Economic Gender Equality Indicators

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This report presents the results of a project commissioned by Federal-Provincial/Territorial Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women to develop a limited set of economic gender equality indicators. The Economic Gender Equality Indicators were designed to contribute to public policy discussion on social indicators, an understanding of women's realities and the promotion of gender equality. The report is not intended to reflect an official position of any government.

Contents

These economic gender equality indicators were initiated by federal-provincial/territorial Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women, within a framework established jointly by federal, provincial and territorial governments. Leroy Stone, Analytical Studies Branch, Statistics Canada and Sheila Regehr, Policy Analysis and Development Directorate, Status of Women Canada co-ordinated the development of the indicators.

Foreword

This document presents the results of a two-year project commissioned in 1995 by Federal-Provincial/Territorial Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women to design a limited, innovative set of indicators which, taken together, would provide an overall picture of women's economic status across Canada. The project is part of a priority focus the Ministers have placed on Women and Canada's Economic Future. The project's objective is to enhance understanding of women's economic realities. It provides a needed contribution to informed public dialogue and policy development, in the interests of gender equality goals. The indicators are intended for use by governments in undertaking gender-based analysis and by other actors involved in the policy process. They could be used as well by businesses, a range of community organizations and by women and men making individual decisions about their own and their families' well-being.

Statistics Canada developed the indicators within a framework established jointly by the Status of Women Ministers. The framework for the project determined that the indicators be developed:

- in key areas that affect women's economic autonomy including income and earnings, paid and unpaid work and education and training;
- in time series to show trends;
- from existing data;
- for Canada and the provinces and territories;
- to reflect the situation of women with different age, education, occupation and employment characteristics;
- to account, in particular, for the presence of young children where possible.

The lessons learned from the successful development of the economic gender equality indicators, as well as from obstacles faced and future challenges yet to be met, have all been valuable. This project is one contribution to a growing body of knowledge about women and men, social and economic relationships, growth and human development. More will certainly need to be done.

Introduction

There is a growing need identified by governments and the public to establish social indicators - measures of well-being, or quality of life - that are comparable to the way Gross Domestic Product (GDP) serves as a benchmark of progress and growth in the economy.

As we approach the new millennium, we are increasingly challenged by global economic restructuring and changes in population patterns, family life, employment and social structures. And all must be managed within limited resources. We have achieved considerable progress, but much remains to be done and there is uncertainty about the future. This has created an even greater need for indicators to monitor, and to plan for, our current and future well-being.

Unlike GDP, however, which uses money as a common denominator, social indicators can measure many things in other ways. Life expectancy, for example, is used as an indicator of health. Labour force participation and unemployment rates are often used as indicators of the economic well-being of individuals.

Work on social indicators includes efforts to find a limited number of the most significant indicators that can be used and understood as successfully as economic measures like GDP.

These economic gender equality indicators are a contribution to efforts in this area. Like many other social indicators they are:

- based on individuals;
- oriented to social goals;
- a measure of outcomes;
- benchmarks for monitoring changes;
- a limited set of aggregates that show the big picture;
- a work in progress.

The most important aspect of these economic gender equality indicators is that they respond to the need for innovation in changing times. They make a valuable contribution to the field of social indicators because they:

- form a carefully selected set of indicators that reflect key aspects of economic well-being for women and men - income, work and learning;
- include aspects of women's economic realities that are often overlooked;
- value both differences and similarities between women and men;
- link economic and social aspects of life that have been divided historically.

This set of indicators offers a new perspective and a comprehensive picture of progress in working toward gender equality in economic well-being. However, because the gender equality indicators are aggregates that incorporate many statistics, they will undoubtedly raise questions which cannot be answered in this publication.

These indicators, like others, provide benchmarks, not an analysis of all the factors that influence the outcomes. It is hoped they will help raise public awareness of women's and men's realities, stimulate public policy discussion, encourage a search for explanations and responses, and monitor progress.

Developing the Economic Gender Equality Indicators

This particular set of gender equality indicators was developed for a number of reasons:

- the importance of gender equality to other social goals;
- the need to fill knowledge gaps;
- the need for social and economic policy integration;
- the need for balance in measuring and valuing male and female experience.

Even though there has been progress toward gender equality and improvement in statistics to measure it, serious inequalities and knowledge gaps persist. And in a rapidly changing social, economic and physical environment, there is more need than ever to have - and to use - that knowledge. No one can afford costly mistakes based on faulty assumptions.

It is essential, therefore, that indicators designed to measure individual well-being include a focus on gender. Gender equality has been identified as a priority goal by governments in Canada and around the world, as an objective in its own right and as a means of achieving other forms of well-being for individuals and society. Research from around the world has led to formal international recognition that progress toward gender equality is a necessary condition to improve society's ability to manage major domestic and international challenges such as reducing poverty, violence and the spread of disease, addressing population and intergenerational equity issues, achieving environmental sustainability, and promoting social cohesion and an equitable distribution of work, employment and resources.

There is also a growing recognition that the lines between economic and social policy are becoming increasingly irrelevant. Overcoming this traditional economic-social divide is important because commonly used approaches to economic issues are based on male experience and standards, and are not well-adapted to women's experience. For example, in order to meet the needs of children and other family members and dependants, women often must make decisions that reduce their actual and potential earnings, income and security. But this does not mean they choose to have their work undervalued. Nor does it mean that this work is not valuable to society; it is essential. Yet information on work done outside the paid labour market and its relationship to paid work has only recently been collected and analyzed, in Canada or anywhere.

"What we have traditionally regarded as social policy is in substance part of economic policy - in fact, the most important part." (Secretary General of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, The OECD Observer, No. 205, April/May, 1997)

New gender equality indicators must recognize both similarities and differences. Women and men in Canada have the same rights and are occupied on a day-to-day basis in the pursuit of the same goals - economic survival and security, well-being for themselves and their families, and some measure of personal fulfilment. But there are large contrasts between women and men in the patterns of their daily lives. The challenges that face Canadians, therefore, can only be met with a full understanding of the everyday economic activities and realities of women as well as men.

For this reason, indicators must also focus on gender rather than on just the situation of women. Individual well-being can be determined by how well material needs, such as food, clothing, shelter and health care, are met. But social relations are equally, if not more, important to well-being. Social relations based on gender are particularly important because they affect every aspect of public and private life from family formation and occupational structures to political participation and economic growth.

How do the indicators measure gender equality?

The selected set of indicators measures gender equality by:

- reflecting women's and men's experiences;
- moving beyond a male standard to a more inclusive human one.

While legal equality is relatively well-developed, achieving equality in practice, especially in economic terms, has proven difficult. Gender equality requires appropriate treatment of both similarities and differences between women and men to achieve equal results.

How we achieve gender equality, therefore, is critical. Two mutually reinforcing routes have been developed, and were used as the framework for selecting the economic gender equality indicators:

- improve women's access to domains traditionally dominated by men and encourage men to share responsibility in female-dominated areas. This involves overcoming stereotypes and removing discriminatory barriers which prevent women and men from realizing their potential in all aspects of life;
- correct the undervaluation of activities where women have predominated. This requires equal valuation of the ways in which women and men are different as well as similar, respecting their rights and choices as full human beings and promoting a greater overall sharing of society's costs and benefits.

Women's situation has often been measured against male standards, a problem that social indicators must attempt to overcome. An example of the need for new standards is provided by looking at the wage gap for full-time, full-year employees, an indicator that is well-known and used as a measure of gender equality. Among these employees, the ratio of women's earnings to men's was 73 per cent in 1995.

Monitoring this wage gap can provide useful information about a particular part of the paid labour market. However, it is limited as an overall gender equality indicator because:

- it includes a greater percentage of men than women (in 1995 women were about 40 per cent of full-time paid workers);
- it does not reflect the reality of women, and men, who are employed part-time, or for part of a year (women accounted for almost 70 per cent of part-time paid workers in 1995);
- it does not take into account the unpaid work demands of caring for children, other dependants and the household, the majority of which women perform;
- it only provides information about women when their paid work patterns are similar to men's.

The conceptual problem of only using a male standard can be seen if the full-time, full-year wage gap example is taken a step further, by comparing women and men who are even more similar. The wage gap almost disappears for young, well-educated women and men who have never had children. But this closing of the gap results from women behaving just as men traditionally have - devoting almost all their work time to earning income.

Time for unpaid work, for families and communities, but especially for the care of children and other dependants, is essential to all societies. Gender equality, as well as social and economic development, requires that women and men have equal access to the paid labour market and also that caring work be valued, supported and more equitably shared.

How were the indicators selected?

A **total income index** was selected because women's income tends to be more varied than men's. Child and spousal support, spousal pension benefits, government transfers related to children, maternity benefits and social assistance are important sources of income for women, in addition to earnings. The **after-tax income index** was included because the tax system is the primary vehicle for income redistribution in Canada. A **total earnings index** was selected because earnings are the major source of income for women and men and it reflects the overall pattern of women's paid labour force realities.

Work indicators include a **total workload index**, a **paid work index** and an **unpaid work index**. These indicators were selected for two main reasons. First, although some men are becoming more involved with family and household work, women generally continue to bear the cost of having children. Women still perform the vast majority of the unpaid work that children and other dependants entail, and face the corresponding loss of income and economic independence. This unequal sharing of dependent care may be the most persistent barrier to gender equality.

Second, money is usually regarded as the primary economic resource in modern societies, but time is also a valuable economic resource, even though it is often overlooked. Many people face a "time deficit" that threatens personal lives and social cohesion. Because time is the one resource that everyone has in common on a daily basis, time use serves as a good measure of equality/inequality. The relationships between paid and unpaid work, market and household, money and time, need to be better understood and incorporated in economic and social policy.

Gender equality, as well as social and economic development, requires that women and men have equal access to the paid labour market and also that caring work be valued, supported and more equitably shared.

Learning indicators include indexes of **university degrees granted** to women and men in male-dominated, female-dominated and gender-neutral fields to gauge how concentration in fields of study is changing over time. **Job-related training indexes** were selected to compare women's and men's participation in training, including employer-sponsored training, and to compare the amount of training time involved. Finally, an indicator of the **occupational returns on education** was selected to show how women and men with higher

education compared in terms of finding employment with good potential for economic well-being and security.

What are the lessons learned from the gender equality indicators project?

The major results of the indicators selected are described in the text and charts in the next section. A great deal was also learned during the course of this project.

As with most work on social indicators, finding the best data sources and ways of including information about all parts of Canada was a significant challenge. Sometimes, the best sources of data for Canada as a whole, based on detailed sampling, are limited in information about certain parts of Canada because of small sample sizes. Special modelling using Census data was required in some cases. With regard to unpaid work, Census data were, unfortunately, not available. This will change, however, as the results of the 1996 Census questions on unpaid work are processed for release in March 1998. These results will provide valuable new information on diverse population groups in all parts of Canada for use by governments, communities, social organizations, businesses and individuals.

Two other indicator categories, wealth and decision-making, were originally planned but could not be included. **Wealth** remains a high priority for future work. A measure of wealth would tell us the extent to which women have assets, such as a home or business, that enhance their economic power and provide a cushion against income fluctuations. It can reveal a more complete picture of women's economic situation. The data problems which prevented the inclusion of a wealth indicator at this time may be resolved in the near future. Finding a decision-making indicator involved conceptual problems. An indicator of how **economic decision-making** was influenced by women's presence and by pertinent information about women was sought, but there did not seem to be a good measure that would tell us whether we were moving closer to gender equality.

Another potential indicator that did not work out was in the learning category. It examined income returns on investment in education. While it was not considered appropriate as a gender equality index for technical reasons, it did indicate that investment in education has very positive returns for women and is particularly important for their future economic well-being.

Another lesson learned is that progress is being made in developing indicators with significant potential to improve gender analysis capacity and policy effectiveness. Much more needs to be done, however, especially in the area of analysis. Because indicators do not tell the whole story, understanding what is behind the aggregate numbers and how current and future policies might influence them requires detailed analysis and additional information.

Recognizing diversity among women is essential to this analysis. Factors such as Aboriginal status, disability, race, age and family status, and rural or urban location, can interact with gender in different ways.

Because raising children continues to have greater impact on women than men, there can be even greater economic differences among women - those with and without children - than there are between women and men. One variable that is essential to any examination of gender issues, therefore, is **the presence of children**. To highlight this, the presence of young children has been factored into supplementary information provided on some indicators. While recognizing that the effects of having children continue to be felt even after children have grown, these effects are most acute when children are young.

It is also important to understand how factors, such as level of education and training, field of study and occupation, affect total work and income patterns, especially in the context of labour market changes, such as growth in non-standard employment. Particular efforts must be directed toward the complex analysis needed to monitor how policy changes, such as child support reforms or labour market policies, can affect gender gaps and how the potential impact of new policy proposals can be assessed.

Gender Equality Indicators for Canada

The set of indicators selected is comprised of three categories: **income**, **work** and **learning**. Taken together they reflect core, interrelated aspects of the distribution of economic resources and benefits between women and men that should be taken into account in any gender analysis of policies and programs.

The gender equality indicators are all expressed as indexes using **ratios of women to men**, **where 1.0 represents equality**, **in the sense that there would be no gap between women and men**. Ratios either above or below 1.0 indicate inequality or imbalance for that indicator. A closing of the gap represents a more equal sharing and can result from changes to women's situation, men's situation or both. For example, the income gap would close if women's income rose, if men's income fell, or if incomes for both rose but women's rose more than men's.

*The gender equality indicators are all expressed as indexes using **ratios of women to men, where 1.0 represents equality, in the sense that there would be no gap between women and men**. Ratios either above or below 1.0 indicate inequality or imbalance for that indicator.*

The indicators compare **adult individuals**. Most women and men live much of their lives with others - spouses, children, elderly parents and non-relatives. But the family or household is not a suitable unit for gender equality indicators. Most definitions of well-being used for social indicators stress the importance of self-determination, security and ability to control resources such as money, one's own work effort and social relations. While income-sharing takes place within households, for example, it is not factored into the income indicators because actual control over "shared" income will vary from one situation to another. A better understanding of individual resources available to women and men is needed as this can affect an individual's ability to make economic decisions and to negotiate with others, inside and outside the household.

The indicators show **averages** for women and men and **trends over time**. Four time periods have been used for some indicators, three for others. Some indicators have only two time periods because the information needed is collected less frequently. For all indicators, the last time point is for the most recent year available. Where only two time points are possible, they are not useful in identifying trends but are valuable as a baseline for the future.

Income

The gender equality indexes in this section provide female/male ratios for 1986, 1991 and 1995 for:

- total income before tax for individuals, aged 15 and over;
- total income after tax for individuals, aged 15 and over;
- total earnings for individuals, aged 18 to 64.

Total Income Index

This indicator compares the average of the total income received by women and the average of the total income received by men. Total income means all money income received by an individual during the year from all regular sources, such as wages, salaries, farm and non-farm self-employment income, investments, net rental income, child and spousal support payments, employment insurance, private and public pensions, and government transfers, including benefits for children, seniors and persons with disabilities, workers compensation and social assistance. Money received from irregular sources, such as windfall gambling gains, inheritances, loans repaid and insurance payments for loss or damages, is not included, nor is income-in-kind.

Based on data from the public-use microdata file of the national Survey of Consumer Finances, the average total income for all Canadian women aged 15 or over was roughly $16,600 in 1995. The corresponding figure for men was $29,600. The gender equality index for total income is the ratio that results from dividing the income for women by that for men. If women's and men's incomes were equal, the index value would be 1.0. Because women's income is lower than men's, the actual index value will be less than 1.0.

In 1995, the total income index was at 0.56, meaning that overall, women in Canada received 56 per cent or just over half as much income as men. The gender gap, the amount remaining between 0.56 and 1.0, was 0.44.

If the index rises toward 1.0 over a series of years, it indicates that the gender gap is closing. The bars in chart I-1 show that this is the case. The gender equality index for total income stood at 0.49, 0.54 and 0.56 for 1986, 1991 and 1995 respectively, showing a steady rise over this period.

Total After-Tax Income Index

Because taxes affect how much disposable income is available to be used, and because of the redistributive aspects of the income tax system, it was considered important to see how the gender gap would appear when income tax was subtracted from total income. Other taxes, such as sales or property taxes, also limit disposable income but are not factored into this index. The effect of such taxes depends on spending patterns that may vary widely among individuals. Due to the complexity of these patterns, it was not possible within the scope of this project to factor in other taxes.

Because the income tax system recognizes that people with less income have less ability to pay tax, it allows them to keep proportionately more of their income. Women have lower incomes; therefore, the gender equality index for after-tax income can be expected to be higher than the total income index.

In 1995, the after-tax income index stood at 0.60. This is higher than the 0.56 total income index, resulting in a gender gap that is narrowed by 4 percentage points. In other words, one net effect of the income tax system in 1995 was to improve the gender balance in income.

Chart I-2 shows a rising trend in the after-tax income index from the mid-1980s to the mid-1990s, similar to that for total income. The index stood at 0.52 in 1986, rose to 0.58 in 1991 and rose again, but by a smaller amount, to 0.60 in 1995.

Total Earnings Index

An index comparing the earnings of women and men can help provide particular insight into the situation of women and men. Total earnings, which include wages, salaries and net income from farm and non-farm self-employment, are the major source of income for most people. This indicator is based on individuals in the prime working ages of 18 to 64, including those having no earnings, and is calculated, as income is, on a total average for women and men. Because it includes non-earners, the total earnings index is expected to be lower than other traditional measures of the gap between women and men. And, because it also includes earnings from all types of paid work, including part-time work where women predominate, this index can be expected to be lower than the full-time, full-year wage ratio often used to measure the wage gap.

The total earnings index, by comparing all working-age men and women - full-time and part-time, earners and non-earners - better reflects the overall reality of women in Canadian society.

Based on the public-use microdata file of the Survey of Consumer Finances, the average earnings for Canadian women aged 18 to 64 were $14,600 in 1995. The corresponding figure for men was $28,000. When we divide the figure for women by that for men, this index has a value of 0.52 for 1995, leaving a large gender gap in earnings of 0.48.

As with income, however, the total earnings gap between women and men in Canada has also been closing over time. Chart I-2 shows the rise in ratios from 1986 to 1995. The gender equality index for total earnings stood at 0.44, 0.49 and 0.52 for 1986, 1991 and 1995 respectively.

As mentioned in the introduction to the indicators, it is not possible in this document to analyze each of the many factors that might explain what has contributed to the closing of the gender gap for all three indicators, or what can be done to achieve further improvements in the situation for women. Finding the answers to these critical questions requires detailed analysis: for example, analysis that would assess the differential impact of individual factors - particularly, age, training and the presence of children - on the narrowing of the gap.

By making statistical adjustments, however, we were able to begin to explore how gender gaps in the aggregate indicators would be affected if key differences between women and men which impact on income and earnings were taken into account. The Survey of Consumer Finances data base was specifically selected for the gender equality indicators so such links could be made between income and earnings data and individual characteristics.

Analyzing the Gender Gaps

Statistical adjustments are commonly used to account for differences, such as when comparing Gross Domestic Product (GDP) between two countries, one large and one small. Rather than comparing total GDP, per capita GDP is used to show how the countries' economies compare after population size has been taken into account. If the per capita GDP between the two countries is more similar than total GDP, then it means population size "explains" one important difference in total GDP.

In the case of gender differences in income and earnings, the statistical "equalization" adjustments used here require more complex calculations. They take into account a number of factors that help to explain income-related gender gaps: women's concentration in part-time employment and low-paying occupations, family responsibilities, women's overrepresentation among lone parents and seniors who have few or no earnings, and their underrepresentation among those with higher education.

The calculations are made for women and men on the basis of:

- four age groups (15-29, 30-49, 50-64, 65 and over);
- 16 occupational categories (including all major occupational groupings from health, services and teaching to professional occupations, construction and trades);
- four education levels (less than grade 10, grade 11-13, some post-secondary including a diploma, university degree);
- three types of employment (full-time, part-time or no employment)
- two types of family status (a child under 6, or no child under 6).

Chart I-3 shows that the equalization adjustments produce ratios closer to 1.0 than the actual income and earnings indexes. But the chart also shows that large gaps remain, indicating that some causes of gender inequality are not explained by these combined factors.

For total after-tax income in 1995, the adjustments reduce the gender gap by about 9 percentage points. For earnings, the adjustments reduce the gap even more, by 14 percentage points. However, the gaps, in both cases, are still large at 0.31 and 0.34. The gaps would likely be narrower if more detailed age, occupation or other categories were used. Varying the statistical method used would also lead to variations in results.

It must be stressed, however, that equalized ratios such as those used here, or those using more detailed or different methods, are analytical aids. They do not change the reality of women's and men's situations, but allow us to begin analyzing those realities to determine how best to address inequalities.

As stated before, analyzing the interaction of all these factors is outside the scope of this project, but it would certainly shed light on the reasons for the gender gaps. This type of analysis is necessary in order to assess which policy directions are likely to be most effective in helping to close the gaps.

