

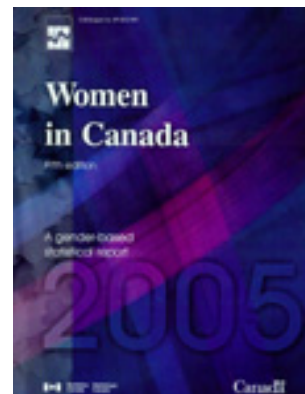


Catalogue no. 89-503-XIE

Women in Canada

Fifth Edition

A Gender-based Statistical Report



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Other countries	CAN\$10.00

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Statistics Canada
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Women in Canada

Fifth Edition

A Gender-based Statistical Report

Target Groups Project

Published by authority of the Minister responsible for Statistics Canada

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March 2006

Catalogue no. 89-503-XPE

ISBN 0-660-19504-6

Catalogue no. 89-503-XIE

ISBN 0-660-19505-4

Frequency: Occasional

Ottawa

Cette publication est disponible en français (n° 89-503-XIF au catalogue)

Note of appreciation

Canada owes the success of its statistical system to a long-standing partnership between Statistics Canada, the citizens of Canada, its businesses, governments and other institutions. Accurate and timely statistical information could not be produced without their continued cooperation and goodwill.

Library and Archives Canada Cataloguing in Publication Data

Women in Canada : a gender-based statistical report

5th ed.

Issued also in French under title: Femmes au Canada :
rapport statistique fondé sur le sexe.

Available also on Internet.

ISBN 0-660-19504-6 (print)

ISBN 0-660-19505-4 (PDF)

CS89-503-XPE

1. Women – Canada – Statistics. 2. Women – Canada –
Economic conditions – Statistics. I. Statistics Canada.
Target Groups Project. II. Statistics Canada. Social and Aboriginal Statistics
Division.

HQ1453 W65 2006
C2006-988024-7

305.4'0971'021

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.	not available for any reference period
..	not available for a specific reference period
...	not applicable
0	true zero or a value rounded to zero
0 ^o	value rounded to 0 (zero) where there is a meaningful distinction between true zero and the value that was rounded
P	preliminary
r	revised
x	suppressed to meet the confidentiality requirements of the <i>Statistics Act</i>
E	use with caution
F	too unreliable to be published

The paper used in this publication meets minimum requirements of American National Standard for Information Sciences - Permanence of Paper for Printed Library Materials, ANSI X39.48-1984.



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Acknowledgements

This report was prepared by the Target Groups Project of Statistics Canada under the direction of Editor-in-Chief Colin Lindsay with the assistance of Associate Editor Marcia Almey. The editors gratefully acknowledge the support of Production Co-ordinator Danielle Baum and Marketing Supervisor Alex Solis. This report could also not have been produced without the valued assistance of Arleen Jamieson, Mario Lisciotta, Shirley Li, Rosemary Andrews, Belia Verna, Jennifer Callaghan, Marc Lévesque, and Sylvia Hébert.

Statistics Canada also acknowledges the generous financial and collaborative assistance of Status of Women Canada, Health Canada, Citizenship and Immigration Canada, Social Development Canada, Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, Canadian Heritage, Justice Canada, Foreign Affairs Canada, Agriculture and Agri-food Canada, Natural Resources Canada, Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Environment Canada, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada, Canada Revenue Agency, and the Department of National Defence.



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Highlights

- Slightly more than half of all people living in Canada are women or female children. In 2004, there were a total of 16.1 million females in Canada, representing 50.4% of the overall population that year. Women constitute a particularly large segment of the senior population in Canada. In 2004, women made up 69% of all persons aged 85 and older, 59% of those aged 75 to 84, and 53% of people aged 65 to 74.
- There were a total of 2.8 million foreign-born females living in Canada in 2001. Together, they made up 19% of the country's total female population that year.
- In 2001, over 2 million women, 14% of the total female population, identified themselves as being members of a visible minority. Visible minority women are centered largely in Toronto and Vancouver. That year, 62% of all females in a visible minority in Canada resided in one of these two metropolitan areas. Indeed, 37% of all female residents of both cities were part of a visible minority.
- In 2001, just under a half million women, 3% of the total female population, reported they were one of North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit.
- There has been a sharp drop in the proportion of women living with their spouse in the past couple of decades. In 2001, 48% of women aged 15 and over were partners in a husband-wife family, down from 56% in 1981. In the same period, the proportion of women living in a common-law union more than doubled, rising from just 4% in 1981 to 9% in 2001.
- There has also been an increase in the proportion of women who are lone parents from 5% in the early 1970s to 9% in 2001. Indeed, in 2001, there were over 1 million female-headed lone-parent families in Canada. That year, 20% of families with children were headed by a female lone parent, double the figure in 1971.
- More women are living alone. In 2001, over one and a half million women, 14% of the total female population aged 15 and over, were living alone, more than double the total in 1971. Seniors are the most likely women to live alone. In 2001, 38% of all women aged 65 and over were living on their own.
- There has been a dramatic decline in the birth rate among Canadian women over the course of the past four decades. In 2002, there were just 41 births for every 1,000 woman in Canada aged 15 to 49, barely a third the figure in 1959. While most of this occurred in the 1960s, the birth rate in Canada has again edged downward in recent years.



- The large majority of the female population living at home describe their general health in positive terms. In 2003, 88% of the female population aged 12 and over said their health was either excellent (22%), very good (36%) or good (30%). At the same time, though, 12% reported their health was either fair or poor. That year, though, 32% of women aged 75 and over reported their health status as only fair or poor.
- While most women report their overall health is relatively good, in 2003, 74% of the female population living in a private household had at least one chronic health condition or problem. Again, the proportion of women who report chronic or degenerative health problems rises with age.
- Females make up the majority of the Canadian population with disabilities. In 2001, 13.3% of Canadian females had a disability. The likelihood of women having disabilities increases with age. Indeed, that year, 72% of all women 85 years and over had disabilities, while the figures were 50% among women aged 75 to 84 and 32% for women aged 65 to 74. As well, just over 800,000 women, nearly 7% of all women aged 15 and over, had disabilities which were considered severe or very severe.
- Females in Canada have a longer life expectancy than males. Female children born in 2001, for example, could expect to live an average of 82 years, whereas the average life expectancy of male children born that year was just 77 years. Since 1981, however, gains in life expectancy among females have only been about half those experienced by males.
- The long-term increase in the life expectancy of females is a reflection of declines in the overall female death rate. Overall, in 2002, there were 486 deaths for every 100,000 females, down 10% from the figure in 1993, once the effect of changes in the age structure of the female population have been accounted for. The decline in the age-standardized death rate for women in this period was somewhat smaller than that among men, although death rates among females are still over 50% lower than they are among males.
- Heart disease and cancer accounted for over half of all female deaths in 2002. There have, however, been considerable differences in the long-term trends for heart disease and cancer deaths among the female population in the past two decades. On the one hand, the age-standardized death rate due to heart disease among women has fallen since the late 1970s, whereas the rate for cancer has not changed significantly.
- While there has been no significant change in the overall cancer death rate among the female population in the past couple of decades, the death rate due to lung cancer for females in 2001 was more than twice the figure in 1979. In contrast, the age-standardized lung cancer death rate among men declined 10% in the same period, although the lung cancer death rate among women is still only about half that of men.
- There has been a gradual decline in the age-standardized death rate from breast cancer among the female population in the past two decades, although breast cancer accounts for the largest share of new cases of cancer among women.

- There has been a sharp decline in the share of the population which smokes over the past three decades. In 2003, 21% of all women aged 15 and over were current smokers, down from 38% in 1970. Among women, young adults are the most likely to smoke cigarettes. There has, however, been a sharp decline in the smoking rates among both female teenagers and women aged 20 to 24 in recent years. This reversed the trend in the 1990s when the percentage of young women smoking increased sharply.
- There has been a dramatic increase in the proportion of the female population with a university degree in the past several decades. In 2001, 15% of women aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from just 3% in 1971. Women, though, are still slightly less likely than men to have a university degree, although the gap is currently much smaller than in the past.
- While almost as many women as men currently are university graduates, female representation among those with a degree declines sharply among those with postgraduate training. In 2001, women made up 52% of all those with a Bachelor's or first professional degree, whereas they represented just 27% of those with an earned doctorate.
- The overall difference in the proportions of women and men with a university degree is likely to close even further in the future as women currently make up the majority of full-time students in Canadian universities. In the 2001-02 academic year, 57% of all full-time university students were female, up from 37% in 1972-73. Again, though, women's share of full-time university enrolment declines the higher the level of study.
- Women also currently make up the majority of full-time students in most university departments. However, females continue to account for much smaller shares of full-time enrolment in mathematics and science faculties. In 2001-02, women made up only 30% of all university students in mathematics and physical sciences, and just 24% of those in engineering and applied sciences.
- The increased participation of women in the paid work force has been one of the most significant social trends in Canada in the past quarter century. In 2004, 58% of all women aged 15 and over were part of the paid work force, up from 42% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men who were employed fell during this period from 73% to 68%. As a result, women accounted for 47% of the employed workforce in 2004, up from 37% in 1976.
- There have been particularly dramatic increases in the employment levels of women with very young children. Indeed, by 2004, 65% of all women with children under age 3 were employed, more than double the figure in 1976. Similarly, 70% of women whose youngest child was aged 3 to 5 worked for pay or profit in 2004, up from 37% in 1976.
- The share of female lone parents with jobs has risen dramatically over the last three decades. In 2004, 68% of female lone parents were employed, whereas the figure was under 50% in 1976.





- Employed women are far more likely than their male counterparts to lose time from their jobs because of personal or family responsibilities.
- Women are also much more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time. In 2004, 27% of the total female workforce were part-time employees, compared with just 11% of employed men. Indeed, women currently account for about seven in 10 of all part-time employees, a figure which has not changed appreciably since the mid-1970s.
- The majority of employed women continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 2004, 67% of all employed women were working in teaching, nursing and related health occupations, clerical or other administrative positions, and sales and service occupations. In fact, there has also been virtually no change in the proportion of women employed in these traditionally female-dominated occupations over the past decade.
- Women have increased their representation in several professional fields in recent years. Indeed, women currently make up over half those employed in both diagnostic and treating positions in medicine and related health professions and in business and financial professional positions.
- There has also been a long-term increase in the share of women employed in managerial positions. In 2004, 37% of all those employed in managerial positions were women, up from 30% in 1987. All of this growth, though, occurred in the early part of this period. Indeed, the share of management positions accounted for by women actually dipped slightly in the period from 1996 to 2004. As well, among managers, women tend to be better represented in lower-level positions as opposed to those at more senior levels. Women also continue to remain very much a minority among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics.
- While a growing number of women are part of the paid workforce in Canada, many women also participate in their communities through formal volunteer activities. In 2003, over 4.5 million Canadian women aged 15 and over, 35% of the total female population, did unpaid work for a volunteer organization. That year, women made up 54% of all those doing unpaid volunteer work through a formal organization.
- Women generally have lower incomes than men. In 2003, the average annual pre-tax income of women aged 15 and over from all sources was \$24,400, just 62% the figure for men. The average income of women in 2003, though, was 13% higher than the figure in 1997, once the effects of inflation have been factored out, whereas the real average income of men rose 8% in the same period.
- The average earnings of employed women are still substantially lower than those of men, even when employed full-time. In 2003, women working full-time, full-year had average earnings of \$36,500, or 71% what men employed full-time, full-year made that year. As well, the gap between the earnings of women and men has not changed substantially in the past decade.
- Women make up a disproportionate share of the population in Canada with low incomes. Unattached women are particularly likely to have low incomes. In 2003, 31% of unattached women aged 16 and over had incomes below the after-tax Low-Income Cut-offs, while this was the case for 28% of their male counterparts.

- Seniors are the least likely unattached women to have low incomes. Indeed, the incidence of low income among unattached senior women has dropped sharply since the early 1980s. In 2003, 19% of these women were classified as having after-tax low incomes, down from 57% in 1980.
- Families headed by female lone parents also have relatively high rates of low income. In 2003, 38% of all families headed by lone-parent mothers had incomes which fell below the after-tax Low Income Cut-offs. In comparison, this was the case for 13% of male lone-parent families and just 7% of non-elderly two-parent families with children. The incidence of low income among female-headed lone-parent families, however, has declined somewhat from the period from the early 1980s to the mid-1990s when the figure hovered around 50%.
- As a result, lone-parent families headed by women continue to be home to a disproportionate share of all children living in low-income situations. In 2003, 43% of all children in a low-income family were living with a single female parent, whereas these families accounted for only 13% of all children under age 18 that year.
- Women's involvement in the criminal justice system has traditionally been more as victims of crime rather than as perpetrators. In 2004, women were charged with committing 17% of all crime in Canada, whereas they represented 51% of all victims of violent crime reported to a sample of police forces.
- Women are considerably more likely than men to be victims of violent crimes such as sexual assault and criminal harassment. Indeed, in 2004, there were over six times as many female victims of sexual assault as male victims. Similarly, women were over three times more likely than men to be victims of criminal harassment.
- The majority of assaults against women are perpetrated by someone they know. In 2004, the assailants in 70% of violent incidents committed against women were either relatives or acquaintances. In fact, women are particularly likely to be victimized by a current or former spouse, a current or former partner in a dating relationship, or a family member.
- Relatively equal proportions of women and men experienced some form of physical or sexual violence by a common-law or marital partner in the past five years. There has been no change in the overall level of spousal violence reported by those who were married or living common-law during the past five years. However, women and men experience very different types of spousal violence and the impact of the violence is more serious for women than men.
- Women who had been in contact with a previous partner in the past five years are considerably more likely than those in a current relationship to be victims of spousal violence. In 2004, 21% of women who had been in contact with a former spouse in this time period reported some form of abuse, whereas this was the case for just 3% of women in a current relationship. Aboriginal women are more than three times more likely to be victims of spousal violence than their non-Aboriginal counterparts.





- Women are also more likely to be victims of stalking than men. In fact, an estimated 1.4 million women, more than one in 10 of the total female population, reported that they had been stalked in the past five years in a way that caused them to fear for their lives or the safety of someone known to them.
- Women are only about half as likely as men to be murdered. As with other types of victimization, however, women are much more likely than male victims to be killed by someone they know, particularly a family member. Indeed, 37% of all female homicide victims in 2004 were killed by a spouse or former spouse. While the number of women killed annually by a current or former spouse continues to be higher than the number of men killed by a spouse, the spousal homicide rate has fallen for both women and men over the past two and a half decades.
- Women make up less than one in five Canadians charged with a criminal offense. In 2004, women made up only 18% of adults charged with a criminal code offence. The share of criminal activity accounted for by women, though, has risen somewhat in the past few decades.
- Women between the ages of 15 and 18 years old have much higher levels of criminal activity than adult women. Crime rates among young women, though, are still much lower than they are among their male counterparts.

Introduction

The latter part of the 20th century was a period of remarkable change in Canada. In particular, there was a dramatic evolution in the role of women in Canadian society as women became increasingly involved in the full range of social and economic aspects of life in this country. Most notably, women have become an integral part of the paid labour force, accounting for almost half of all those working for pay or profit. However, with the new century come new challenges. On the one hand, substantial gender gaps persist on most major socio-economic variables. In fact, the pace of improvement in many of these areas has slowed dramatically in recent years. At the same time, vigilance is required to ensure that past gains on the road to true gender equality in Canada are not lost.

This edition of *Women in Canada*, the fifth in a series that started in 1985, documents the current status of women in Canadian society by presenting the most recent and relevant data on a wide range of issues critical to gender equality. The report presents a comprehensive portrait of women in Canada today including their demographic profile, family status, health, educational attainment, labour force characteristics, and income levels, as well as their involvement in criminal activity as both perpetrators and victims. In addition, because there are significant differences in the experiences of Canadian women from different backgrounds, separate chapters are included describing the unique characteristics of Aboriginal women, immigrant women, women in a visible minority, senior women and women with disabilities.

The report is primarily national in scope, although many key indicators are disaggregated by province and by major census metropolitan area. As well, the data included in this report have been largely drawn from published Statistics Canada sources such as the Census of Canada, the Labour Force Survey, the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, the General Social Survey and the Canadian Community Health Survey. The report, though, also includes some previously unreleased data.

While *Women in Canada* describes the situation of women and men in Canada as comprehensively as possible, this report is not exhaustive and certain data gaps exist. Those seeking more information, or with questions about data comparability or quality, should contact Statistics Canada directly. Specific questions or comments on this report or its subject matter should be addressed to Colin Lindsay by calling (613) 951-2603 or by e-mail at lindcol@statcan.ca. Further information on these topics may also be attained by calling the toll-free national Statistics Canada inquiries service at 1 800 263-1136 or by consulting the Statistics Canada web page at www.statcan.ca.

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Chapter 1

The Female Population in Canada

By *Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey*

Women in the majority

Slightly more than half of all people living in Canada are women or female children. In 2004, there was a total of 16.1 million females in Canada, representing 50.4% of the overall population that year. (Table 1.1)

The fact that females currently outnumber men is a relatively new phenomenon. Indeed, as recently as the early 1970s women were in the minority in Canada. In 1971, for example, 49.8% of the Canadian population were either women or female children, while the figure was 48.2% in 1931. That females are now in the majority in the Canadian population has occurred largely because mortality gains among women have been greater than those among men, with the result that women live considerably longer, on average, than men. The share of the population accounted for by women, though, reached the current figure in 1986 and has changed little in the past two decades.

The share of the population accounted for by women is also not expected to change dramatically over the course of the next few decades. Statistics Canada has projected¹ that by 2031 women will still make up 50.4% of the total population, the same as today, and that by 2051 the figure will have only increased marginally to 50.5%.

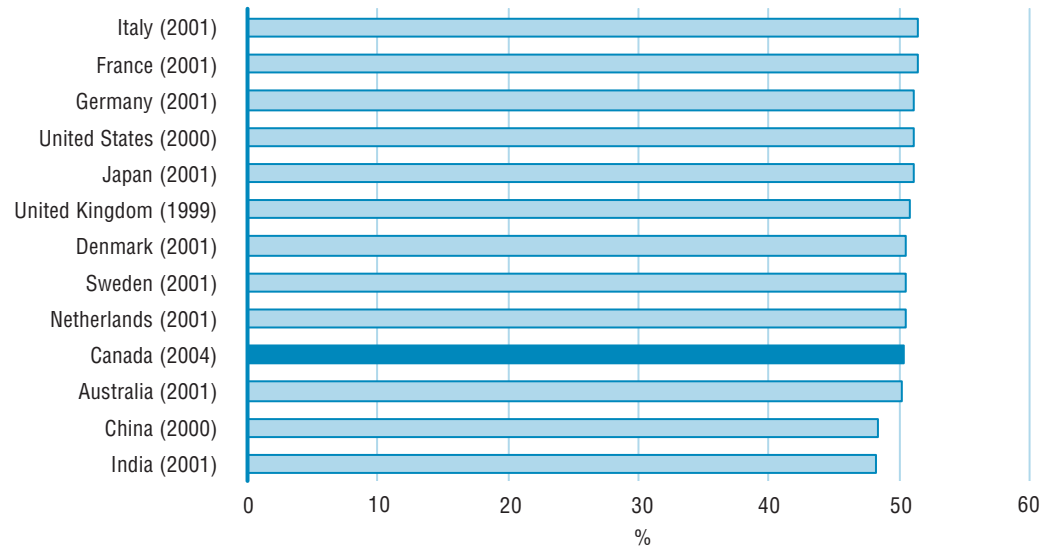
While women make up the majority of the population in Canada, the share of the population accounted for by females is actually relatively small compared with other industrialized societies. Females currently account for 50.4% of all Canadians, whereas the figure is over 51% in countries such as Italy, France, Germany, Japan and the United States, while it is 50.8% in the United Kingdom. The current Canadian figure, though, is closer to that in Denmark (50.6%), Sweden (50.5%), the Netherlands (50.5%) and Australia (50.2%), while it is substantially higher than that in countries such as China and India where women constitute less than half the population. (Chart 1.1)

One reason why women in Canada account for a smaller proportion of the population than do their counterparts in other industrialized nations is that while the Canadian population is aging, Canada still has a relatively small senior population compared with these other countries.



Chart 1.1

Women as a percentage of the population in Canada and selected other countries



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, and United Nations, 2001 Demographic Yearbook.

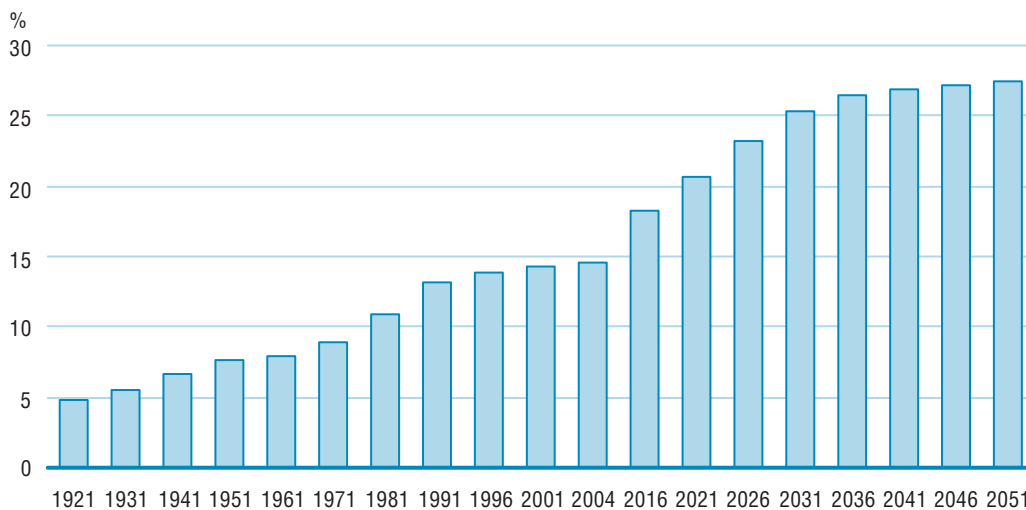
Age distribution

As they have done literally from the moment they were born, women born during the baby boom years from the late-1940s to the mid-1960s make up a disproportionate share of the female population in Canada. In 2004, women born during the baby boom era, who currently range in age from their late 30s to their mid-50s, represented almost one in three Canadian females. That year, 31% of all females in Canada were between the ages of 35 and 54. Those in the 35 to 44 age bracket, who made up 16% of the female population, were the single largest ten-year female age cohort, while women aged 45 to 54 made up another 15%. (Table 1.2)

At the same time, 44% of all females in Canada are under the age of 35. In 2004, 17% of all females were under the age of 15, while 27% were between the ages of 15 and 34. At the other end of the age spectrum, just over one in four females were either seniors or women in their pre-retirement years. That year, 15% of all females were seniors aged 65 and over, while 11% were aged 55 to 64.

Senior women,² however, constitute the fastest growing segment of the female population. In 2004, there were 2.3 million women in Canada aged 65 and over who made up 15% of the total female population. This was up from 11% in 1981 and just 5% in 1921. (Chart 1.2)

Chart 1.2

Senior women as a percentage of the female population, 1921 to 2051¹

1. Projections based on assumptions of medium population growth.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

The share of the female population accounted for by senior women is also expected to continue to rise during the next several decades. Statistics Canada has projected that by 2016 18% of all women will be aged 65 and over and that by 2041 27% of all women will be seniors.

In fact, women constitute a particularly large segment of the senior population in Canada. In 2004, women made up 57% of all Canadians aged 65 and over, whereas they represented 51% of those aged 55 to 64 and 50% or less of women in all other age ranges.

Women account for particularly large shares of the oldest segments of the senior population. In 2004, women made up 69% of all persons aged 85 and older and 59% of those aged 75 to 84, compared with 53% of people aged 65 to 74.

The fact that women make up such a disproportionate share of the very oldest segments of the population has major implications. As discussed in greater detail in Chapter 11, those aged 85 and over are the fastest growing segment of the senior population. They also tend to be the most vulnerable to serious health problems, as well as the most likely to experience socio-economic difficulties.

Women in the provinces and territories

Women generally make up larger shares of the population in the eastern provinces compared with the rest of the country. In 2004, females made up around 51% of all residents in each of the four Atlantic Provinces, as well as in both Ontario and Quebec. In contrast, the figure was closer to 50% in each of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and British Columbia, while women were in the minority in Alberta where they made up only 49.5% of the population that year. (Table 1.3)

Women also make up less than half the population in the territories. In 2004, about 48% of all people in both the Northwest Territories and Nunavut were female, while the figure was 49.7% in the Yukon.

Urban/rural distribution

The large majority of both women and men in Canada live in urban areas. In 2001, 80% of all women lived in an area classified as urban. In fact, the majority of women, 64%, lived in a census metropolitan area (CMA), that is, an urban area with a population of at least 100,000. At the same time, 13% of all females lived in an urban area with a population between 10,000 and 99,999, while 3% lived in other urban areas. (Table 1.4)

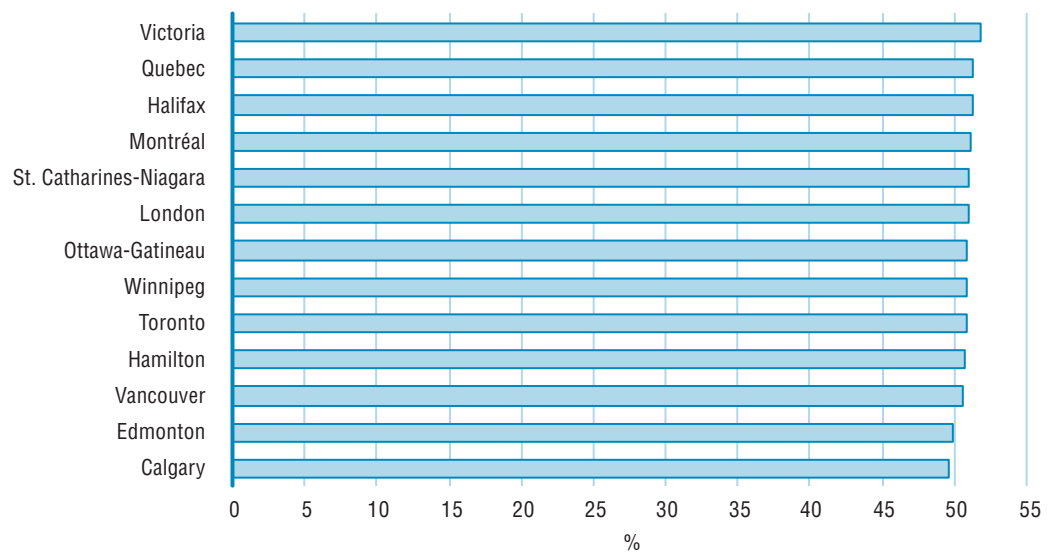
While the majority of the female population are urban residents, one in five women lives in a rural area. In 2001, 20% of all females lived in an area considered to be rural. The largest share of these women, 17% that year, were classified as living in a rural non-farm area, while 2% were rural farm dwellers.

