
27. Part-time employment refers to persons who work less than 30 hours per week at their main job. Australia is the exception where part-time employment refers to less than 30 hours per week in all jobs. In the United States, part-time employment includes only wage and salary workers.
28. A temporary job has a predetermined end date, or will end as soon as a specified project is completed.
29. Vosko, Zukewich and Cranford. 2003.
30. Grenon, L. and B. Chun. 1997. "Non-permanent paid work." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE) 9, 3: 21-31; Tabi, M. and S. Langlois. 2003. "Quality of jobs added in 2002." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XIE) 4, 2: 12-17.
31. Temporary employment data are not available for Australia.
32. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). 2000. *Employment Outlook*. Paris: OECD.
33. Statistics Canada. 2000. *Women in Canada 2000* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 89-503-XPE).
34. Hughes, K. 1999. "Gender and Self-Employment in Canada: Assessing Trends and Policy Implications." *Changing Employment Relationship Series. CPRN Study No. W/04*. Ottawa: Canadian Policy Research Networks.
35. Vosko, Zukewich and Cranford. 2003.
36. Statistics Canada. 2000.
37. Drolet, M. 2002. *The 'who, what, when and where' of gender pay differentials* (Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 71-584-MIE, no. 4).



Melissa Cooke-Reynolds is a former analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division and **Nancy Zukewich** is a senior analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.



Newcomers to Canada

Newcomers to Canada are developing a strong attachment to the country. A vast majority (91%) expressed the intention to settle here permanently and become Canadian citizens. Almost all indicated that Canada was the only country they applied to when they decided to emigrate (98%), according to the first data from the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada.

Family and friends played an important role in newcomer's initial settlement. The majority (87%) already had some form of social support system in Canada when they immigrated. As well, 59% of all immigrants cited joining family and friends as the most important reason for their destination choice. Seven in 10 immigrants reported that they were satisfied with their new lives in Canada. Most immigrants (85%) had made new friends since coming to Canada, especially with people from the same cultural background as themselves. In fact, 63% reported that all or most of their new friends were from the same ethnic group. As well, 47% of the immigrants reported that they wanted to bring their relatives to Canada by sponsoring their immigration.

Starting a new life in Canada was not without obstacles, however. Finding employment was the area where most immigrants reported some difficulties: 70% of newcomers who tried to enter the labour force identified at least one problem with the process, such as transferability of foreign qualifications, lack of contacts, and language barriers.

Highlights of the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada
Catalogue no. 89-611-XIE



Retirement intentions

Recent data from General Social Survey emphasize the extent to which people in their late 40s and 50s are uncertain about when they will retire. Nearly one third of people in their late 40s and 50s feel they haven't made adequate financial preparations to maintain their standard of living after they leave their job. About 12% of Canadians aged 45 to 59 did not know when they plan to retire, while an additional 18% did not intend to ever retire. Together, these two groups represent nearly 1.4 million people of all non-retired Canadians aged 45-59.

The likelihood of not intending to retire was strongly associated with income. For example, individuals with personal incomes of less than \$20,000 were almost three times as likely to say they did not intend to retire as individuals with personal incomes of \$40,000 or more.

Uncertainty about retirement was especially prevalent among immigrants who arrived in Canada since the beginning of the 1980s. Almost one half (47%) of non-retired immigrants of this age group reported that they did not know when they planned to retire, or that they did not intend to retire. As well, 45% of non-retired immigrants expressed concerns about adequacy of their financial preparations for retirement.

General Social Survey Cycle 16: Caring for an aging society
Catalogue no. 89-582-XIE



Family income and participation in postsecondary education

Postsecondary education is no more the domain of students from well-to-do families than it was two decades ago, according to the Survey of Consumer Finances and the General Social Survey.

The study confirmed that individuals from higher-income families are much more likely to attend university. However, this has been a long-standing tendency. In fact, the participation gap between students from the higher- and lower-income families attending university narrowed through the 1990s.