For example, taking into account factors related to the labour market, such as education and occupation, is known to narrow the earnings gap. Where these kinds of factors are concerned, policies directed to the paid labour market, such as

those to promote equality in education, employment, pay and benefits, are effective avenues toward gender equality in earnings.

On the other hand, factors outside the paid labour market, such as responsibility for the care of young children, can widen the gender gap. Economic circumstances, societal attitudes about male and female roles, and public policies and programs, all affect the sharing of family-related work and the opportunities available to different family members to obtain income. The presence of children or other dependants in the household may also have a different effect on income, than on earnings, because earnings are individually based and do not take family size into account, while other sources of income, such as tax benefits and child support, do.

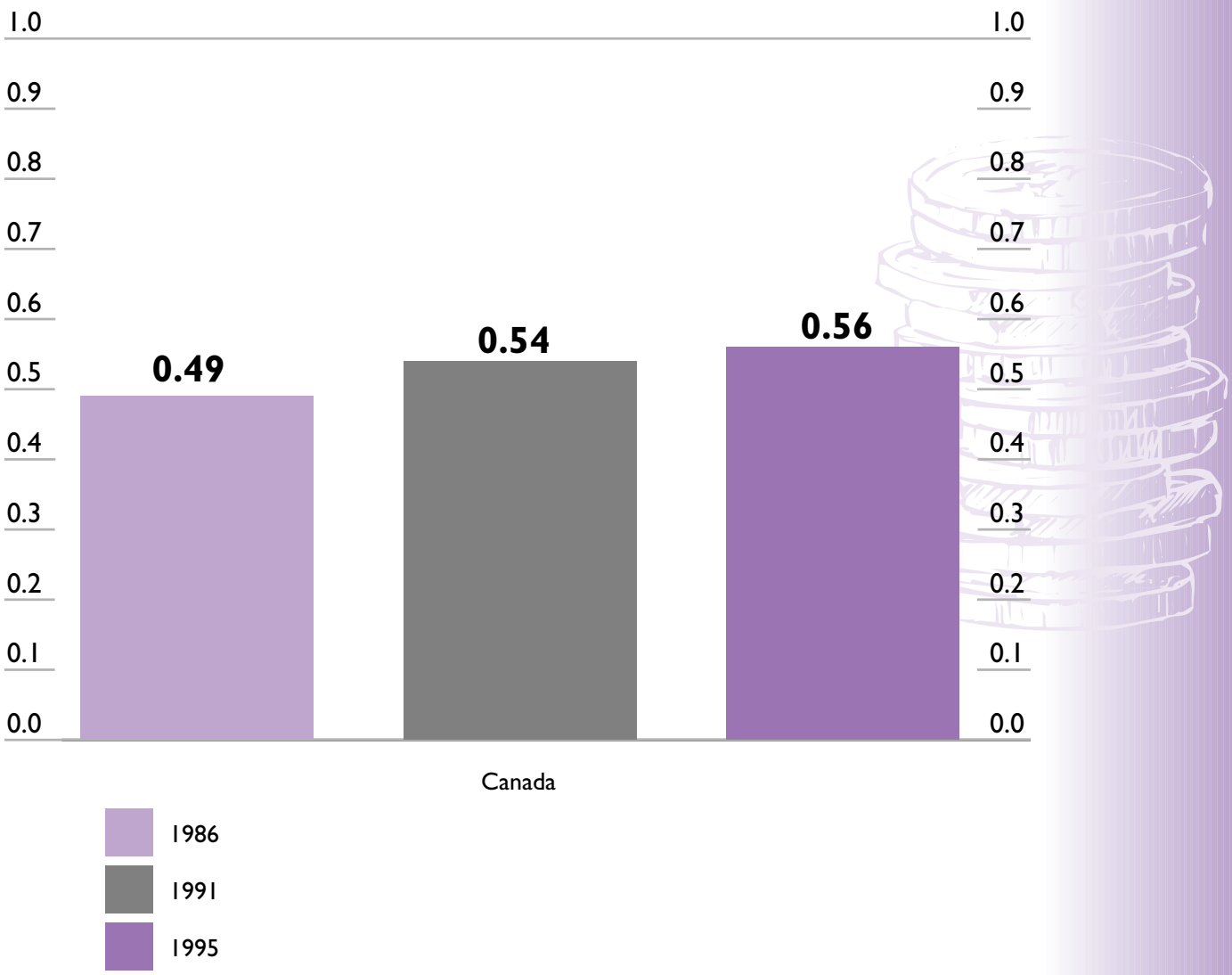
Closing gender gaps in income and earnings will require solutions to be sought both within the labour market and outside it.

Closing gender gaps in income and earnings will, therefore, require solutions to be sought both within the labour market and outside it. Achieving equality in this way involves a combination of related elements, in addition to efforts aimed at paid labour market equality. These include greater sharing of paid and unpaid work between women and men; provisions which recognize specific needs based on sex such as maternity and lactation; and measures which help ensure that individuals, women or men, who provide unpaid care for others, do not bear its costs alone. This approach recognizes similarities and differences and more equitably values men's and women's contributions.

As pay equity studies in Canada and other countries have highlighted, women and men may have jobs that are different but have equivalent value. There are close links between the unpaid work done by women and the historical undervaluation of paid work in female-dominated occupations. Information about all types of work may, therefore, lead to a better understanding of the relationship between market and non-market work in the economy. This can help accelerate the closing of gender gaps in earnings and income.

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995

- **There has been gradual improvement in the gender equality index for total income from 1986 to 1995 but a large gap still remains.**

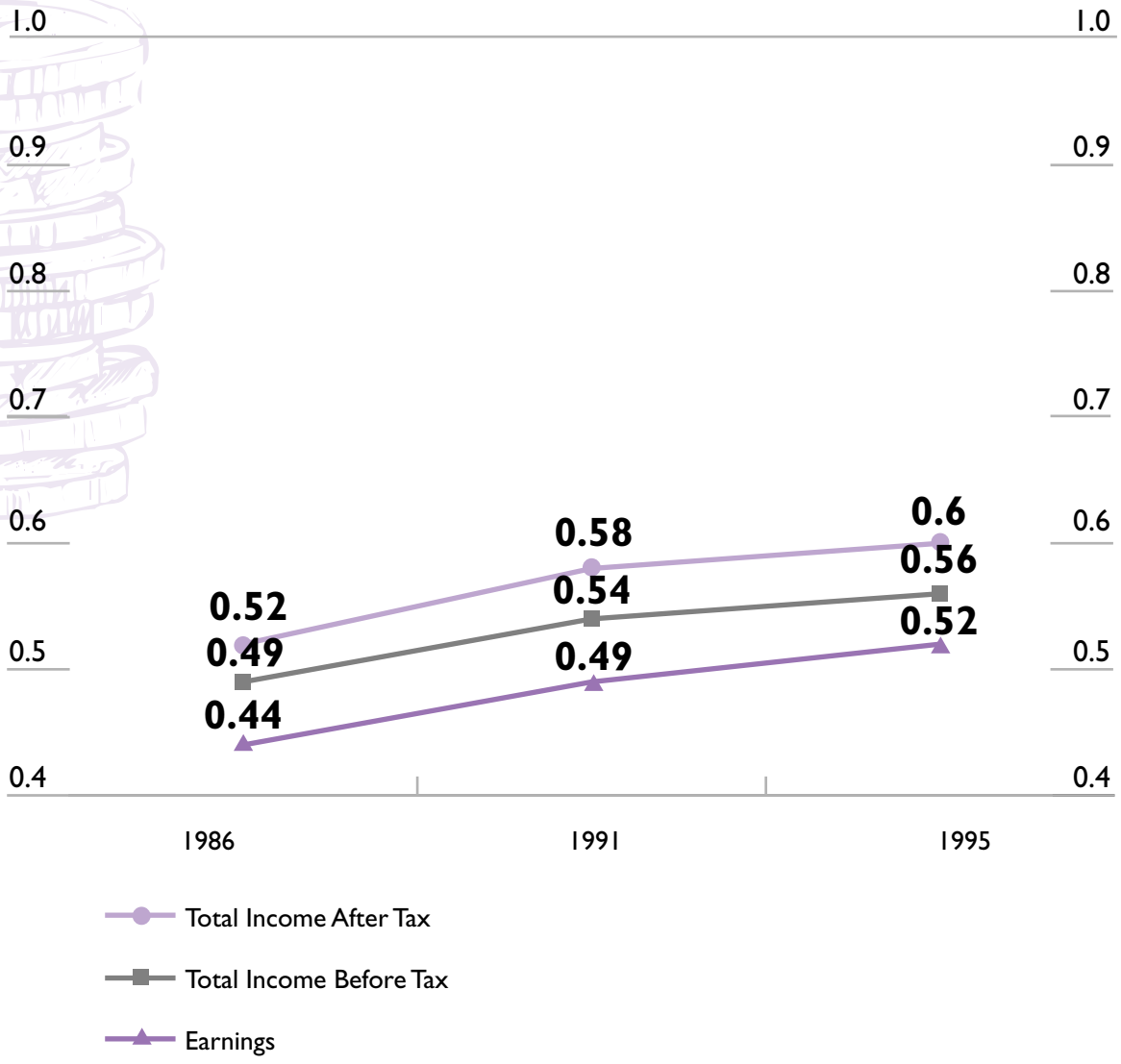


Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986, 1991 and 1995

- **Income sources in addition to earnings are particularly important to women - the gap between women's and men's total income is smaller than the gap in earnings.**
- **The income tax system further contributes toward gender equality in income.**
- **There has been a similar and positive trend in all three indexes from 1986 to 1995.**

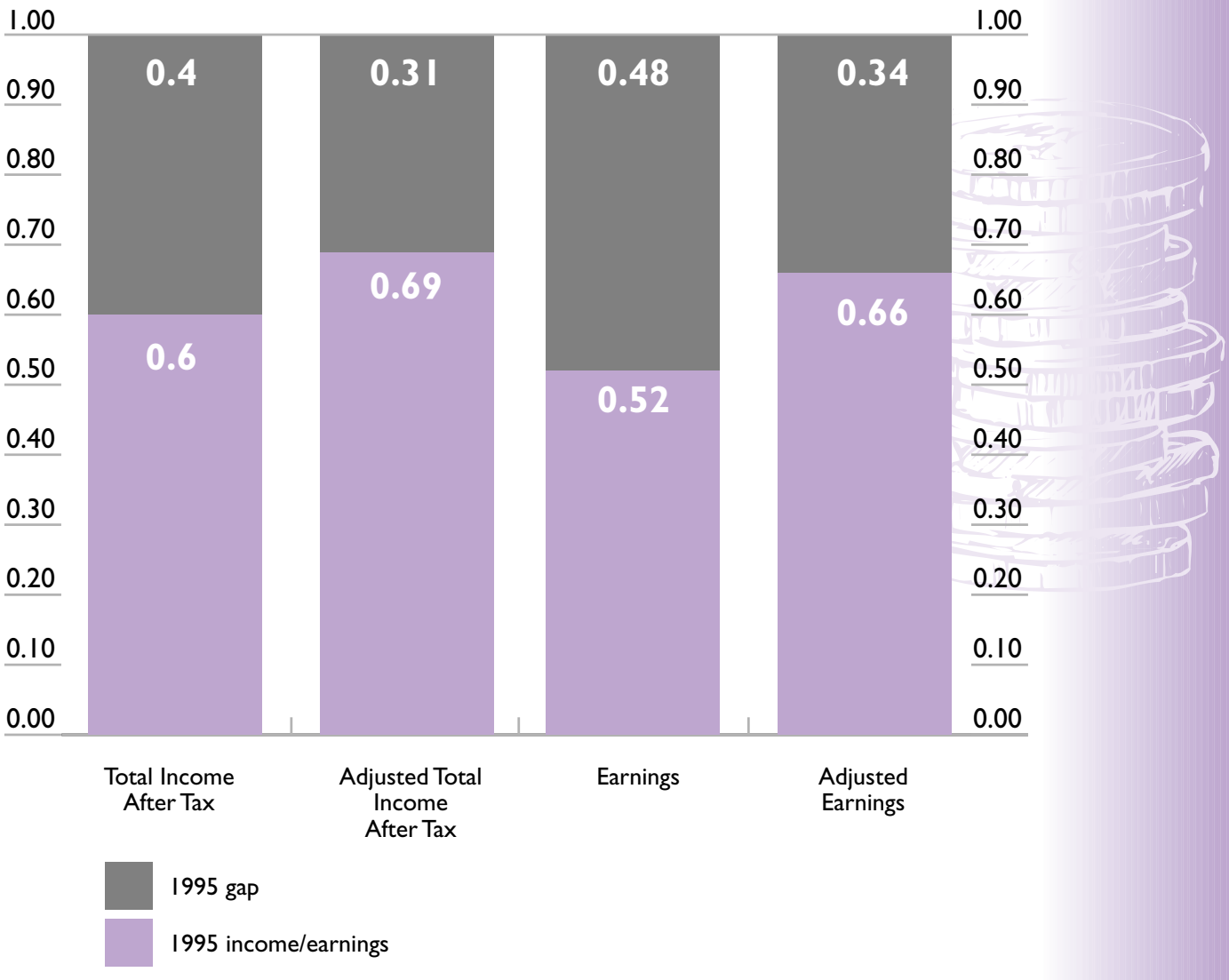


Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

I-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings (with statistically "equalized" figures) 1995

- **Even when statistical adjustments are made to the income indexes to help understand the gender gaps (by taking into account male and female differences in age, education, occupation, employment and family status), large gaps remain unexplained.**



Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Work

The gender equality indexes in this section provide female/male ratios for 1986 and 1992 for:

- total workload for individuals aged 15 and over;
- paid work for individuals aged 15 and over;
- unpaid work for individuals aged 15 and over.

More detailed work distribution patterns for selected populations are also provided.

Total Workload Index

This indicator examines the extent of gender equality in overall workload when different types of economic activity are combined. It is based on hours spent doing both paid market work and unpaid work of economic value. This unpaid work includes child-oriented work; providing help to other relatives and friends; performing household work such as meal preparation, laundry and maintenance; and volunteer work for organizations. Overall, Canadians spend more time in unpaid work than in paid work. By far the largest amount of unpaid work time is devoted to children, relatives and friends, and household work.

Unpaid activities are classified as work of economic value when they produce a set of goods and services that are marketable: meaning that they could be produced for, and purchased in, the market. Child and elder care are examples of unpaid services that could be done by a paid employee. A meal is an example of a good that can be prepared at home or purchased in a restaurant. Individuals might cut their own hair, or pay to have it done in a salon. In contrast, sleep, learning, and travelling to and from work are examples of necessary and valuable activities that cannot be performed for someone else, whether paid or not, so they are not included as work for these indicators.

This definition of work of economic value was developed when Statistics Canada began measuring and valuing unpaid work in the 1970s. The classification of work according to the beneficiaries of the work, which will be described in more detail later, is found in Statistics Canada's Total Work Accounts System. The work indicators used here are based on data from the time-use diaries collected in Statistics Canada's General Social Surveys of 1986 and 1992.

An individual's total workload, using the above definitions, is the number of hours per day, averaged over a seven-day week, spent doing either paid or unpaid work. The female/male ratios for the total workload index are determined using the average of women as a group and men as a group.

In 1992, the average total workload for Canadian women aged 15 or over was 8.9 hours per person per day. The corresponding figure for men was 8.3 hours. The gender index for average total workload is determined by dividing the figure for women by that for men. If total workload for women and men were equal, this ratio would have the value of 1.0.

The total workload index for 1992 has the value of 1.08. This means that the gender gap was 0.08. But in contrast to the income and earnings gaps, where women had a lesser share than men, in this instance the gap exists above 1.0. In other words, women performed a larger share of total work.

While a 0.08 gap may not seem large, it reflects more than an additional half hour of work every day of the week for all women, as an average. Looked at another way, the half hour more per day that women spend working is the equivalent of five weeks per year at a full-time paid job.

If the total workload index moves back toward 1.0 over time, meaning in this case it would fall, that would indicate that the gender gap in total workload would be closing. It could close if men increased their workload or if women reduced theirs and had more time for other activities such as sleep, education and training or leisure.

Chart W-1, however, shows a slight increase in the gap in total workload between 1986 and 1992, from 1.07 to 1.08 respectively. This small change lies within the margin of sampling error, however, and may not represent any significant difference. A measure such as the total workload index covers a large variety of work activities and a constant 24-hour day within which people must also eat, sleep and incorporate other activities. For this reason change can be expected to be modest and slow when calculated for the country as a whole.

Paid Work and Unpaid Work Indexes

Beneath the surface of the total workload index presented by Chart W-1 lies a much greater gender imbalance. When total workload is divided between paid and unpaid work, there is an overwhelming tendency for men to be predominantly engaged in paid work activities and for women to be the major contributors to society and the economy in the unpaid, non-market sector, as illustrated in Chart W-2. In 1992, the female/male ratio for paid work was 0.6 and for unpaid work, 1.73.

In order to understand this imbalance, it would be useful to know more about the changing patterns in paid and unpaid work that have taken place in our economy historically. Unfortunately, while information on work in the paid labour market has been collected regularly and on an international level since the 1940s, until recently, unpaid work has been statistically invisible almost everywhere. While Canada is a world leader in the measurement and valuation of unpaid work, there have also been significant international developments in this field over the last few years.

We know that earlier in the history of industrialized countries, women and men in families were more likely to work side-by-side creating goods and services, even when there was a distinct gender division of labour with women and men performing different tasks. Much of this work was destined for both household and market, and children were more likely to interact with both parents in the process. For example, a family growing fruits and vegetables would consume some of the produce and the rest would be sold or exchanged for other goods and services.

In contemporary society, paid market and unpaid non-market work are more highly separated, even in largely agricultural countries. People produce fewer of their own goods, for example, furniture or clothing. The market, therefore, occupies a very large share of the economy, intensifying the need for money income. This makes it more difficult for individuals who are not strongly attached to the paid labour force to meet their own and their families' economic needs.

Because of the ongoing gender division of labour, it is still primarily women who limit their paid work in order to care for dependants and other family members.

Examples of the work patterns of specific population groups among Canadian women and men have been selected to illustrate how paid and unpaid work distribution can vary.

Paid and unpaid work ratios, shown in Charts W-3 to W-6, are computed for women compared to men, all with full-time paid work and all in the 20 to 44 age range, but in three different household categories:

- *Dual-earner with young child: women and men with a child under 6, where both spouses are employed full-time;*
- *Primary-earner with young child: women and men, employed full-time with a child under 6, and a husband or wife who is not employed full-time (although the spouse may have some paid work);*
- *No young children: women and men, employed full-time, who have no young children at home (they may be single or married, and they may be childless or have children 6 and over - this category, therefore, includes lone parents with older children).*

Work Distribution Patterns for Specific Population Groups

In developing the work distribution patterns, ratios have been calculated for carefully selected and meaningful groups of men and women, based on household characteristics.

The information provided highlights two major points. First, the selected groups illustrate how work patterns of individuals can vary considerably, according to different household situations and between time periods. Second, the selected work categories show that work distribution patterns can vary according to beneficiaries of work time, and that time for children can be shared very differently between women and men, than time for other relatives or friends. Care must be taken in policy and program development to ensure that assumptions about who works, and who benefits, in different circumstances, are tested against reality.

Consideration was given to including lone parents with young children as a separate category because they confront particularly difficult decisions about allocating time to paid and unpaid work. Although there is time-use data available on lone-parent mothers, it was not possible to show a gender equality ratio because there were too few men in this category in the General Social Survey sample to obtain a good comparison.

Given our aging population, the work patterns of older age groups are also very significant for policy purposes. However, this group was not included as this publication only allowed a limited number of groups to be selected for illustration purposes.

Paid and Unpaid Work Balance

The extent to which paid and unpaid work are shared between women and men is of particular interest for individuals in dual-earner households. This is important information in the context of policies and programs aimed at facilitating the balancing of "work and family responsibilities" (paid and unpaid work), especially

for employees with young children. Balancing paid and unpaid work is a key element of women's economic autonomy and security and of family well-being.

The level of sharing has been examined by using a **"balance" ratio**. This ratio uses a scale that ranges from 0.0 to 1.0. At 0.0, there would be no sharing - with paid work, for example, all being done by men and all the unpaid work being done by women. At 1.0, paid and unpaid work would be equally shared, or balanced, between women and men. Even the halfway point, at 0.5, reflects a large imbalance where, for example, paid work might be almost fully shared, but the vast majority of unpaid work would still be done by women.

Because the mother and father of a child under 6 in the dual-earner household are both employed full-time, it could be expected that there would be a relatively small gender imbalance in paid and unpaid work distribution. In fact, a serious imbalance was revealed. The ratio for this household type in 1992 was 0.72 - still a considerable distance from full balance.