Women represent a relatively large share of the population in urban areas, while they tend to be under-represented in rural communities. In 2001, women made up over 51% of all those living in urban areas, whereas they represented 49% of the rural non-farm population, and only 47% of that classified as rural farm.

Women also account for more than half the population in most of the largest census metropolitan areas in Canada. In 2004, women made up around 51% of residents of each of Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Winnipeg, Ottawa-Gatineau, and Hamilton. The exceptions to this pattern were Calgary and Edmonton, where women represented slightly less than half the population that year. (Chart 1.3)

Chart 1.3

Females as a percentage of the population in selected census metropolitan areas, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Women make up the largest share of the population in Victoria. In 2004, just under 52% of all Victoria residents were female. This reflects, in large part, the fact that seniors, of whom women make up a disproportionate share, constitute a relatively large proportion of Victoria residents. Women also make up particularly large shares of the population in both Quebec City and Halifax, as well as that in St. Catharines-Niagara and London.

Residential mobility

As with their male counterparts, the female population in Canada is very mobile. In the five years between 1996 and 2001, 42% of all women aged 15 and over made at least one residential move, about the same figure as for men. (Table 1.5)

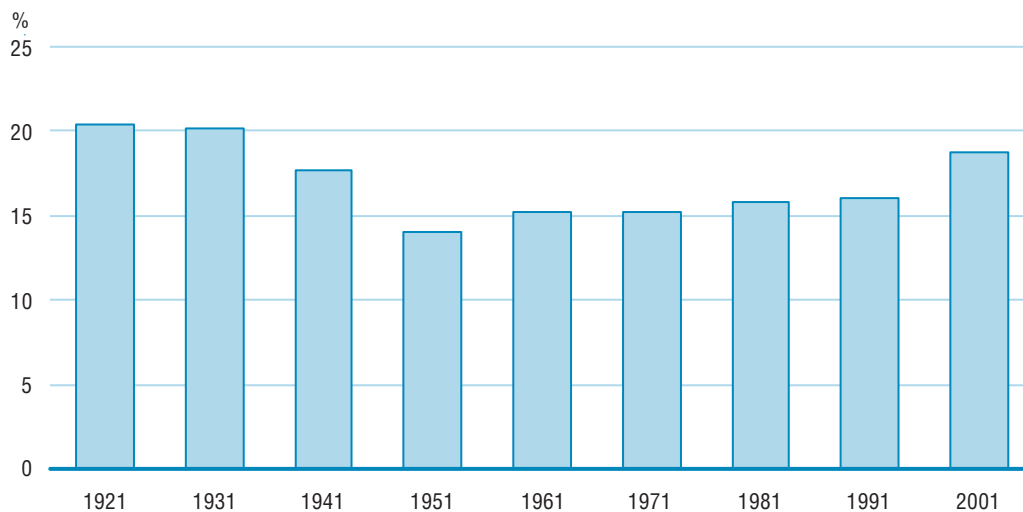
The majority of women who do move, however, only change residences within the same community. Between 1996 and 2001, 22% of all women aged 15 and over changed their place of residence within their community at least once. At the same time, 16% of all women moved from one community to another: 13% moved within the same province, while 3% moved from one province to another. Again, though, these figures were almost exactly the same as those for men.

More foreign-born women

One of the most significant aspects of the female population in Canada in recent years has been the large flow of new immigrants into the country.³ Indeed, almost one in five females currently living in Canada was born outside the country. Overall, there were a total of 2.8 million foreign-born females living in Canada in 2001. Together, they made up 19% of the country's total female population that year. (Chart 1.4)

Chart 1.4

Foreign-born females as a percentage of the total female population, 1921 to 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

The share of the female population accounted for by those born outside Canada, in fact, is currently the largest it has been in more than half a century. In 2001, foreign-born females represented 19% of all women living in Canada, up from 16% in 1991 and 14% in 1951. The share of the female population accounted for by those born outside the country, though, is still lower than it was in the 1920s and 1930s when over 20% of the female population in Canada was born outside the country. Females also make up the majority of the foreign-born population in Canada. In 2001, 51.9% of all people born outside the country were female.

Most females immigrating to Canada come with their family, either as a family class immigrant themselves or as the spouse or dependant of an economic immigrant. At the same time, just over one in 10 female immigrants arrived here as an economic-class immigrant, while another 10% were admitted as refugees.

The number of women admitted to Canada as refugees, though, has declined slightly in recent years. In 2003, close to 11,600 female refugees were admitted to Canada, down from 13,000 in 2001 and 14,000 in 2000. The current number of female refugees admitted to the country, however, is higher than in the late 1990s when an average of fewer than 11,000 females were admitted to Canada as refugees each year.

The recent increase in the size of the foreign-born female population living in Canada is a reflection of the fact, at least in part, that immigration levels have been relatively high over the past decade. Indeed, the largest share of the foreign-born female population arrived here in the past decade. In 2001, there were almost 1 million foreign-born females living in Canada who had arrived in the country between 1991 and 2001. These recent arrivals made up 34% of all foreign-born females living in Canada that year. They also made up 6% of the total female population in Canada that year.

There has been an even more dramatic shift in the number of foreign-born females coming from different regions of the world in recent years. Well over half (58%) of all female immigrants living in Canada in 2001 who arrived here in the 1990s, for example, came from Asia, including the Middle East, whereas this was the case for just 3% of those who arrived prior to 1961. There have also been substantial increases in the number of female immigrants coming from Africa as well from both the Caribbean and Central and South America, whereas the numbers from traditional source countries such as the United Kingdom and other European countries has declined.

Women in the visible minority community

One result of the changing source countries of immigrants to Canada is that there has also been an increase in the number of women who are members of a visible minority community.⁴ In 2001, over 2 million women, 14% of the total female population, identified themselves as being members of a visible minority. (Table 1.6)

The female visible minority population in Canada, in fact, has grown at a much faster rate than the number of women not in a visible minority in recent years. Between 1996 and 2001, for example, the number of visible minority females increased by 25%, whereas the non-visible minority female population rose by only 1%. Indeed, the growth in the number of visible minority women in the past five years accounted for three-quarters of the growth in the overall female population in Canada in this period. As a result of this trend, the share of the total female population in Canada accounted for by those in a visible minority rose from 6% in 1986 and 11% in 1996 to 14% in 2001.

The largest number of visible minority women in Canada are Chinese. In 2001, there were over a half million Chinese women in Canada who made up over a quarter of the total female visible minority population. In fact, Chinese women represented almost

4% of all women in Canada that year. At the same time, there were around 450,000 South Asian women, 350,000 Black women, and 175,000 Filipinas. There were also over 100,000 Latin American and Southeast Asian women, while there were smaller numbers of Arab (89,000), West Asian (51,000), Korean (52,000) and Japanese (40,000) women living in Canada. (Table 1.6).

The majority of visible minority females in Canada live in either Ontario or British Columbia. In 2001, 54% of the female visible minority population in Canada lived in Ontario, while 21% resided in British Columbia. That year, females in a visible minority made up 22% of the overall female population of British Columbia and 19% of that of Ontario.

As well, within Ontario and British Columbia, visible minority women are centered largely in Toronto and Vancouver. Indeed, in 2001, 62% of all females in a visible minority in Canada resided in one of these two metropolitan areas, whereas Toronto and Vancouver accounted for only 16% of the total non-visible minority female population of Canada. That year, 37% of all female residents of both cities were part of a visible minority.

Aboriginal Women

A substantial number of women in Canada identify with the Aboriginal population.⁵ In 2001, just under a half million women, 3% of the total female population, reported they were one of North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit. As with the overall population, women make up the slight majority of those identifying with the Aboriginal population. That year, females made up 51% of the total Aboriginal identity population. (Table 1.7)

The female Aboriginal population in Canada is growing substantially faster than the overall population. The number of females who identified themselves as being North American Indian, Métis or Inuit in 2001, was 22% higher than the figure in 1996. In contrast, the non-Aboriginal female population grew by only 3% in the same time period. As a result of this trend, females who identified themselves as Aboriginal made up 3.3% of the total female population in 2001, up from 2.8% five years earlier. Demographic trends such as natural increase accounted for about half the increase in the female Aboriginal population in this period, while other variables such as the fact that there were fewer incompletely enumerated reserves, as well as an increase in the tendency for women to identify as Aboriginal, also played a part.

The largest number of women identifying with the Aboriginal population are North American Indian. In 2001, 314,000 females, 63% of the total female Aboriginal identity population, were North American Indian, while 29% were Métis, and 5% were Inuit.

Aboriginal people make up a largest share of the provincial population in Manitoba and Saskatchewan. In 2001, 14% of all female residents of both provinces identified themselves as Aboriginal, while in the remaining provinces the figure ranged from 5% in Alberta to just over 1% in both Quebec and Prince Edward Island. At the same time, Aboriginal people made up 87% of female residents of Nunavut, as well as 52% of those in the Northwest Territories and 24% of those in the Yukon.

The female Aboriginal population is also relatively young. In 2001, 32% of Aboriginal females were less than 15 years of age, compared with 19% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. As a result, female Aboriginal children accounted for 6% of all Canadian girls under the age of 15, whereas Aboriginals made up only 3% of the total female population. At the same time, young women aged 15-24 made up 17% of the Aboriginal population, compared with 13% of that of non-Aboriginals.



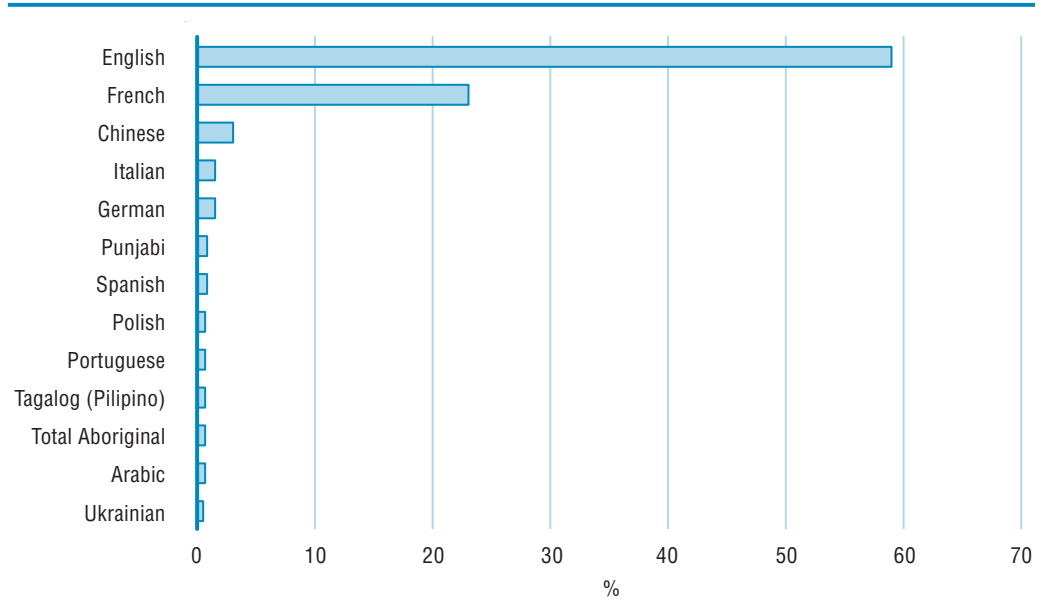
Language characteristics of women

English or French are the mother tongue of the majority of Canadian women, although a growing number have a mother tongue other than one of the official languages. In 2001, 59% of the female population reported that English was their mother tongue, that is, the language first learned and still understood, while 23% indicated that French was their mother tongue. At the same time, though, over two and a half million female Canadians, 18% of the total population, had a mother tongue other than English or French. (Table 1.8)

Chinese was the language reported most often by females indicating that they had a mother tongue other than English or French. In 2001, almost 450,000 women, 3% of the total female population, listed Chinese as their mother tongue, while Italian and German were each reported by another 2%. At the same time, Punjabi, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, Polish, Tagalog, and Ukrainian were each reported by close to 1% of the overall female population. As well, close to 1% of all females listed an Aboriginal language as their mother tongue. (Chart 1.5)

Chart 1.5

Percentage of the female population with selected mother tongues, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

While a growing number of women have a mother tongue other than English or French, almost all women can speak one or both of Canada’s official languages. In 2001, 81% of Canadian women could carry on a conversation in either English or French only, while 17% were bilingual. (Table 1.9)

A small proportion of women, however, cannot speak either English or French. In 2001, 2% of women could not speak either official language. Women, in fact, make up a disproportionate share of the population unable to speak at least one official language. That year, females made up 61% of all those who reported they could not carry on a

conversation in either English or French. This reflects, in part, the fact that older persons are much more likely than their younger counterparts not to be able to speak an official language, and women make up the majority of people in older age ranges.

While almost all Canadian women can speak one of the two official languages, a substantial number live in a household in which the primary language is not English or French. In 2001, one in 10 (10%) women spoke a language other than English or French in their homes. This figure, however, was almost the same as that for men. (Table 1.10)

Again, Chinese was the most common language spoken at home by Canadian women other than English or French. In 2001, over 350,000 women spoke Chinese most often at home, while 100,000 spoke Italian and another 100,000 spoke Punjabi. In addition, over 50,000 Canadian females spoke one of Arabic, Tagalog, Portuguese, Polish, German, Vietnamese, or Spanish.⁶

Religious affiliation of women

The large majority of women report some kind of religious affiliation. In 2001, 84% of all women aged 15 and over reported they were affiliated with some religious group. That year, 41% said they were Roman Catholic, while 25% reported they were affiliated with one of the Protestant denominations. At the same time, those reporting they were one of Jewish, Muslim, Hindu, Buddhist, or Sikh, or were affiliated with an Eastern Orthodox religion, made up a total of 5% of the overall adult female population. (Table 1.11)

Women are generally more likely than men to report a religious affiliation. In 2001, 84% of women, versus 78% of men, said they were affiliated with some religion. In contrast, women were less likely than men, 16% compared with 22%, not to report any religious affiliation.

Women are also more likely than their male counterparts to attend religious functions. In 2003, 51% of all women aged 15 and over, versus 43% of their male counterparts, indicated they attended religious activities at least a few times a year. Women are especially more likely than men to attend religious activities on a regular basis. That year, 21% of women aged 15 and over attended church or other religious activity at least once a week, compared with only 16% of men. (Table 1.12)

Notes

1. Projections are based on an assumption of medium growth in the population.
2. The senior female population is discussed in more detail in Chapter 11.
3. The immigrant female population is discussed in more detail in Chapter 9.
4. Females in a visible minority are discussed in more detail in Chapter 10.
5. The female Aboriginal population is discussed in more detail in Chapter 8.
6. Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.



Table 1.1

Total population, 1921 to 2004, and projections to 2051

	Females	Males	Total	Females as a percent of the population
	000s			
1921	4,258.2	4,529.2	8,787.4	48.4
1931	5,002.2	5,374.5	10,376.7	48.2
1941	5,606.1	5,900.6	11,506.7	48.7
1951	6,920.6	7,088.8	14,009.4	49.4
1956	7,928.9	8,151.9	16,080.8	49.3
1961	9,019.4	9,218.9	18,238.2	49.4
1966	9,960.5	10,054.3	20,014.9	49.8
1971 ¹	10,935.2	11,026.8	21,962.0	49.8
1976 ¹	11,726.0	11,723.8	23,449.8	50.0
1981 ¹	12,468.8	12,351.6	24,820.4	50.2
1986 ¹	13,149.1	12,952.1	26,101.2	50.4
1991 ²	14,136.7	13,894.6	28,031.4	50.4
1996 ²	14,960.0	14,650.8	29,610.8	50.5
2001 ²	15,656.8	15,364.4	31,021.3	50.4
2004 ²	16,129.8	15,816.5	31,946.3	50.4
Projections³				
2011	16,850.2	16,511.6	33,361.7	50.5
2021	17,850.4	17,531.4	35,381.7	50.4
2031	18,536.4	18,212.3	36,748.7	50.4
2041	18,745.4	18,359.5	37,104.9	50.5
2051	18,628.3	18,231.7	36,860.0	50.5

1. Adjusted for net census undercoverage and non-permanent residents.

2. Adjusted for net census undercoverage.

3. Projections based on assumptions of medium population growth.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Table 1.2

Population, by age, 2004¹

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of the age group
	000s	%	000s	%	
People aged					
Under 5	827.9	5.1	868.0	5.4	48.8
5 to 14	1,966.8	12.2	2,065.6	13.1	48.8
15 to 24	2,122.3	13.2	2,226.8	14.1	48.8
25 to 34	2,166.9	13.4	2,214.2	14.0	49.4
35 to 44	2,564.7	15.9	2,589.6	16.4	49.8
45 to 54	2,419.1	15.0	2,386.8	15.1	50.3
55 to 64	1,716.6	10.6	1,670.1	10.6	50.7
65 to 74	1,162.1	7.2	1,050.8	6.6	52.5
75 to 84	858.5	5.3	601.9	3.8	58.8
85 and over	324.9	2.0	142.8	0.9	69.4
Total aged 65 and over	2,345.5	14.5	1,795.4	11.4	56.6
Total	16,129.8	100.0	15,816.5	100.0	50.4

1. Adjusted for net census undercoverage.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Table 1.3

Population, by province and territory, 2004¹

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of the provincial/territorial population
	000s	%	000s	%	
Newfoundland and Labrador	262.9	1.6	254.1	1.6	50.9
Prince Edward Island	70.8	0.4	67.0	0.4	51.4
Nova Scotia	478.3	3.0	458.6	2.9	51.1
New Brunswick	380.5	2.4	370.8	2.3	50.6
Quebec	3,820.6	23.7	3,722.2	23.5	50.7
Ontario	6,273.3	38.9	6,119.4	38.7	50.6
Manitoba	589.4	3.7	580.8	3.7	50.4
Saskatchewan	501.1	3.1	494.3	3.1	50.3
Alberta	1,585.3	9.8	1,616.6	10.2	49.5
British Columbia	2,116.9	13.1	2,079.4	13.1	50.4
Yukon	15.5	0.1	15.7	0.1	49.7
Northwest Territories	20.7	0.1	22.1	0.1	48.3
Nunavut	14.4	0.1	15.3	0.1	48.4
Total	16,129.8	100.0	15,816.5	100.0	50.4

1. Adjusted for net census undercoverage.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Table 1.4

Urban/rural distribution of the female and male population, 2001¹

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of the population
	000s	%	000s	%	
Urban areas					
Census metropolitan areas ²	9,699.0	64.3	9,210.4	63.2	51.3
Census agglomerations ³	1,893.4	12.6	1,774.2	12.2	51.6
Other urban areas ⁴	516.9	3.4	492.0	3.4	51.2
Total urban	12,109.3	80.3	11,476.6	78.8	51.3
Rural					
Farm	329.9	2.2	368.2	2.5	47.3
Non-farm	2,635.6	17.4	2,719.4	18.7	49.2
Total rural	2,965.4	19.7	3,087.7	21.2	49.0
Total	15,074.8	100.0	14,564.3	100.0	50.9

1. Data are not adjusted for net census undercoverage and therefore are not directly comparable with other data in this chapter.

2. Includes urban areas with population of 100,000 and over.

3. Includes urban areas with population between 10,000 and 99,999.

4. Includes urban areas with population under 10,000.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.5

Proportion of the female and male population who made a residential move within the past five years, 2001

	Females		Males	
	000s	%	000s	%
Moved within same community	3,187.9	22.4	3,063.7	22.4
Moved within province	1,831.4	12.9	1,745.7	12.8
Interprovincial mover	450.9	3.2	454.8	3.3
External migrant	493.4	3.4	482.6	3.5
Total movers	5,963.5	41.9	5,746.8	42.0
Non-movers	8,279.6	58.1	7,942.7	58.0
Total	14,243.1	100.0	13,689.4	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.6

Population in the visible minority community, 2001

	Females			Males			Females as a percent of visible minority group
	000s	As a percent of all visible minority women	As a percent of all women in Canada	000s	As a percent of all visible minority men	As a percent of all men in Canada	
Chinese	530.0	26.0	3.5	499.4	25.7	3.4	51.4
South Asian	451.6	22.2	3.0	465.4	23.9	3.2	49.2
Black	346.1	17.0	2.3	316.1	16.2	2.2	52.3
Filipino	177.6	8.7	1.2	131.0	6.7	0.9	57.5
Latin American	111.2	5.4	0.7	105.7	5.4	0.7	51.3
Southeast Asian	100.6	4.9	0.7	98.3	5.1	0.7	50.6
Arab	88.7	4.4	0.6	105.9	5.4	0.7	45.6
West Asian	51.4	2.5	0.3	57.9	3.0	0.4	47.0
Korean	52.2	2.6	0.3	48.5	2.4	0.3	51.8
Japanese	40.0	2.0	0.3	33.3	1.7	0.2	54.6
Other visible minority	88.9	4.4	0.6	83.9	4.3	0.6	51.4
Total	2,038.3	100.0	13.5	1,945.5	100.0	13.4	50.8

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.7

Aboriginal identity population, 2001

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of population of Aboriginal group
	000s	As a percent of all women in Canada	000s	As a percent of all men in Canada	
North American Indian	314.4	2.1	294.4	2.0	51.6
Métis	146.1	1.0	146.2	1.0	50.0
Inuit	22.5	0.1	22.6	0.2	50.0
Other ¹	16.5	0.1	13.5	0.1	55.0
Total Aboriginal identity population	499.6	3.3	476.7	3.3	51.2

1. Includes multiple Aboriginal responses as well as those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indians and/or Band/First Nation members.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.8

Mother tongue of the female and male population,¹ 2001

	Females		Males	
	000s	%	000s	%
English	8,780.9	59.0	8,571.4	59.6
French	3,433.4	23.1	3,269.9	22.7
Non-official language	2,664.3	17.9	2,538.0	17.7
Total	14,878.6	100.0	14,379.3	100.0

1. Includes only single responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.9

Knowledge of official languages of the female and male population, 2001

	Females		Males	
	000s	%	000s	%
English only	10,048.4	66.7	9,966.2	68.4
French only	2,125.9	14.1	1,820.7	12.5
Bilingual	2,628.8	17.4	2,602.8	17.9
Neither official language	271.7	1.8	174.6	1.2
Total	15,074.8	100.0	14,564.3	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.10

Home language of the female and male population,¹ 2001

	Females		Males	
	000s	%	000s	%
English	10,025.4	66.5	9,749.3	66.9
French	3,292.0	21.8	3,155.6	21.7
Non-official language	1,486.1	9.9	1,402.4	9.6
Other ²	271.2	1.8	256.9	1.8
Total	15,074.8	100.0	14,564.3	100.0

1. Refers to the language most often spoken in the home.

2. Includes those speaking more than one language equally in the home.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 1.11

Religious affiliation of women and men aged 15 and over, 2003¹

	Women		Men
		%	
Roman Catholic	40.8		38.1
Protestant			
United Church	8.9		7.2
Anglican	7.1		5.4
Presbyterian	2.1		1.6
Lutheran	2.0		1.9
Baptist	2.8		2.2
Other Protestant	2.0		1.6
Total Protestant	24.8		20.0
Eastern Orthodox	0.9		0.8
Jewish	0.9		0.9
Muslim	1.4		2.1
Hindu	0.6		1.1
Buddhist	0.8		0.9
Sikh	0.7		0.9
Other/unknown ²	12.7		12.8
None	16.3		22.3
Total	100.0		100.0
Total number (000s)	12,972		12,582

1. Excludes residents of the three territories and institutional residents.

2. Includes not stated.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Table 1.12

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over attending religious activities, 2003¹

	Women		Men
		%	
Once a week or more	21.4		16.0
Once a month or more	11.7		10.2
A few times a year	18.1		17.2
Once a year	6.1		6.4
Not at all	18.8		17.6
Other ²	23.8		32.6
Total	100.0		100.0
Total number (000s)	12,972		12,582

1. Excludes residents of the three territories and institutional residents.

2. Includes those with no religious affiliation as well not stated.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Chapter 2

Family Status

By Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey

Most women live with their families

The vast majority of women in Canada live with members of their family.¹ In 2001, 83% of women aged 15 and over were living with either their immediate or extended family. In fact, the majority of women are living with their husband or partner. That year, almost half (48%) of all Canadian women aged 15 and over were living with their husband, while 9% were living in a common-law relationship. At the same time, another 9% of the female population over the age of 15 were lone parents, while 14% were daughters living at home with their parents, and 3% were living with members of their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son. (Table 2.1)

The proportion of women living with their family, however, has declined somewhat since the early 1970s. In 2001, 83% of the female population aged 15 and over was living with their family, down from 86% in 1981 and 89% in 1971.

There has been a particularly sharp drop in the proportion of women living with their spouse in the past couple of decades. In 2001, 48% of women aged 15 and over were partners in a husband-wife family, down from 56% in 1981. In the same period, though, the proportion of women living in a common-law union more than doubled, rising from just 4% in 1981 to 9% in 2001.

There has also been an increase in the proportion of women who are lone parents. In 2001, 9% of all women aged 15 and over were lone parents, up from 5% in the early 1970s. In contrast, the share of women living either at home with their parents or with members of the extended family has declined. Currently, 14% of the female population aged 15 and over is living at home with their parents, down from 17% in 1971, while the share living with the family of a son or daughter has fallen from 5% to 3% in the same period.

Overall, the female population is about as likely as their male counterparts to be living with their family. In 2001, 83% of women aged 15 and over were living with either their immediate or extended family, while the figure for males in this age range was 84%. Women, though, are generally less likely than men to be living with a spouse. That year, a total of 58% of all women aged 15 and over were either living with their spouse or a common-law partner, versus 61% of adult men. Females over the age of 15 are also somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to be living at home with their parents: 14% compared with 9%. On the other hand, a substantially larger share of women than men, 9% versus just 2%, are lone parents.

More women living alone

While the large majority of Canadian women live with their family, a growing proportion lives alone. In 2001, over one and a half million women, 14% of the total female population aged 15 and over, were living alone. Indeed, the share of adult women living alone has more than doubled since 1971 when less than 7% lived on their own.