This in part reflects increases in the participation rates among students from the lower-income families. It also reflects declines in the rates of those from higher-income families. The only group to make steady gains in university participation rates through the 1990s consisted of young people aged 18 to 24 from families with the lowest incomes.

Family income and participation in post-secondary education
Catalogue no.
11F0019MIE2003210



Visible minorities and discrimination or unfair treatment

The vast majority of Canadians (93%) aged 15 and over said that they had never, or rarely, experienced discrimination in the past five years because of their ethnic-cultural characteristics. However, 7%,

or an estimated 1.6 million Canadians aged 15 and over, said they had experienced discrimination or unfair treatment in the past five years sometimes or often because of these characteristics.

One in five (20%) people aged 15 and over who were part of a visible minority, said they felt that they had experienced discrimination or unfair treatment sometimes or often in the five years prior to the survey because of their ethnicity culture, race, skin colour, language accent or religion.

Blacks were more likely to report feeling that they had been discriminated against or treated unfairly by others because of their ethnic-cultural characteristics. Nearly one third (32%) of Blacks, or an estimated 135,000, said that they had had these experiences sometimes or often in the past five years, compared with 21% of South Asians and 18% of Chinese.

Ethnic Diversity Survey: Portrait of a multicultural society
Catalogue no. 89-593-XIE



University tuition fees

Canada's undergraduate university students expect to pay an average of 7.4% more in university tuition fees the biggest increase in four years. In the 2003 academic year students should pay an average of \$4,025 up from \$3,749 in 2002.

Additional compulsory fees vary from one institution to the next and may include recreation and athletics, student health services and student associations. Undergraduate students will pay an average of \$623 in additional compulsory fees for the 2003 academic year.

The Daily
August 12, 2003
Catalogue no. 11-001-XIE

S O C I A L I N D I C A T O R S

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
INCOME¹									
<i>Average market income</i>									
Economic families ²	54,563	54,813	55,011	56,659	59,392	60,507	63,209	63,734	--
Unattached individuals	20,821	21,239	20,848	20,931	21,861	23,208	23,846	24,326	--
<i>Average total income (includes transfer payments)</i>									
Economic families ²	62,337	62,280	62,695	64,194	66,837	67,595	70,063	70,814	--
Unattached individuals	26,777	26,807	26,242	26,343	27,247	28,315	28,843	29,311	--
<i>Average income tax</i>									
Economic families ²	12,275	12,359	12,320	12,704	13,430	13,083	13,939	12,798	--
Unattached individuals	4,837	4,847	4,658	4,582	4,915	5,241	5,301	4,911	--
<i>Average after-tax income</i>									
Economic families ²	50,062	49,922	50,376	51,490	53,407	54,512	56,124	58,016	--
Unattached individuals	21,940	21,960	21,584	21,761	22,332	23,075	23,541	24,400	--
<i>Average after-tax income by quintiles for families</i>									
Lowest quintile	19,350	19,301	18,643	18,671	19,404	20,157	20,351	20,721	--
2 nd	33,662	33,258	32,895	33,187	34,226	35,456	36,057	36,830	--
3 rd	45,744	45,038	45,538	45,964	47,389	48,456	49,443	51,074	--
4 th	59,450	59,007	59,839	60,886	62,917	64,474	65,999	67,878	--
Highest quintile	92,110	93,014	94,972	98,784	103,157	104,032	108,793	113,615	--
<i>Earnings ratios (full-year, full-time workers)</i>									
Dual-earners as % of husband-wife families	60.3	60.5	61.3	63.0	63.4	63.8	65.0	65.7	--
Women's earnings as % of men's (full-time full year workers)	69.7	73.0	72.8	69.2	72.1	69.4	71.7	71.6	--
<i>Prevalence (%) of low income after tax (1992 low income cut-offs)</i>									
Families with head aged 65 and over	2.5	2.1	3.0	3.8	3.6	2.7	2.9	3.3	--
Families with head less than 65	10.6	11.3	11.9	11.2	9.6	9.5	8.7	8.3	--
Two-parent families with children	8.3	9.7	9.7	9.3	7.4	7.6	7.4	6.7	--
Lone-parent families	42.1	42.5	45.3	41.3	35.5	34.3	30.2	28.6	--
Unattached individuals	30.7	30.6	33.7	33.0	30.5	30.4	28.6	27.6	--
FAMILIES									
Marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	5.5	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.0	4.9	--
Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	--
Total number of families ('000) ^{3,4}	7,778	7,876	7,975	8,039	8,096	8,151	8,214	8,284	8,358
% of all families									
Husband-wife families	86.1	85.8	85.5	85.2	84.9	84.6	84.2	83.9	83.6
with children	51.1	50.9	50.6	50.4	50.1	49.9	49.7	49.4	49.2
without children	35.0	34.9	34.9	34.8	34.7	34.7	34.6	34.5	34.4
Lone-parent families	13.9	14.2	14.5	14.8	15.1	15.4	15.8	16.1	16.4
% of husband-wife families									
with children	59.4	59.3	59.2	59.1	59.1	59.0	59.0	58.9	58.8
all children under 18	66.2	65.8	65.4	65.0	64.6	64.2	63.8	63.4	62.9
Females as % of lone-parent families	82.8	83.0	83.1	83.2	83.3	83.4	83.5	83.6	83.6