The 1992 information, however, indicates that there may have been a greater balance in that year compared to 1986 for this household type. When the two household types with children under 6 (dual-earner and primary earner) are combined (the 1986 data do not allow women and men with full-time employment to be separated into primary and dual-earner household types), the balance ratio was 0.45 in 1986 and 0.63 in 1992. The next time-use survey, scheduled for 1997, will provide further information on whether there has been movement toward greater balance in paid and unpaid work.

Paid and Unpaid Work Distribution Patterns

Chart W-3 shows the pattern of imbalance in the dual-earner household as well as the patterns of paid and unpaid work distribution in the other household types.

In 1992, there were different female/male patterns of paid and unpaid work for individuals in the three household types. For the dual-earner household type, where both parents had full-time employment, the paid work ratio stood at 0.77, meaning that on average, for every hour spent by men in paid work, women spent 46 minutes.

In the primary-earner household type with young children, where the individual's spouse did not have a full-time paid job, the ratio was 0.56 or about 34 minutes of paid work by women for every hour spent by men. This means that in this type of household, fathers as full-time earners spent more time in paid work than mothers as full-time earners. It may be that fathers are more often sole earners whose spouses are occupied full-time with the care of their young children, freeing the fathers to spend longer hours at paid work. On the other hand, mothers in this family type, although classified as primary earners, may be less likely to be the sole earner and might thus spend comparatively less time in paid work and more time in child-related unpaid work.

For women compared to men in the household type with no young children, the paid work ratio was 0.87. This indicates that women and men in this category spent more similar amounts of time in paid work than in the two other categories where young children were present.

A different pattern appears for unpaid work. In all household categories, the female-to-male ratios were above 1.0. The ratio was 1.33 in the dual-earner household type. This means that, on average, for every hour spent by men in unpaid work, women spent 80 minutes. The unpaid work ratio in both of the other household types was the same, at 1.83, even though the paid work ratios for these groups were quite different.

It is particularly noteworthy that women in households with no young children performed almost double the unpaid work of men in this group, considering that these women also had a high ratio of paid work at 0.87. One factor to remember is that even though there are no children under 6, older children are likely to be present for many adults in this 20 to 44 age range. This household category also includes lone parents, predominantly women, with children age 6 or older.

Work Distribution Patterns by Beneficiaries

Underlying the overall paid and unpaid work pattern is a more detailed pattern of the allocation of work. Here, unpaid work is classified according to key activities which reflect the beneficiaries of this work:

- child-oriented work (child care as well as other activities which are primarily of benefit to children);
- work oriented toward relatives and friends;
- self and household work (the latter can benefit any or all members of the household, including other adults);
- volunteer work for organizations.

Chart W-4 shows an important gender imbalance in child-oriented work in the two household categories that have a child under 6. The imbalance in the household where both spouses have full-time employment is substantial. For every hour spent by men doing child-oriented work, women spent over one and three-quarter hours. The imbalance is even more striking between male and female primary earners. For every hour spent by men in this household category doing child-oriented work, women were spending over two and two-thirds hours.

Chart W-4 shows that women and men in households with young children spent relatively similar amounts of time on work benefiting other relatives and friends. However, there is a significant gender difference for self and household work with women doing more of this work, although the gap was not as large as for child-oriented work.

By comparing 1986 and 1992, it is possible to see whether there have been changes in the female/male work distribution pattern. Chart W-5 groups both household types with young children - the dual-earner and primary-earner categories - together, with the focus on an over-time comparison of child and family-related activities. Chart W-5 shows that in three work categories - paid work, work for other relatives and friends, and work for self and household - the ratios moved closer to 1.0 between 1986 and 1992, that is, in the direction of better gender balance. However, the already high proportion of child-oriented work done by women increased from a ratio of 2.17 to 2.29.

As shown in Chart W-6, for women in the household type without young children, their share of both paid and unpaid work has decreased.

As stated earlier, it is not possible to identify a trend using only two time points. But the significant degree of change in the relatively short time between 1986 and 1992 shown in Chart W-5 suggests that while changes in total workload might happen only slowly, time allocation to different types of work may alter quite rapidly to adapt to different circumstances. As well, changes in economic and social circumstances could affect women and men's time allocation in significantly different ways. Many factors influence time allocation, including conditions in the job market; financial and taxation policies; the availability and affordability of services such as child care; family and community support; the number of children; and the presence of elderly relatives.

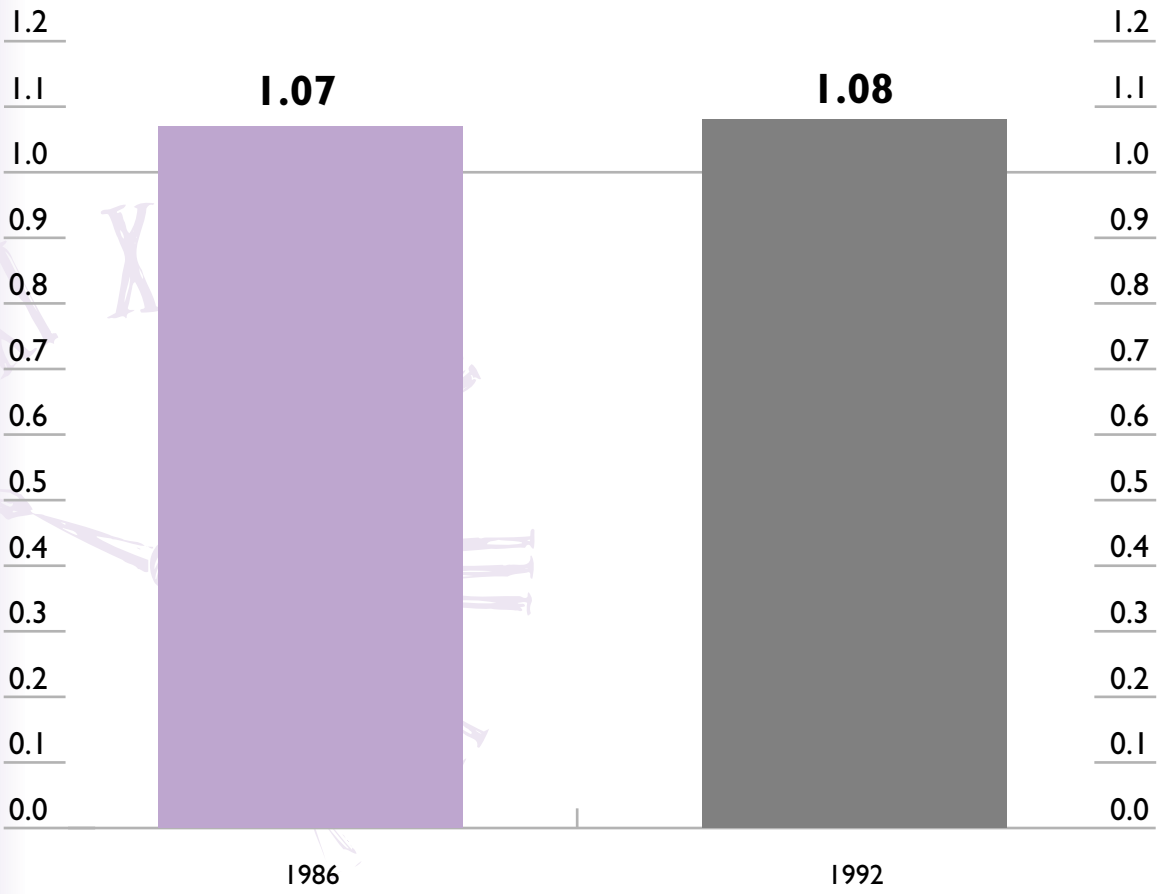
Where unpaid work is concerned, there is an additional factor: it can be transferred to and from the market. Market goods and services, either publicly or privately delivered, can replace unpaid work, if there is enough income to meet the cost. Alternatively, when income falls or services are not available, unpaid work may increase to compensate. Detailed analysis to better understand the relationship between income and total work patterns will likely become more essential to policy-makers in the future.

In any analysis of men's and women's paid and unpaid work activities, it is particularly important to remember that time has strict boundaries: there are only 24 hours in a day. If, for example, women must increase paid work time to make ends meet, they may be forced to reduce unpaid activities. This could be seen as better gender balance according to the ratios that would result. But it would not necessarily improve well-being - individual or societal - if it meant that neither women nor men had time for children or for relatives and friends. Social and economic well-being requires an approach to gender equality that values caring activity and supports both men and women in assuming this work as well as paid work.

Social and economic well-being requires an approach to gender equality that values caring activity and supports both men and women in assuming this work as well as paid work.

W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992

• Women in Canada spend more time working than men.



Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

W-2 Gender Equality Index for Paid Work and Unpaid Work 1986 and 1992

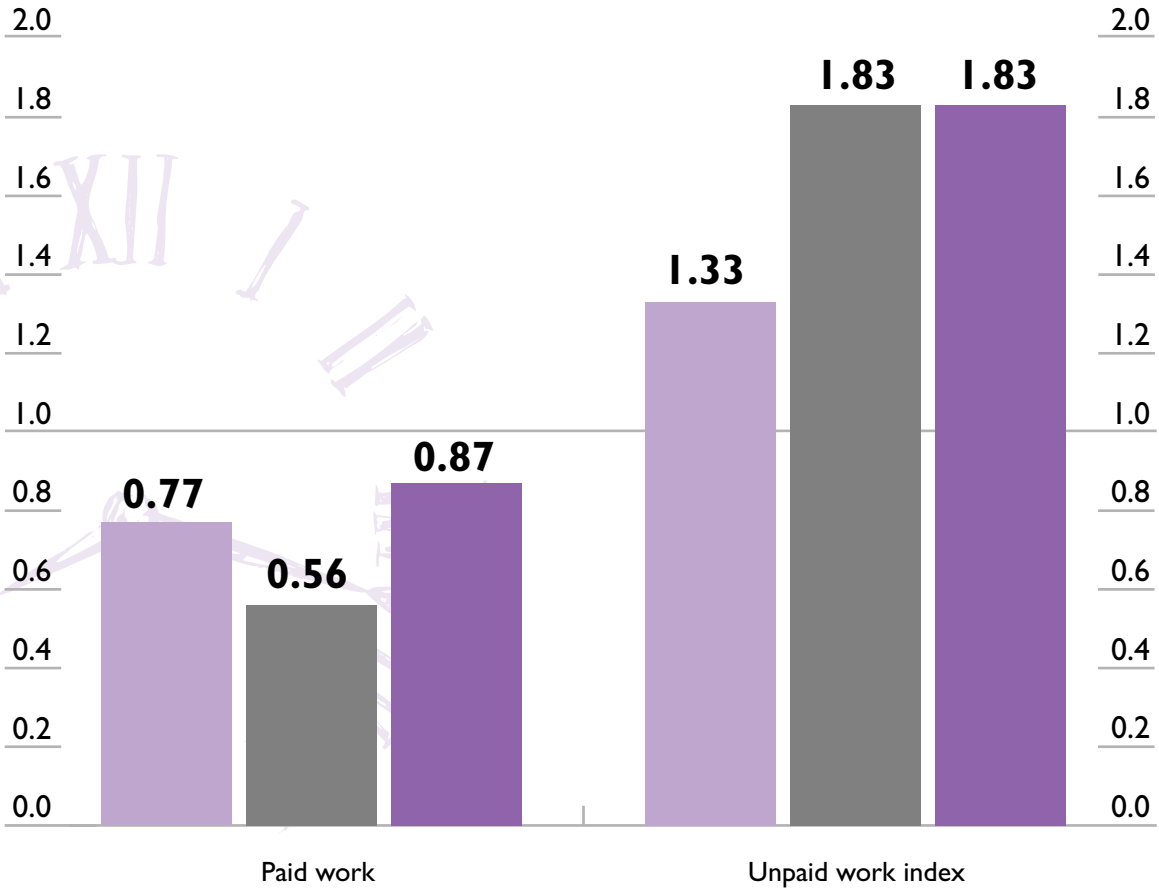
- **While women do less paid work than men but more unpaid work, there was better sharing of both types of work in 1992 than in 1986.**

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

W-3 Paid and Unpaid Work Patterns for Women and Men Employed Full-Time in Three Household Types 1992

- **Even when women are employed full-time, they assume a smaller share of paid work and a larger share of unpaid work than men in comparable household situations.**



Dual-earner with young child: women and men, 20 to 44, with a child under 6, where both spouses are employed full-time.

Primary-earner with young child: women and men, 20 to 44, employed full-time, with a child under 6, and a husband or wife who is not employed full-time (although the spouse may have some paid work).

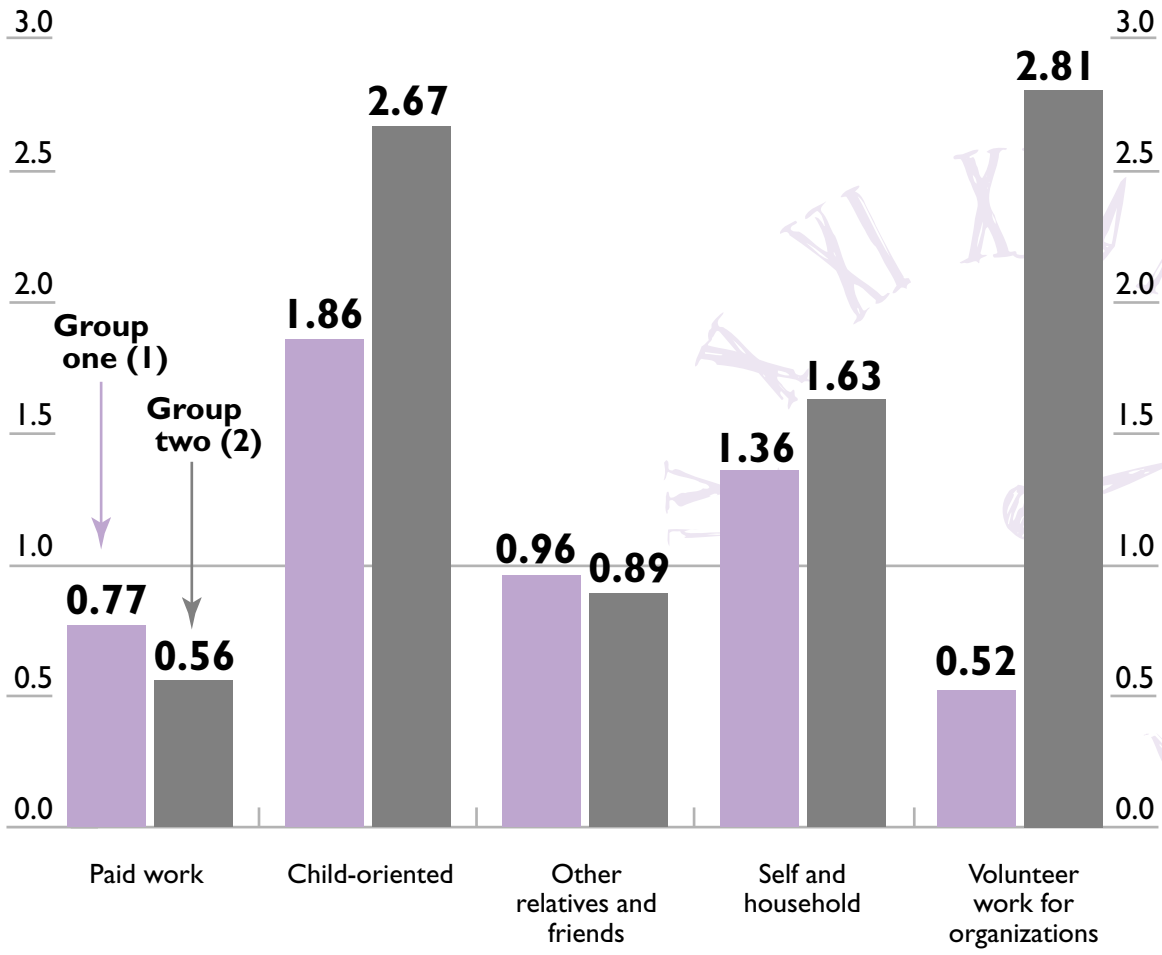
No young children: women and men, 20 to 44, employed full-time, who have no young children at home (they may be single or married and they may be childless or have children 6 and over - includes lone parents with older children).

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

W-4 Paid and Unpaid Work Distribution Patterns for Women and Men in Household Types with Young Children 1992

- **Work that primarily benefits children is mostly done by women, even when women are employed full-time, and whether their husbands are also employed full-time or not.**



Dual-earner with young child: women and men, 20 to 44, with a child under 6, where both spouses are employed full-time.

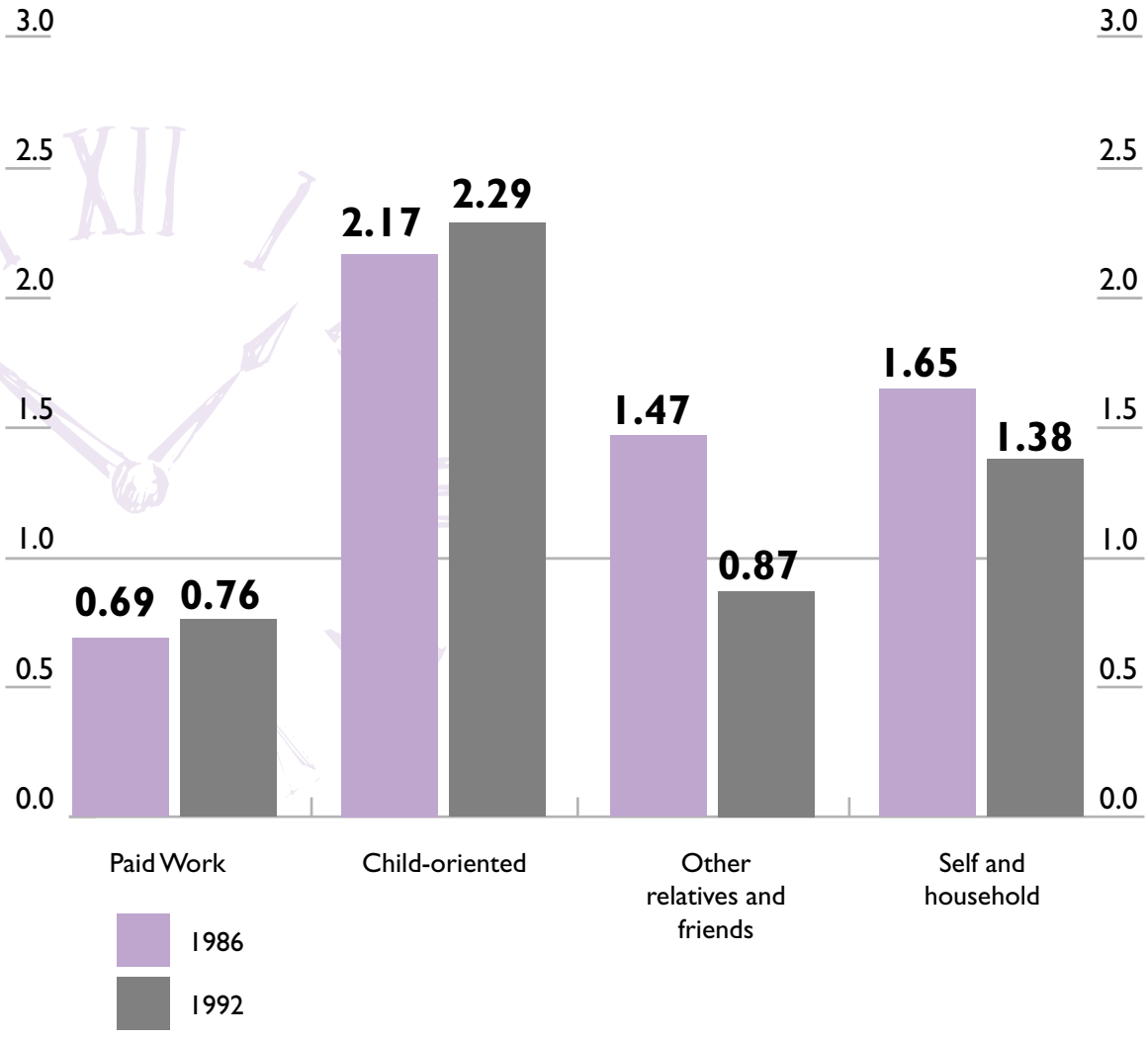
Primary-earner with young child: women and men, 20 to 44, employed full-time, with a child under 6, and a husband or wife who is not employed full-time (although the spouse may have some paid work).