As well, women are more likely to live alone than men. In 2001, 14% of women aged 15 and over, versus 11% of adult men, were living on their own. The share of both senior women and men living alone, though, has increased substantially over the past three decades.

Differences in family status by age

Not surprisingly, there is considerable variation in the family status of women in different age groups. Women between the ages of 25 and 64, for example, are much more likely than either younger women or seniors² to be living with their husband or common-law partner. In 2001, around 70% of women in both the 25 to 44 and 45 to 64 age categories were living with either their spouse or common-law partner. Indeed, a majority of women in both age groups were living with their husband. That year, 66% of women aged 45 to 64 were married, as were 55% of those aged 25 to 44. In contrast, only 43% of women aged 65 and over were married, while the figure was just 5% among those aged 15 to 24. In fact, women in the latter age range were almost twice as likely to be living with a common-law partner (9%) as they were to be married. (Table 2.2)

Women between the ages of 25 and 44 are the most likely women to be living in a common-law relationship. In 2001, 15% of these women were living with a common-law partner, compared with 9% of those aged 15 to 24, 7% of those aged 45 to 64 and just 1% of senior women.

Those aged 25 to 44 are also the most likely women to be lone parents. In 2001, 11% of women in this age range were lone parents, while the figure was 9% among those aged 45 to 64, 8% among senior women, and 3% among those in the 15 to 24 age range. In all age groups, though, women were far more likely than their male counterparts to be lone parents.

On the other hand, seniors are, by far, the most likely women to live alone. In 2001, 38% of all women aged 65 and over were living on their own, compared with just 13% of those aged 45 to 64, 7% of those aged 25 to 44, and just 3% of 15 to 24-year-olds.

As well, among seniors, women are considerably more likely than men to live alone. In 2001, 38% of women aged 65 and over, versus just 17% of men in this age range, lived alone. In contrast, a somewhat smaller share of women aged 25 to 44 than their male counterparts, 7% versus 12%, lived alone, while there was little difference in the likelihood of women and men aged either 15 to 25 or 45 to 64 to be living alone.

Senior women are also considerably more likely than their younger counterparts to live with members of their extended family. In 2001, 8% of women aged 65 and over lived in an extended family setting, versus 2% or less of women in other age groups. These senior women were also more likely than men aged 65 and over, 8% versus 3%, to be living with members of their extended family.

Marriage rate down

The long-term decline in the proportion of women who are spouses in a husband-wife family reflects, in part, the fact that there has been a substantial drop in the annual marriage rate in the last three decades. In 2002, there were only 4.7 marriages for every 1,000 people in Canada, down from around 6 marriages per 1,000 population in the early 1990s, 7 in the late 1980s, and 9 in the early 1970s. (Table 2.3)

Overall, there were just under 147,000 marriages in Canada in 2002. This represents a 7% decline in the total number of marriages in Canada in the two years since 2000. The current figure is also 27% less than the peak figure recorded in 1972, when there were slightly over 200,000 marriages.

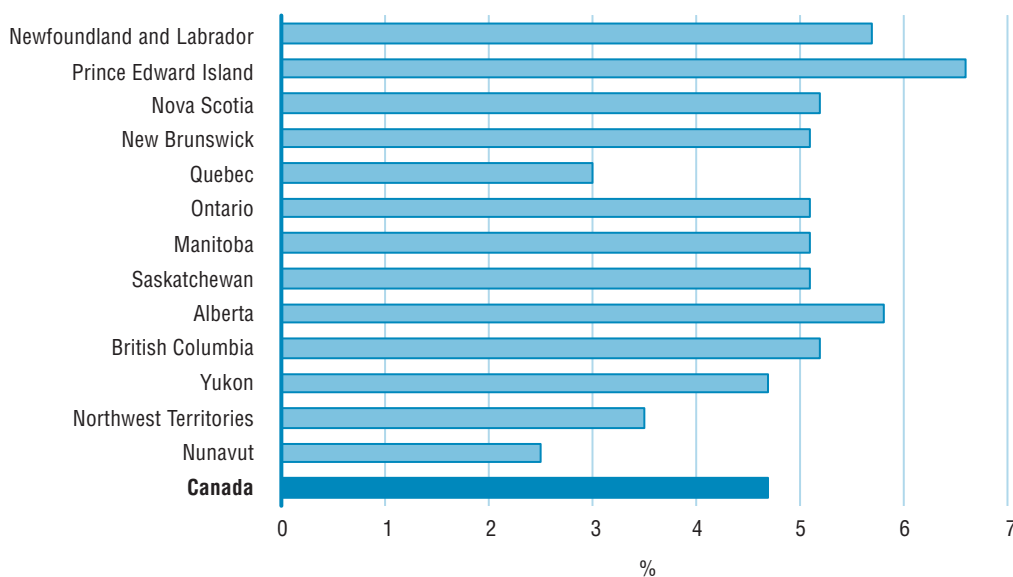
Canadians are also marrying at older ages than they did in the past. In 2002, the average age at first marriage for brides was 28 years, up from 26 in 1990 and 22 in 1971. In the same period, the average age at first marriage for grooms rose from 24 years in the early 1970s to around 30 today.

The one thing that has not changed significantly in this regard is the fact that women still tend to marry at younger ages than men. In 2002, first-time brides were, on average, 2 years younger than first-time grooms. Indeed, the gap between the ages at which women and men marry for the first time has consistently been around two years for over three decades.

There is also some variation in marriage rates across the country. People in Prince Edward Island, where there were 6.6 marriages per 1,000 people in 2002, are the most likely Canadians to marry. There were also close to 6 marriages per 1,000 population in both Newfoundland and Labrador and Alberta that year, while the figure was around 5 in most other provinces. (Chart 2.1)

Chart 2.1

Marriages per 1,000 population, by province and territory, 2002



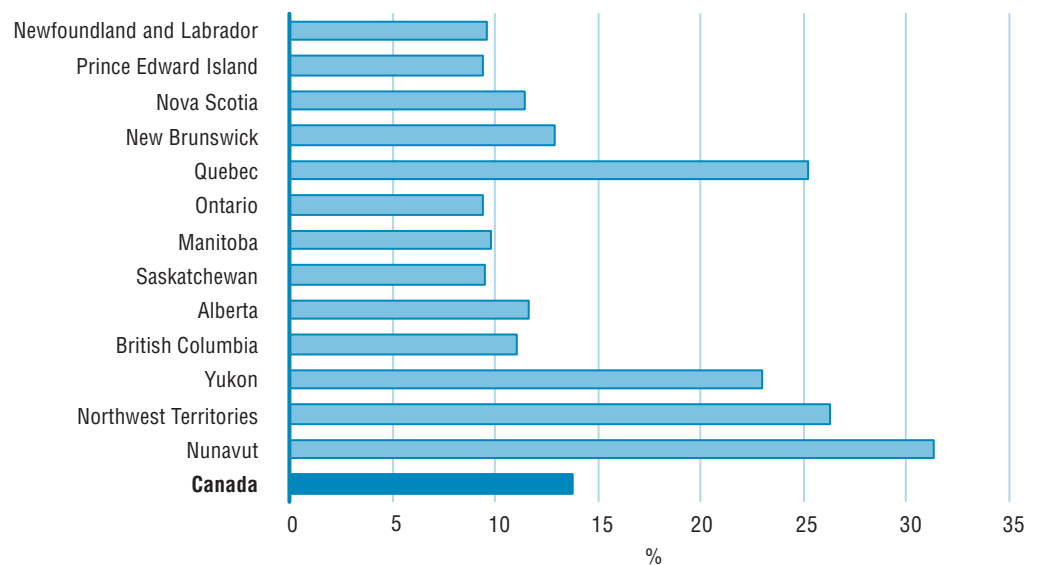
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84F0212-XPB.

The major exception to this pattern is in Quebec. In fact, there were only 3 marriages per 1,000 population in Quebec in 2002. Marriage rates were also relatively low in the territories where the figure ranged from 4.7 marriages per 1,000 people in the Yukon to just 2.5 in Nunavut.

The low marriage rate in Quebec is a reflection of the fact that a disproportionate share of couples in that province are part of a common-law union. Indeed, in 2001, one in four couples in Quebec (25%), almost twice the national rate of 14%, was living in a common-law relationship. In contrast, in the remaining provinces, the figure ranged from 13% in New Brunswick and 12% Alberta to under 10% in each of Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Newfoundland and Labrador. (Chart 2.2)

Chart 2.2

Common-law families as a percentage of all families, by province and territory, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Couples in the territories also tend to live in common-law unions. In 2002, over 30% of all couples in Nunavut were part of a common-law union, while the figure was 26% in the Northwest Territories and 23% in the Yukon.

While the overall marriage rate has fallen, more Canadians are marrying for a second or subsequent time. In 2002, for example, 24% of all brides were either divorced or widowed, up from around 20% in the early 1980s and less than 10% in the 1960s. The share of women marrying for a second or subsequent time, though, is currently about the same as that for men, among whom 25% of grooms in 2002 were marrying for at least the second time. (Table 2.4)

Divorced people account for all of the growth in the number of Canadians who are remarrying. Indeed, 22% of women who married in 2002 were divorced, up from around 15% in the early 1980s and just 4% in the 1960s. In contrast, the percentage of women marrying who are widowed has declined over the past four decades, falling from 5% in the early 1960s to just 3% today. In fact, in the early 1960s, a greater share of remarriages involved widowed rather than divorced women.

Divorce rate higher

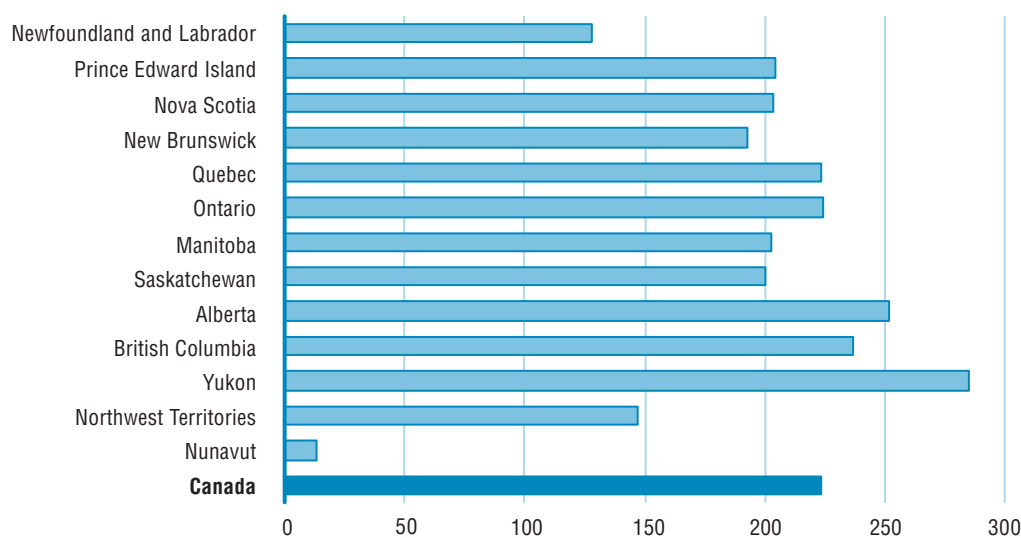
In contrast to the marriage rate, the incidence of divorce in Canada is currently much higher than it was in the late 1960s. This has resulted, in part, from revisions in the legislation regarding divorce in 1968, and again in 1985, which eased restrictions on marital dissolution. In 2003, there were 224 divorces for every 100,000 people in Canada, roughly four times the number in 1968 when there were just 55 divorces per 100,000 population. (Table 2.5)

Most of the long-term increase in the incidence of divorce in Canada, however, occurred in the 1970s. Between 1968 and 1982, for example, the number of divorces per 100,000 people rose from 55 to 280. There was also a substantial rise in the divorce rate following passage of the revised legislation in 1985. Since the late 1980s, though, the divorce rate has gradually declined. Indeed, the 2003 rate of 224 divorces per 100,000 population was down 3% from 2000; it was also 15% less than the figure in 1995 and 21% lower than that in 1990.

Divorce rates in Canada are highest in the two western-most provinces. In 2003, there were 252 divorces per 100,000 population in Alberta and 237 in British Columbia. In fact, these were the only two provinces in which the divorce rate was above the national figure of 224 divorces per 100,000 population. In contrast, in the remaining provinces, the figure ranged from 223 in Quebec to only 128 in Newfoundland and Labrador. (Chart 2.3)

Chart 2.3

Divorces per 100,000 population, by province and territory, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84F0213-XPB.

There are also major differences in divorce rates in the territories. There were, for example, 285 divorces per 100,000 people in the Yukon in 2003, the highest figure in all of Canada. On the other hand, the figure was just 147 in the Northwest Territories, while there were only 14 divorces per 100,000 population that year in Nunavut.

Growing numbers of female lone parents

The long-term increase in divorce rates has affected, in part, the growth in the number of women who are lone parents. Indeed, there were over 1 million female-headed lone-parent families in Canada in 2001, an increase of 13% since 1996. The current figure is also 35% higher than in 1991 and close to double the number in 1981. (Table 2.6)

The number of male lone parents has also grown in recent decades. In fact, there were almost a quarter of a million families headed by a male lone parent in 2001, a 28% increase from 1996. However, women continue to make up the large majority of lone parents. In 2001, 81% of all one-parent families were headed by women, a figure that has remained relatively constant since the mid-1970s.

Lone parent families, especially those headed by women, also account for an increasing share of all families with children in Canada. Indeed, one in five families with children in 2001 was headed by a female lone parent. The current figure of 20% is up from 16% in both 1986 and 1991; it is also double the number in 1971 when only 10% of Canadian families with children were headed by female lone parents.

The largest share of female lone parents are either divorced or separated from their spouse. In 2001, almost half of all female lone parents were either divorced (30%) or separated (19%). The share of female lone parents accounted for by divorced and separated women, though, has fallen in recent years. In 2001, 49% of all female lone parents were either divorced or separated, down from 54% in 1996. (Table 2.7)

In contrast, a growing proportion of female lone parents are single, never-married women raising children on their own. In 2001, 29% of female lone parents were single, up from 24% in 1996 and almost double the figure in 1986, when this was the case for only 15% of female lone parents. It should be noted, however, that many of these women may actually have been living in a common-law relationship at the time their children were born and these relationships have since ended.

As well, single, never-married lone parents of today tend to be older, on average, than their counterparts were in the past. In 2001, 30% of these lone parents were aged 35 to 44, up from 15% in 1981. In contrast, the proportion of single, never-married female lone parents aged 15 to 24 dropped from 38% to 20% in this period. (Chart 2.4)

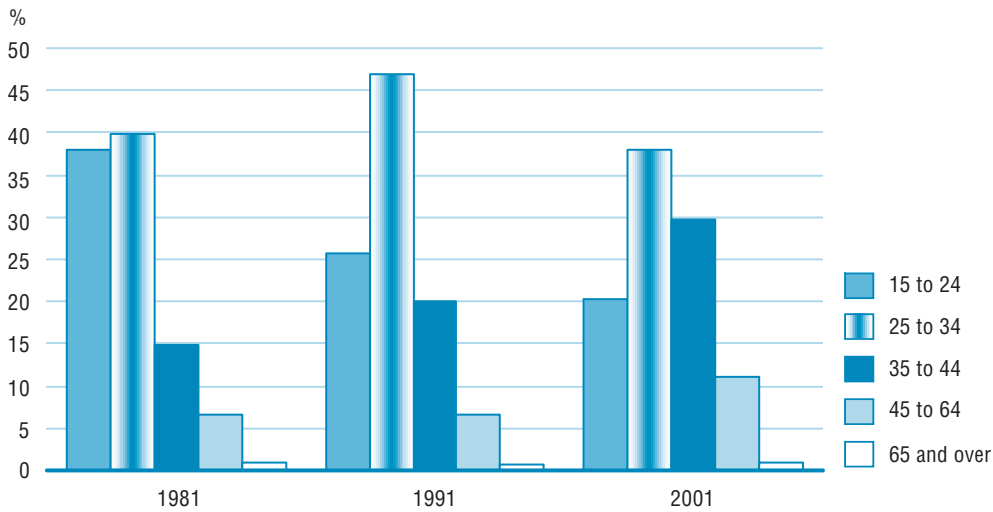
The largest share of single, never-married female lone parents, though, is aged 25 to 34. In 2001, 38% of all single, never-married lone mothers fell in the 25 to 34 age bracket. This figure, though, was down from 47% in 1991 and 40% in 1981.

There is also some variation in the prevalence of female-headed lone-parent families across the country. These families, though, account for a relatively large share of families with children in all provinces. In 2001, 23% of all families with children in Nova Scotia were lone-parent units headed by women, while the figure was 21% in each of British Columbia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Quebec, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, 19% in both Ontario and Newfoundland and Labrador, and 18% in Alberta. (Chart 2.5)

Lone-parent families headed by women also account for relatively large shares of families with children in the territories. In 2001, 24% of all families with children in the Yukon were headed by a female lone parent, while the figure was 22% in Nunavut and 21% in the Northwest Territories

Chart 2.4

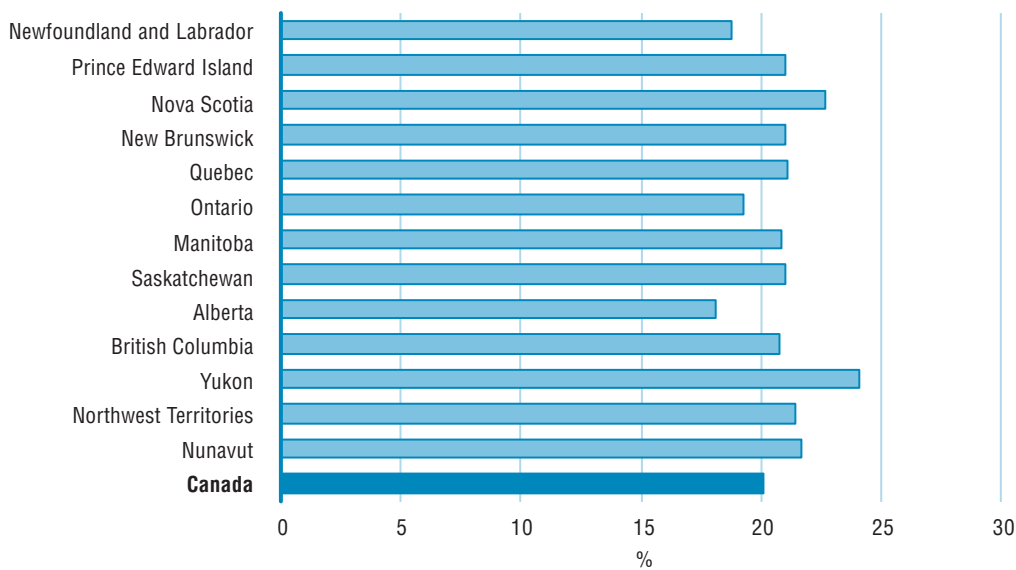
Age distribution of single, never-married female lone parents, 1981 to 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

Chart 2.5

Female-headed lone-parent families as a percentage of all families with children, by province and territory, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Custody of children in divorce

One reason why women make up such a large proportion of lone parents is that mothers get custody of the children much more often than fathers when marriages break down. Mothers, for example, were awarded sole custody in almost half (48%) of all custody decisions settled in court in 2003,³ whereas fathers were awarded sole custody in only 8% of these cases. (Table 2.8)

In recent years, though, there has been a dramatic shift toward joint-custody awards. Indeed, in 2003, 44% of all court-determined divorce cases resulted in a joint-custody settlement. This was more than double the figure in the mid-1990s and four times that as recently as the late 1980s. As a result, the share of sole custody awards to the mother has declined from over 70% in the late 1980s to 44% in 2003. Similarly, the share of custody awards to the father only has dropped from around 13% to just 8% in the same period.

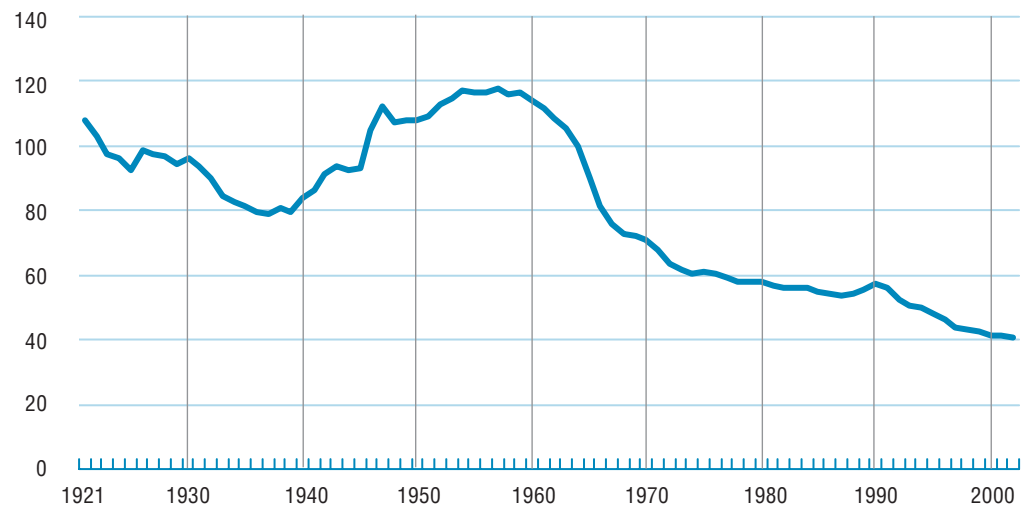
Low birth rates

One of the most dramatic trends in family life has been the decline in the birth rate among Canadian women over the course of the past four decades. In 2002, there were just 41 births for every 1,000 woman in Canada aged 15 to 49, barely a third the figure in 1959, when there were 116 births per 1,000 women in this age range. (Chart 2.6)

Most of the long-term decline in the birth rate, however, occurred in the 1960s. Between 1959 and 1970, for example, the birth rate dropped almost 40% from 116 births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49 to just 71. In contrast, there was little change in the birth rate over the course of the next two decades.

Chart 2.6

Births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49, 1921 to 2002¹



1. Data to 1985 do not include Newfoundland.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-210-XPE; and Health Statistics Division.

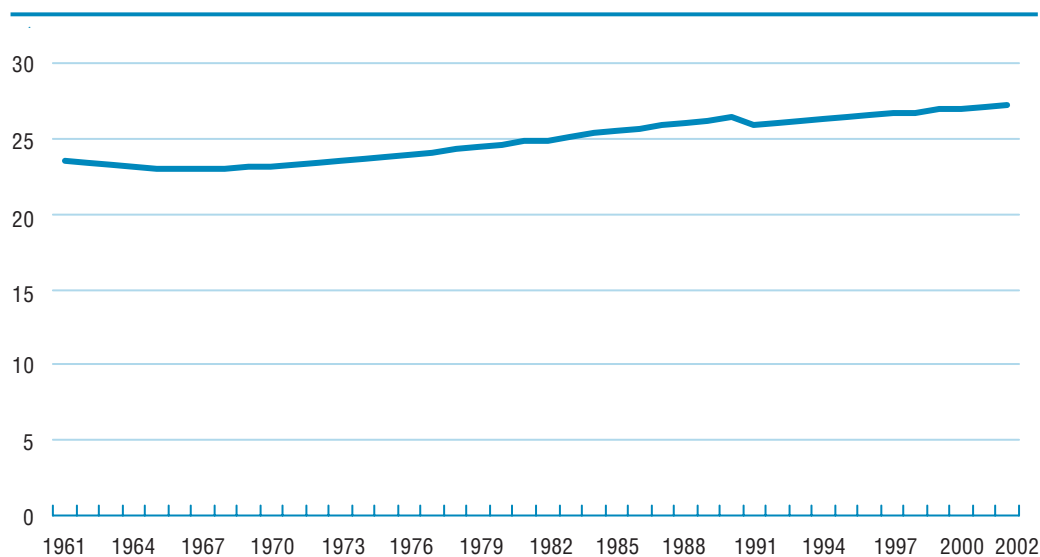
After close to two decades of stability, however, the birth rate in Canada has again edged downward in recent years. There were, for example, 41 births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49 in 2002, down from 44 in 1997. The current birth rate is also 29% lower than the 1990 figure of 57 births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49.

One reason for the lower birth rate among women is that many women are waiting longer to have their children than they did in the past. The average age of women at the birth of their first child in 2002 was just over 27 years, up from 26 in 1990 and 23 in the late 1960s. (Chart 2.7)

Women between the ages of 25 and 34 currently have the highest birth rate in Canada. In 2002, there were 98 children born for every 1,000 women aged 25 to 29 and 91 for those aged 30 to 34. In contrast, there were only 54 for every 1,000 women aged 20 to 24, 36 among women aged 35 to 39, and just 15 among teenagers. (Table 2.9)

Chart 2.7

Average age of mother at birth of first child, 1961 to 2002



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-553-XPB and 84-210-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

While women aged 25 to 29 have the highest birth rate of any 5-year age category, there has been a substantial long-term decline in the birth rates among women in this group in the past several decades. There were 98 births for every 1,000 women aged 25 to 29 in 2002, less than half the figure in the early 1960s when there were over 200 births for every 1,000 women in this age group. Of note, though, the birth rate among women in this age group has actually inched up ever so slightly during the early part of the 2000s.

There has been an even more precipitous decline in the birth rate among women aged 20 to 24 in the past four decades. There were, for example, just 54 births for every 1,000 women in this age group in 2002, down from around 100 in the mid-1970s and over 200 in the early 1960s. Indeed, women in this age range had the highest birth rate of any age group in the early 1960s, whereas the birth rate for women in this age range is currently barely half that of women aged 25 to 34.