1. All incomes are in 2001 constant dollars.

2. An economic family consists of two or more people who live in the same dwelling and are related by blood, marriage, common-law or adoption.

3. A census family is referred to as immediate or nuclear family consisting of married or common-law couples with or without children, or lone parents and their children, whereas a child does not have his or her own spouse residing in the household.

4. Excluding the territories.

Sources: *Income in Canada* (Catalogue no. 75-202-XPE), *Income Trends in Canada* (Catalogue no. 13F0022-XCB), *Annual Demographic Statistics* (Catalogue no. 91-213-XPB) and *Divorces* (Catalogue no. 84F0213-XPB).

LESSON PLAN

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends in the classroom

Lesson plan for “Feminization of work”

Objectives

- To understand trends in the work of women and men.
- To examine why work has increasingly become feminized internationally.

Classroom instructions

1. Have your students discuss how women’s employment experiences differ from men’s.
2. Survey the class to find out what types of jobs their mothers have (e.g. occupations, work full-time or part-time, temporary or permanent job). Discuss how these jobs are clustered. Are they clustered in particular occupations and do they have similar characteristics? Do the same for the jobs their fathers have.
3. There have been major changes in gender roles and in women’s work in the labour market and at home. Among the female students, discuss how they expect their employment experiences to be different from their mothers’ experiences. Among the male students, discuss how they expect their employment experiences to differ from their fathers’.
4. On average, women have always had lower earnings than men, but the gap has been narrowing. Ask your students to explore the reasons for this gap. Why it is narrowing?
5. Internationally, part-time work is more common for women than for men. Explore the reasons for this.
6. Women are increasingly working in occupations that were traditionally male-dominated. Explore if the reverse situation is true where men are increasingly entering female-dominated occupations.

Using other resources

Women in Canada: Work Chapter Updates
(www.statcan.ca/english/freepub/89F0133XIE/free.htm)

2001 Census Results Teacher’s Kit — Women in the labour force
(www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/teacher%27s_kit/activity.cfm, then select Activity 13)

The Changing Profile of Canada’s Labour Force
(www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/products/analytic/companion/paid/pdf/96F0030XIE2001009.pdf or
www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/Products/Analytic/companion/paid/contents.cfm)

- To find lesson plans, articles and data for elementary and secondary schools, check out the Statistics Canada Web site at www.statcan.ca/english/kits/teach.htm. There are more than 30 lesson plans for high school students, many articles and access to E-STAT and other data.
- See the Family studies kit at www.statcan.ca/english/kits/Family/intro.htm for detailed graphs that you can use to make overheads for your class.

Educators

You may photocopy “Lesson plan” or any item or article in *Canadian Social Trends* for use in your classroom.

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Are you a nutritionist, food industry analyst, market researcher or a consumer who needs to know what Canadians are eating? If the answer is yes, then the publication ***Food Consumption in Canada*** will meet your needs.

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