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

W-5 Paid and Unpaid Work Distribution Patterns for Women and Men in Household Types with Young Children* 1986 and 1992

- **In households with young children where women are employed full-time, their share of some forms of unpaid work was lower in 1992 than in 1986, but their share of paid work and of unpaid work that benefits children were both higher.**



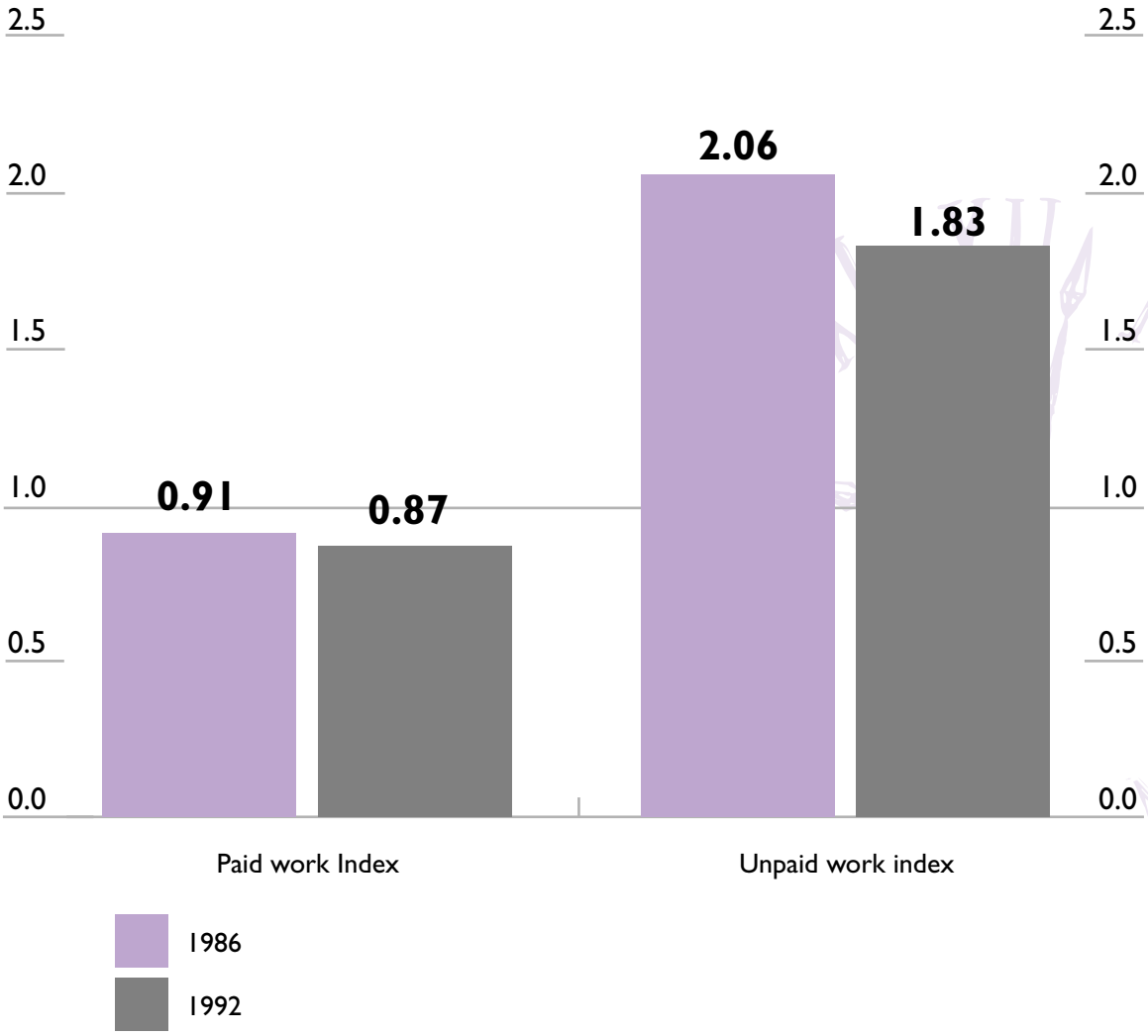
* *Dual-earner with young child*: women and men, 20 to 44, with a child under 6, where both spouses are employed full-time, and *primary-earner with young child*: women and men, 20 to 44, employed full-time, with a child under 6 and a husband or wife who is not employed full-time (although the spouse may have some paid work).

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

W-6 Paid and Unpaid Work Distribution Patterns for Women and Men in Household Types with No Young Children* 1986 and 1992

- **Where there were no young children, women's share of both paid and unpaid work was slightly lower in 1992 than in 1986.**



* *Households with no young children*: women and men, 20 to 44, employed full-time, who have no young children at home (they may be single or married and they may be childless or have children 6 and over - includes lone parents with older children).

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Learning

The gender equality indexes in this section provide female/male ratios for:

- university degrees granted in female-dominated, gender-neutral and male-dominated fields of study, for 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994;
- on-the-job training participation and training time, for employees aged 25 to 49, for 1991 and 1993;
- occupational returns on education, for university graduates aged 25 to 64, for 1986, 1991 and 1995.

University Degrees Granted Indexes

These indicators show the relative proportions of university degrees granted to women and men in fields of study that are female-dominated, fields that are gender-neutral, and fields that are male-dominated, as of 1994. Using 95 fields of study, each was classified into one of the three categories based on the percentage of women and men who were granted degrees in that field in 1994. The indexes for each category show how gender balance in degrees granted has changed from 1981 to 1994.

- *Female-dominated fields* of study are defined as those in which, in 1994, women received 60 per cent or more of all degrees. Examples include social work, journalism, library science and public health. The extent of female domination varied that year from a low of 60 per cent in optometry to a high of 94 per cent in nursing.
- *Gender-neutral fields* of study are those in which neither women nor men received over 60 per cent of all degrees in 1994. Examples include law, music, dentistry and political science.
- *Male-dominated fields* of study are those in which men received over 60 per cent of all degrees granted in 1994. Examples include engineering, computer science, economics and mathematics. Women's representation in those fields of study in 1994 ranged from 7 per cent in aeronautical and aerospace engineering up to 40 per cent in specialized veterinary medicine.

While recognizing that women obtain relatively fewer graduate degrees than men and more undergraduate degrees, the statistics encompass both degree levels in order to see the overall patterns and trends for fields of study in each category. The majority of degrees granted in all fields are at the undergraduate level. The data source for these indicators is the University Student Information System (USIS) of Statistics Canada.

Chart L-1 shows that in 1994, the female/male ratio in the female-dominated category was 3.0, meaning that for every 100 degrees granted to men, 300 were granted to women. In the gender-neutral fields, the 1994 ratio of 0.96 is very close to 1.0, the point at which an equal number of degrees are awarded to women and men. In male-dominated fields, the ratio is 0.34, meaning that women receive 34 degrees for every 100 granted to men.

Chart L-1 also shows that from 1981 to 1994, women's share of degrees granted increased in all three categories, even in female-dominated fields, where the ratios rose from 2.24 to 3.0. In gender-neutral fields, the increase was from 0.56 to 0.96, over the time period. As well, women made inroads into male-dominated fields, with ratios rising from 0.21 to 0.34.

These trends can be partly explained by increasing numbers of women, relative to men, enrolled in all fields.

It is important to note that while the increases in male and neutral fields reflect a move toward greater gender balance, the increase in female fields is toward greater imbalance. This suggests that while women may be taking up fields which are less traditional for women, they are also increasing their predominance of female fields.

Chart L-2 shows the pattern in another way. It shows percentages of degrees granted to women and to men in each of the three categories over time, to highlight how the concentration in fields has changed. Women's share of degrees granted in male-dominated fields has increased 8 percentage points and in female-dominated fields, 6 percentage points. The greatest change is in the neutral category where women's share has risen 13 percentage points.

It is interesting to note that in 1981, men's share of gender-neutral fields was 64.1 per cent. This means that some fields that were previously male-dominated (where men's share was over 60 per cent) have become neutral. These include agriculture, dentistry, medicine, zoology and law. Of the 29 gender-neutral fields in 1994, 19 were male-dominated in 1981. Only one field, specialized veterinary medicine, went from being gender-neutral to male-dominated. In contrast, nine fields previously gender-neutral, including optometry, criminology, recreation and veterinary medicine, were among the 37 female-dominated fields in 1994.

There is considerable complexity involved in women's and men's decisions to go to university, to choose a particular field of study and to stay until a degree is granted. Similar decisions are involved in pursuing a graduate degree. Some of the most important factors could include high school experience and graduation rates, role models, the ability to finance higher education and to repay student loans, and the financial and other support received from parents, spouses and other family members. The family responsibilities that students themselves may have, especially for children, are a factor that particularly affects women. Another key factor is the expectation of what the job market will offer graduating students and how likely it is that their investment in education will translate into rewarding employment. This is examined later.

Training Participation Index

This next group of indicators examines job-related training, which is another area of importance to women in finding and maintaining employment. The nature of employment in Canada and elsewhere is changing with an increasing need for people to be prepared to make several career changes during their adult lives. Training is an important indicator of the extent to which women have the opportunity to develop the necessary new skills and knowledge required to keep a current job, to be promoted or to seek alternative new employment if old types of jobs are transformed or eliminated.

These training indicators compare the proportions of employed women who receive job-related training, relative to the proportion for men, for employees between the ages of 25 and 49. The data are from the Adult Education and Training Surveys conducted in 1991 and 1993, which collected information on training received in the previous 12 months. Information is provided for both employer-supported training and total job-related training. **Employer-supported training** is training paid for by the employer, including such costs as tuition and compensation in time. **Total job-related training** includes both employer-supported training and job-related training paid for by employees themselves.

The training participation indexes are calculated as the ratio of the female training rate compared to the male training rate. The female training rate is the percentage of women who took training in the previous 12 months among all employed women, aged 25 to 49. The male training rate is calculated the same way.

In 1991, women's employer-supported training rate was 25 per cent, meaning that one quarter of the women in the survey had taken employer-supported training the previous year. The comparable male rate was 28 per cent. The resulting gender equality index for 1991 was 0.91 as shown in Chart L-3. By 1993, this index had climbed to 0.97, very close to the point where women and men would be equal for this indicator.

For total job-related training, there is a similar move toward equality. In this case, however, women had higher participation than men in 1991 at 1.03, a rate which declined slightly, in the direction of gender balance, to 1.02 in 1993.

The fact that the ratios for total training are higher than those for employer-supported training indicates that when all sources of payment are considered, women are somewhat more likely to participate in training than men and are more likely than men to invest in their own job-related training. This pattern was more pronounced in 1991 than in 1993. It cannot be determined, from only two years, whether this represents a trend.

Training Time Indexes

The training time indexes compare the number of hours spent in training by women trainees relative to men. Again, indicators for both employer-supported and total training are provided.

As chart L-4 shows, in 1993 the ratio for employer-supported training was 0.68. This means that women, although participating at an almost equal rate of training at 0.97, were actually receiving substantially fewer hours of training than men. This pattern was even more pronounced in 1993 than in 1991.

The training time indicator for total job-related training, including both employer and employee-sponsored, was at 0.87 in 1993, almost the same as in 1991. Again, however, the time duration of job-related training, per woman trainee, was less than for men. And in this case, women's training participation rates, as shown in Chart L-3, were higher than men's.

Overall, the training indexes suggest that there is relatively good gender balance in training participation with all ratios close to 1.0. Employed women receive somewhat less employer-sponsored training than men and compensate by paying for training

themselves and taking it on their own time but, again, the gaps are not large. However, there are significant gaps in training time taken by women, particularly in employer-sponsored training.

A number of factors may need to be explored to address these gaps, particularly to determine how they might affect women's success in the job market. The current occupational structure suggests that the training women receive is likely to be of a different type and in a different field than men's. Training for women may also be less comprehensive than men's, even in similar occupations. Another possible explanation is that both women and men may be offered similar opportunities by employers but that the time, location or scheduling cannot be reconciled with dependent care demands for which women tend to assume greater responsibility.

Occupational Return on Education Index

This index examines how women compare to men in having employment in occupations that provide them with a good return on the investment they have made in higher education. It compares women and men, aged 25 to 64, who have graduated from university.

The occupations used for this indicator are selected from occupational groups found in the Survey of Consumer Finances that approximate the three highest categories of the Pineo-Caroll-Moore socio-economic classification of occupations - self-employed professionals, employed professionals and high-level managers. The occupations include health diagnosing, architecture and engineering, social sciences, physical sciences, elementary, secondary and university teaching, and government administration.

Socio-economic scales, such as the Pineo-Caroll-Moore socio-economic classification of occupations used here, have been developed by sociologists to use in their analytical work. The classification is based on occupational income as well as other characteristics that are considered to be related to societal status or "prestige," such as education, difficulty or skill, number of people managed, and freedom and independence. Classification design has included the use of surveys to assess the attitudes of others in society toward people in different occupations.

Attempts have been made by Canadian sociologists to avoid being influenced by the extent to which jobs are seen as typically men's or women's work in coding the occupations. Despite this attempt, the result noted is nevertheless that men dominate the high-level categories, including the supervisory positions of otherwise female-dominated occupations such as clerical and sales.

In using this scale, we are aware that the historical invisibility and undervaluation of work traditionally performed by women is bound to be reflected. This undervaluation will show up in men's higher incomes. And, regardless of intentions, it will have influenced the design of social stratification scales and the evaluation of job content which determines its occupational coding. Further efforts to examine gender bias in socio-economic scales could make an important contribution to this field. Perhaps a new scale needs to be designed, informed by recent job evaluation

studies that more accurately reflect the value of the knowledge, skills, experience and effort required in work traditionally performed by women.

There remains value, however, in knowing how well women are represented in "traditionally defined" high-status occupations that provide monetary rewards, among other things, given that women are investing in higher education at a much higher rate than in the past. It is also important from a gender equality perspective because the holders of these occupations are often in positions of significant influence over decisions that affect other women. Increasing numbers of women in these occupations can help to change the nature of academic disciplines and the practice of related occupations to better reflect women's as well as men's interests.

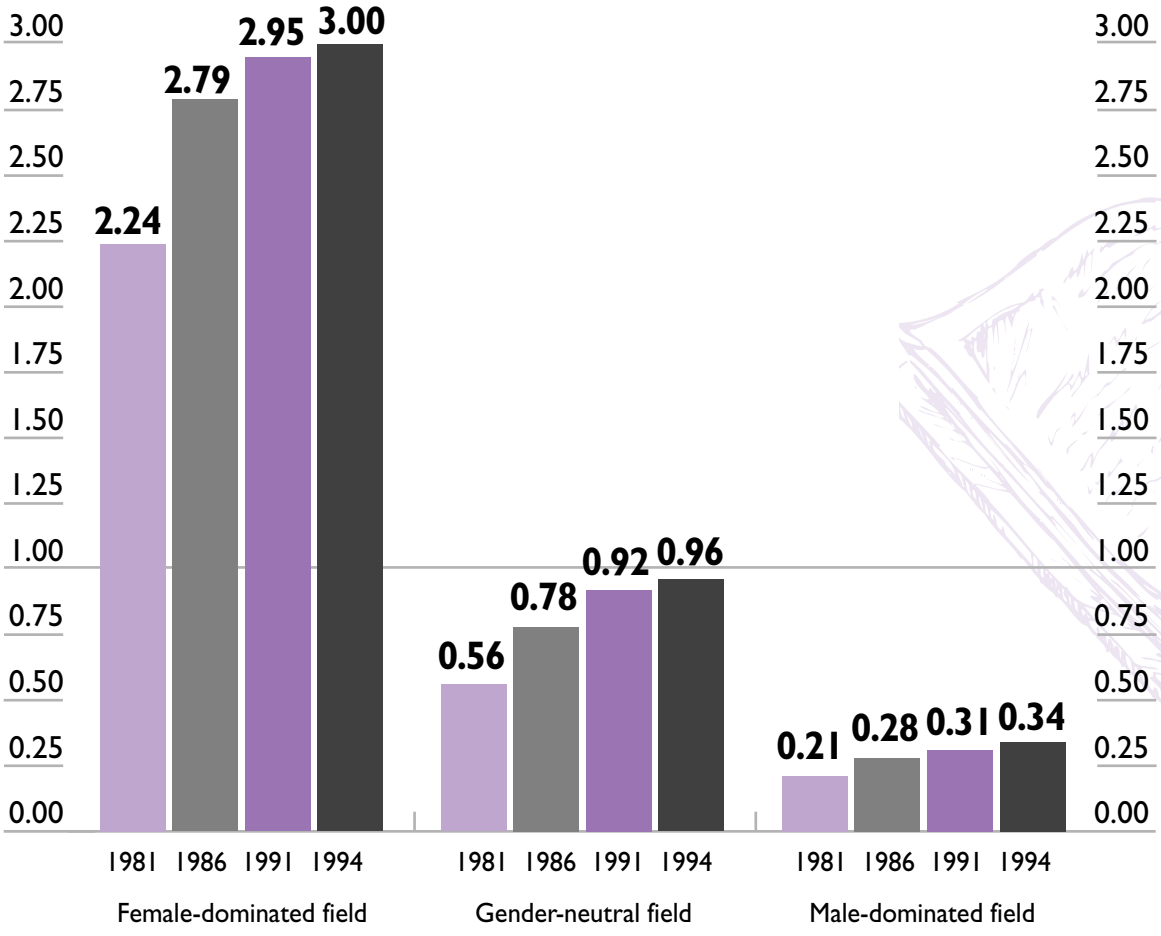
The occupational return index shows the probability of women university graduates being in the selected occupations compared to the probability of men university graduates. For example, the data show that in 1986, the probability for women was about 51 per cent while the probability for men was roughly 74 per cent. Because women had a lower probability than men, the index was therefore less than 1.0.

Chart L-5 shows that the occupational return index for 1986 was 0.69. The trend in the index from 0.69 in 1986, 0.77 in 1991 and 0.80 in 1995 reflects a steady closing of the gap between women and men. In analyzing this trend in more detail, the probabilities for women and men are important because they show the degree to which highly educated men and women actually obtain employment in the selected occupations. In the trend from 1986 to 1991, the gender gap narrowed due to women's probabilities increasing 4 percentage points and men's dropping 5 percentage points.

Women's economic well-being with regard to occupational returns on investment in education will be affected by the extent to which gender balance is achieved. But it will also depend on improving both women's and men's chances of obtaining employment that rewards their investment in a university education.

L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994

- **University degrees granted to women relative to men increased between 1981 and 1994 in female-dominated, gender-neutral and male-dominated fields.**



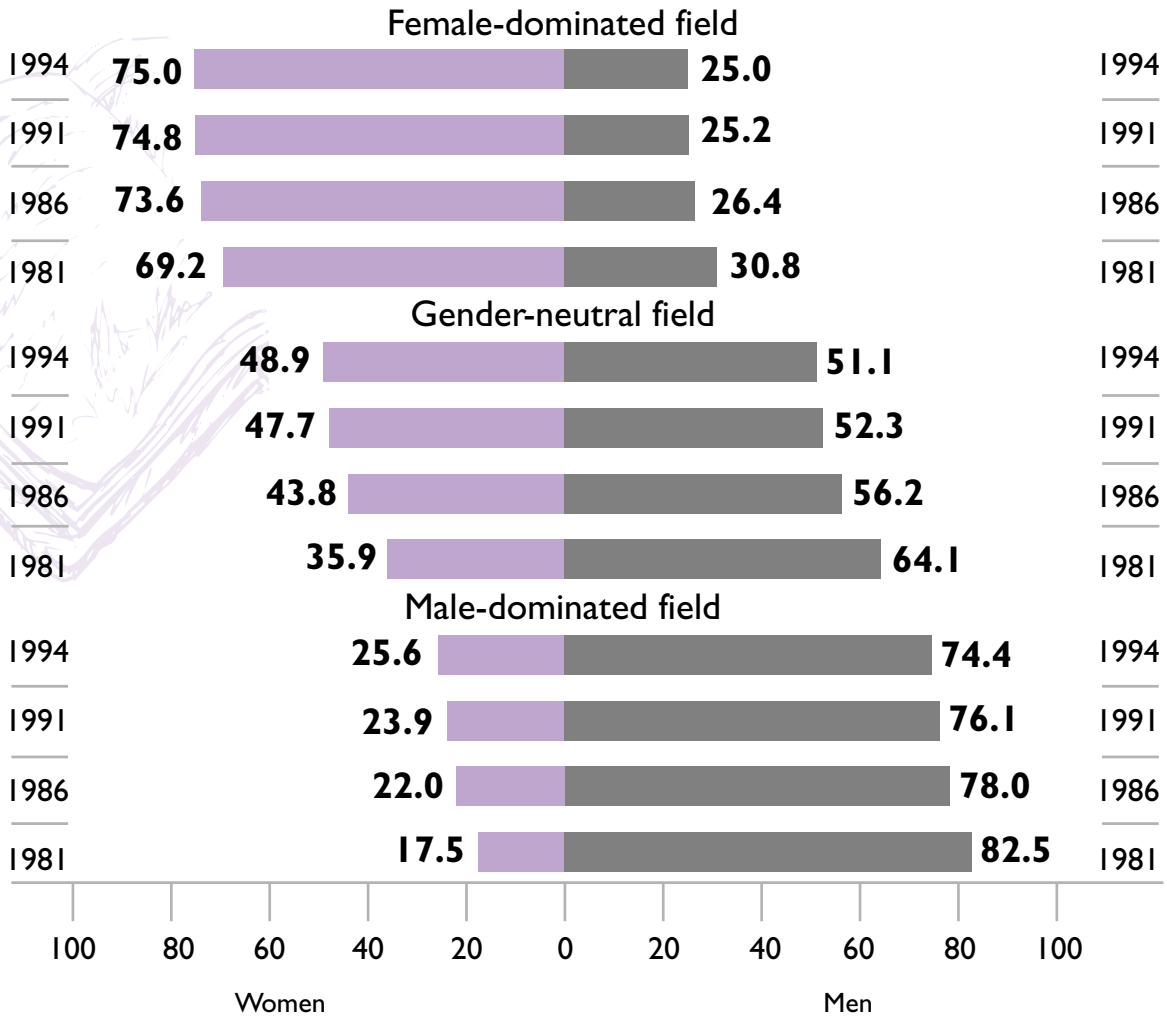
* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).