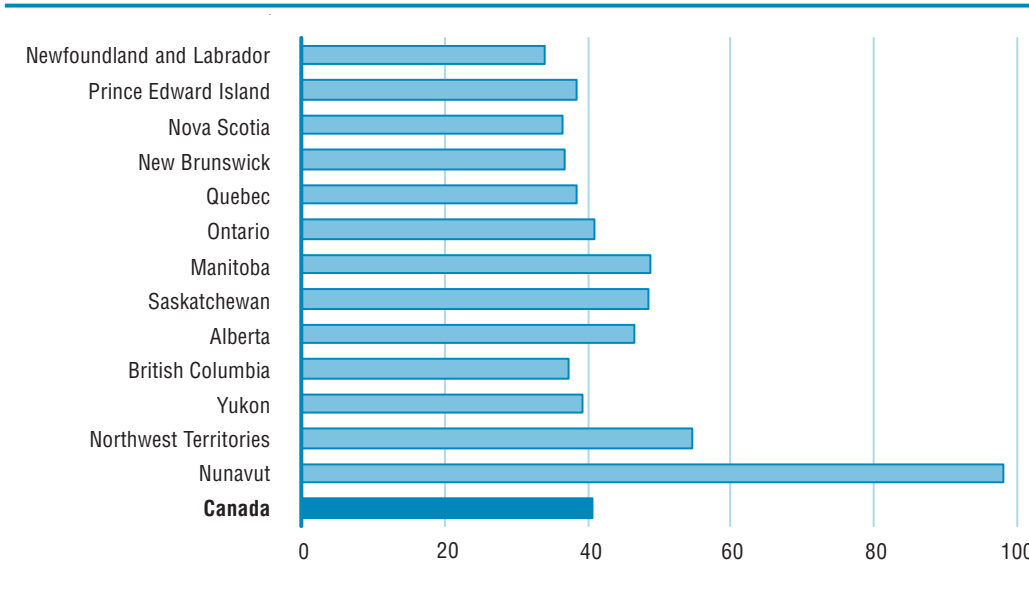
There has also been a dramatic long-term decline in the birth rate among teenaged women. In 2002, there were just 15 births for every 1,000 females aged 15 to 19, compared with almost 60 in 1961. As well, much of this decline has occurred in recent years. Indeed, the birth rate among teenaged women has dropped by 40% since 1994.

Birth rates also declined among women over the age of 30 in the 1960s and 1970s. In contrast to younger women, though, birth rates among women over the age of 30 have generally risen over the past quarter century. There were, for example, 91 births for every women aged 30 to 34 in 2002, up from around 65 in the mid-1970s. Similarly, among women aged 35 to 39, there were 36 births per 1,000 population in 2002, compared with a figure of less than 20 in the latter part of the 1970s.

There is also considerable variation in birth rates across the country. In 2002, there were almost 50 births for every 1,000 women aged 15 to 49 in each of Manitoba (49), Saskatchewan (48), and Alberta (46), while the figure in the remaining provinces ranged from 41 in Ontario to just 34 in Newfoundland and Labrador. (Chart 2.8)

Chart 2.8

Births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49, by province and territory, 2002



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Birth rates are also relatively high in the territories. Indeed, there were almost 100 births for every woman aged 15 to 49 in Nunavut in 2002. There were also 55 births per 1,000 woman aged 15 to 49 in the Northwest Territories that year. Both figures were well above the national rate of 41. In contrast, the birth rate in the Yukon, at 39 births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49, was slightly below the national figure.

Fewer children per family

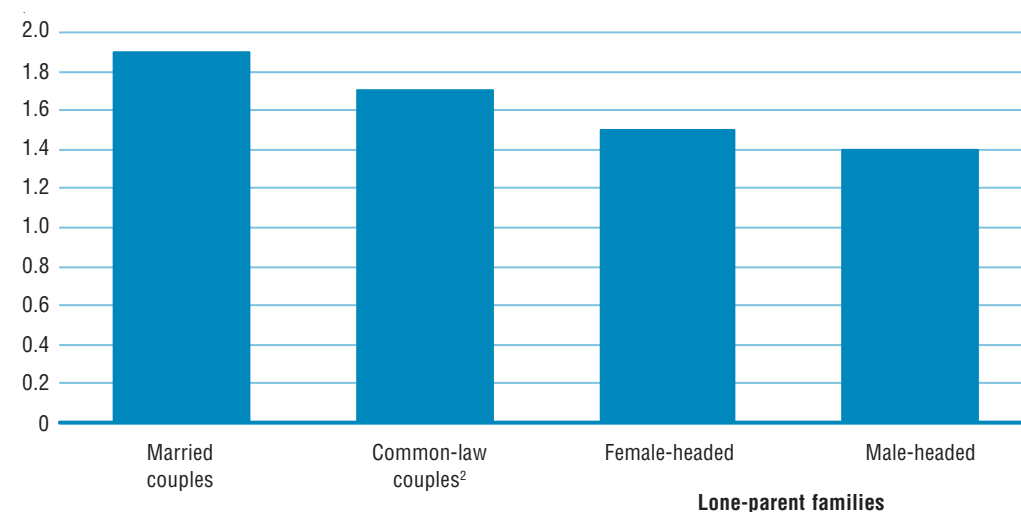
Partly as a result of the long-term decline in birth rates, Canadian families now have fewer children living at home than they did in the past. In 2001, there was an average of just 1.1 children living at home per family, down slightly from 1.2 a decade earlier. The current figure is also down from 1.4 children per family in 1981 and 1.8 in 1971. (Table 2.10)

The overall decline in the number of children per Canadian family, though, also reflects the fact that there has been an increase in the share of families without children living at home. Families without children living at home, which include both couples which have never had children, as well as empty-nesters whose children have left home, made up 37% of all families in 2001, up from 35% in 1991 and 27% in 1971.

Married-couple families generally have more children living at home than either common-law couples or lone-parent families headed by women. Of families with at least one child living at home in 2001, married-couple families had an average of 1.9 children at home, compared with 1.7 in common-law families and 1.5 in female-headed lone-parent households. (Chart 2.9)

Chart 2.9

Average number of children¹ living at home per family, by family type, 2001



1. Includes children who have been married.

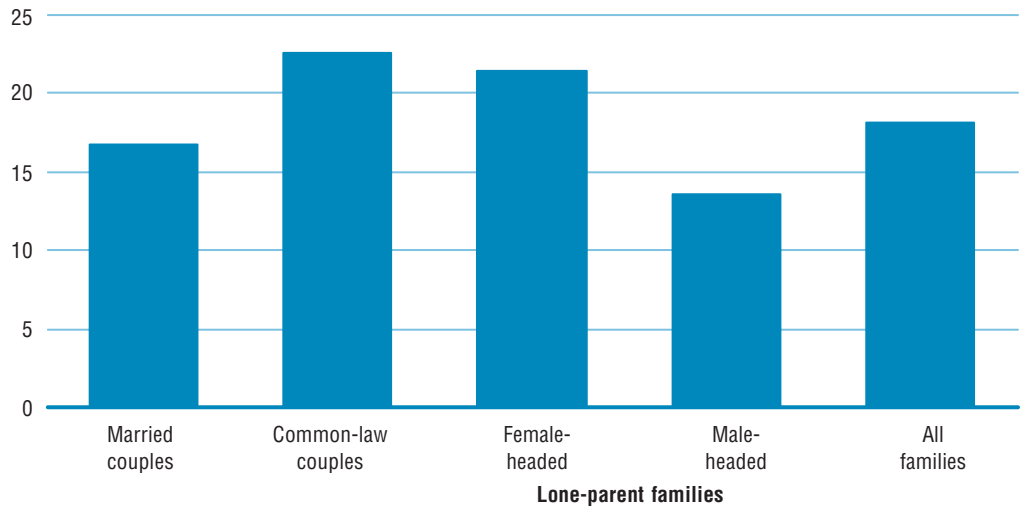
2. Includes same-sex couples.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Common-law families and families headed by female lone parents, though, are the most likely families to have young children. In 1996, 23% of families headed by a common-law couple and 21% of female lone parents had at least one child under age 6, compared with 17% of married-couple families and just 14% of lone-parent families headed by men. (Chart 2.10)

Chart 2.10

Percentage of families with children under age 6, by family type, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Overall, about one in five Canadian families have pre-school aged children. In 2001, 18% of all families had at least child under the age of six. This was down, however, from 21% just 5 years earlier.

Notes

1. In this context, family refers to a census family. Persons living with their family include spouses, either married or common law, lone parents, never-married children living at home, and those in an extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son. Persons not living with their family include those living alone or with unrelated persons.
2. More information on the family status of senior women is included in the chapter on Senior Women in Canada.
3. Note that these figures only include cases decided by the courts and do not include those in which custody arrangements were decided outside of court.

Table 2.1

Family status of women and men aged 15 and over, 1971 to 2001

	1971		1981		1991		2001	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Living with family								
With husband or wife	61.7	63.1	56.2	58.4	52.6	55.2	48.3	51.0
With common-law partner ¹	3.8	4.0	6.7	7.1	9.4	10.0
Lone parent	5.1	1.4	6.3	1.4	7.3	1.6	8.7	2.1
Child living with parents	17.1	22.4	15.7	20.9	13.2	18.0	14.0	19.0
Living with extended family members	5.3	3.8	4.3	3.4	3.9	3.1	2.6	1.9
Total living with family	89.2	90.7	86.3	88.1	83.7	85.0	83.0	84.0
Not living with family								
Living with non-relatives	4.2	4.9	3.2	4.3	3.9	5.6	3.3	4.7
Living alone	6.6	4.4	10.6	7.7	12.3	9.4	13.7	11.3
Total not living with family	10.8	9.3	13.8	12.0	16.2	15.0	17.0	16.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000s)	7,413.4	7,252.1	9,352.2	9,000.4	10,782.6	10,284.8	12,230.9	11,568.1

1. Prior to 1981, common-law families were included with married-couple families. In 2001, same-sex couples were included.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Table 2.2

Family status of women and men, by age, 2001

	People aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 64		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Living with family								
With husband or wife	4.8	1.9	54.9	49.4	65.7	70.9	43.2	73.5
With common-law partner ¹	9.2	5.1	15.3	16.2	6.7	8.4	1.2	2.8
Lone parent	3.4	0.4	11.3	2.2	8.7	3.0	8.0	2.2
Child living with parents	70.8	79.9	6.0	11.4	1.4	2.0	0.2	0.1
Living with extended family members	1.9	2.2	1.3	2.0	2.1	1.2	7.5	2.7
Total living with family	90.1	89.4	88.8	81.3	84.6	85.6	60.1	81.4
Not living with family								
Living with non-relatives	6.5	7.0	3.7	6.3	2.1	2.4	1.6	1.8
Living alone	3.4	3.4	7.4	12.4	13.3	11.9	38.3	16.8
Total not living with family	9.9	10.5	11.2	18.7	15.4	14.4	39.9	18.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000s)	1,945.2	2,022.3	4,596.8	4,417.0	3,670.1	3,544.5	2,018.8	1,584.4

1. Includes same-sex couples.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 2.3

Marriages and average age at first marriage, 1971 to 2002

	Number of marriages	Marriages per 1,000 population	Average age at first marriage	
			Women	Men
1971	191,324	8.9	22.1	24.4
1972	200,470	9.2	21.7	24.2
1973	199,064	9.0	21.8	24.2
1974	198,824	8.7	21.9	24.2
1975	197,585	8.5	22.6	24.9
1976	186,844	8.0	22.8	25.1
1977	187,344	7.9	22.9	25.2
1978	185,523	7.7	23.1	25.3
1979	187,811	7.8	23.2	25.4
1980	191,069	7.8	23.4	25.5
1981	190,082	7.7	23.6	25.7
1982	188,360	7.5	23.8	25.9
1983	184,675	7.3	24.1	26.2
1984	185,597	7.2	24.4	26.5
1985	184,096	7.1	24.7	26.7
1986	175,518	6.7	24.9	27.0
1987	182,151	6.9	25.3	27.4
1988	187,728	7.0	25.5	27.6
1989	190,640	7.0	25.8	27.8
1990	187,737	6.8	26.0	27.9
1991	172,251	6.1	26.2	28.2
1992	164,573	5.8	26.6	28.5
1993	159,316	5.6	26.8	28.7
1994	159,959	5.5	26.9	28.8
1995	160,251	5.5	27.1	29.0
1996	156,691	5.3	27.1	28.8
1997	153,306	5.1	26.9	28.9
1998	152,821	5.1	27.1	29.1
1999	155,742	5.1	27.3	29.3
2000	157,395	5.1	27.5	29.5
2001	146,618	4.7	27.7	29.7
2002	146,738	4.7	27.8	29.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-212-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 2.4

Marital status of brides and bridegrooms, 1961 to 2002

	Brides				Bridegrooms			
	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Total	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Total
	%							
1961	91.1	5.1	3.8	100.0	91.5	4.5	4.0	100.0
1962	91.2	4.9	3.9	100.0	91.6	4.4	4.0	100.0
1963	90.9	5.0	4.1	100.0	91.4	4.4	4.2	100.0
1964	91.1	4.8	4.1	100.0	91.4	4.2	4.4	100.0
1965	91.1	4.6	4.3	100.0	91.5	4.1	4.4	100.0
1966	91.3	4.4	4.3	100.0	91.4	4.0	4.6	100.0
1967	91.3	4.4	4.3	100.0	91.6	3.8	4.6	100.0
1968	91.3	4.3	4.4	100.0	91.6	3.7	4.7	100.0
1969	89.3	4.3	6.4	100.0	89.4	3.7	6.9	100.0
1970	88.9	4.2	6.9	100.0	88.8	3.6	7.6	100.0
1971	88.4	4.1	7.5	100.0	88.3	3.6	8.1	100.0
1972	88.4	3.9	7.7	100.0	88.1	3.5	8.4	100.0
1973	87.5	3.9	8.6	100.0	87.7	3.4	9.5	100.0
1974	86.6	3.8	9.6	100.0	85.8	3.4	10.7	100.0
1975	85.4	3.8	10.8	100.0	84.5	3.3	12.1	100.0
1976	84.2	3.8	11.9	100.0	83.3	3.3	13.3	100.0
1977	83.7	3.7	12.6	100.0	82.7	3.3	14.0	100.0
1978	83.0	3.5	13.4	100.0	81.9	3.2	14.9	100.0
1979	82.5	3.4	14.1	100.0	81.3	3.1	15.6	100.0
1980	82.1	3.2	14.7	100.0	80.7	3.1	16.2	100.0
1981	81.3	3.2	15.5	100.0	80.0	3.0	17.0	100.0
1982	81.2	2.9	15.9	100.0	79.4	2.9	17.7	100.0
1983	80.1	2.9	17.0	100.0	78.5	2.8	18.7	100.0
1984	79.7	3.2	17.1	100.0	78.0	3.0	19.0	100.0
1985	79.7	2.9	17.4	100.0	78.2	2.9	18.9	100.0
1986	78.9	2.9	18.2	100.0	78.4	2.9	18.7	100.0
1987	76.5	3.4	20.1	100.0	76.0	3.1	20.9	100.0
1988	76.7	3.0	20.3	100.0	76.2	2.9	21.0	100.0
1989	76.7	3.1	20.2	100.0	76.4	2.9	20.7	100.0
1990	77.4	2.9	19.7	100.0	76.5	2.7	20.8	100.0
1991	77.6	2.9	19.5	100.0	76.6	2.8	20.6	100.0
1992	77.1	3.0	19.9	100.0	76.3	2.9	20.9	100.0
1993	76.9	2.9	20.2	100.0	76.0	2.9	21.1	100.0
1994	76.7	2.9	20.4	100.0	76.0	2.9	21.2	100.0
1995	76.2	2.9	20.9	100.0	75.7	2.8	21.5	100.0
1996	75.5	3.0	21.5	100.0	75.0	3.0	22.0	100.0
1997	75.6	2.9	21.5	100.0	75.1	2.9	21.9	100.0
1998	75.5	2.9	21.6	100.0	75.1	2.8	22.1	100.0
1999	75.6	2.8	21.6	100.0	75.1	2.8	22.1	100.0
2000	75.0	2.9	22.1	100.0	74.5	2.8	22.7	100.0
2001	75.2	2.9	21.8	100.0	75.0	2.9	22.1	100.0
2002	75.6	2.8	21.6	100.0	75.0	2.8	22.2	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-212-XPB.

Table 2.5

Number of divorces and divorce rate, 1968 to 2003

Year	Number of divorces	Divorces per 100,000 population
1968	11,343	54.8
1969	26,093	124.2
1970	29,775	139.8
1971	29,685	137.6
1972	32,389	148.4
1973	36,704	166.1
1974	45,019	200.6
1975	50,611	222.0
1976	54,207	235.8
1977	55,370	237.7
1978	57,155	243.4
1979	59,474	251.3
1980	62,019	259.1
1981	67,671	278.0
1982	70,430	279.5
1983	68,565	269.3
1984	65,170	253.6
1985	61,976	238.9
1986	78,304	298.8
1987	96,200	362.3
1988	83,507	310.5
1989	80,998	295.8
1990	78,463	282.3
1991	77,020	273.9
1992	79,034	277.9
1993	78,226	270.2
1994	78,880	269.7
1995	77,636	262.2
1996	71,528	241.1
1997	67,408	224.7
1998	69,088	228.4
1999	70,910	232.5
2000	71,144	231.2
2001	71,110	229.2
2002	70,155	223.7
2003	70,828	223.7

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-003-XPB and 84-213-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 2.6

Lone-parent families, 1961 to 2001

	Female-headed		Male-headed		Women as a percent of lone parents
	000s	As a percent of all families with children	000s	As a percent of all families with children	
1961	272.2	9.0	75.2	2.5	78.4
1966	300.4	9.0	71.5	2.2	80.8
1971	378.1	10.4	100.7	2.8	79.0
1976	464.3	11.6	95.0	2.4	83.0
1981	589.8	13.7	124.2	2.9	82.6
1986	701.9	15.5	151.7	3.3	82.2
1991	786.4	16.4	168.2	3.5	82.4
1996	945.2	18.5	192.3	3.8	83.1
2001	1,065.4	20.1	245.8	4.6	81.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 93-312-XPB; and Census of Canada.

Table 2.7

Marital status of lone parents, 1981 to 2001

	Female lone parents					Male lone parents				
	1981	1986	1991	1996	2001	1981	1986	1991	1996	2001
Single, never married ¹	11.1	15.0	19.4	24.2	28.5	4.1	6.3	8.1	11.9	21.7
Separated	25.3	24.0	21.0	20.6	19.0	26.6	26.2	22.2	24.8	22.9
Divorced	26.3	30.0	32.6	33.1	29.6	25.7	30.9	33.2	39.8	34.4
Widowed	33.3	27.4	23.4	20.1	20.8	30.1	24.7	20.6	19.3	17.4
Married, but spouse not present	4.0	3.7	3.6	1.9	2.0	13.4	12.0	15.9	4.2	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of lone parents (000s)	589.4	701.8	788.4	945.2	1,065.4	124.4	151.4	165.2	192.3	245.8

1. Includes those who lived in a now-terminated common-law relationship at the time that their children were born.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Table 2.8

Custody of children involved in divorces,¹ 1978 to 2003

	Custody given to						Total divorces involving custody decisions
	Mother	Father	Joint	Other person/agency	No award/unknown	Total	
	%						
1978	78.7	15.6	--	0.3	5.4	100.0	59,436
1979	78.8	15.8	--	0.2	5.3	100.0	57,856
1980	78.2	16.0	--	0.2	5.5	100.0	59,600
1981	77.9	15.8	--	0.3	6.0	100.0	62,434
1982	77.1	15.6	--	0.2	6.9	100.0	65,441
1983	74.9	15.7	--	0.2	9.1	100.0	64,221
1984	74.3	15.5	--	0.2	10.0	100.0	60,063
1985	72.8	15.2	--	0.3	11.8	100.0	56,336
1986	71.9	15.3	1.2	0.4	11.2	100.0	60,450
1987	74.7	13.6	7.4	0.2	4.0	100.0	53,699
1988	75.8	12.9	10.1	0.3	1.0	100.0	50,249
1989	74.1	12.8	12.4	0.2	0.4	100.0	50,333
1990	73.2	12.3	14.1	0.2	0.2	100.0	48,525
1991	73.6	11.8	14.2	0.2	0.1	100.0	49,868
1992	71.9	11.7	16.0	0.1	0.3	100.0	49,019
1993	70.9	11.4	17.4	0.2	0.1	100.0	48,169
1994	69.6	9.8	20.4	0.1	--	100.0	47,667
1995	67.6	10.9	21.4	0.2	--	100.0	47,118
1996	63.2	12.1	24.5	0.2	--	100.0	43,844
1997	61.3	11.0	27.6	0.1	--	100.0	39,204
1998	59.5	9.5	30.4	0.4	--	100.0	37,851
1999	56.8	9.3	33.8	0.2	--	100.0	38,433
2000	53.5	9.1	37.2	0.2	--	100.0	37,096
2001	51.2	9.0	39.7	0.2	--	100.0	36,660
2002	49.5	8.5	41.8	0.2	--	100.0	35,153
2003	47.7	8.3	43.8	0.2	--	100.0	33,098

1. Refers only to cases decided in court.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-003S16-XPB, 82-003S17-XPB, 84-205-XPB and 84-213-XPB.

Table 2.9

Age-specific birth rates, 1961 to 2002¹

	Births per 1,000 women aged						
	15 to 19 ²	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44	45 to 49 ³
1961	58.2	233.6	219.2	144.9	81.1	28.5	2.4
1962	55.0	231.6	214.6	143.1	77.1	27.6	2.1
1963	53.1	226.0	210.6	140.3	75.8	25.9	2.1
1964	50.2	212.8	203.1	134.9	72.0	25.1	2.1
1965	49.3	188.6	181.9	119.4	65.9	22.0	2.0
1966	48.2	169.1	163.5	103.3	57.5	19.1	1.7
1967	45.2	161.4	152.6	91.8	50.9	15.9	1.5
1968	43.0	152.6	148.7	86.3	44.8	13.8	1.4
1969	42.2	147.7	149.8	85.0	42.6	12.5	1.1
1970	42.8	143.3	147.2	81.8	39.0	11.3	0.9
1971	40.1	134.4	142.0	77.3	33.6	9.4	0.6
1972	38.5	119.8	137.1	72.1	28.9	7.8	0.6
1973	37.2	117.7	131.6	67.1	25.7	6.4	0.4
1974	35.3	113.1	131.1	66.6	23.0	5.5	0.4
1975	34.8	108.4	128.8	64.2	21.4	4.8	0.4
1976	33.0	104.5	126.4	63.8	20.9	4.3	0.3
1977	31.5	102.9	125.5	65.4	20.2	3.6	0.3
1978	29.3	98.9	123.3	65.5	18.8	3.5	0.3
1979	27.4	97.5	125.4	67.1	19.1	3.3	0.2
1980	27.0	95.2	124.1	66.6	19.0	3.0	0.2
1981	25.9	91.4	123.2	66.7	19.1	3.2	0.2
1982	26.1	90.5	120.4	67.3	19.9	3.1	0.2
1983	24.6	88.1	119.9	69.1	20.2	3.0	0.2
1984	24.0	84.9	121.1	71.5	21.2	2.9	0.1
1985	23.3	81.5	120.7	72.4	21.6	3.0	0.1
1986	23.0	78.7	119.0	72.5	22.3	3.1	0.1
1987	22.8	76.1	116.7	73.2	23.2	3.3	0.2
1988	23.0	76.6	117.8	75.5	24.7	3.6	0.2
1989	24.6	78.5	119.4	79.6	26.0	3.7	0.1
1990	25.5	79.2	122.6	83.5	27.7	3.8	0.1
1991	26.0	77.5	120.3	83.6	28.3	3.9	0.2
1992	25.7	75.0	119.4	85.3	28.9	4.2	0.1
1993	25.0	73.0	114.7	84.9	29.5	4.4	0.2
1994	25.1	72.2	114.0	86.0	30.4	4.7	0.1
1995	24.5	70.5	109.7	86.8	31.3	4.8	0.2
1996	22.3	68.4	109.1	87.0	32.6	5.1	0.2
1997	20.2	64.1	103.9	84.4	32.5	5.2	0.2
1998	20.0	63.2	101.6	84.6	32.8	5.2	0.2
1999	18.9	61.0	100.2	85.9	33.7	5.5	0.2
2000	17.3	58.3	96.8	85.1	33.9	5.9	0.2
2001	16.3	56.1	97.9	89.9	35.5	6.1	0.3
2002	15.0	54.0	97.5	90.9	36.4	6.2	0.2

1. Data to 1990 do not include Newfoundland.

2. Includes births to those under age 15.

3. Includes births to those aged 49 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-210-XPB.

Table 2.10

Families with children and average number of children per family, 1971 to 2001¹

	Families			Children living at home per family
	With children living at home	Without children living at home ³	Total	
		%		
1971	73.2	26.8	100.0	1.8
1976	69.9	30.1	100.0	1.6
1981	68.2	31.8	100.0	1.4
1986	67.3	32.7	100.0	1.3
1991	64.9	35.1	100.0	1.2
1996	65.2	34.8	100.0	1.2
2001 ²	63.4	36.5	100.0	1.1

1. Refers to families with children living at home.

2. In 2001, the definition of children living at home was changed to include those who had married. As well, same-sex couples were counted as families.

3. Includes families who have never had children as well as those whose children have left home.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 92-935-XPB, 93-312-XPB and 93-823-XPB; and Census of Canada.

Chapter 3

Health

By *Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey*

A key determinant of well-being

Throughout their lives – as children, adults and seniors – women face life conditions and health issues specific to their biology and social circumstances. Women’s health involves their emotional, social, physical and spiritual well-being and is determined by a complex combination of the various determinants of health: income and social status, education and literacy, employment and working conditions, social and physical environments, personal health practices and coping skills, healthy child development, biology and genetic endowment, health services, culture and gender. The distinction and interrelationship between “sex” including biology, physiology, genetics, and “gender” including social roles, relationships, relative power, and self-definitions, are important considerations when examining women’s health status in Canada.

It is also essential to recognize the diversity among the women of Canada when presenting a statistical profile of their health. Women’s health experiences differ within and between social groups. For example, immigrant women, Aboriginal women, women in remote and rural areas, women with disabilities, women living in low-income situations, and lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered women have differential access to health services and differing health care needs. As well, women make up a substantial majority of the very oldest Canadians, a population that is generally the most susceptible to serious health problems. Women are also the primary providers of health care in Canada, either as health professionals themselves, or as family members providing care and assistance to sick or elderly relatives, friends, or neighbours.

Women’s self-perceived health

The large majority of the female population living at home describe their general health in positive terms.¹ Indeed, in 2003, 88% of the female population aged 12 and over said their health was either excellent (22%), very good (36%) or good (30%). However, 12% reported their health was either fair or poor. (Table 3.1)

Not surprisingly, the likelihood of women having fair or poor health rises with age. In 2003, 32% of women aged 75 and over² reported their health status as only fair or poor, while the figure was 23% among those aged 65 to 74, 19% among those aged 55 to 64 and 13% among 45 to 54-year-olds. In contrast, the share of younger women who said their health was only fair or poor that year was under 10%.

As well, women are slightly more likely than men to describe their health in negative terms. In 2003, 12% of the female population aged 12 and over, versus 10% of their male counterparts, described their health status as either fair or poor. Part of this difference



simply reflects the fact that there are more senior women than men in Canada and that people aged 65 and over are the most likely to report poor health. Indeed, senior women are about as likely as their male counterparts to indicate that their health status is only fair or poor. In most other age ranges, though, women are somewhat more likely than men to report their health status in negative terms.

Women with chronic health conditions

While most women report that their overall health is relatively good, a substantial number have a chronic health condition as diagnosed by a health professional. In many cases, these chronic health problems can have a major effect on quality of life, including the limiting of activities, hospitalizations and even death. In 2003, 74% of the female population aged 15 and over living in a private household had at least one such chronic health condition, compared with 64% of their male counterparts. (Table 3.2)

The proportion of women who report chronic or degenerative health problems rises with age, although the majority of women in all age ranges indicate they have at least one chronic health condition. In 2003, 94% of women aged 75 and over, 91% of those aged 65 to 74 and 87% of those aged 55 to 64 reported they had at least one chronic health problem as diagnosed by a health professional. In younger age groups, the share of women reporting they suffered from a chronic condition ranged from 77% among those aged 45 to 54 to 60% of those aged 15 to 24. In addition, women in all age groups were more likely than their male contemporaries to report health problems.

Non-food allergies, arthritis and rheumatism, and back problems are the health problems most frequently reported by women. In 2003, 32% of the female population reported they suffered from non-food allergies, while 22% indicated they had arthritis or rheumatism and another 22% suffered from back problems. At the same time, 16% of women reported they suffered from high blood pressure and 15% had recurring migraines, while smaller percentages reported suffering from food allergies (10%), asthma (10%), diabetes (5%), or heart disease (5%).

Women are also more likely than men to report most of these chronic health conditions. For example, in 2003, women were two and a half times more likely than men to report suffering from recurring migraines. That year, 15% of females aged 15 and over, versus only 6% of males in this age range, had migraines. At the same time, 32% of women, versus 23% of men, reported they had non-food allergies, while 22% of females, compared with 13% of males, had arthritis or rheumatism.

Senior women are generally more likely to report suffering from chronic health conditions than their younger counterparts. Indeed, in 2003, over half of women aged 65 and over reported suffering from arthritis/rheumatism, while close to 50% had high blood pressure, whereas this was the case for much smaller percentages of females in age groups under age 65. On the other hand, the incidence of non-food allergies is higher among younger females than among those in older age ranges.

Women with disabilities

Women make up the majority of the Canadian population with disabilities.³ In 2001, 54% of those who had a disability were women, whereas females accounted for only 51% of the total population. That year, 13.3% of Canadian females had a disability, compared with 11.5% of the male population. (Table 3.3)

The likelihood of women having disabilities increases with age. In 2001, 42% of all women aged 65 and over had a disability. This was almost twice the figure among women

aged 55 to 64, 22% of whom had a disability, and well above the figures for women in younger age groups. That year, for example, 12% of women between the ages of 35 and 54, 5% of those aged 15 to 34, and just 3% of those under the age of 15 were considered to have a disability.

The prevalence of disabilities also increases among women in older age groups in the senior population. Indeed, in 2001, 72% of all women aged 85 and over had disabilities, while the figures were 50% among women aged 75 to 84 and 32% for women aged 65 to 74.

As reported in the chapter on women with disabilities, the largest proportion of women with disabilities have a mild disability. Nevertheless, a substantial share - 14% in 2001 - of women aged 15 and over with disabilities had a severe disability. That year, just over 800,000 women, nearly 7% of all women aged 15 and over, had disabilities which were considered severe or very severe.

Senior women are more likely than their younger counterparts to have a severe disability. In 2001, 6% of all women aged 65 and over had a very severe disability, while 12% had a severe disability. These figures were about twice those for women aged 55 to 64 and well above those for females in younger age groups.

High life expectancy

Females in Canada have a longer life expectancy than males. Female children born in 2001, for example, could expect to live an average of 82 years, whereas the average life expectancy of male children born that year was just 77 years. (Table 3.4)

There has been a dramatic increase in the life expectancy of the female population in Canada since the early part of the last century. The life expectancy at birth for female children born in 2001 was 82 years, compared with 79 years for those born in 1981, 74 years for those born in 1961 and just 61 years for those born in 1921.

As well, long-term increases in the life expectancy of females over the course of the past century have been greater than those for males. Indeed, the life expectancy at birth of females born in 2001 was almost 22 years longer than that for a female born in 1921, whereas the life expectancy of males rose by only 18 years in the same period. As a result, in 2001, newborn female children could expect to live, on average, 5 years longer than their male counterparts, whereas in 1921 the gap was less than 2 years.

The long-term trend in the life expectancies of females and males, however, masks the fact that since 1981, gains in life expectancy among females have only been about half those experienced by males. Indeed, between 1981 and 2001, the life expectancy of newborn females increased by over three years, whereas the figure among males was up 5 years in the same period.

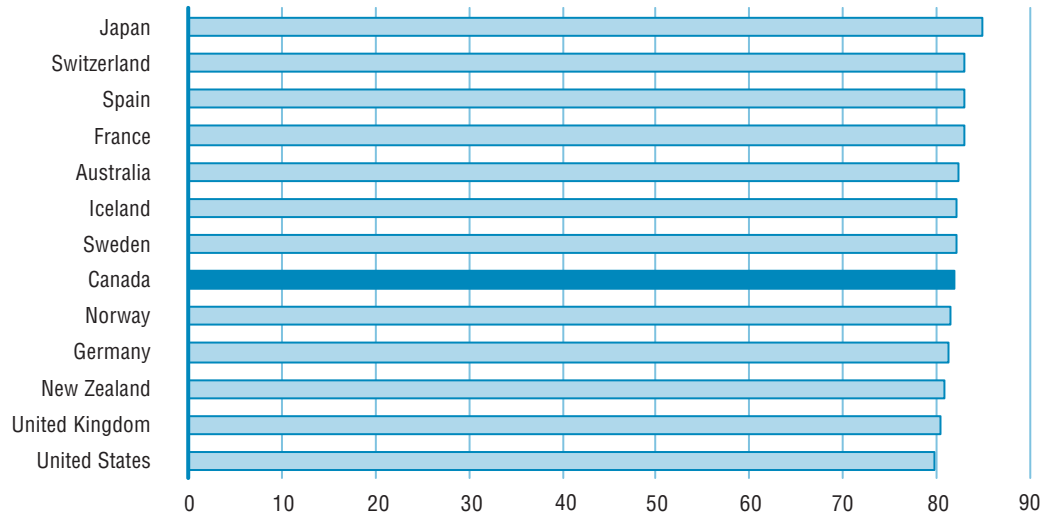
Compared with other industrialized nations, the life expectancy of females in Canada is somewhere in the middle. Female children born in Canada in 2001 could expect to live, on average, 82 years; this was almost three years less than their counterparts in Japan and a year less than those in Switzerland, Spain and France. On the other hand, the life expectancy of females in Canada is two years greater than that for females in both the United Kingdom and the United States. (Chart 3.1)

When measuring life expectancy, it is important to note that measures of life expectancy are not necessarily indicators of quality of life. As discussed in the chapter on seniors, women aged 65 and over are particularly likely to live alone and to have low incomes, or to have chronic or degenerative health problems.



Chart 3.1

Life expectancy of females at birth in selected OECD countries, 2001



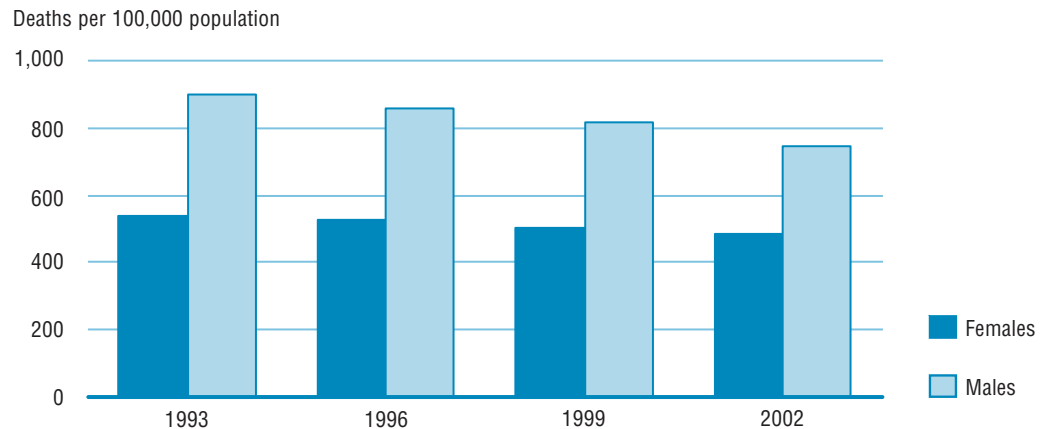
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division; and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Lower death rates

The long-term increase in the life expectancy of females is a reflection of declines in the female death rate in recent decades. Overall, in 2002, there were 110,000 deaths among the female population. This represented 486 deaths for every 100,000 females, down 10% from the figure in 1993, once the effect of changes in the age structure of the female population was factored in.⁴ The decline in the age-standardized death rate for women in this period, though, was somewhat smaller than that among men for whom the age-standardized death rate declined 17% between 1993 and 2002. (Chart 3.2)

Chart 3.2

Age-standardized death rates¹ for females and males, 1993 to 2002



1. Figures are age-standardized to the 1991 population.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Age-standardized death rates among females, though, are still considerably lower than they are among males. In 2002, there were 486 deaths per 100,000 females, 54% lower than the figure of almost 750 deaths per 100,000 males.

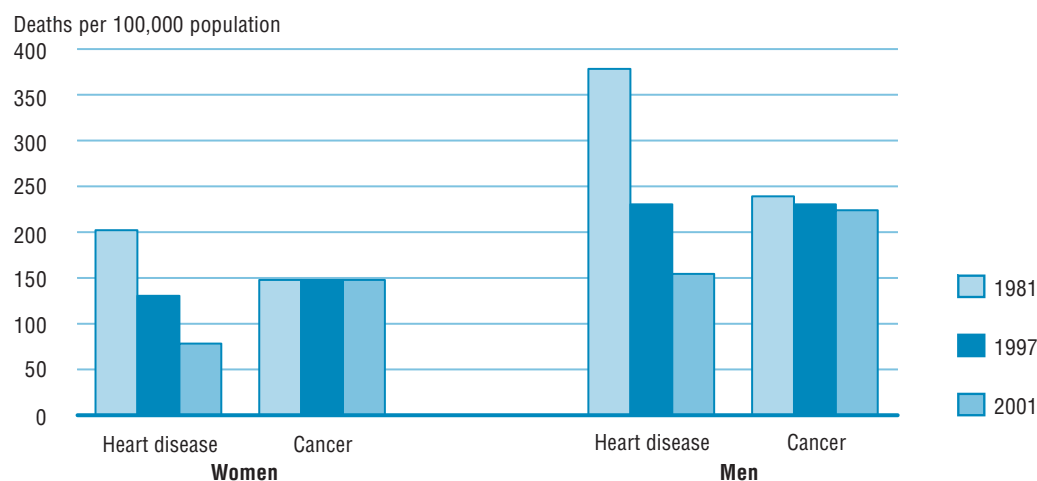
Leading causes of death among women

Heart disease and cancer are the leading causes of death among women. Indeed, these two causes accounted for over half of all female deaths in 2002. That year, 28% of all female deaths were as a result of cancer, while 23% were from heart disease. At the same time, 8% of female deaths that year were attributed to cerebrovascular disease, while another 8% were the result of respiratory diseases. (Table 3.5)

There have, however, been considerable differences in the long-term trends for heart disease and cancer deaths among the female population in the past two decades. On the one hand, the age-standardized death rate due to heart disease among women was 61% lower in 2001 than in 1981, whereas there was no change in the cancer death rate among women in the same period. (Chart 3.3)

Chart 3.3

Cancer and heart disease death rates,^{1,2} 1981, 1997 and 2001



1. Figures are age-standardized to the 1991 population.
2. Data on heart disease for 1981 and 1997 use ICD-9 codes 390-398, 402, 404, and 410-429; for 2001 they use ICD-10 codes I00-I09, I11, 113, and I20-I51.
Data on cancer for 1981 and 1997 use ICD-9 codes 140-208 and for 2001, they use ICD-10 codes C00-C97.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

There have, in fact, been declines in deaths due to heart disease among both the female and male populations in the past two decades. Indeed, for the most part, these declines have mirrored each other. The death rate due to heart disease among women, though, is currently only about half that for men.

It should also be noted that there are differences in some of the major characteristics of heart disease in the female and male populations. Women tend to experience a wider range of symptoms; they are less likely than men to be investigated and treated for the disease with medication, surgery and other interventions; and they generally have poorer

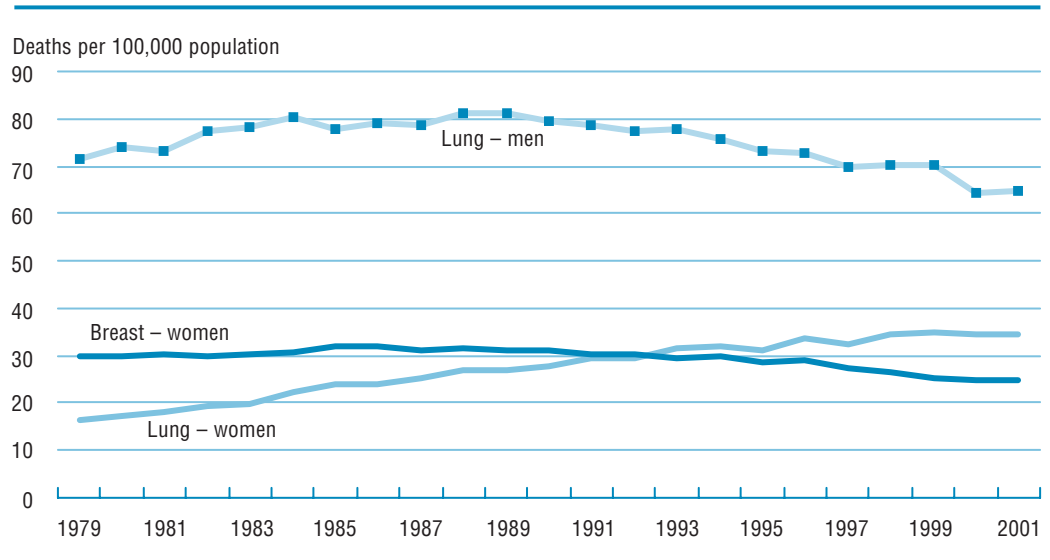
health outcomes. There are also gender differences in the risk factors for heart disease, including hypertension, cholesterol levels, cigarette smoking, diabetes, depression, lack of physical activity and obesity. Some of these, such as hypertension, diabetes and depression, pose greater risks for women than to men. As well, populations such as Aboriginal women and South Asian women tend to be more vulnerable to this health condition.

While the death rate from cancer among females has changed little in the past two decades, the rate among men has fallen, albeit slowly. Still, the cancer death rate among females is currently 50% lower than that of males.

There have also been different trends in mortality rates from various cancer types among women in the past two decades. For example, the death rate due to lung cancer for females in 2001 was more than twice the figure in 1979. In contrast, the age-standardized lung cancer death rate among men declined 10% in the same period. The lung cancer death rate among women, though, is still only about half that of men. (Chart 3.4)

Chart 3.4

Age-standardized lung and breast cancer¹ death rates, 1979 to 2001



1. From 1979 to 1999 data on lung cancer use ICD-9 code 162; from 2000 on, they use ICD-10 codes C33-C34. For breast cancer the ICD-9 codes are 174-175 and the ICD-10 code is C50.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

On the other hand, there has been a gradual decline in the age-standardized death rate from breast cancer among the female population in the past two decades. In 2001, the number of deaths from breast cancer for every 100,000 women was about 20% lower than the figure in 1979, once the impact of changes in the age structure has been eliminated.

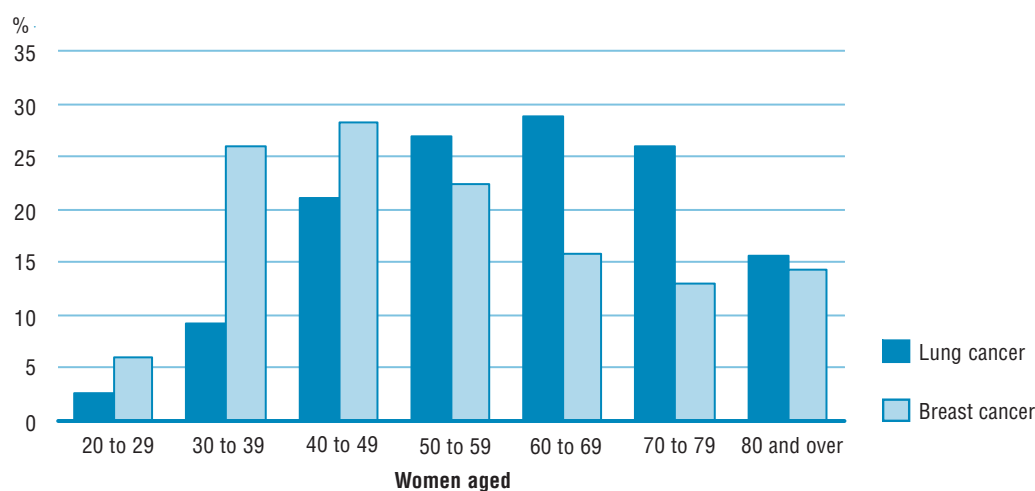
Overall death rates among women also mask the fact that the leading causes of death vary greatly among women in different age groups. Women between the ages of 30 and 79, for example, are the most likely to die of cancer. In fact, in 2002, over half of all deaths of women in both the 50 to 59 and 60 to 69 age ranges, as well as almost half

of those of women aged 40 to 49, were attributable to cancer. At the same time, cancer accounted for over a third of all deaths of women aged 70 to 79. On the other hand, heart disease was the leading cause of death among women aged 80 and over, while females under the age of 30 were the most likely to die in motor vehicle accidents. (Table 3.5)

There are also differences in the leading causes of cancer deaths among women in different age groups. Breast cancer is the leading cause of cancer death among women between the ages of 30 and 49. In 2002, breast cancer accounted for 28% of all cancer deaths of women between the ages of 40 and 49 and 26% of those among women aged 30 to 39, whereas lung cancer was the leading cause of cancer deaths among women over the age of 50. Indeed, lung cancer accounted for over one in four of all cancer deaths among women in age groups between the ages of 50 and 79 in 2002 and 16% of those among women aged 80 and over. (Chart 3.5)

Chart 3.5

Percentage of cancer deaths of women from lung and breast cancer,¹ by age, 2002



1. Data on lung cancer use ICD-10 codes C33-C34 for trachea, bronchus and lung. Data on breast cancer use ICD-10 codes C50.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

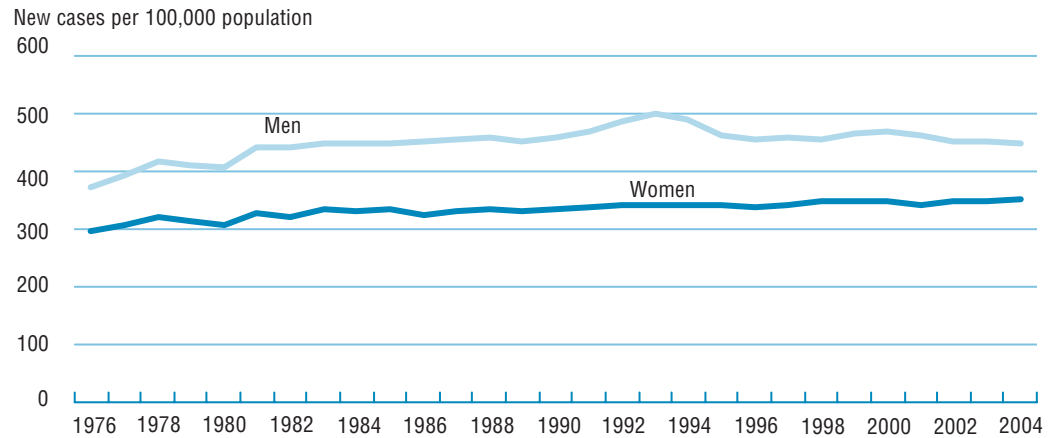
Incidence of cancer rising

Recent differences in the growth of the overall cancer death rate among women and men reflect, at least in part, the fact that there have also been gender differences in the number of new cancer cases in the past decade.⁵ The number of cases of cancer detected for every 100,000 females in 2004 was 3% higher than in 1994, once the impact of changes in the age structure of the population has been accounted for. In contrast, the incidence of new cases of cancer among men declined by 8% in the same period. (Chart 3.6)

The incidence of new cases of cancer, though, is still lower among women than men. In 2004, there were 351 new cases of cancer detected for every 100,000 females, 28% less than the figure among men, once the impact of differences in the age structures of the female and male populations was accounted for.

Chart 3.6

Age-standardized¹ incidence rates of all cancers for women and men, 1976 to 2004

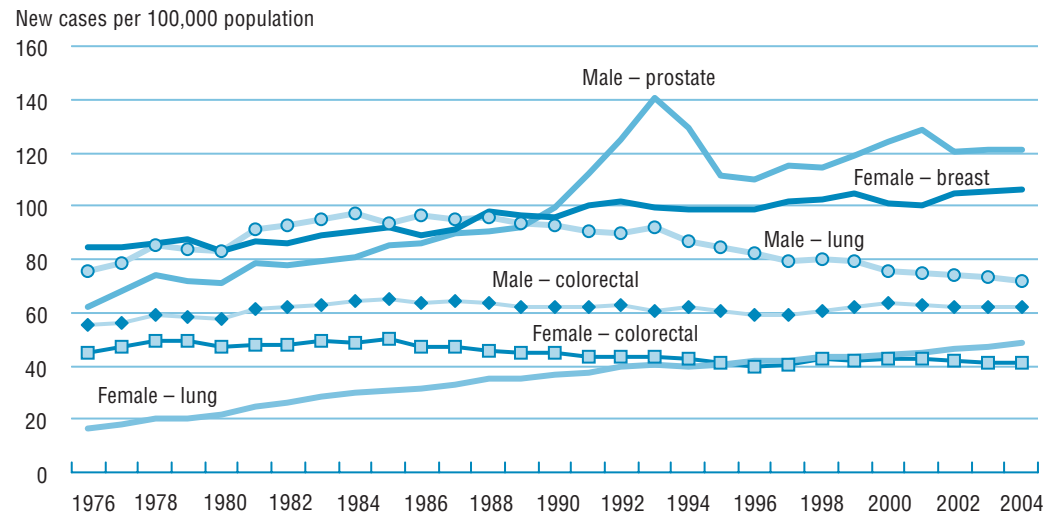


1. Standardized to the 1991 population.
 Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

While lung cancer currently accounts for more deaths among women than breast cancer, breast cancer accounts for the largest share of new cases of cancer among women. There were 106 new cases of breast cancer diagnosed for every 100,000 women in 2004, more than twice the number of new cases of lung cancer (48) diagnosed for every 100,000 women. Indeed, newly diagnosed cases of breast cancer accounted for 30% of all new cancer cases diagnosed among women that year. (Chart 3.7)

Chart 3.7

Age-standardized¹ incidence rates for selected cancers for women and men, 1976 to 2004



1. Standardized to the 1991 population.
 Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

The number of new cases of lung cancer being diagnosed among women, though, is growing faster than other leading types of cancer. Indeed, the age-standardized incidence rate of new cases of lung cancer among women was 22% higher in 2004 than in 1994, compared with a growth rate of 7% for new cases of breast cancer, while the incidence of new cases of colorectal cancer declined slightly in the same period.

As well, the number of new cases of lung cancer continues to rise among women, while it has declined in the male population. Between 1994 and 2004 the age-standardized incidence of new cases of lung cancer was 22% higher among women, while the figure declined 17% among men. Still, there were 33% fewer cases of lung cancer per 100,000 population, 48 versus 72, diagnosed among women than men in 2004.

The current rate of growth in the number of new cases of lung cancer among women, though, is somewhat slower than in previous decades. Between 1994 and 2004, the age-standardized incidence rate of new cases of lung cancer among women rose 22%, whereas the figure had almost doubled in the decade beginning in 1976, while it rose 32% in the ten-year period starting in 1985.