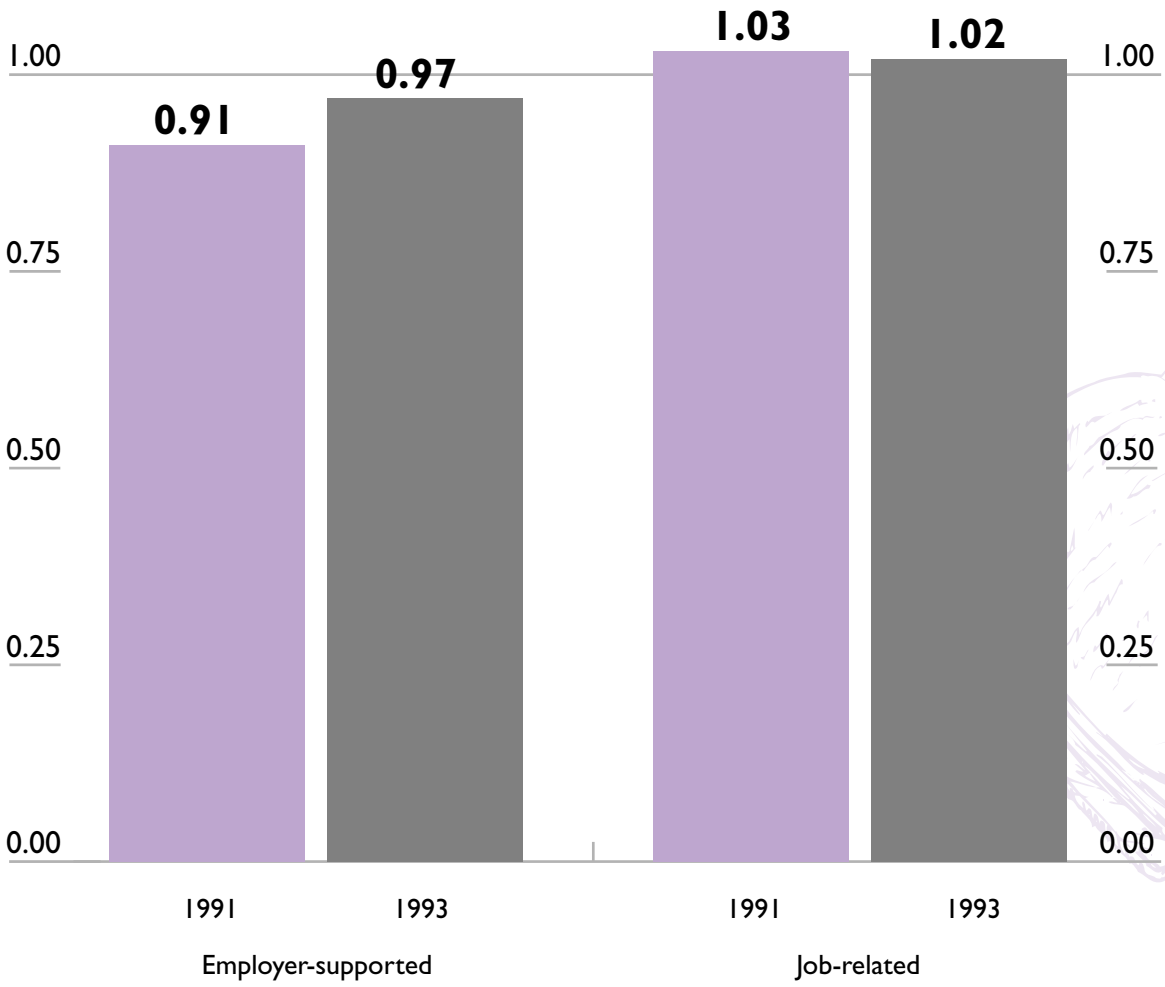
L-2 Women's and Men's Share of Degrees Granted 1981 to 1994

- **Over time, in gender-neutral and male-dominated fields, the gender gap has narrowed. Some previously male fields have become gender-neutral.**
- **In female-dominated fields, the gap grew: these fields became even more female-dominated in 1994 than in 1981.**



Source: Statistics Canada, University Student Information System.

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993

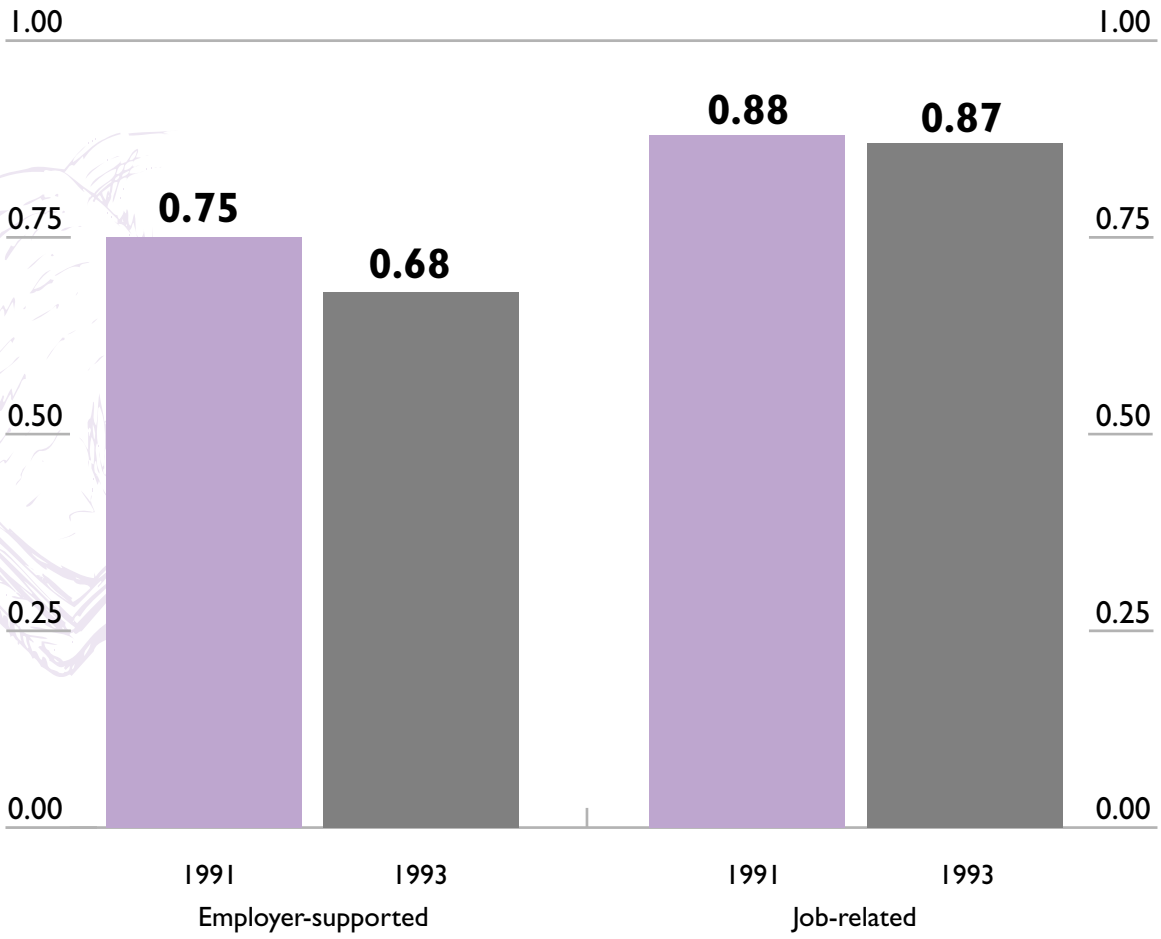


Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993

- **Although women's and men's participation in job-related training is very similar, women are receiving substantially fewer hours of training than men.**

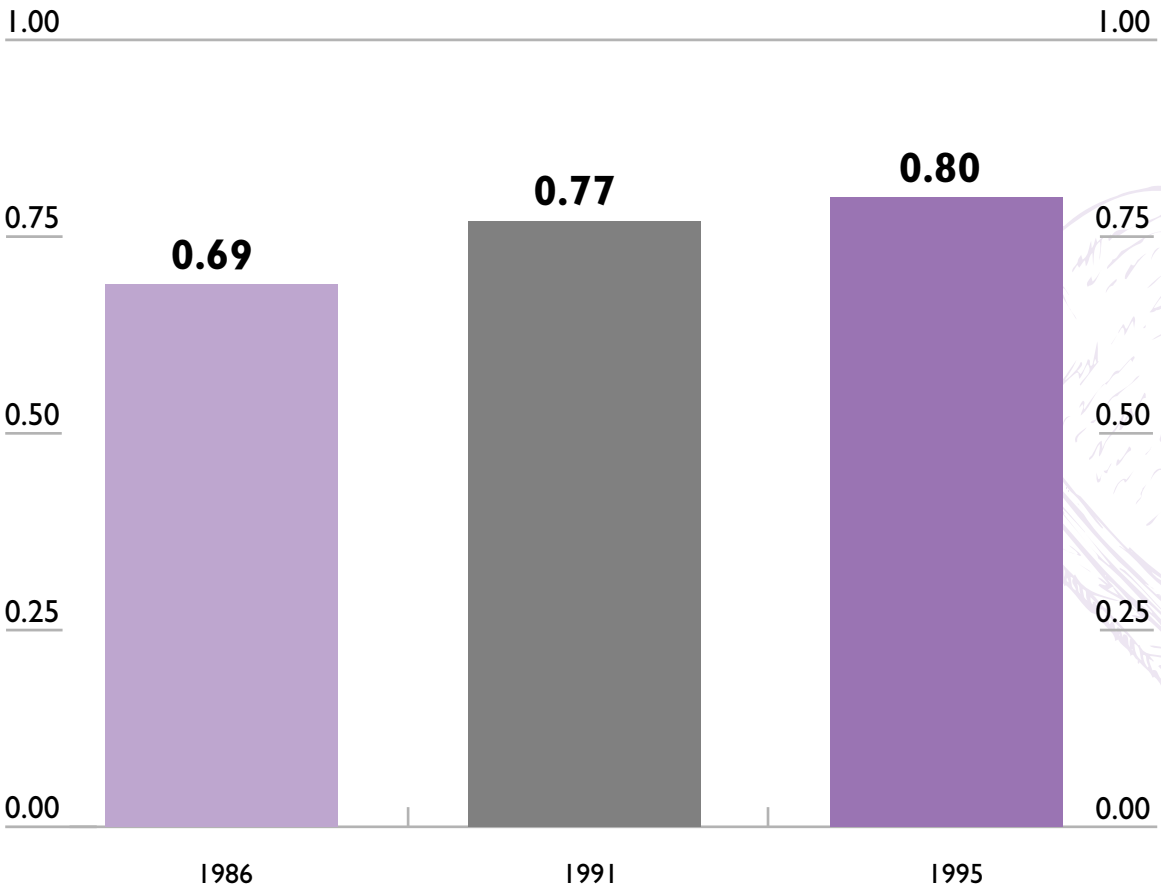


Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986, 1991 and 1995

- **From 1986 to 1995, there was a steady closing of the gender gap in occupational returns on investment in university education.**



Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Conclusion

The economic gender equality indicators project makes a contribution to the development of social indicators by providing a comprehensive picture of women and men in Canada. The indicators are innovative because they incorporate economic realities for women that are excluded from often-used measures such as the full-time wage gap or unemployment figures.

Most important, as an integrated set of indicators that highlight the links between income, work and learning, they shed light on the relative economic status of women and men and bring together two interdependent aspects of any society - the market economy, and the non-market economy where children are raised and social foundations built. While the market has long been the focus of measurement and policy interest, information on unpaid work, as well as awareness of its societal importance, is growing.

The patterns and trends demonstrated by the economic gender equality indicators for Canada leave no doubt that women are key economic actors. Women put in more total work time than men. They continue to make gains in education and training. But even with full-time jobs, women perform a larger share of the unpaid care of children, household and others, while men spend a larger share of their time in paid work. Income and wage gaps have been gradually narrowing and the income tax system has contributed positively toward gender equality. Nevertheless, gender gaps remain. There is still a long way to go before women and men have equal autonomy and security in economic terms.

It is hoped the results of this project will stimulate informed public dialogue, more detailed analysis, data improvements and, ultimately, more effective policy development and improved well-being for all Canadians.

Gender Equality Indicators for the Provinces and Territories

The economic gender equality indicators provided for the provinces are calculated in the same way, using the same data sources, described in the Canada section. For the territories, special modelling was required using Census data to design equivalents to the indexes for Canada and the provinces. Care must be taken in interpreting results, especially for the territories where differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations are particularly significant.

Not all the information provided in the charts for Canada is available for each province and territory. There are no indexes of university degrees granted for the territories, for example, because there are no universities located there.

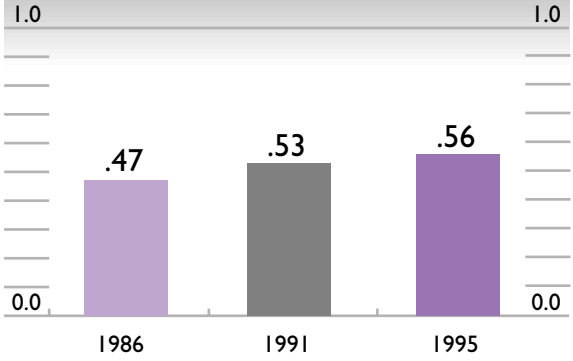
All numbers provided herein and based on surveys are estimates subject to sampling variability. The smaller the province, or other sub-diversion of the total population of Canada, the greater is the potential impact of sampling variability upon the reliability of the estimates. In most cases the focus should be placed on the pattern formed by a series of numbers rather than upon the specific value of one number.

These limitations highlight one of the main challenges in the social indicators field: to develop comparable data for all parts of the country.

Finally, as with the indexes shown for Canada as a whole, detailed analysis is required to understand what is behind the provincial and territorial aggregate numbers and to determine what policy directions can help maintain progress and further narrow the gender gaps.

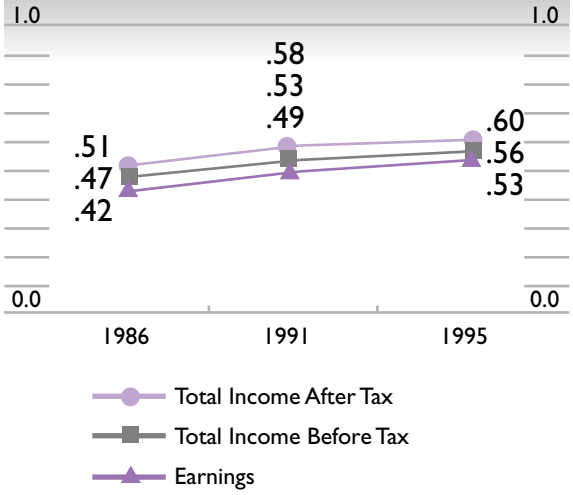
British Columbia

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

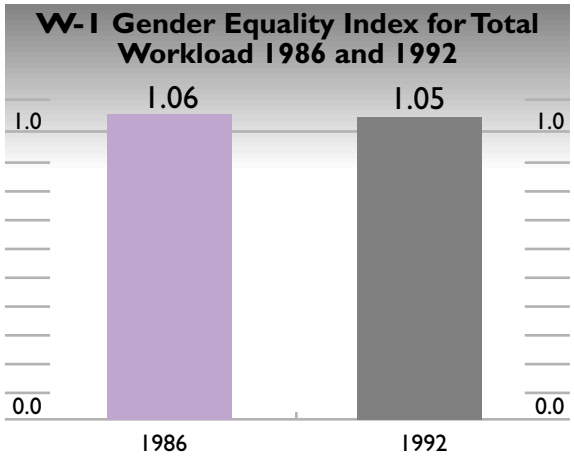
I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986,1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.

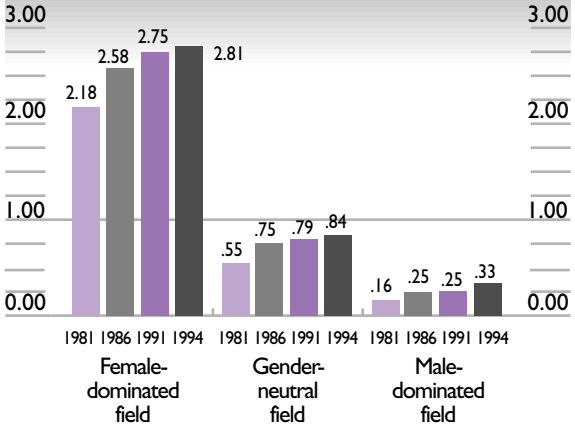
W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

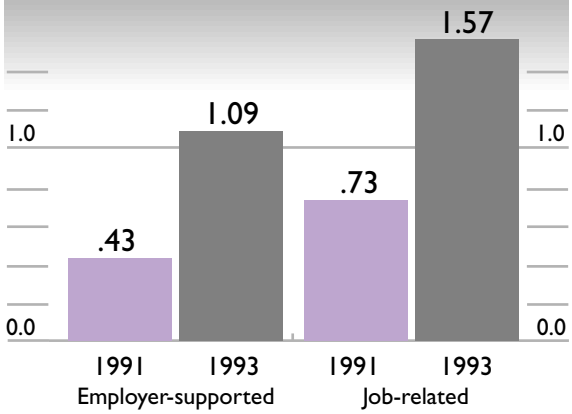
L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994



* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).

L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993

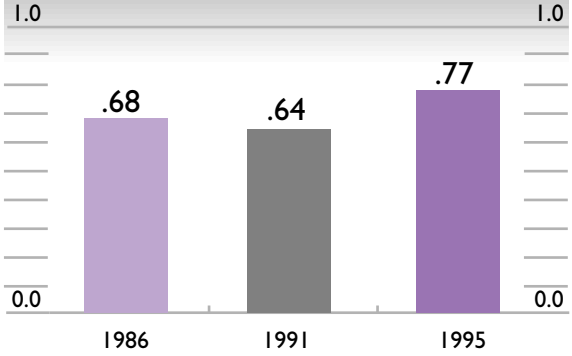


Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993

Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

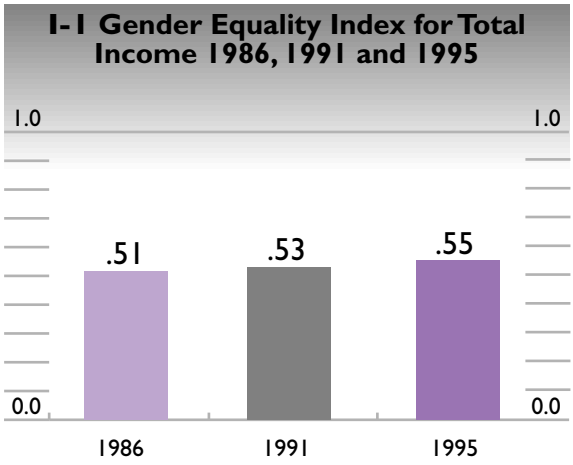
L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995



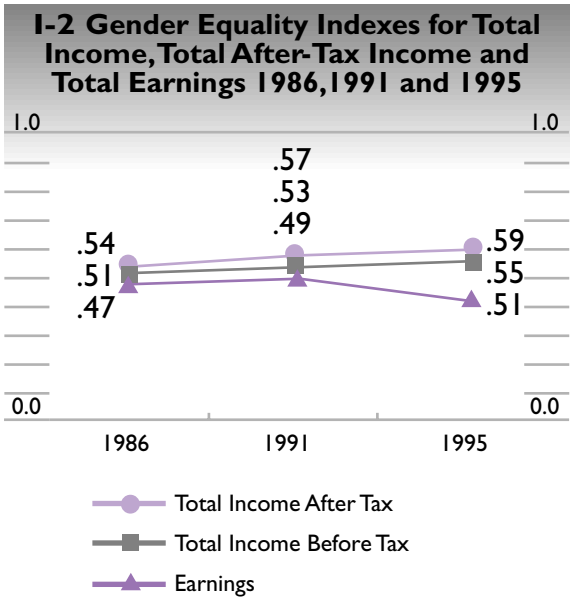
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

Alberta

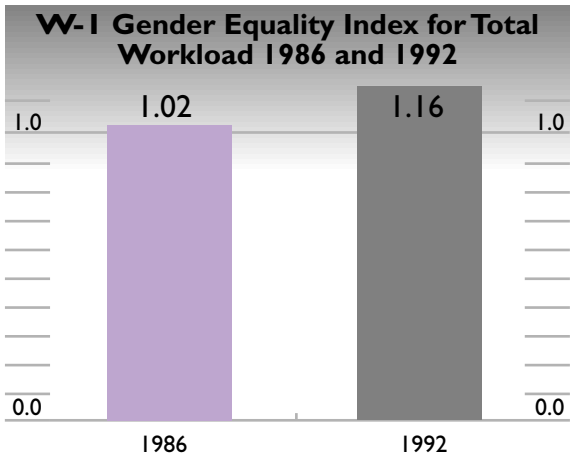


Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

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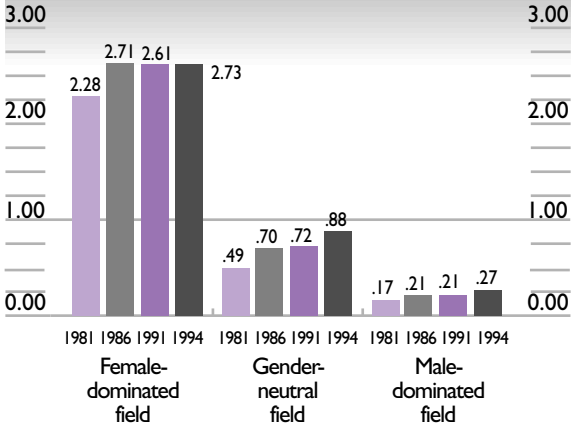
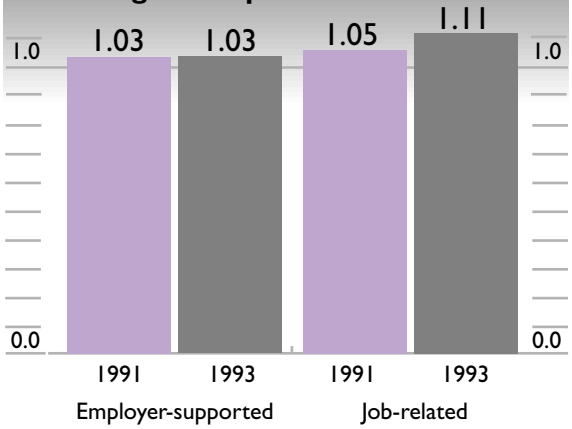
L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994



* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

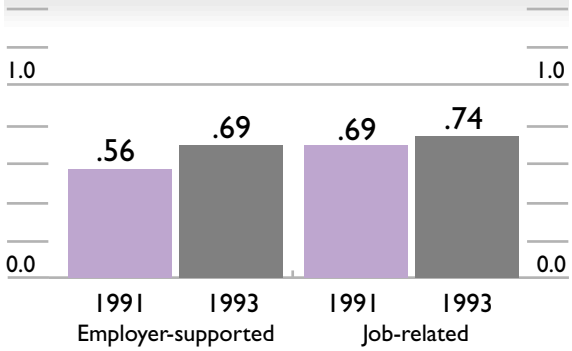
Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993



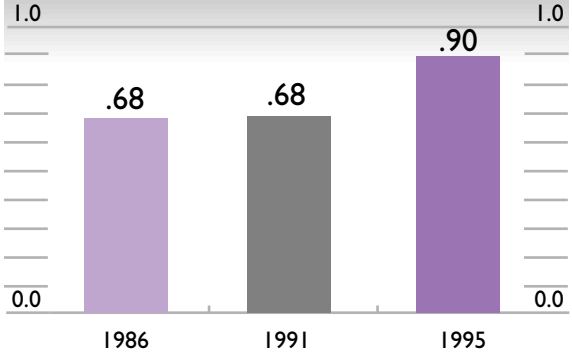
Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993



Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

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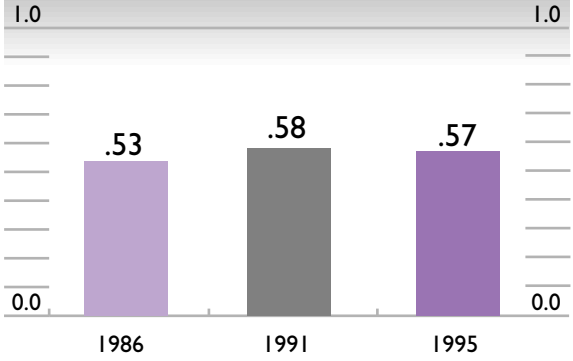
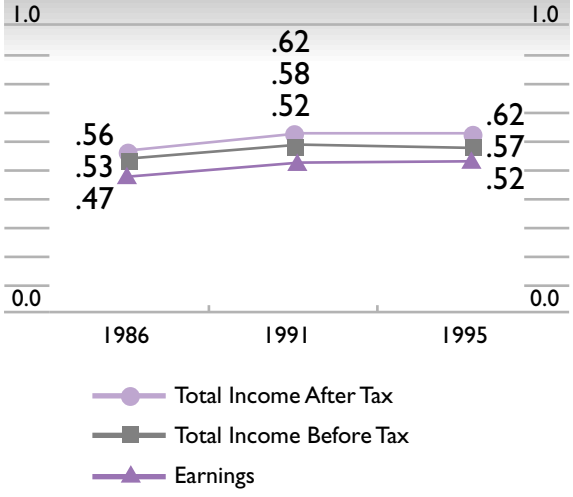
Saskatchewan

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986,1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

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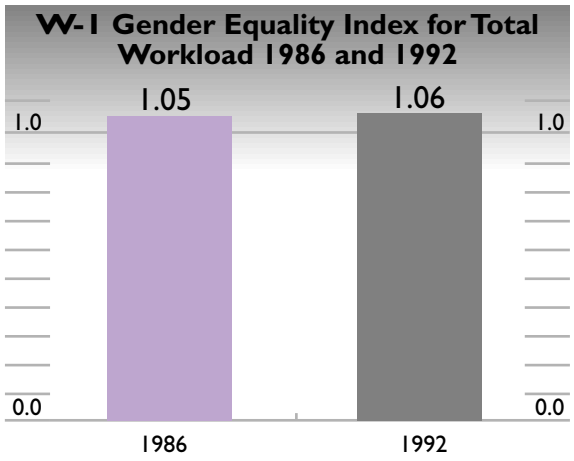
W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

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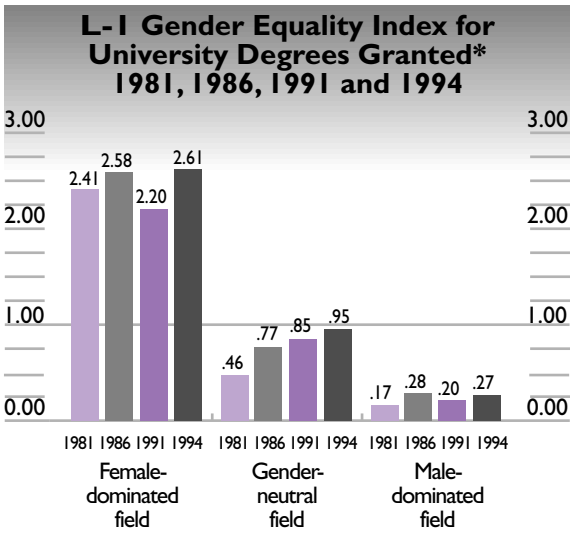
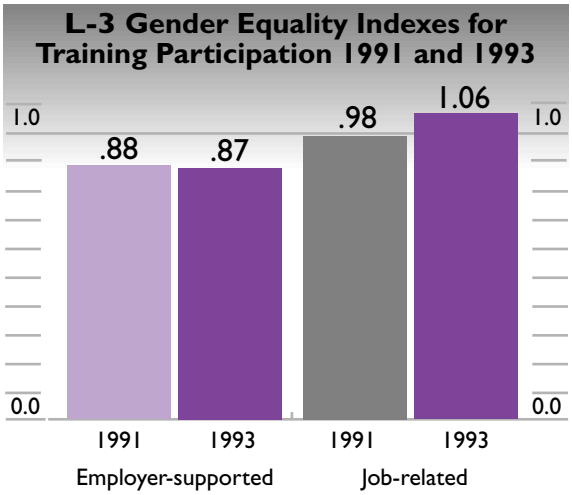
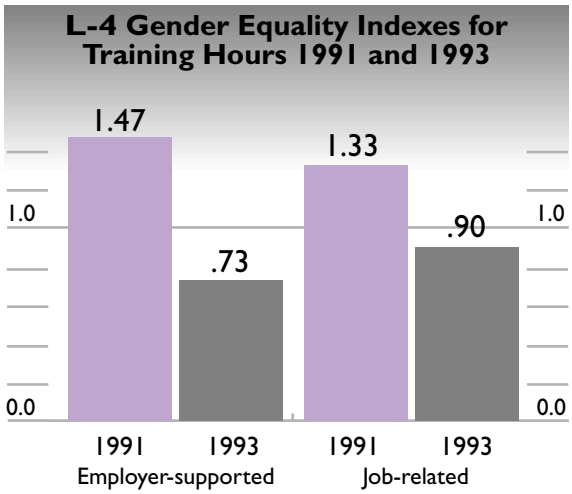


* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

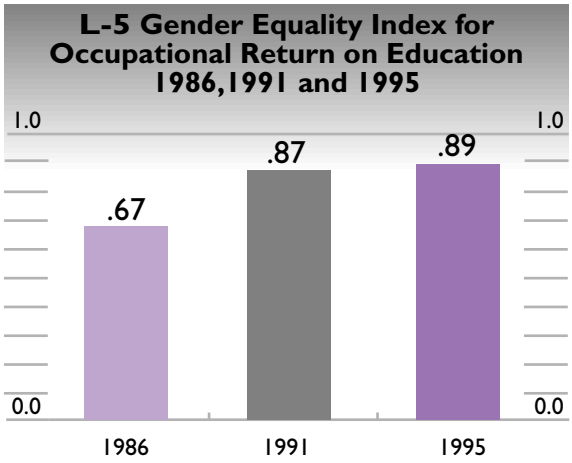
Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).



Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.



Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

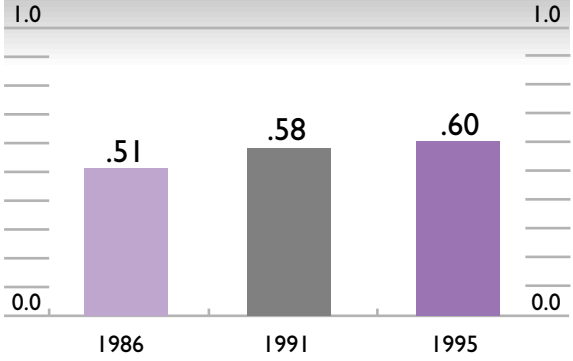


Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

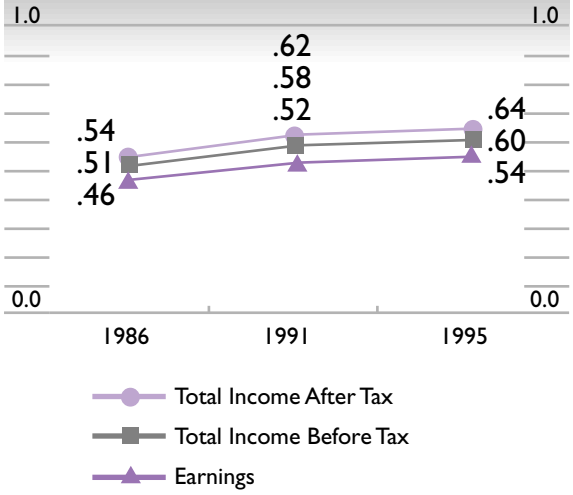
Manitoba

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

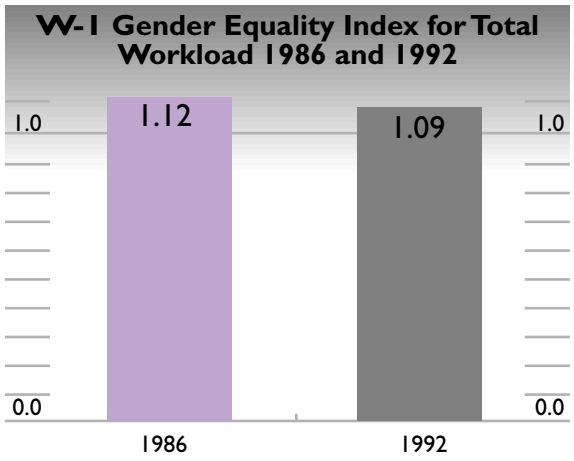
I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's income and earnings are less than men's; above 1.0, they would be greater.

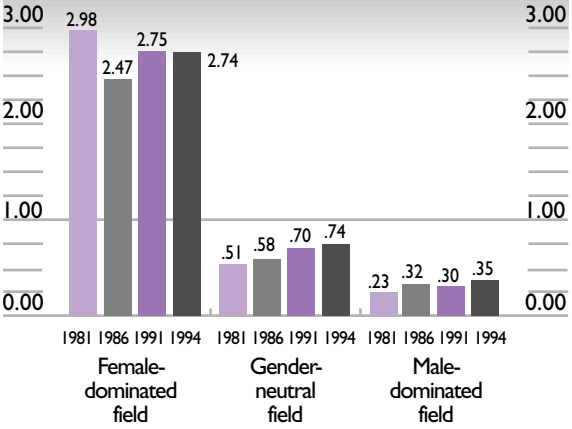
W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

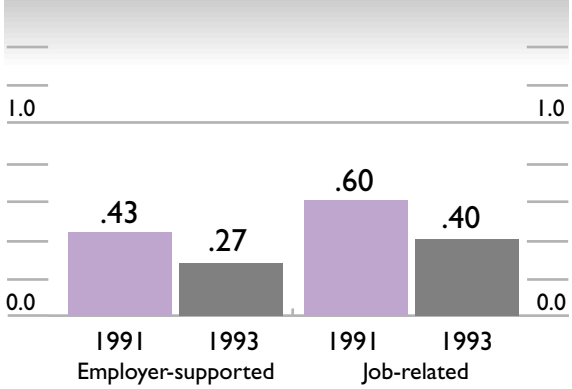
L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994



* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

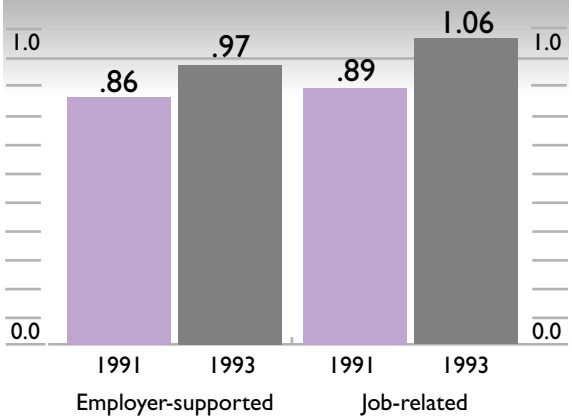
Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).

L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993



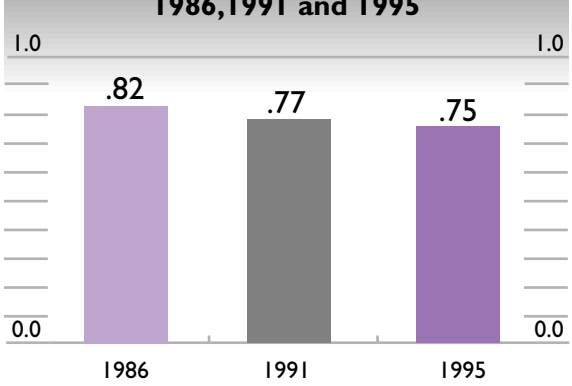
Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993



Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995

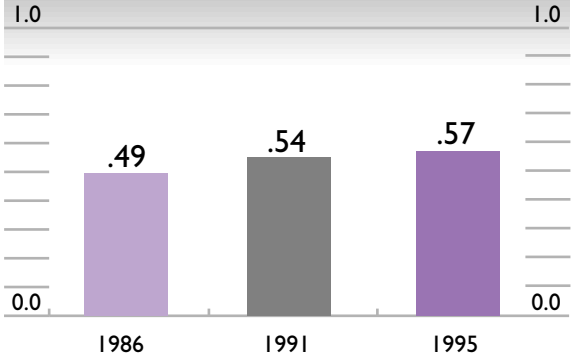


Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women have less on that index than men; above 1.0, they have more.

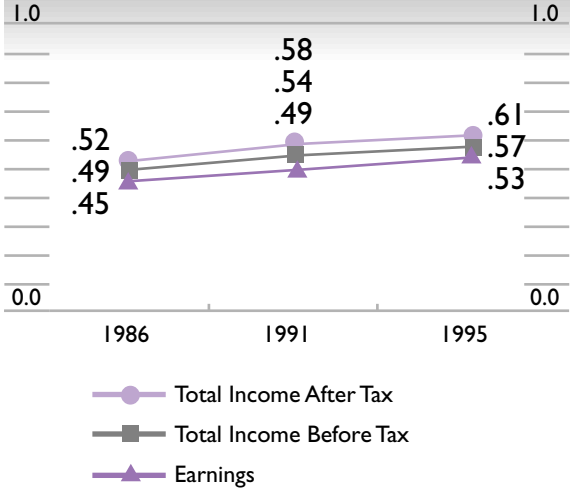
Ontario

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986,1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

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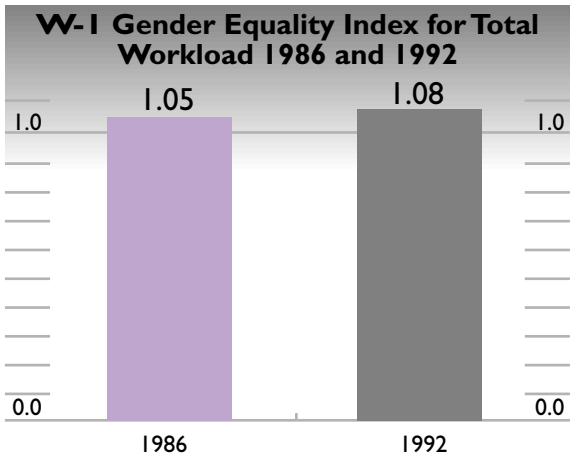
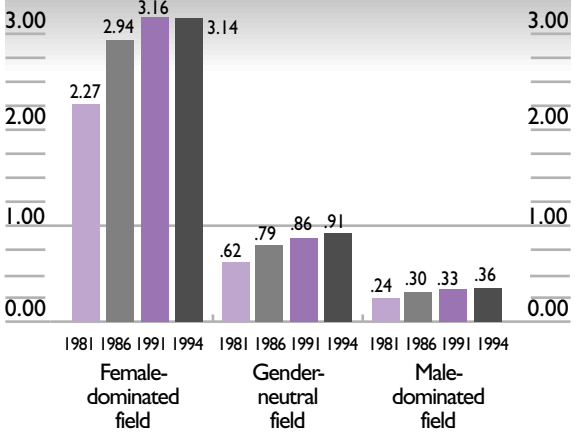
W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Gender Equality Indexes use ratios of women to men. A ratio of 1.0 is the point where women and men are equal in relation to that index. Below 1.0, women's workload is less than men's; above 1.0, it is greater.

L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994



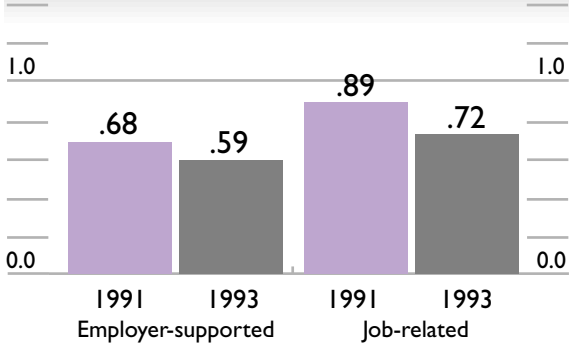
* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

Source: Statistics Canada, University Studies Information System (USIS).