Smoking rates down

It has been speculated that the increase in lung cancer deaths among women is a reflection of the fact that many women started smoking in the era after the Second World War and the effects of this trend are now showing up in mortality data. In 2003, 21% of all women aged 12 and over were current smokers, that is, they smoked on either a daily basis or on occasion. That year, 16% of the female population smoked daily, while another 5% smoked occasionally. At the same time, 36% of women were former smokers, while 43% had never smoked. (Table 3.6)

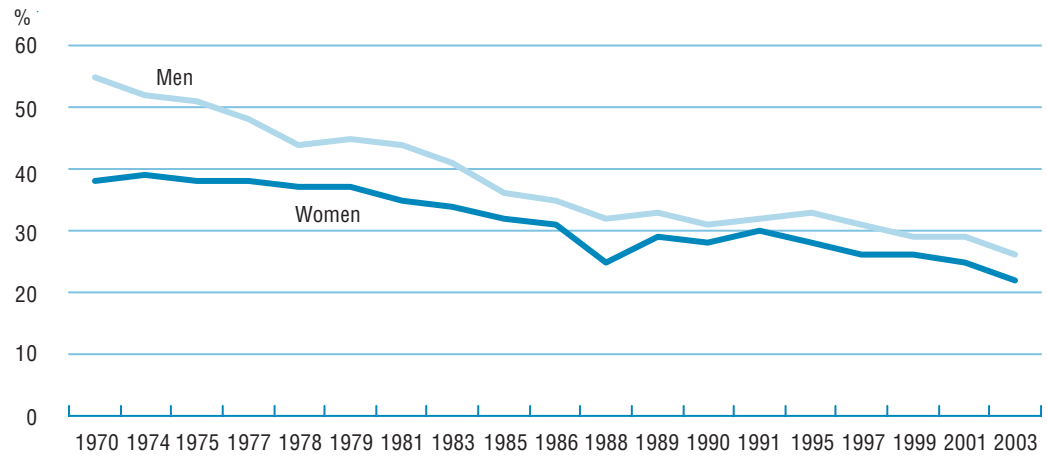
There has, however, been a sharp decline in the number of smokers in the Canadian population over the past three decades as the dangers of this practice have become more widely known. In 2003, 21% of all women aged 15 and over were current smokers, down from 30% in 1991 and 38% in 1970. The prevalence of smoking has decreased even more sharply among men, dropping from 55% in 1970 to 25% in 2003. Men, though, are still somewhat more likely than women to be current smokers. (Chart 3.8)

Among women, young adults are the most likely to smoke cigarettes. In 2003, 31% of women aged 20 to 24 were either daily or occasional smokers, as were 24% of those between the ages of 25 and 34 and 22% of female teenagers aged 15 to 19. In contrast, 18% of women aged 55 to 64, along with only 13% of those aged 65 to 74 and just 7% of those aged 75 and over, smoked either daily or occasionally. (Table 3.6)



Chart 3.8

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over who were current smokers, 1970 to 2003

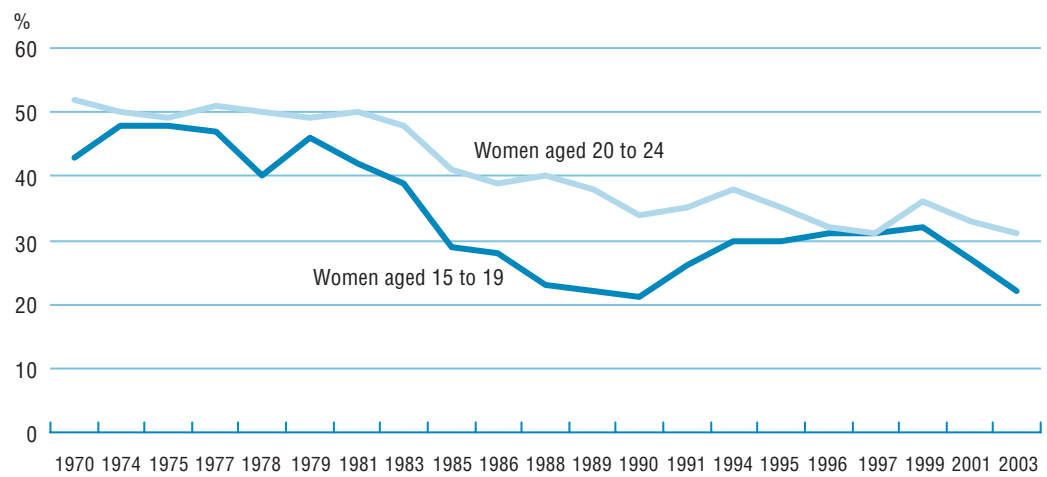


Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey, General Social Survey, and Canadian Community Health Survey; and Health Canada, Canada's Health Promotion Survey.

The overall smoking rate among women could decrease even further in the future as there has been a sharp decline in smoking rates among young adults. Among women aged 20 to 24 in 2003, for example, 31% were either daily or occasional smokers, down from 36% in 1999. (Chart 3.9)

Chart 3.9

Percentage of women aged 15 to 24 who smoke daily or occasionally, 1970 to 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey, General Social Survey, and Canadian Community Health Survey; and Health Canada, Canada's Health Promotion Survey.

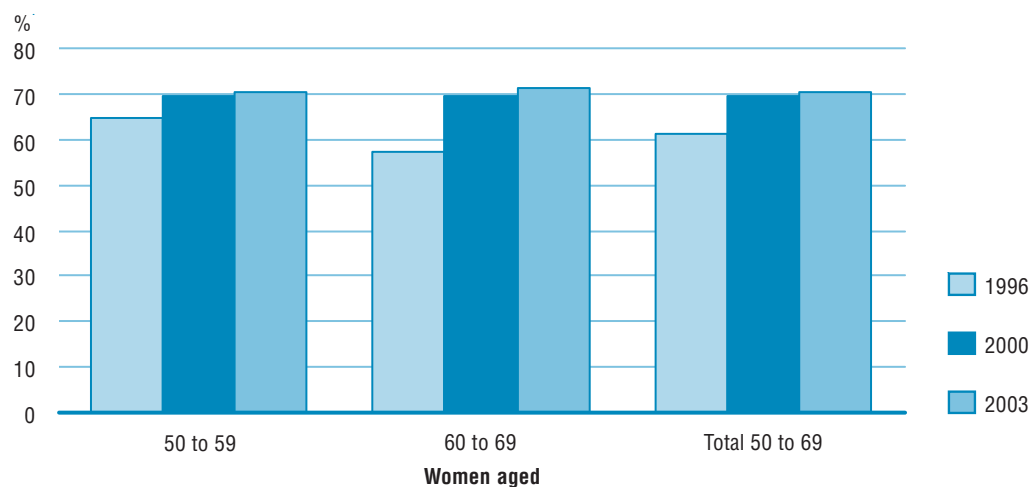
There has been an even steeper decline in the incidence of smoking among teenaged females in recent years. In 2003, 22% of females aged 15 to 19 were current smokers, down from 32% in 1999. In fact, the current drop in smoking rates among women in this age range reversed a worrisome trend in the 1990s when the percentage of 15 to 19-year-old females who smoked had risen from just over 20% in 1990 to 32% in 1999.

Breast cancer screening

Mammography is an important preventive practice for the early detection of breast cancer. At present, guidelines from the Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care recommend that women aged 50 to 69 undergo a mammogram once every two years, as there is strong evidence that early detection of breast cancer among women in this age group reduces the risk of death from this disease. In fact, there has been a substantial increase among women in this age range having mammograms. In 2003, over 70% of women in both the 50 to 59 and 60 to 69 age groups had received a mammogram within the past two years. These figures were up from just 65% for women aged 50 to 59 and only 57% for those aged 60 to 69 as recently as 1996. (Chart 3.10)

Chart 3.10

Percentage of women aged 50 to 69 who had a mammogram¹ within the past two years, 1996, 2000 and 2003



1. Includes those who had mammograms for routine screening, as well as those who had them for other reasons.

Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey and Canadian Community Health Survey.

Cervical cancer screening

It is also currently recommended that sexually active women up to age 70 receive a Pap smear test once every three years to detect cervical cancer. In fact, most women in Canada had received this test within these guidelines. In 2003, almost three out of four women between the ages of 18 and 69 had had a Pap smear test within three years. In fact, just over half of women in this age range had been screened for cervical cancer within the last year, while another quarter had received their most recent Pap smear within the previous three years. Still, over one in 10 women reported that they had not received a Pap smear in the past three years and 14% had never been screened. (Table 3.7)

Sexually transmitted infections

Sexually transmitted infections are another serious health problem which does not affect women and men in the same way, largely as a result of differences in the symptoms and course of these infections.⁶ In particular, women are far more likely than men to suffer long-term health consequences as a result of sexually transmitted infections. For example, sexually transmitted infections in women can lead to pelvic inflammatory disease, which can seriously affect reproductive health; these infections may also cause scarring of the fallopian tubes and an increased risk of ectopic pregnancy or tubal infertility. It is also important to note that the data on sexually transmitted infections probably understate the actual incidence of these conditions, since in many cases the infections are asymptomatic, especially in women. As such, infected persons may not seek treatment with the result that the condition is not diagnosed.

The issue of sexually transmitted infections is also of growing concern because young women are at a particularly high risk of contracting some types of sexually transmitted infections. This is because many young women reportedly engage in risky sexual behaviour, including having unprotected sexual relations with different partners. In fact, the incidence of sexually transmitted infections is generally higher among young women than their older counterparts. In 2002, there were almost 1,400 cases of chlamydia diagnosed for every 100,000 women in both the 15 to 19 and 20 to 24 age ranges, compared with rates of just over 500 cases per 100,000 women aged 25 to 29, 137 for women aged 30 to 39 and very small numbers in older age ranges. (Table 3.10)

There was a similar pattern for gonorrhoea, although females aged 15 to 19 were somewhat more likely to be diagnosed with this infection than their counterparts aged 20 to 24. On the other hand, women aged 25 to 29 were more likely than women in other age groups to be diagnosed with syphilis. Rates for syphilis, though, were very low in all age ranges.

Perhaps because of women's more frequent contact with health professionals during their reproductive years, they are generally more likely than men to be diagnosed with sexually transmitted infections. For example, 15 to 19-year-old women were more than five times more likely than men in this age range to be diagnosed with chlamydia in 2002, while they were more than twice as likely to have been diagnosed with gonorrhoea. Women aged 20 to 24 were also more than twice as likely as their male counterparts to contract a chlamydia infection. However, women in this age range were somewhat less likely than men to be diagnosed with gonorrhoea. Indeed, men were considerably more likely than women to contract gonorrhoea in age groups over the age of 25, whereas women between the ages of 25 and 39 were more likely than their male counterparts to get a chlamydia infection.

The incidence of chlamydia infections among women has risen somewhat over the last decade. In 2002, there were 244 cases of this type of infection for every 100,000 women aged 15 and over, up 28% from 1991. In contrast, the incidence of gonorrhoea among women is currently less than half the rate in the early 1990s. In 2002, there were 17 gonococcal infections for every 100,000 women aged 15 and over, compared with a rate of 38 in 1991. At the same time, there has been little change in the incidence rate of syphilis among women in the past decade.

Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome and HIV infections

Each year a small number of females in Canada are diagnosed with AIDS. As of June 2004, over 1,600 women aged 15 and over had been diagnosed with AIDS, representing approximately 9% of all AIDS cases reported in Canada. (Table 3.9)

The number of women diagnosed with AIDS, though, has fallen in the past decade. In the early part of the 2000s, 50 to 60 women aged 15 and over were being diagnosed with this disease each year, whereas the figure had been well over 100 in the late 1990s. There has been an even more dramatic decline in the number of men diagnosed with AIDS, although men continue to make up the large majority of those diagnosed with AIDS.

Because the time between infection with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and the subsequent development of AIDS can be 10 years or more, AIDS case statistics do not provide a complete picture of the present-day problem, that is, the number of women with HIV who have the potential to develop AIDS. As of June 2004, 8,400 females had tested positive for HIV. Overall, females accounted for 16% of all those who have tested positive for HIV. (Table 3.10)

The large majority of women testing positive for HIV are between the ages of 20 and 39. As of June 2004, 35% of all females with HIV were aged 30 to 39 at the time of diagnosis, while 32% were aged 20 to 29. Another 14% were aged 40 to 49, while smaller percentages were aged either 50 or over or 20 and under.

Contact with health care professionals

Almost all women visit at least one health care professional over the course of a year. In 2003, 86% of females aged 12 and over had contacted a medical doctor, including a family doctor or general practitioner or specialist, at least once, while 66% had been to the dentist. (Table 3.11)

In fact, women are more likely than men to consult a health care provider. In 2003, 86% of females aged 12 and over, versus 74% of their male counterparts, consulted with a medical doctor, while 66% of females, compared with 61% of males, went to the dentist.

Women aged 65 and over are slightly more likely than younger women to contact a medical doctor, although close to 90% of women in all age groups over the age of 20 saw a doctor at least once a year in 2003. At the same time, 80% of 15-to-19-year-old females saw a doctor at least once that year, while the figure was just 69% for girls aged 12 to 14. In contrast, less than half of senior women saw a dentist at least once that year, whereas in younger age groups the proportion seeing a dentist ranged from 86% of 12 to 14-year-olds to 60% of those aged 55 to 64.

Hospitalizations

Hospitalization rates tend to be higher for the female population than for the male population.⁶ In 2002-2003, there were over 10,000 hospital separations⁷ for every 100,000 women of all ages, compared with just under 7,500 for every 100,000 men. (Table 3.12)

Most of the difference in hospital separation rates for women and men, though, is accounted for by the large number of female hospitalizations for reasons related to childbirth. Indeed, childbirth, complications of pregnancy, and puerperium⁸ are the leading causes of hospitalization among women. This difference is also reflected in the relatively large number of hospital visits made by women between the ages of 20 and 34. In 2002-2003, the hospital separation rate for women aged 25 to 34 was five times that of their



male counterparts, while women aged 20 to 24 were almost four times more likely to be hospitalized than men in this age range. Among the female population, seniors have the highest rates of hospitalization. In 2002-2003, there were almost 31,000 hospital separations for every 100,000 women aged 75 and over, and more than 16,000 for women aged 65 to 74. In contrast, the figure was less than 8,000 for women between the ages of 35 and 64.

Senior women, though, are less likely to be hospitalized than their male counterparts. Among those aged 75 and over, for example, there were 31,000 hospital separations for every 100,000 women in 2002-2003, compared with almost 39,000 for men. Similarly, among those aged 65 to 74, the hospital separation rates were 16,400 for women, versus 21,300 for men. Women aged 45 to 64 were also somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be hospitalized, as were females under the age of 15, whereas the opposite was the case among those in age groups between the ages of 15 and 34.

While senior women are less likely than their male counterparts to be hospitalized, they tend to remain in hospital for somewhat longer periods. In 2002-2003, the average length of stay in hospital for females aged 75 and over, for example, was 13 days, versus 11 for men in this age range. On the other hand, women under the age of 65 tend to remain in hospital for shorter periods than men of the same age.

Hospitalization for reasons of mental health

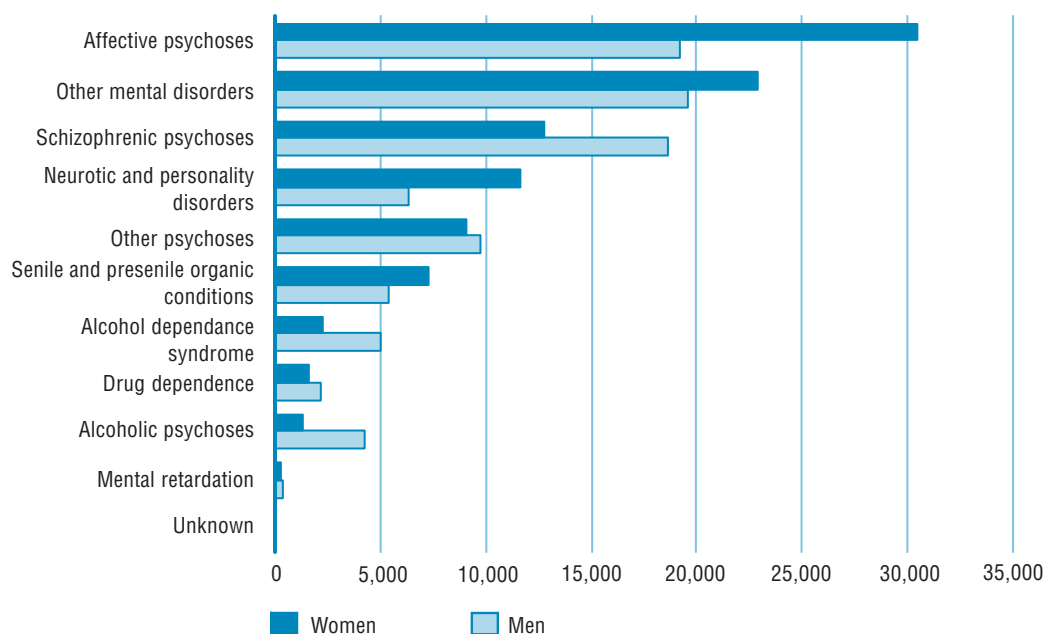
Women are also more likely than men to be hospitalized because of mental disorders. In 2002-2003, there were 626 separations for mental disorders in psychiatric and general hospitals for every 100,000 women of all ages, compared with 583 for men. (Table 3.13)

Women in the very oldest age groups are more likely than their younger counterparts to be hospitalized for mental health reasons. In 2002-2003, there were just under 1,200 hospital separations for mental disorders for every 100,000 women aged 75 and over, a figure that was almost 50% higher than the next highest rate of just over 800 hospital separations for mental health reasons among women aged 35 to 44. The hospitalization rate for senior women for mental health reasons, though, was almost the same as that for their male counterparts.

As well, women tend to be hospitalized for different mental illnesses than men. In 2002-2003, women were much more likely than men to be hospitalized as a result of affective psychoses, such as bi-polar disorder, neurotic and personality disorders, and senile and pre-senile organic conditions. In contrast, women were considerably less likely than men to be hospitalized for schizophrenic psychoses or for alcohol psychoses. (Chart 3.11)

Chart 3.11

Number of hospital separations for mental health disorders, by cause, 2002 to 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Mental health

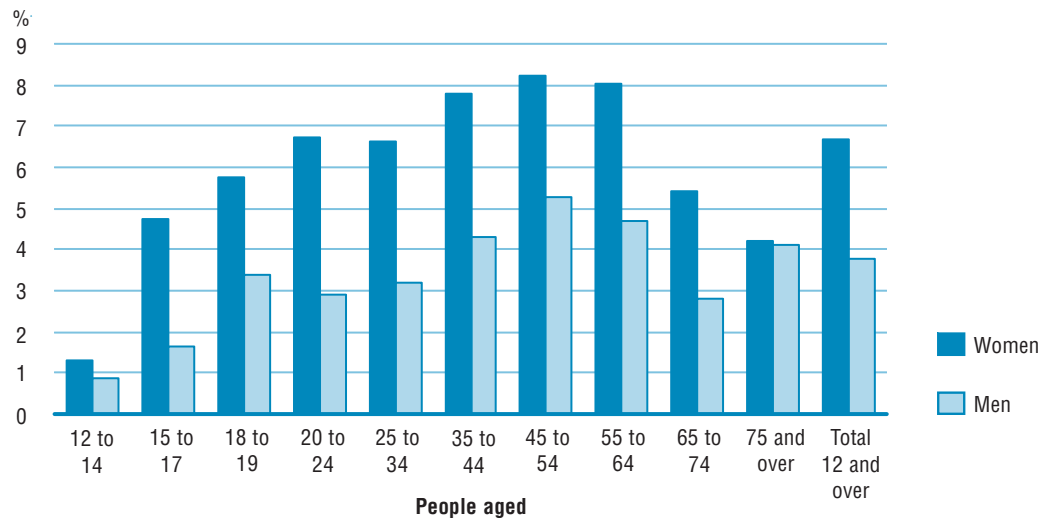
In fact, according to the Canadian Community Health Survey on Mental Health and Well-being conducted in 2002, women of all age groups, and particularly young women aged 15 to 24, are more likely than men to perceive their mental health as fair or poor. Women also suffer a higher incidence of panic disorder, agoraphobia, social anxiety disorder, and eating disorders. Research shows that higher rates of abuse, particularly sexual abuse, among girls and women are a contributing factor to many of these mental illnesses.

It should also be noted that specific populations of women in Canada may be particularly vulnerable to certain mental illnesses. For example, new immigrant and refugee women are likely to experience stress due to relocation, isolation and economic circumstances, all of which can increase the post-traumatic stress they may already be experiencing upon arrival. Aboriginal women and lone-parent mothers are likely also especially vulnerable to life stresses.

While most women cope with life's challenges, a small, but substantial share of the female population experience mood disorders. In 2003, 7% of the female population aged 12 and over reported having a diagnosed mood disorder. This, in fact, was almost twice the rate for men, just 4% of whom had a mood disorder that year. (Chart 3.12)

Chart 3.12

Percentage of women and men with a diagnosed mood disorder,¹ by age, 2003



1. Includes people who reported that they had a diagnosed mood disorder such as depression, bipolar disorder, mania or dysthymia.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Those between the ages of 35 and 64 are the most likely women to report experiencing a mood disorder. In 2003, 8% of women in this age range reported being diagnosed with a mood disorder, while the figure was 7% among those aged 20 to 34, and 6% for those aged 18 or 19. In contrast, the prevalence of mood disorders was 5% or less among senior women and younger female teenagers. As well, with the exception of seniors aged 75 and over, women were considerably more likely than their male counterparts to report experiencing a mood disorder in all age ranges.

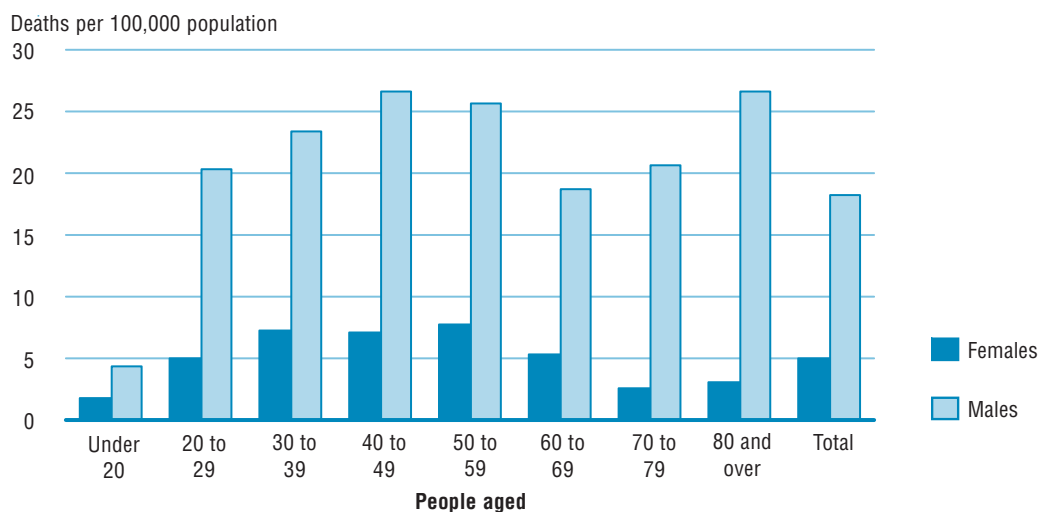
While there are no national statistics in Canada linking the concepts, it is very likely that the relatively high rates of mood disorders experienced by women between the ages of 35 and 64 is related to the fact that women in this age range have many conflicting roles. As reported in the chapter on the work experiences of women, more and more women, and especially those with children, are participating in the paid work force. However, even when employed full-time, women are still largely responsible for the care of their children and families. At the same time, many women in this age range find themselves part of the “sandwich generation” in that they are not only looking after their own children and families, but are also responsible for the care of their elderly parents.

Suicide

While women generally are more likely than men to experience episodes of clinical depression and to be hospitalized for attempted suicide, they are far less likely than men to take their own lives. Indeed, in 2002, there were 5 suicides for every 100,000 women, compared with 18 per 100,000 men. (Chart 3.13)

Chart 3.13

Suicide rates of women and men, by age, 2002



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Among the female population, those between the ages of 30 and 60 are the most likely to take their own lives. In 2002, there were 8 suicides for every 100,000 women aged 50 to 59 and 7 per 100,000 population aged 30 to 39 and 40 to 49. This compared with rates of 5 suicides per 100,000 females in both the 20 to 29 and 60 to 69 age groups, 3 per 100,000 population among seniors aged 70 and over, and just 2 among those under the age of 20. Again, though, women in all age groups are considerably less likely than their male counterparts to take their own lives. It is important to note, however, that the overall suicide rate among women masks the fact that the incidence of suicide among specific groups of women may be much higher than the national rate.

Alternative health care usage

A growing proportion of the female population use alternative health care services such as massage therapy, acupuncture or homeopaths or naturopaths. In 2003, 17% of women aged 15 and over had used some of alternative health care service. In fact, women are considerably more likely to use such services than their male counterparts; that year, just 9% of males aged 15 and over had consulted with an alternative health care service provider. It should be noted, though, that these data only address use of alternative practitioners and not the use of natural health products. (Table 3.14)

Those between the ages of 25 and 54 are the most likely women to use an alternative health care service. In fact, in 2003, over 20% of women in age groups between the ages of 25 and 54 consulted with an alternative health care practitioner. In contrast, 10% or less of senior women, as well as those aged 15 to 19, used such health services. In all age ranges, though, women were considerably more likely than their male counterparts to use the services of an alternative health care practitioner.

Women's unique physiology and transitions across the life span including their reproductive health and menopause, as well as the greater prevalence of chronic conditions among women than men, are among the factors contributing to greater use of alternative health care practitioners for prevention of illness and treatment of health conditions.

Induced abortions

The number of induced abortions performed in Canada has remained relatively stable over the past decade.⁹ In 2002, there were 105,000 abortions performed in either hospitals or clinics on Canadian women. This is up slightly from the early 1990s, but is down somewhat from the peak years in 1996 and 1997 when there were over 110,000 abortions were performed in Canada. (Table 3.15)

Fewer abortions, though, are being performed in hospitals, while more are taking place in clinics. In 2003, 58,000 abortions were performed in Canadian hospitals, whereas there were over 70,000 hospital abortions performed annually each year between 1989 and 1997, with a peak figure of just under 75,000 recorded in 1996. In contrast, the number of abortions performed in clinics has risen from just over 30,000 in the early 1990s to 47,000 in 2003.

While this change has occurred, there has been little change in the overall abortion rate in Canada in the past decade. There were, for example, 15 abortions performed in either hospitals or clinics for every 1,000 women between the ages of 15 and 44, a figure which has been relatively consistent through the 1990s. Similarly, there has been no change in the number of abortions expressed as a percentage of all live births in Canada in recent years.

Women between the ages of 18 and 24 are more likely than women in other age groups to have induced abortions. In 2003, there were 30 abortions performed for every 1,000 women aged either 18 or 19 or 20 to 24, compared with 22 for women aged 25 to 29, 14 for those aged 30 to 34, and 10 or less among other age groups. (Table 3.16)

Alcohol consumption

The consumption of alcohol is another lifestyle activity that can have an impact on health. In 2003, 51% of all females aged 12 and over reported they were regular drinkers, that is, they consumed an alcoholic beverage at least once a month. At the same time, 22% of women were occasional drinkers, while 14% were former drinkers and 13% were lifetime abstainers. (Table 3.17)

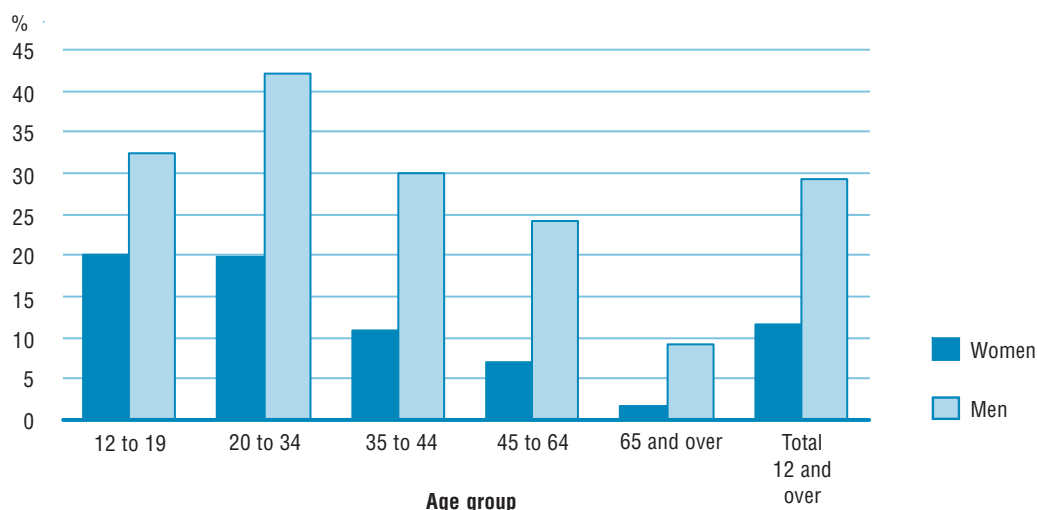
Women, though, are less likely than men to be current drinkers. In 2003, 51% of females aged 12 and over reported they drank an alcoholic beverage at least once a month, compared with 69% of their male counterparts.