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993

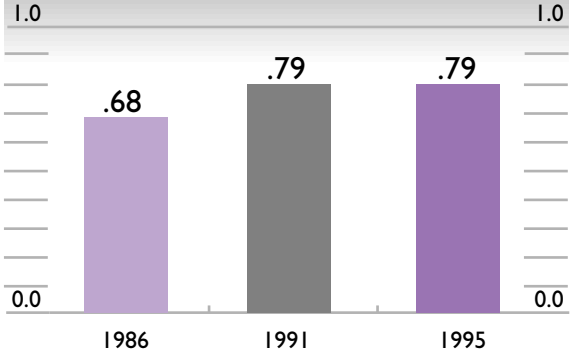
Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993



Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

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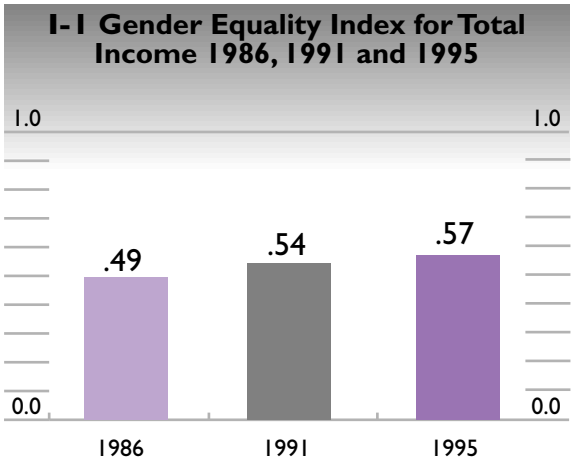
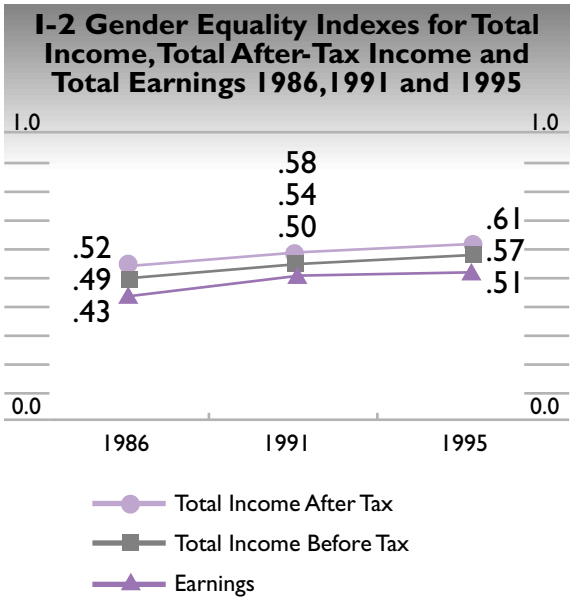
Quebec



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.



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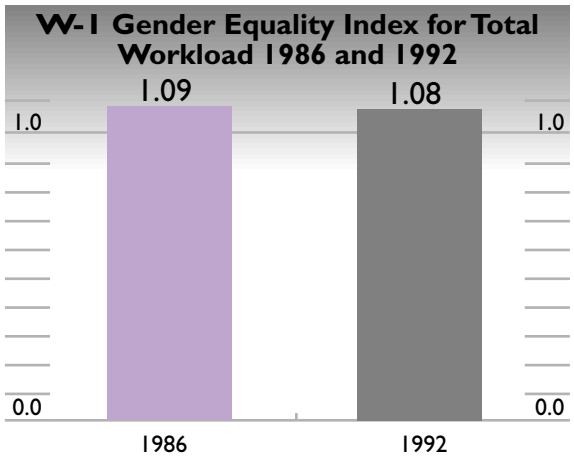

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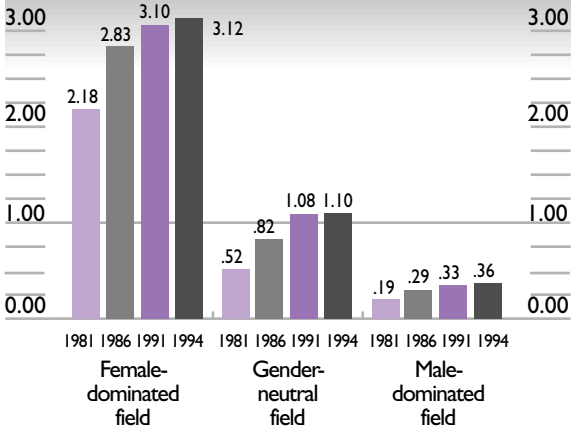
L-1 Gender Equality Index for University Degrees Granted* 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1994



* Ratio of degrees earned by women to degrees earned by men, in fields of study grouped according to gender dominance. See text for a definition of fields of study.

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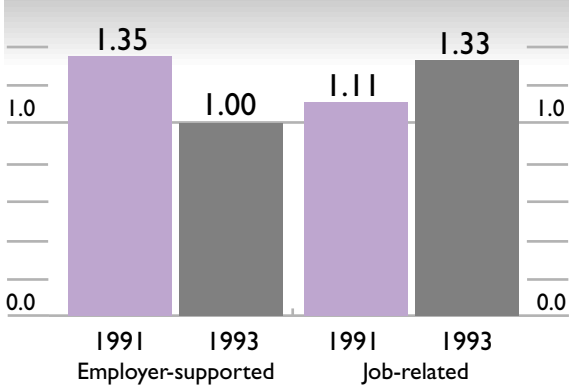
L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993

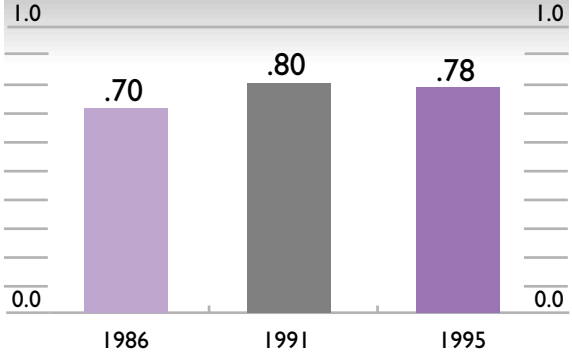


Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993

Source: Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey.

L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995



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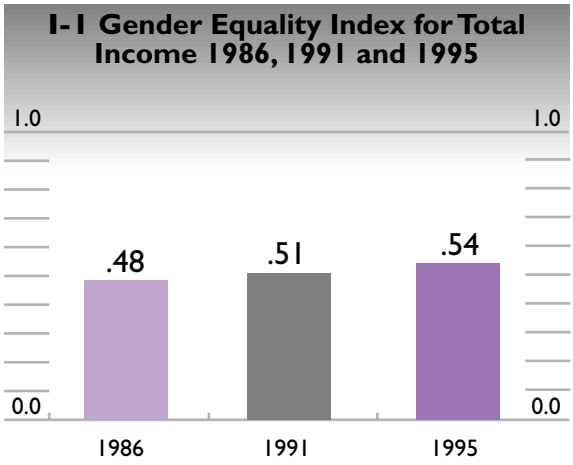
New Brunswick



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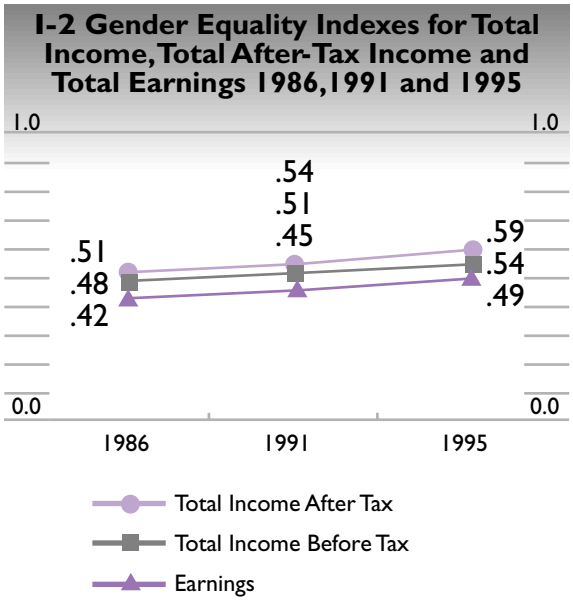

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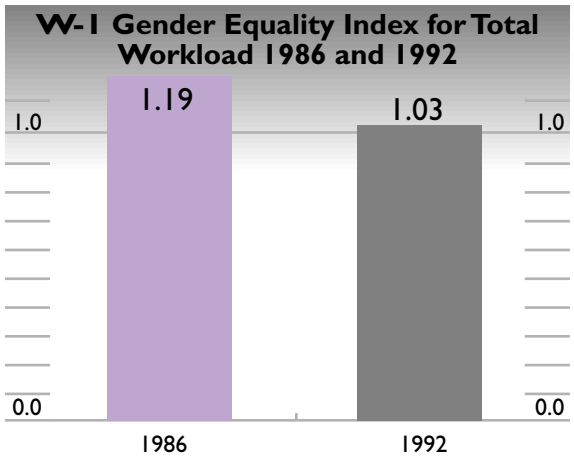

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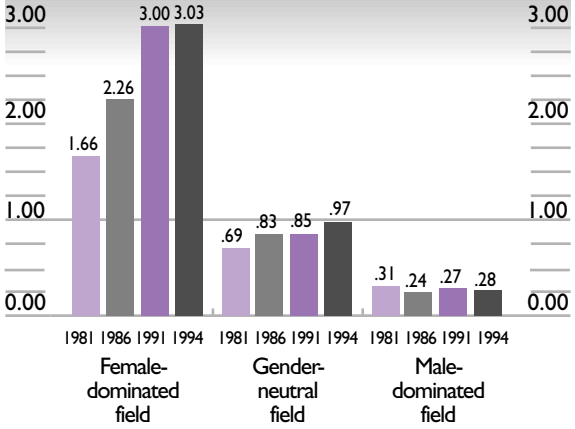

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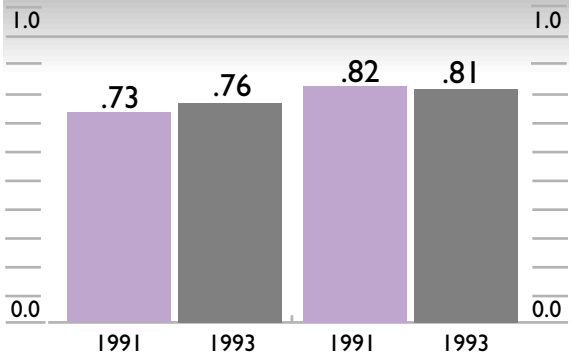

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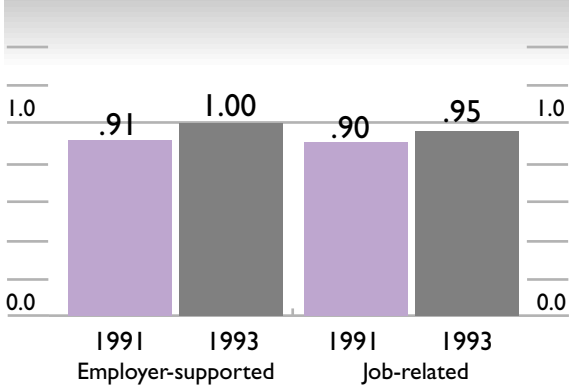

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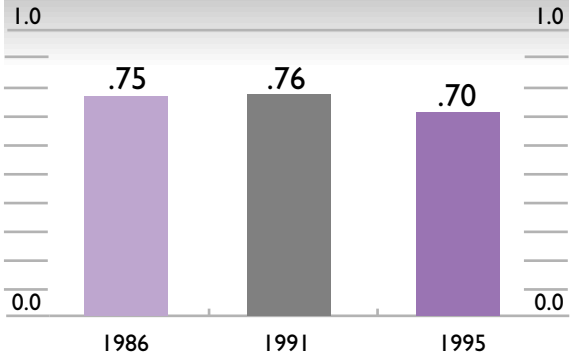
L-5 Gender Equality Index for Occupational Return on Education 1986,1991 and 1995



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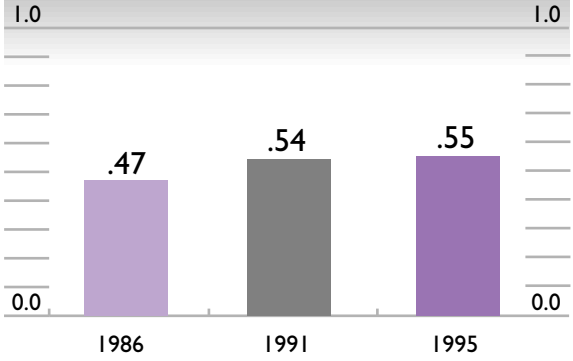
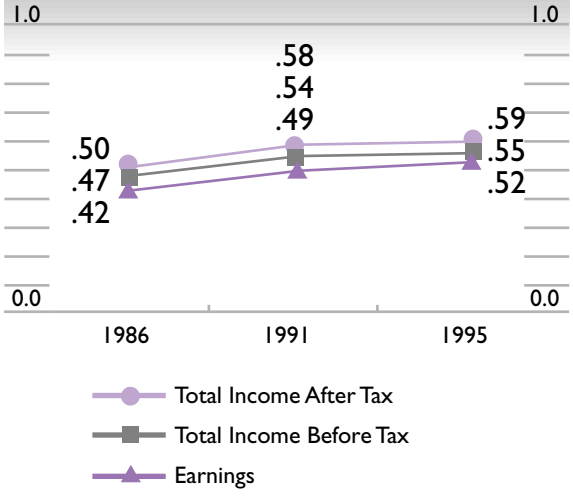
Nova Scotia

I-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Income 1986, 1991 and 1995



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances.

I-2 Gender Equality Indexes for Total Income, Total After-Tax Income and Total Earnings 1986,1991 and 1995



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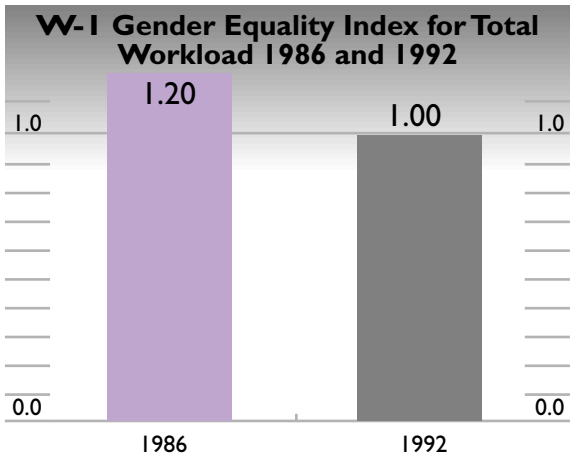
W-1 Gender Equality Index for Total Workload 1986 and 1992



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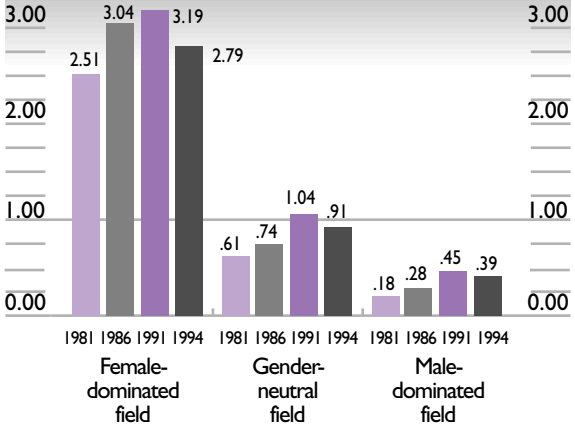

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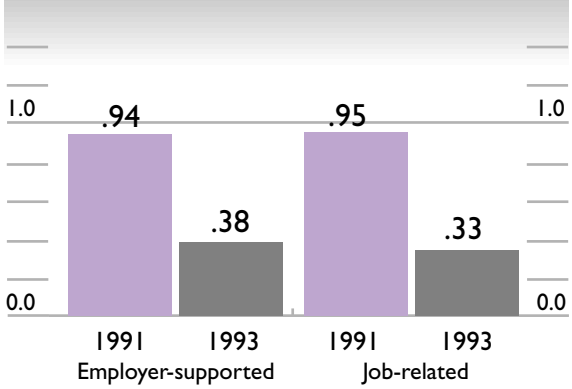

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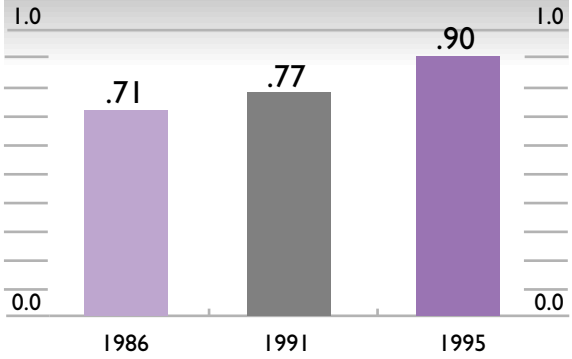

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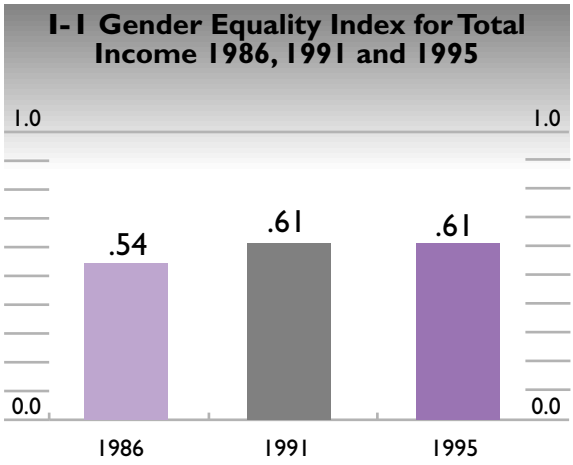
Prince Edward Island



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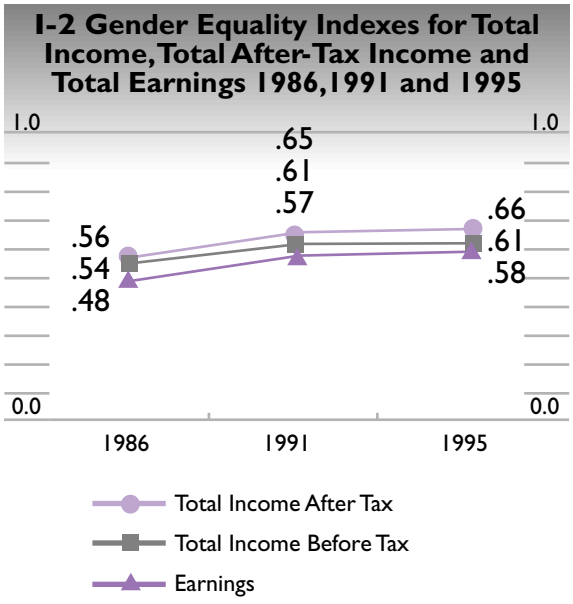

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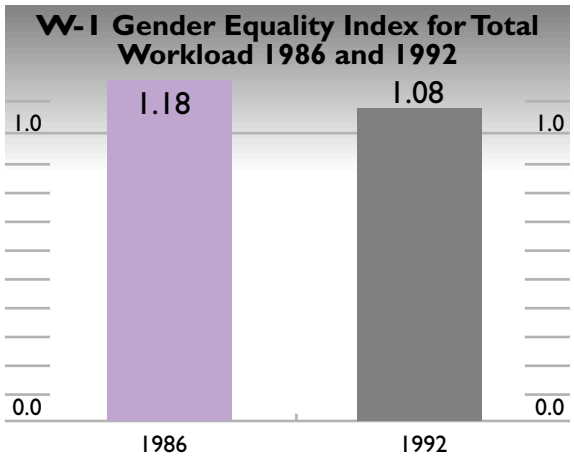

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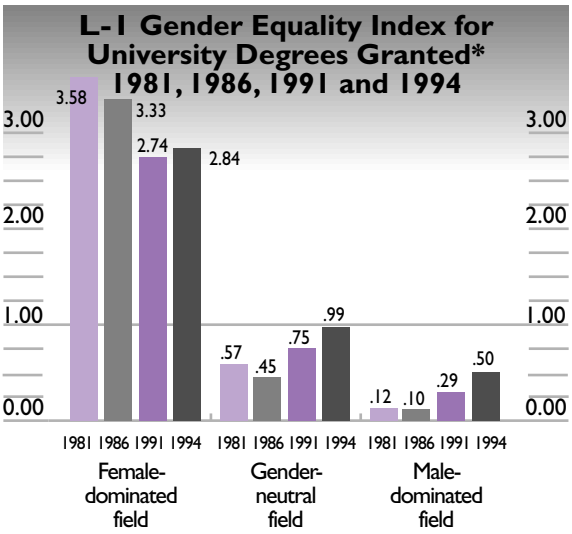

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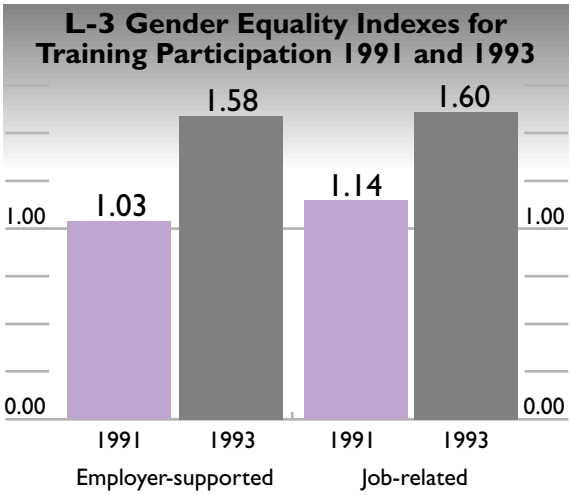

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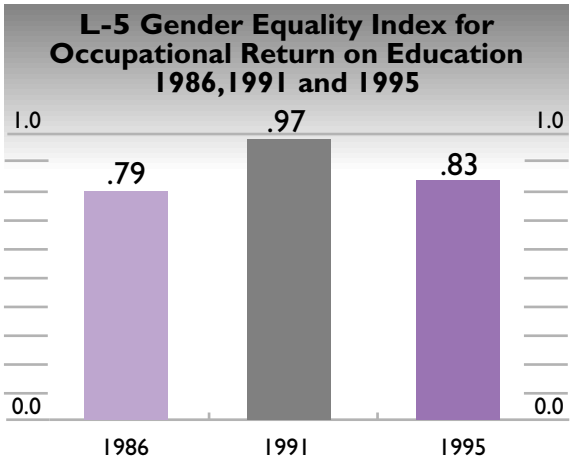

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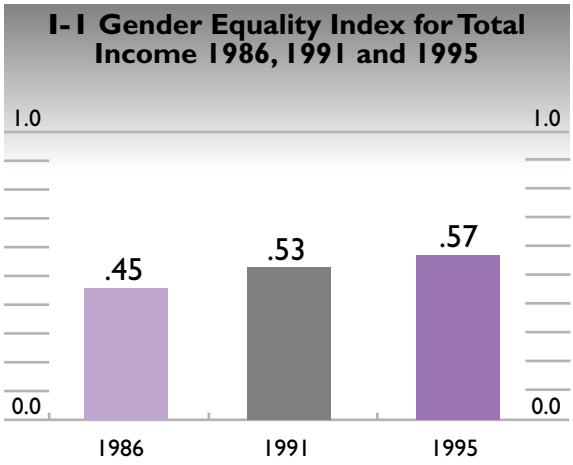
Newfoundland and Labrador



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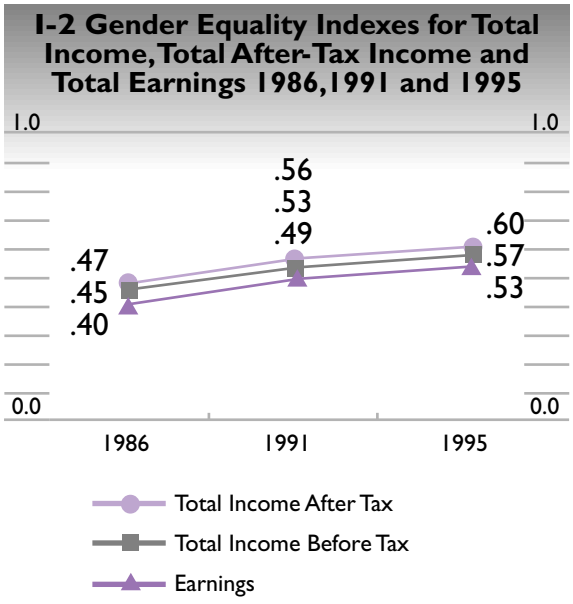

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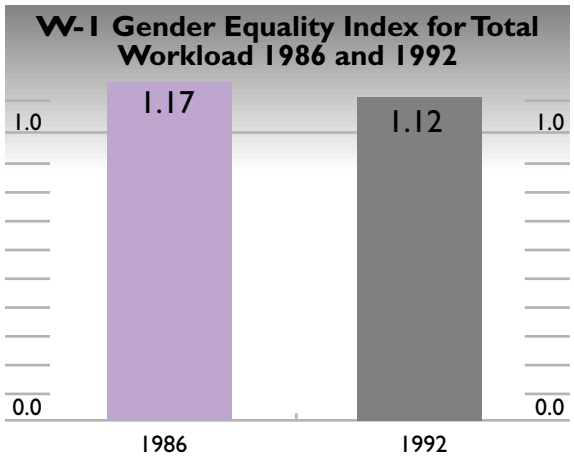

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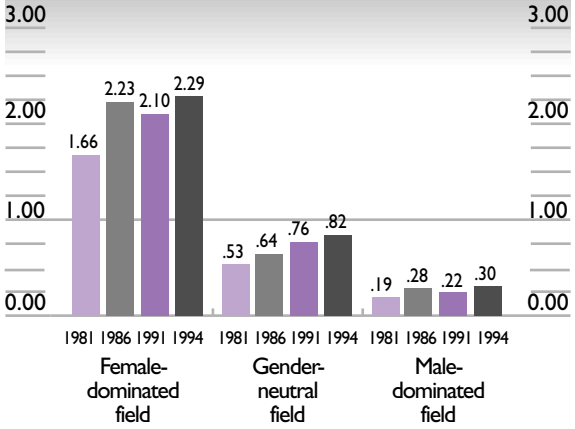

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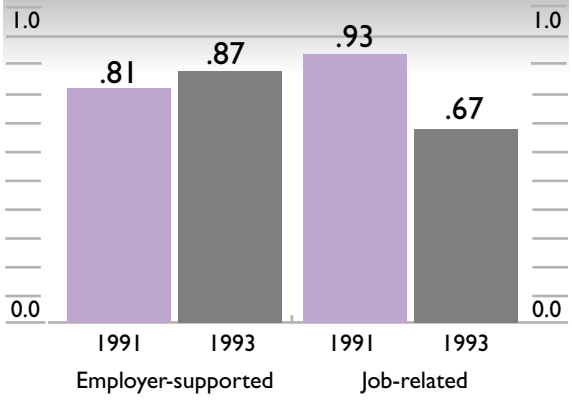
L-3 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Participation 1991 and 1993



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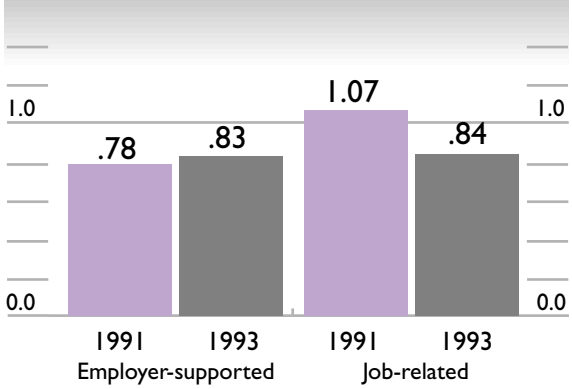
L-4 Gender Equality Indexes for Training Hours 1991 and 1993



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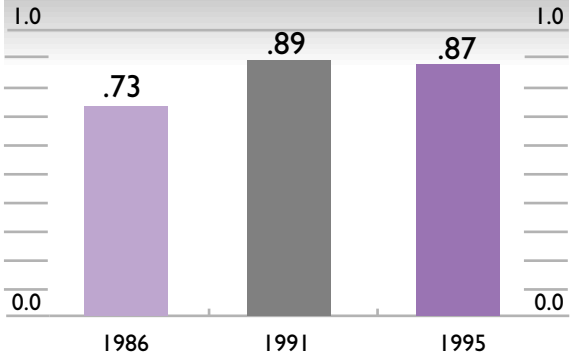

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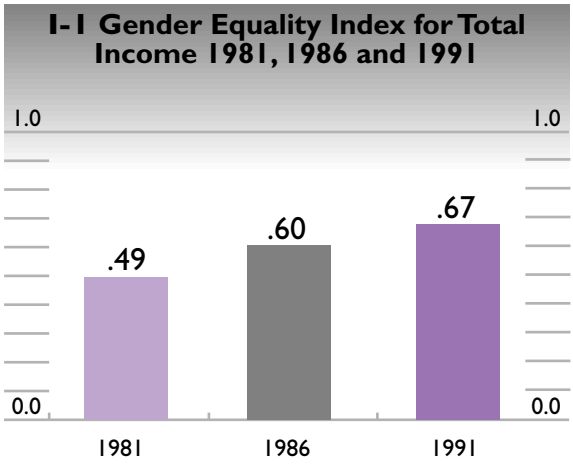
Yukon



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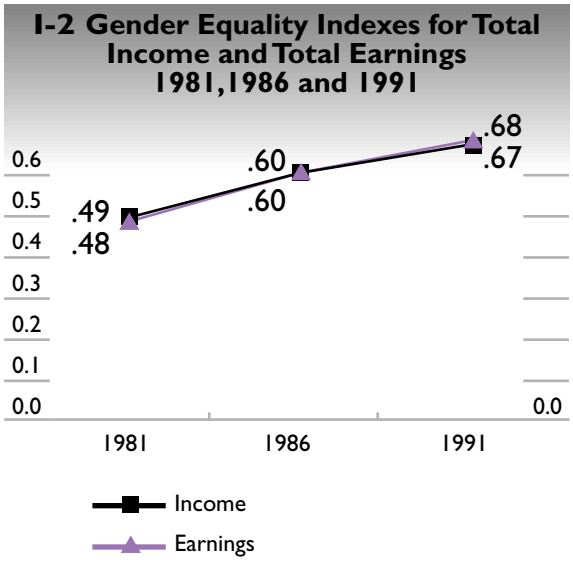

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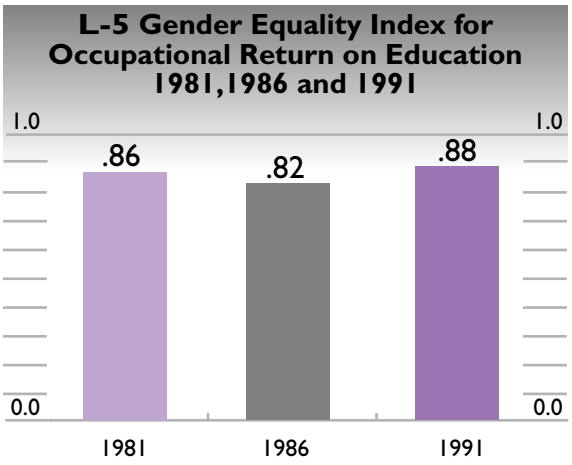

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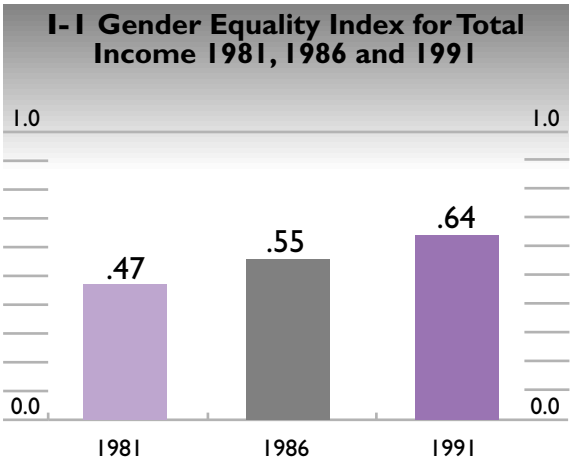
Northwest Territories



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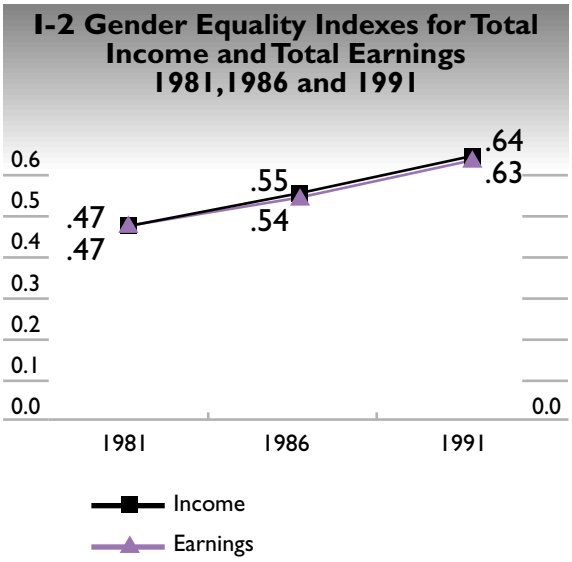

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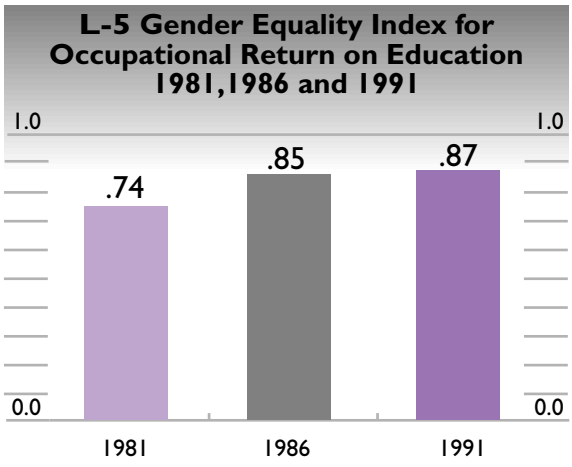

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Additional Resources

The following provides a sample of additional resources in three areas: the field of social indicators; statistics on women in Canada; and books and articles examining issues related to women and the economy. These resources are suggested as a starting point for undertaking further research and analysis of the patterns behind the indicators and their implications for current and future policies.

Further references are available from federal, provincial and territorial government offices responsible for status of women issues and from statistics bureaux. A contact list for these offices is provided. Women's and other non-governmental organizations as well as universities, particularly women's studies programs, are also valuable sources of information and expertise.

Social Indicators Initiatives

This brief annotated bibliography offers a sample of work that addresses new approaches in the social indicators field.

United Nations Human Development Report

In 1990, the United Nations Development Program introduced a Human Development Index (HDI) that compares countries on three basic measures - life expectancy, educational attainment and per capita income. The report, published annually, also provides a Gender Development Index which adjusts the HDI for inequality between women and men, and a Gender Empowerment Measure, which measures gender inequality in terms of earnings and political participation and decision-making. The 1995 report had a special focus on women and unpaid work.

***A Guide to Gender Sensitive Indicators,* Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), 1996**

CIDA has also produced a companion piece, *A Project Level Handbook: the How and Why of Gender Sensitive Indicators*. These documents focus on developing countries but include ideas applicable to more industrialized countries as well.

***Measuring Well-being: Proceedings from a Symposium on Social Indicators,* Canadian Council on Social Development, 1996**

The proceedings include a paper by Dr. Heinz-Herbert Noll on international experience. It examines developments in the social indicators movement from the early 1960s to the present. According to Noll, current restructuring of the welfare state and widespread fiscal exigencies have combined to renew the interest in measuring the effectiveness and outcomes of social welfare policy and programs.
(Web site: http://www.ccsd.ca).

***Measuring Up - Third Annual Report on the Performance of the Government of Alberta - 1996-97 Results,* Government of Alberta, 1997**

This document provides results for 1996-97 on 23 core measures on the government's performance. These core measures include life expectancy, family income distribution, crime rates, births to children (mothers under 18), and literacy and numeracy skills for young Albertans.
(Web site: http://www.treas.gov.ab.ca/comm/measup97/index.html).

***Resource Guide to Results-Based Accountability Efforts: Profiles of Selected States,* Harvard Family Research Project, Harvard University, 1996**

The Harvard Family Research Project is part of state-wide and America-wide moves to examine and evaluate the efficacy of policies and programs on the basis of the concrete results they produce (or fail to produce). The resource guide provides information on the profiles of selected states and the measures they are currently using to assess progress. (Web site: http://hugse1.harvard.edu/~hfrp/).

***Oregon Benchmarks: Standards for measuring state-wide progress and institutional performance,* Oregon Progress Board, 1994**

In 1987-88, Oregon established three goals as crucial to the state's future to the year 2010, including the achievement of the best-educated and best-prepared workforce. Benchmarks were then developed to measure progress toward these goals. By 1993, 272 benchmarks had been created with 43 identified as critical, including those addressing child poverty, high school graduation and student skill achievement, employment outside core city areas, and per capita income. (Web site: http://www.econ.state.or.us/opb).

Minnesota Milestones: 1993 Progress Report

This is the first progress report of a 30-year plan for the state that was developed with citizen involvement. Twenty goals and 79 milestones were identified to measure progress. The initiative also resulted in complementary efforts such as Community Report Cards, a *State of Diversity* action plan to combat racism, and initiatives aimed at economic development. (Web site: http://www.cyfc.umn.edu/Documents/D/A/DA1011.html).

Other useful sources of American and some Canadian information are found at Web site: http://www.subjectmatters.com/indicators/HTMLSrc/Indicators.html.

Statistical Sources on Women in Canada

Statistics Canada produces many sources of data where information is available disaggregated by sex. These include data produced regularly, such as the monthly *Labour Force Survey*, and the annual *Report on Full-time Enrolment in Trade/Vocational Training Programs*; and special or periodic surveys, such as the *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics* and the *School Leavers Survey*. The Census of Population is also a valuable source of data. Data from the1996 Census are being released throughout 1997 and 1998. Statistics Canada also publishes in-depth studies, such as Colin Lindsay's *Lone-Parent Families in Canada* (1992); *Dimensions of Job-Family Tension* (1994) by Leroy Stone; The *Statistics Canada Total Work Accounts System* (1996) by Leroy Stone and Marie-Thérèse Chicha; and Households' *Unpaid Work: Measurement and Valuation* (1995) by Chris Jackson.

The following are good general references and tools for finding the right source of more specific data:

- *Women in Canada: A Statistical Report*, 3rd. ed., Statistics Canada, 1995
- *Labour Market and Income Data Guide: Choosing the Best Data Source for Your Needs*, 2nd. ed, Statistics Canada, 1992
- *Data Guide for Gender-Based Analysis*, Status of Women Canada (forthcoming)

- *Work in progress: tracking women's equality in Canada*, Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1994
- *Review of the Situation of Women in Canada*, National Action Committee on the Status of Women, (1993; 1997 forthcoming).

Information is also available that focuses on women living in different parts of Canada or on groups of women in specific situations. Examples include:

- *Portrait socio-économique des femmes du Québec et de ses régions*, Conseil du statut de la femme, Gouvernement du Québec, 1997
- *Poverty Profile 1995*, National Council of Welfare, Ottawa, 1997
- *The Economic Status of Saskatchewan Women: Statistical Indicators*, Saskatchewan Women's Secretariat, 1996
- *Women in Newfoundland and Labrador: A statistical compendium*, Beth Lacey, Women's Policy Office, Newfoundland, 1996
- *Indicateurs jeunesse, La jeunesse québécoise en chiffres* (15-29 ans), Ministère des relations avec les citoyens et de l'immigration, Secrétariat à la jeunesse, Gouvernement du Québec, 1996
- *Derrière les apparences, santé et conditions de vie des femmes*, Ministère de la santé et des services sociaux, Gouvernement du Québec, 1996
- *Women in Nova Scotia: A statistical handbook* 2nd. ed., Margaret Dechman, Women's Directorate, Department of Human Resources, 1995
- *The Economic Situation of Women Over 55, Present and Projected*, Donna Kerr, Alberta Advisory Council on Women's Issues, 1994
- *Women Count: a Statistical Profile of Women in British Columbia*, 2nd. ed., Ministry of Women's Equality, British Columbia, 1994.

Books and Articles

Many authors, Canadian and international, have undertaken both empirical and conceptual work on gender and economic issues. It is not possible to even begin to list them all. These works contribute to a greater understanding of the relationship between women and the economy and the underlying explanations behind patterns of gender similarities and differences. They can also provide innovative thinking to assist policy-makers to improve effectiveness in meeting equality and other societal objectives.

One example of this type of resource, *Papers on Economic Equality* (Status of Women Canada, 1994), is a compendium of the work of selected economists and researchers across Canada. It includes papers by Isabella Bakker (York University) on macro-economic restructuring through a feminist lens; Shelley Phipps (Dalhousie University) on models of household behaviour; Janet Fast (University of Alberta) on trends in women's labour force behaviour; and Francine Mayer (*Université du Québec à Montréal*) on part-time employment. The bibliographies included with the papers provide valuable further references on gender and economic issues.

Other examples of recent work of particular significance include *Women's Financial Futures: Mid-Life Prospects for a Secure Retirement* (1995) and *Women and the Economy: Long-Term Policy Research Issues* (forthcoming), by Monica Townson, and two pioneering books on unpaid work that include significant references to Canada, *If Women Counted* (1988) and *Three Masquerades* (1997), by Marilyn Waring of New Zealand.

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