Young women are generally more likely to drink than seniors or women approaching their retirement years. In 2003, close to 60% of women in both the 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 age groups were regular drinkers, as were 57% of women aged 25 to 34 and 55% of those aged 15 to 24. In contrast, this was the case for just 42% of those aged 65 to 74 and only 33% of those aged 75 and over. At all ages, though, women were considerably less likely than men to be current drinkers.

Women are also less likely than men in all age ranges to be heavy drinkers. In 2003, 12% of females aged 12 and over who were current drinker, versus 29% of their male counterparts, reported they had had five or more drinks at one sitting at least once a month. As with males, those under age 35 were the most likely women to be considered to be heavy drinkers. In 2003, 20% of current drinkers among females in both the 12 to 19 and 20 to 34 age groups qualified as being heavy drinkers, compared with 11% of those aged 35 to 44, 7% of those aged 45 to 64 and just 2% of seniors. (Chart 3.14)

Chart 3.14

Percentage¹ of women and men who are heavy drinkers,² by age, 2003



1. Expressed as a percentage of those who are current drinkers.

2. Includes those who reported having five or more drinks on one occasion at least 12 times during the previous year.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Leisure-time physical activity

Less than half of the female population in Canada is physically active during their leisure time. In 2003, 23% of females aged 12 and over were considered physically active and 25% were moderately active, while 51% were physically inactive. As well, women tend to be less active than men. That year, 49% of females aged 12 and over reported they were either very or moderately active during their leisure time, compared with 55% of their male counterparts. (Table 3.18)

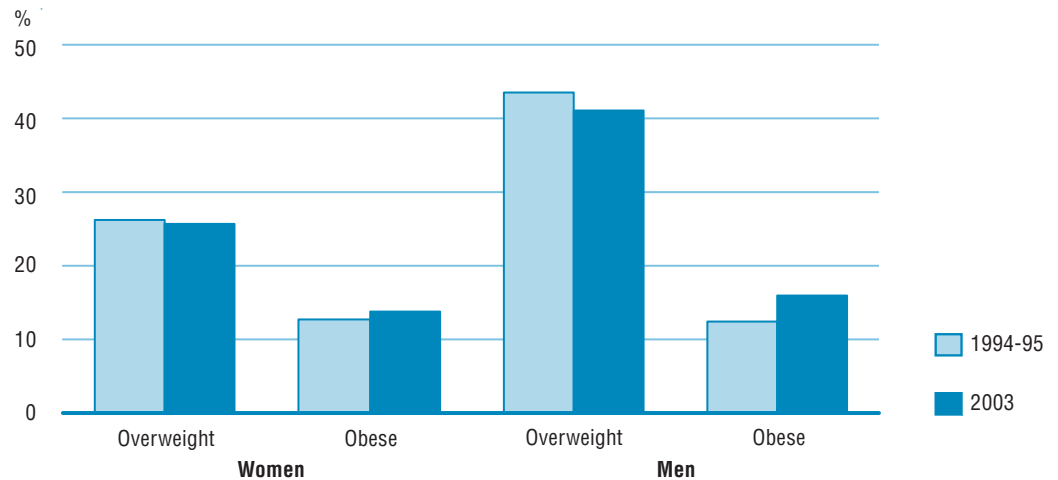
Women in younger age groups tend to be more physically active than older women. In 2003, for example, 29% of women aged 20 to 24 were very active during their leisure time, as were 20% or more of those between the ages of 25 and 64. In contrast, this was the case for just 17% of women aged 65 to 74 and only 10% of those aged 75 and over. The most active females, though, were those under the age of 20. That year, 46% of girls aged 12 to 14, and 37% of those aged 15 to 19, were very active in their leisure time. At all ages, though, women tend to be less active than men.

Females less likely to be overweight

A growing concern among health officials in Canada is the fact that a substantial proportion of the population is overweight.¹⁰ In fact, in 2003, 39% of all females aged 18 and over were considered to be either overweight or obese. That year, 26% were overweight, while 14% were considered to be obese. There has, however, been little change in the share of the female population considered to be either overweight or obese since 1994-1995. (Chart 3.15)

Chart 3.15

Percentage of women and men aged 18 and over overweight or obese,¹ 1994-95 and 2003



1. A person is considered overweight if their body mass index is between 25 and 30; they are considered obese if their body mass index is over 30. Body mass index is calculated by dividing a person's weight by their height squared.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

As well, females are generally less likely than their male counterparts to be overweight. In 2003, 39% of the female population aged 18 and over were considered to be either overweight or obese, whereas this was the case for 57% of males. Most of this difference, though, is accounted for by those considered to be overweight rather than obese. Indeed, that year, similar percentages of females (14%) and males (16%) were considered to be obese.

Notes

1. Note that the data in this and subsequent sections refer only to those living at home and do not include those living in an institution. Given that those living in an institution generally have more health problems than those living at home, these data tend to underestimate the totality of health problems among the female population.
2. More information on the health status of senior women is included in Chapter 11 on Senior Women.
3. More information on the health status of women with disabilities is included in Chapter 12 on Women with Disabilities.
4. Refers to the number of deaths per 100,000 population that would have been observed if the actual age-specific rates for a particular year had prevailed in the 1991 population. The process of age-standardization permits comparisons between years, since it accounts for changes that have occurred over time in the age distribution of the population.
5. It is important to note when considering the diagnosis of new cases of cancer, that increases may reflect as much improved methods of detection as actual increases in the incidence of the disease.
6. Data on sexually transmitted infections are considered to underestimate the actual incidence of these infections since they are asymptomatic, especially in women. As a result, people may not seek treatment and the disease is not diagnosed.
6. These data refer to general and allied special hospitals in Canada. They do not include cases treated in psychiatric hospitals, although they do include patients treated in psychiatric units of general and allied special hospitals.
7. Hospital separations refer to the discharge or death of an inpatient. These statistics, however, do not reflect the experience of individual patients, since repeat hospitalizations may occur.
8. Includes spontaneous abortion; legally induced abortion; other abortion; other pregnancy with abortive outcome; normal delivery; hemorrhage of pregnancy; other complications related to pregnancy; indication for care in pregnancy, labour and delivery; complications occurring in labour and delivery, and complication of the puerperium.
9. Between 1969 and 1988, Canadian law held that abortion was a criminal act, except when approved by the committee of an accredited or approved hospital which felt that the life or the health of the women was in danger. In 1988, the Supreme Court of Canada removed the existing abortion legislation from the Criminal Code. As a result, induced abortions are currently a health service governed by the Canada Health Act.
10. A person is considered to be overweight if their body mass index is between 25 and 30; they are considered to be obese when their body mass index is over 30. Body mass index is measured by dividing a person's weight by their height squared.

Table 3.1

Self-reported health status of females and males aged 12 and over, by age, 2003

People aged	Percent reporting their health as				Total ¹
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair or poor	
12 to 14					
Females	24.3	44.0	29.3	2.4	100.0
Males	23.3	42.7	30.3	3.4	100.0
15 to 19					
Women	22.0	42.1	28.4	7.5	100.0
Men	29.8	39.7	25.5	5.0	100.0
20 to 24					
Women	24.3	41.1	28.5	6.1	100.0
Men	28.5	40.1	26.3	5.1	100.0
25 to 34					
Women	28.3	41.0	25.2	5.4	100.0
Men	29.8	40.0	25.8	4.3	100.0
35 to 44					
Women	24.9	38.4	28.4	8.2	100.0
Men	24.6	39.4	29.9	6.1	100.0
45 to 54					
Women	22.2	34.5	30.2	13.0	100.0
Men	21.0	35.3	32.8	11.0	100.0
55 to 64					
Women	17.6	30.5	33.2	18.7	100.0
Men	18.3	31.9	32.6	17.2	100.0
65 to 74					
Women	11.8	27.4	38.0	22.7	100.0
Men	14.4	26.7	36.2	22.5	100.0
75 and over					
Women	8.6	22.1	36.8	32.3	100.0
Men	10.6	23.0	34.5	31.5	100.0
Total aged 12 and over					
Women	21.5	35.8	30.3	12.4	100.0
Men	23.2	36.3	30.2	10.3	100.0

1. Totals include not stated responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.2

**Percentage of the female and male population aged 15 and over diagnosed
with selected chronic health conditions, 2003**

People aged	Non-food allergies	Food allergies	Arthritis/ rheumatism	Back problems ¹	High blood pressure	Heart disease	Migraines	Asthma	Diabetes	Total with at least one chronic health condition ²
	%									
15 to 24										
Women	31.0	8.6	2.4	13.7	1.4	0.4	14.9	12.7	0.4	59.9
Men	27.6	6.1	1.3	9.0	1.3	0.7	6.3	9.9	0.5	51.1
25 to 34										
Women	32.0	10.1	4.8	17.6	2.2	0.7	17.7	10.3	1.1	64.1
Men	27.5	5.9	3.8	16.2	3.2	0.7	6.0	7.3	0.8	54.2
35 to 44										
Women	32.3	9.4	11.0	20.8	5.4	1.4	18.1	8.0	2.5	68.8
Men	23.6	5.4	7.2	22.6	7.4	1.4	7.6	5.5	1.8	59.1
45 to 54										
Women	33.4	10.0	24.0	24.7	15.4	2.5	17.6	8.8	4.1	76.8
Men	20.9	5.0	14.6	23.4	16.8	4.3	7.2	5.2	5.2	66.9
55 to 64										
Women	34.2	10.2	39.3	26.9	30.4	6.5	13.5	9.6	8.1	86.5
Men	18.1	4.5	24.2	23.9	27.8	11.0	5.2	5.9	11.7	76.6
65 to 74										
Women	29.3	9.1	52.1	25.4	44.2	13.3	8.0	8.5	12.0	91.4
Men	16.4	4.6	35.0	22.3	37.3	18.3	4.2	6.4	16.4	85.5
75 and over										
Women	24.7	8.1	57.5	26.8	50.4	23.8	5.3	7.6	11.8	94.2
Men	15.5	4.3	41.7	20.2	37.0	27.4	F	7.7	14.0	89.6
Total aged 15 and over										
Women	31.6	9.5	21.8	21.5	16.1	4.7	15.0	9.5	4.5	74.2
Men	22.7	5.3	13.3	19.4	14.0	5.7	6.2	6.8	5.2	64.4

1. Excludes fibromyalgia and arthritis.

2. Includes chronic conditions not listed above.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.3

Population with disabilities, by age, 2001

People aged	Women		Men	
	Number	As a percent of age group in Canada	Number	As a percent of age group in Canada
Less than 5	10,180	1.3	16,030	1.9
5 to 9	25,320	2.7	45,050	4.6
10 to 14	32,220	3.3	52,130	5.1
Total less than 15	67,710	2.5	113,220	4.0
15 to 34	184,170	4.7	166,820	4.3
35 to 54	543,600	11.5	463,100	10.2
55 to 64	319,700	22.4	291,100	21.1
Total 15 to 64	1,047,470	10.4	921,020	9.4
65 to 74	352,860	32.0	296,310	30.2
75 to 84	357,160	49.5	243,330	48.8
85 and over	135,940	71.8	66,240	69.3
Total 65 and over	845,960	42.0	605,880	38.5
Total population	1,961,150	13.3	1,640,110	11.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 3.4

Life expectancy of females and males at selected ages, 1921 to 2001

	Life expectancy in years							
	At birth		At age 20		At age 40		At age 65	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
1921	60.6	58.8	49.1	48.9	32.7	32.1	13.6	13.0
1931	62.1	60.0	49.8	49.1	33.0	32.0	13.7	13.0
1941	66.3	63.0	51.8	49.6	34.0	31.9	14.1	12.8
1951	70.9	66.4	54.4	50.8	35.7	32.4	15.0	13.3
1961	74.3	68.4	56.7	51.5	37.4	33.0	16.1	13.6
1971	76.4	69.4	58.3	51.8	39.1	33.3	17.6	13.8
1981	79.1	71.9	60.2	53.4	40.8	34.7	18.9	14.6
1991	80.9	74.6	61.7	55.6	42.2	36.8	19.9	15.7
1996	81.2	75.4	61.9	56.3	42.4	37.4	19.9	16.0
2001 ¹	82.2	77.0	62.8	57.9	43.3	38.8	20.6	17.1

1. For 2001 life expectancy is based on one year of data, rather than three years as is the case for the other years. As a result, the variability of the estimate is higher.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 89-506-XPB and 84-537-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.5

Deaths per 100,000 females, by age and selected causes, 2002

	Deaths per 100,000 females aged								Total ¹
	Under 20	20 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	60 to 69	70 to 79	80 and over	
Cancer									
Lung cancer	0	0.1	1.8	14.7	54.2	135.2	224.9	225.8	44.2
Breast cancer	0	0.3	5.1	19.7	45.1	74.7	113.0	206.7	31.4
Colorectal cancer	0	0.1	1.3	4.8	16.6	41.6	91.6	202.3	20.6
Total all cancers	2.3	5.5	19.4	69.7	200.9	470.6	865.0	1,444.3	193.8
Heart disease	0.9	1.1	3.2	11.9	35.6	131.4	533.1	2,696.6	163.0
Cerebrovascular disease	0.3	0.3	1.9	4.7	12.3	37.7	174.4	980.4	57.2
Respiratory disease	0.8	0.7	1.2	3.2	12.3	58.8	200.2	822.0	54.0
Chronic liver disease and cirrhosis	0	0.1	1.3	4.0	8.2	14.8	20.5	19.4	5.2
Motor vehicle accidents	4.3	6.9	4.4	4.8	5.5	6.4	9.8	13.6	5.8
Total all causes	37.9	32.4	61.8	141.4	349.6	906.4	2,417.3	9,207.9	696.8

1. Includes those for whom no age was stated.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.6

Smoking status, by age, 2003

People aged	Daily smoker	Occasional smoker	Former smoker	Never smoked
	%			
12 to 14				
Females	2.2	1.7	6.1	89.9
Males	1.0	1.9	6.0	91.0
15 to 19				
Women	13.6	8.6	18.6	59.2
Men	14.0	7.8	20.0	58.2
20 to 24				
Women	21.7	9.3	27.5	41.4
Men	24.3	11.4	27.4	36.9
25 to 34				
Women	17.3	6.9	33.8	42.0
Men	23.4	8.9	32.8	34.7
35 to 44				
Women	20.4	5.0	39.6	35.0
Men	25.3	5.9	40.1	28.7
45 to 54				
Women	20.4	3.6	42.9	33.2
Men	23.3	4.3	50.7	21.7
55 to 64				
Women	16.0	2.4	45.8	35.7
Men	17.3	2.9	60.2	19.6
65 to 74				
Women	11.0	2.0	43.2	43.8
Men	11.7	2.1	67.3	18.9
75 and over				
Women	6.2	1.2	40.4	52.1
Men	7.1	0.7	73.6	18.6
Total aged 12 and over				
Women	16.3	4.7	36.4	42.6
Men	19.5	5.6	42.6	32.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.7

**Percentage of women aged 18 to 69 receiving a Pap smear test,
by age and timing of the most recent test, 2003**

	Percent of women who ever had a PAP smear test		Timing of most recent test for those ever tested		
	Yes	No ¹	Less than a year	1 to 3 year	3 or more years
	%				
Women aged					
18 to 19	47.4	53.1	84.1	15.0	F
20 to 24	70.8	29.4	78.0	20.4	1.6
25 to 34	87.1	13.0	68.0	25.8	6.2
35 to 44	91.7	8.4	60.1	27.7	12.2
45 to 54	91.2	9.0	54.2	28.2	17.6
55 to 64	91.2	9.1	49.2	26.8	24.0
65 to 69	87.0	13.6	37.3	27.3	35.4
Total aged 18 to 69	85.1	13.5	59.2	26.4	14.4

1. Includes not stated responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.8

Rates for reported sexually transmitted infections, by age, 1991 and 2002¹

	Cases per 100,000 population											
	Women					Men						
	Gonococcal infections		Chlamydia infections		Syphilis	Gonococcal infections		Chlamydia infections		Syphilis ²		
	1991	2002	1991	2002	1993	2002	1991	2002	1991	2002	1993	2002
People aged												
15 to 19	115.5	100.5	1,095.1	1,378.6	1.4	0.5	58.1	42.8	176.9	255.2	0.2	0.5
20 to 24	93.4	82.7	925.0	1,383.3	2.4	2.3	107.4	100.8	327.6	608.2	1.3	1.7
25 to 29	36.7	35.0	295.6	510.6	0.9	2.7	70.6	72.7	145.9	344.8	1.4	3.0
30 to 39	13.0	12.3	78.4	137.1	0.6	1.0	33.6	53.0	46.2	122.3	1.2	6.9
40 to 59	2.9	2.1	12.9	18.6	0.2	0.3	10.7	16.6	10.4	26.2	0.9	3.2
60 and over	0.2	0.1	1.0	0.8	0.2	0	2.1	2.5	1.1	2.9	0.3	0.5
Total²	37.9	17.2	190.4	244.1	0.5	0.6	51.0	28.7	63.6	112.1	0.7	2.5

1. Data for 2002 are preliminary.

2. Includes people less than age 15.

Source: Public Health Agency of Canada, 2002 Surveillance Report.

Table 3.9

**Number of reported AIDS cases among women and men, by year of diagnosis,¹
1979 to 2004²**

	People aged 15 and over			Children under age 15	
	Women	Men	Women as a percent of total	Females	Males
1979 to 1994	829	12,216	6.4	67	75
1995	130	1,494	8.0	11	16
1996	145	1,021	12.4	6	8
1997	104	613	14.5	6	8
1998	99	535	15.6	4	1
1999	84	440	16.0	3	4
2000	55	403	12.0	3	2
2001	60	326	15.5	1	2
2002	54	303	15.1	2	3
2003	62	184	25.2	2	1
2004 ³	13	50	20.6	1	0
Total	1,635	17,585	8.5	106	120

1. Due to delays and underreporting, the number of AIDS cases diagnosed during any period of time, especially in recent years, often exceeds the number of AIDS cases actually reported.
2. Includes only to June 30, 2004.
3. Preliminary data.

Source: Public Health Agency of Canada, *HIV and AIDS in Canada: Surveillance Report to June 30, 2004*.

Table 3.10

**Positive HIV test reports among women and men between 1985 and 2004,¹
by age at the time of diagnosis**

	Women		Men	
	Number of cases	%	Number of cases	%
People aged				
Under 15	273	3.3	395	0.9
15 to 19	299	3.6	399	0.9
20 to 29	2,671	31.9	9,972	21.9
30 to 39	2,943	35.1	17,180	37.8
40 to 49	1,165	13.9	9,118	20.1
50 and over	527	6.3	3,655	8.0
Total²	8,383	100.0	45,439	100.0

1. Includes test results to June 30, 2004.
2. Totals include 505 females and 4,720 males for whom no age was reported.

Source: Public Health Agency of Canada, *HIV and AIDS in Canada: Surveillance Report to June 30, 2004*.

Table 3.11

Percentage of females and males who consulted with a medical doctor or dentist in the past 12 months, by type of professional, 2003

	Percent of people consulting with			
	Medical doctors ¹		Dental professionals ²	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
People aged				
12 to 14	68.5	68.9	86.3	82.9
15 to 19	80.4	69.1	78.7	73.5
20 to 24	87.2	66.1	66.5	57.2
25 to 34	86.7	66.0	66.8	56.7
35 to 44	84.7	71.8	72.2	65.0
45 to 54	85.6	75.7	69.7	65.8
55 to 64	88.3	82.9	60.4	57.1
65 to 74	90.0	87.8	49.0	47.5
75 and over	89.9	90.7	41.1	42.4
Total aged 12 and over	85.6	74.3	65.9	61.3

1. Includes family or general practitioners as well as specialists.

2. Includes dentists and orthodontists.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.12

Separation rates for females and males for acute-care hospitals,¹ by age, 2002-03²

	Separations per 100,000 population		Average number of days spent in hospital per separation	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
People aged				
Under 1 year ³	17,304	22,616	5.7	5.5
1 to 4	4,570	5,867	2.9	2.9
5 to 14	2,028	2,365	3.9	3.6
15 to 19	5,196	2,857	4.2	5.6
20 to 24	9,821	2,803	3.4	6.4
25 to 34	14,639	2,938	3.3	6.1
35 to 44	7,472	3,934	4.8	6.3
45 to 64	7,797	8,417	7.1	7.1
65 to 74	16,376	21,343	9.4	8.8
75 and over	30,816	38,780	12.8	11.2
Total	10,104	7,487	7.0	7.8

1. Excludes rehab and chronic care hospitals.

2. Data for 2002-03 exclude Nunavut.

3. Excludes newborn hospitalizations.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.13

Hospital separations for mental health reasons,¹ by age, 2002-03

	Females		Males	
	Number of separations	Separations per 100,000 population	Number of separations	Separations per 100,000 population
People aged²				
Under 15	3,039	106.4	2,990	99.7
15 to 19	7,701	740.8	6,381	580.6
20 to 24	6,633	627.7	8,451	765.0
25 to 34	14,482	672.4	16,198	735.0
35 to 44	21,329	811.9	20,330	766.6
45 to 64	26,136	673.4	22,616	593.8
65 to 74	6,832	597.0	5,829	569.2
75 and over	13,278	1,187.9	8,043	1,180.3
Total	99,430	626.2	90,838	583.4

1. Includes hospitalizations in psychiatric and general hospitals for mental health reasons. Refers to hospitalizations ending in fiscal 2001-02. Hospitalizations with a length of stay of more than 10 years are excluded.

2. Age at admission.

Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.14

Proportion of women and men using alternative health care, by age, 2003

People aged	Percentage consulting			
	Massage therapist	Acupuncturist	Homeopath or naturopath	Any alternative therapy
15 to 19				
Women	6.5	1.3	1.6	9.2
Men	2.2	0.8	0.8	3.9
20 to 24				
Women	11.0	2.1	2.7	16.2
Men	4.2	1.2	F	7.0
25 to 34				
Women	15.4	2.8	3.6	21.0
Men	8.3	1.8	1.7	12.0
35 to 44				
Women	14.6	3.3	3.9	21.2
Men	8.0	1.8	1.4	11.9
45 to 54				
Women	12.6	4.0	4.5	20.5
Men	6.4	2.3	1.5	10.5
55 to 64				
Women	8.0	3.7	3.0	15.0
Men	3.9	1.9	1.4	7.6
65 to 74				
Women	4.5	2.5	2.1	9.5
Men	1.7	1.3	0.8	4.2
75 and over				
Women	2.3	1.8	0.8	5.3
Men	1.2	1.7	F	4.0
Total aged 15 and over				
Women	10.8	3.0	3.2	16.6
Men	5.5	1.7	1.3	8.9

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.15

Induced abortions, 1975 to 2002

	Performed in hospitals ¹			Performed in clinics ²		
	Number	Number per 1,000 women aged 15 to 44	Number per 100 live births to women aged 15 to 44	Number	Number per 1,000 women aged 15 to 44	Number per 100 live births to women aged 15 to 44
1975	49,311	9.6	13.7
1976	54,478	10.3	15.1
1977	57,564	10.6	15.9
1978	62,290	11.3	17.4	2,618	0.5	0.7
1979	65,043	11.6	17.8	3,629	0.6	1.0
1980	65,751	11.5	17.7	4,704	0.8	1.3
1981	65,053	11.1	17.5	4,207	0.7	1.1
1982	66,254	11.1	17.8	4,506	0.7	1.2
1983	61,750	10.2	16.5	3,635	0.6	1.0
1984	62,247	10.2	16.5	3,571	0.6	0.9
1985	62,712	10.2	16.7	3,706	0.6	1.0
1986	63,462	10.2	17.0	3,498	0.6	0.9
1987	63,585	10.2	17.2	3,681	0.7	1.0
1988	66,137	10.6	17.6	4,617	0.7	1.2
1989	70,705	11.2	18.0	7,059	1.1	1.8
1990	71,092	11.2	17.5	20,236	3.2	5.0
1991 ³	70,277	10.9	17.5	23,343	3.6	5.8
1992	70,408	10.4	17.7	31,151	4.6	7.8
1993	72,434	10.6	18.7	31,508	4.6	8.1
1994	71,630	10.5	18.6	34,287	5.0	8.9
1995	70,549	10.3	18.7	35,650	5.2	9.4
1996	74,555	11.0	20.4	36,803	5.4	10.0
1997	71,795	10.5	20.6	39,621	5.8	11.4
1998	68,273	10.0	19.9	41,761	6.1	12.2
1999	63,815	9.4	18.9	41,620	6.1	12.3
2000	63,507	9.3	19.4	41,705	6.1	12.7
2001	61,227	9.0	18.3	45,016	6.6	13.5
2002 ⁴	58,254	8.5	17.8	46,748	6.8	14.2

1. Includes only therapeutic abortions performed on Canadian residents in Canadian hospitals.

2. Prior to 1990, the data are for Quebec only. For 1990, the data are for six provinces (Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba and British Columbia). Data for 1991 to 1995 include Alberta, and data for 1994 and 1995 include New Brunswick.

3. Figures underreported for British Columbia.

4. For 2002, Nunavut residents are excluded due to incomplete reporting.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-219-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.16

Induced abortion rates,¹ by age, 1974 to 2002²

	Therapeutic abortions per 1,000 females aged							
	Under 15 ³	15 to 17	18 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 and over ⁴
1974	2.7	11.6	17.4	14.7	10.3	7.6	5.6	2.8
1975	2.7	11.7	17.6	14.4	10.6	7.3	5.3	2.6
1976	3.1	12.1	18.9	15.6	11.4	7.7	5.4	2.7
1977	3.0	12.2	19.3	15.9	11.3	7.6	5.0	2.4
1978	2.8	13.0	21.9	17.8	12.3	8.1	5.3	2.5
1979	3.1	13.7	22.3	18.7	12.6	8.2	5.0	2.2
1980	2.9	13.8	22.9	19.1	12.8	8.4	4.9	2.3
1981	3.1	13.3	22.3	18.9	12.8	8.3	4.8	2.1
1982	3.1	13.3	22.9	20.0	13.2	8.8	5.0	2.1
1983	3.0	12.0	20.3	18.7	12.2	8.3	4.8	1.9
1984	2.7	12.0	20.2	18.9	12.4	8.1	5.0	1.8
1985	2.9	11.7	20.6	18.9	12.3	8.1	4.9	1.8
1986	2.4	11.6	21.6	19.2	12.4	8.3	4.9	1.7
1987	2.4	11.3	22.3	19.4	12.6	8.3	5.0	1.8
1988	2.4	11.4	22.9	20.8	13.1	8.6	5.1	1.8
1989	2.5	11.8	24.5	22.6	14.5	9.4	5.8	2.0
1990	3.2	13.8	27.1	26.9	17.1	11.3	6.8	2.1
1991	2.7	13.9	27.6	27.8	17.8	11.7	7.2	2.3
1992	3.2	14.5	29.4	30.2	19.3	12.6	7.7	2.7
1993	3.5	14.7	31.0	31.1	20.2	13.0	7.6	2.6
1994	2.9	15.3	32.1	31.5	21.2	12.8	8.0	2.6
1995	2.8	13.7	33.1	32.6	21.7	13.5	8.1	2.8
1996	2.8	14.2	34.0	33.8	22.6	14.0	8.3	2.9
1997	2.7	13.7	33.5	34.2	22.8	14.1	8.3	2.9
1998	2.4	13.3	33.8	33.9	22.0	14.2	8.5	2.9
1999	2.3	12.1	32.9	32.6	21.3	13.7	8.0	2.9
2000	1.9	12.1	32.0	32.3	21.2	14.1	8.0	2.9
2001	2.1	11.7	30.9	31.7	21.6	14.6	8.4	3.0
2002 ⁵	1.7	10.4	30.2	30.8	21.5	14.4	8.6	3.2

1. Induced abortion is defined as the medical termination of pregnancy. Equivalent terms include: artificial abortion, therapeutic abortion, voluntary termination of pregnancy, elective termination of pregnancy, and active termination of pregnancy. Only counts of legally induced abortions are included.
2. For the 1994 to 1997 data years, a large number of abortions were reported to the Therapeutic Abortion Survey without any information on the age of the woman. Age groups have now been estimated for induced abortions at the Canada, provincial and territorial level. As a result of these new estimations, any previously released age group statistics at the Canada level will not match the latest Canada level statistics.
3. Rates for the 'Under 15 years' age group are based on the population of females aged 14.
4. Rates for the '40 years and over' age group are based on the population of females aged 40-44.
5. For 2002, Nunavut residents are excluded due to incomplete reporting.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-219-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 3.17

Percentage of women and men who consume alcohol, by age and type of drinker, 2003

People aged	Regular drinker ¹	Occasional drinker ²	Former drinker	Never drank	Total ³
	%				
12 to 14					
Females	4.6	14.7	7.1	73.7	100.0
Males	6.0	12.6	10.5	70.8	100.0
15 to 24					
Women	55.3	22.7	7.8	14.3	100.0
Men	67.9	15.0	5.7	11.3	100.0
25 to 34					
Women	57.0	25.2	10.1	7.7	100.0
Men	78.6	11.6	5.4	4.4	100.0
35 to 44					
Women	59.6	22.0	11.2	7.2	100.0
Men	75.5	12.0	8.1	4.4	100.0
45 to 54					
Women	59.0	21.0	13.0	7.0	100.0
Men	73.7	12.0	11.0	3.3	100.0
55 to 64					
Women	50.9	22.4	18.0	8.7	100.0
Men	71.2	12.1	13.6	3.0	100.0
65 to 74					
Women	41.9	23.5	21.9	12.7	100.0
Men	64.2	13.7	17.4	4.7	100.0
75 and over					
Women	32.8	22.1	27.9	17.2	100.0
Men	55.9	16.1	22.4	5.7	100.0
Total aged 12 and over					
Women	51.4	22.3	13.6	12.7	100.0
Men	68.5	12.8	10.0	8.6	100.0

1. Includes people who had less than one drink a month during the 12 months before the survey.

2. Includes people who drank once a month or more during the 12 months before the survey.

3. Totals exclude not stated responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 3.18

**Percentage of females and males participating in leisure-time physical activity,¹
by age and level of activity, 2003²**

People aged	Physically active	Moderately active	Physically inactive
		%	
12 to 14			
Females	45.7	27.5	26.8
Males	57.7	21.6	20.7
15 to 19			
Women	37.3	25.2	37.5
Men	56.0	20.0	24.0
20 to 24			
Women	28.7	25.6	45.8
Men	40.1	24.9	35.0
25 to 34			
Women	21.4	27.1	51.4
Men	31.0	24.4	44.5
35 to 44			
Women	23.3	25.0	51.7
Men	25.3	24.9	49.8
45 to 54			
Women	20.0	27.2	52.9
Men	21.9	26.0	52.1
55 to 64			
Women	20.7	26.1	53.1
Men	24.3	23.9	51.7
65 to 74			
Women	17.4	24.3	58.2
Men	27.2	26.1	46.6
75 and over			
Women	9.6	17.4	72.9
Men	19.8	23.0	57.2
Total aged 12 and over			
Women	23.2	25.4	51.4
Men	30.7	24.4	44.9

1. Respondents are classified as active, moderately active or inactive based on an index of average daily physical activity over the past 3 months. The index is calculated as the sum of the average daily energy expenditures of all activities. People who consume 3.0kcal/kg/day or more are considered active, while those who consume 1.5 - 2.9 kcal/kg/day are moderately active and those who use less than 1.5 kcal per day are inactive.

2. Totals exclude not stated responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

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Chapter 4

Education

By Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey

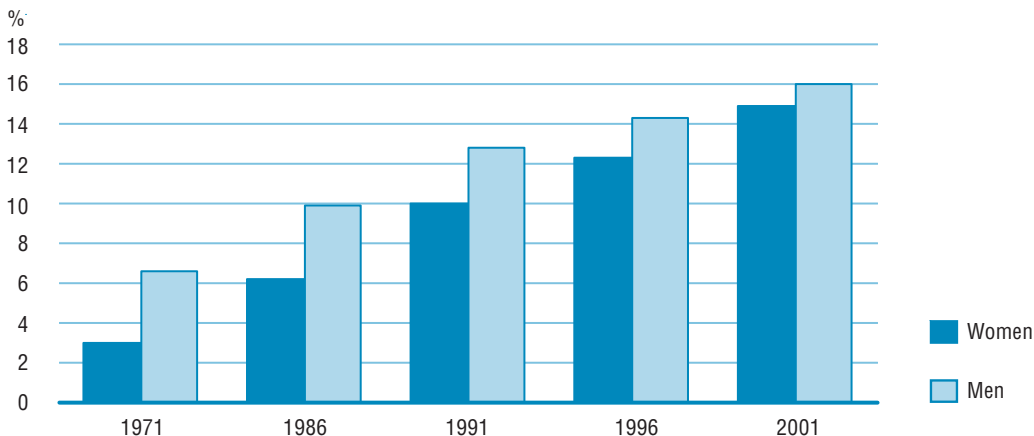
Increasing educational attainment

More than half of all women in Canada have had some form of postsecondary educational training. As of 2001, 15% of women aged 15 and over had a university degree, while 17% had a college certificate or diploma, 8% had a trades certificate and 11% had some other form of educational experience past high school. At the same time, though, 21% of women had attended, but had not graduated from, high school, while 10% had not gone past grade 8. (Table 4.1)

There has been a dramatic increase in the proportion of the female population with a university degree in the past several decades. Indeed, this has been one of the real success stories for Canadian women. In 2001, 15% of women aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from 10% in 1991 and just 3% in 1971. (Chart 4.1)

Chart 4.1

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over with a university degree, 1971 to 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

Women, though, are still slightly less likely than men to have a university degree, although the gap is currently much smaller than in the past. In 2001, 15% of women aged 15 and over had a university degree, whereas the figure was 16% for their male counterparts. In contrast, in 1971, the percentage of women with a degree (3%) had been less than half the figure for men (7%).

While almost as many women as men currently are university graduates, female representation among those with a degree declines sharply among those with postgraduate training. In 2001, women made up 52% of all those with a Bachelor's or first professional degree, whereas they represented 44% of those with a Master's degree and just 27% of those with an earned doctorate. (Table 4.1)

Among those with non-university forms of postsecondary training, women are more likely than men to have graduated from a community college. In 2001, 17% of women, versus 13% of men, had credentials from a community college. Women were also somewhat more likely than men to be high school graduates, while they were less likely to have a trades certificate or diploma. That year, just 8% of women aged 15 and over, versus 14% of their male counterparts, had completed a trade school program.

Young women better educated

As with men, educational attainment levels among women have increased with each succeeding generation. As of 2001, two out of three (67%) women aged 20 to 24 had some form of postsecondary educational training, not including those with a certificate or diploma from a trade school, whereas this was the case for 60% of women aged 25 to 44, 44% of those aged 45 to 64, and just 22% of senior women. (Table 4.2)

At the same time, the share of women who have not gone beyond high school increases sharply with age. In 2001, just 26% of females aged 20 to 24 had either only finished high school or had not attended high school at all. In contrast, 73% of women aged 65 and over had not completed high school; indeed, 60% of senior women had not attended high school at all.

Women in younger age ranges are also currently better educated than their male contemporaries. Among those aged 20 to 24 in 2001, 14% of women, compared with 8% of men in this age range, were university graduates, while 24% of these women, versus 17% of men, had a certificate or diploma from a community college. On the other hand, just 26% of women in this age range had not gone beyond high school, compared with 36% of males. Indeed, 19% of men aged 20 to 24, versus 13% of women, had never attended high school.

There was a similar pattern among those aged 25 to 44, although the gaps between the educational attainment levels of women and men were not quite as pronounced as they were among those aged 20 to 24. In 2001, for example, 23% of women aged 25 to 44 had a degree, compared with 21% of men.

In contrast to trends in the younger population, women in older age ranges tend to not be as well educated as their male counterparts. Among seniors, women were only half as likely as men to be university graduates in 2001, while 60% of women aged 65 and over, versus 54% of senior men, had never attended high school.

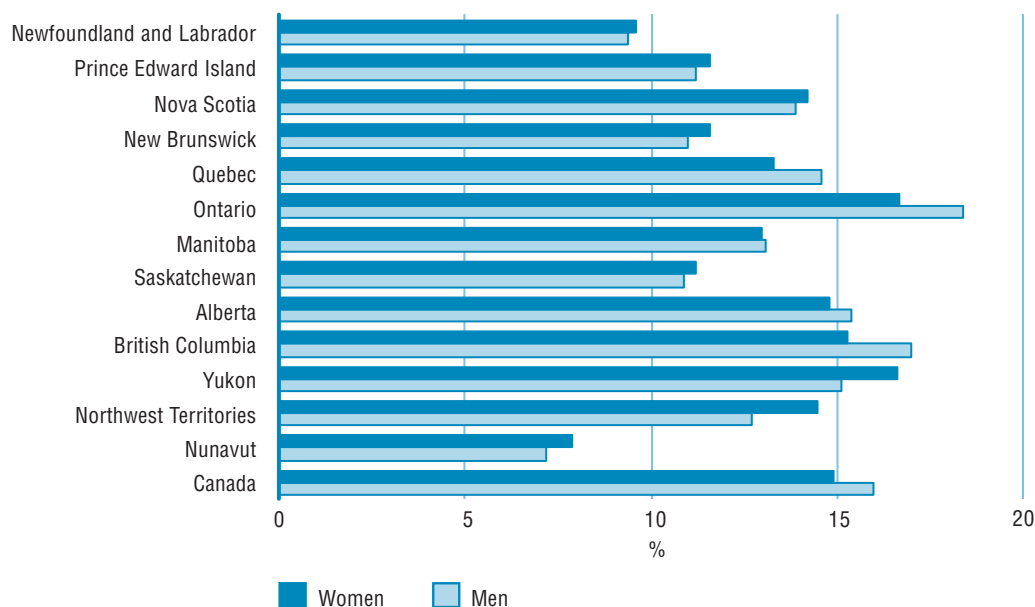
Provincial differences in university graduation rates

Women in Ontario are more likely to have a university degree than their counterparts in other provinces. In 2001, 17% of the female population aged 15 and over in Ontario had a degree, while the figure in the remaining provinces ranged from 15% in both British

Columbia and Alberta to just 10% in Newfoundland and Labrador. Women in Ontario, British Columbia and Quebec, though, were somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to have a university degree that year, whereas in the remaining provinces women were generally about as likely as men to be university graduates. (Chart 4.2)

Chart 4.2

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over with a university degree, by province and territory, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

A relatively large proportion of women in both the Yukon and Northwest territories also have university degrees. In fact, in 2001, 17% of females aged 15 and over in the Yukon, the same share as in Ontario, were university graduates. At the same time, 15% of women in the Northwest Territories, about the national average, were university graduates, whereas the figure in Nunavut, 8%, was the lowest in the country. In each of the territories, though, women were somewhat more likely to have a university degree than their male counterparts.

Women majority in full-time university studies

The overall difference in the proportions of women and men with a university degree is likely to close even further in the future as women currently make up the majority of full-time students in Canadian universities. In the 2001/02 academic year, 57% of all full-time university students were female, up from 52% in 1992/93 and 37% in 1972/73. (Table 4.3)

Women's share of full-time university enrolment, however, declines the higher the level of study. In 2001/02, women made up 58% of all students in Bachelor's and first professional degree programs, compared 51% of those in Master's programs and 46% of those working toward their doctorate.

The share of enrolment accounted for by women in graduate level programs, though, has increased substantially over the past two decades. In 2001/02, women accounted for 46% of all doctoral candidates, up from 35% in 1992/93 and 31% in 1981/82. The current figure is also over twice the figure recorded in 1972/73, when women made up less than one in five (19%) of all doctoral candidates. During the same period, women's share of total enrolment among Master's students also nearly doubled, rising from 27% to 51%.

Women also currently make up the majority of full-time students in most university departments. In 2001/02, almost eight out of 10 of all students in education (78%) were female, while the figure was 75% in health-related programs, 66% in fine and applied arts, and around 60% in each of the social sciences, humanities and agricultural and biological sciences. (Table 4.4)

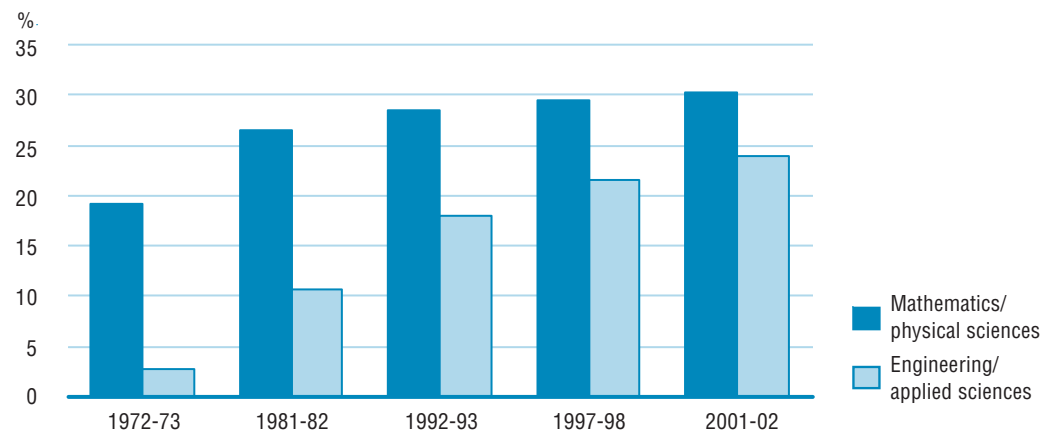
Women also constitute a majority of doctoral students in several of these fields of study. In fact, in 2001/02, women made up 68% of full-time doctoral candidates in education, around 60% of those in both fine and applied arts and the health sciences, 56% of those in the social sciences, and 50% in the humanities.

At the same time, though, women continue to account for much smaller shares of full-time enrolment in mathematics and science faculties. In 2001/02, women made up only 30% of all university students in mathematics and physical sciences, and just 24% of those in engineering and applied sciences.

The proportion of women in both these highly-technical areas of study, though, has increased since the early 1970s. In 2001/02, women made up 24% of students in engineering and applied sciences, up from 3% in 1972/73, while in the same period, women's share of enrolment in mathematics and physical sciences rose from 19% to 30%. (Chart 4.3)

Chart 4.3

Women as a percentage of full-time university enrolment in mathematics/physical sciences and engineering/applied sciences, 1972-73 to 2001-02



Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Most of the increase in the number of women enrolled in mathematics and physical sciences occurred in the 1970s. Indeed, there have only been modest gains in the share of students studying in these areas accounted for by women since the early 1980s. Between 1972/73 and 1981/82, for example, the share of students in these faculties accounted for by women rose over seven percentage points from 19% to 27%. In contrast, in the next two decades, the figure rose only a total of four percentage points to 30%.

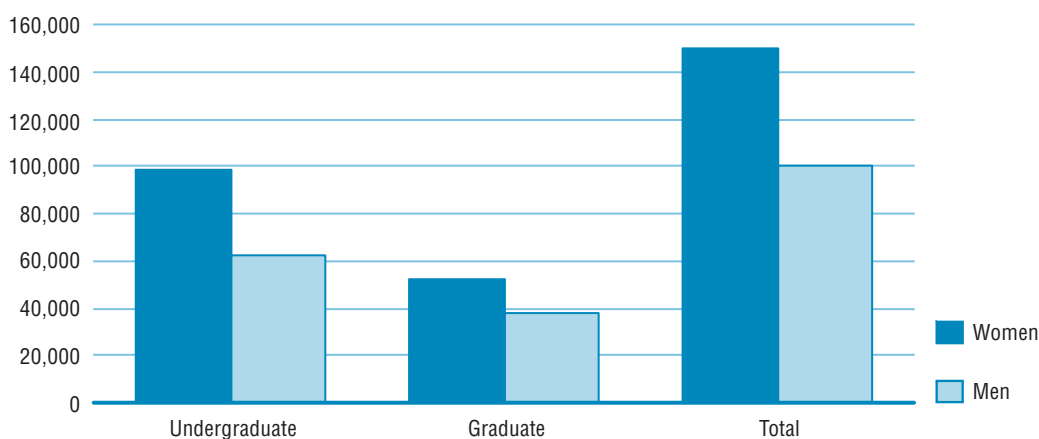
While there was also a substantial jump in the share of engineering and applied sciences students accounted for by women in the 1970s, there has also been relatively strong growth in the number of women in these faculties in the past couple of decades. In 2001/02, 24% of all of full-time students in these faculties were women, up from 18% in 1992/93, 11% in 1981/82, and just 3% in 1972/73. (Chart 4.3).

Part-time university enrolment of women

A substantial number of women currently attend university on a part-time basis. In 2001/02, 150,000 women were enrolled in university programs on a part-time basis. As with those enrolled full-time, women make up the majority of part-time university students. That year, females made up 60% of all part-time university students, while they represented 57% of all full-time university enrolment. (Chart 4.4)

Chart 4.4

Part-time university enrolment, by level, 2001-02



Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Women also make up the majority of part-time university students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. In 2001/02, 61% of part-time undergraduate students were female, as were 58% of those at the graduate level.

The proportion of female university students enrolled on a part-time basis, however, has declined somewhat in recent years. In 2001/02, 31% of all female university students were studying part-time, down from 34% in 1997/98. This resulted from the fact that the actual number of women enrolled as part-time university students was unchanged in this period while the number of women enrolled on a full-time basis increased.

The share of female university students enrolled on part-time basis, though, is still higher than that for men. In 2001/02, 31% of all women enrolled in a university program were studying part-time, compared with 27% of male students.

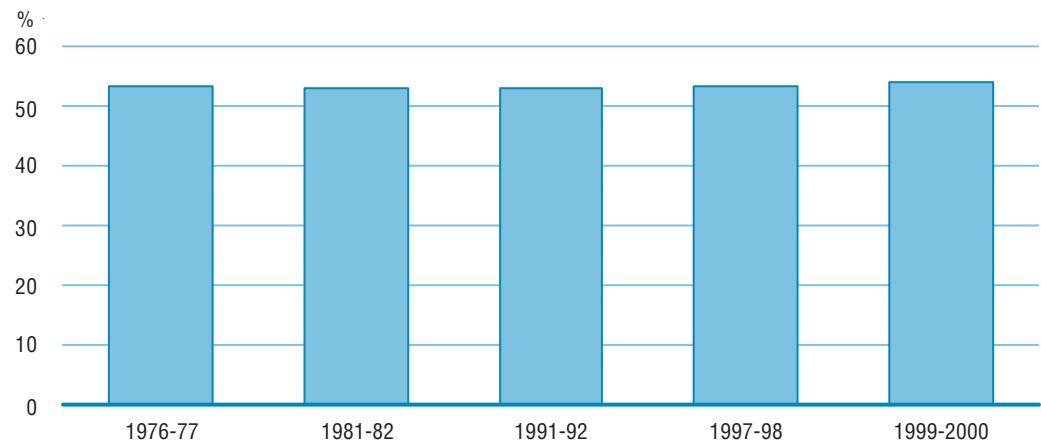
Women majority in community college

Women also currently make up the majority of students enrolled at the community college level. In 1999/2000, just over 220,000 women were enrolled full-time in a community college program. These women made up 54% of all full-time students in these facilities that year. (Table 4.5)

In fact, there has been little change in the share of community college enrolment accounted for by women over the past quarter century. In 1999/2000, females made up 54% of all community college students, a figure that is only slightly higher than that recorded in the period from 1976/77 through 1997/98. (Chart 4.5)

Chart 4.5

Women as a percentage of full-time community college enrolment,¹ 1976-77 to 1999-2000



1. Refers to enrolment in career programs only.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-229-XPB; and Centre for Education Statistics.

As in universities, women make up the majority of students in most fields of study at the community college level. Indeed, in 1999/2000, women accounted for around nine out of 10 full-time college students enrolled in each of secretarial science (93%), educational and counselling services (92%), and nursing programs (89%), while they represented 80% of those in health sciences other than nursing, 70% of those in the social sciences, and 66% of those in the humanities. In contrast, women accounted for less than half (46%) of full-time community college enrolment in natural science and primary industry programs. They also made up only 24% of those in mathematics and computer science, and just 15% of students in engineering and other technologies. (Table 4.5)

Continuing education

A substantial number of employed women take courses designed to upgrade their job skills. In 2002, almost 2.5 million employed women, 37% of the total number of women with jobs, were participating in some kind of job-related education or training program. In fact, working women were somewhat more likely to participate in a job-related education or training program than their male counterparts, 33% of whom were in such programs that year. (Table 4.6)

Most women participating in job-related training are enrolled in non-academic courses oriented towards improving their employment skills. In 2002, 31% of all employed women were taking courses of this nature, while 10% were taking courses designed to upgrade their academic qualifications. Both figures were somewhat higher than those for their male counterparts.

Apprenticeship training

Women continue to make up a very small proportion of those registered in apprenticeship programs¹ in what have been traditionally male-dominated trades. In 2002, just 2% of all apprentices registered in 15 predominant trades² were women. (Table 4.7)

The total number of women participating in these programs, however, has risen in the past decade and a half. In 2002, just over 3,000 women were registered in apprenticeship programs in the 15 predominant trades, up from under 1,000 in 1988. As a result, the share of these positions occupied by women has inched up from around half a per cent in the late 1980s to the current figure of 2%.

Of apprentices in the 15 identified trades, women make up the largest share of those in painter/decorator programs. In 2002, women made up 8% of those enrolled in this program, while they represented around 3% of those apprenticing as one of welders, machinists, or industrial electricians. In contrast, women made up only around 1% or less of those enrolled in programs for millwrights, bricklayers, plumbers, heavy duty equipment operators, auto body mechanics, and refrigeration and air conditioning repairpersons.

However, there have been increases in the representation of women in some of these apprenticeship programs in the past decade. The share of women working as painting and decorating apprentices, for example, doubled between 1997 and 2002, rising from 4% to 8% in just five years. In the same period, the share of apprentices accounted for by women tripled among both industrial electricians and pipe fitters, while the figure almost doubled among welders. On the other hand, there was little change in female participation in the other programs listed in the past five years.

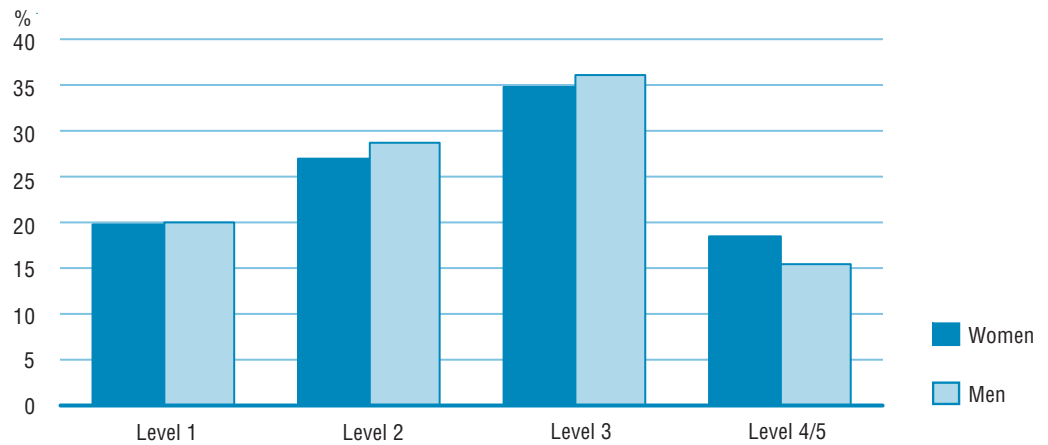
Literacy skills

Women have somewhat higher literacy skills, on average, than the male population. In 2003, 19% of women aged 16 and over, compared with only 16% of men, performed at the highest levels of the international Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey. At the same time, though, about the same shares of women and men had very limited reading skills. That year, 20% of both the female and male populations aged 16 and over were only able to perform simple reading tasks such as locating one piece of information in a text. (Chart 4.6)



Chart 4.6

Prose literacy levels¹ of women and men aged 16 and over, 2003



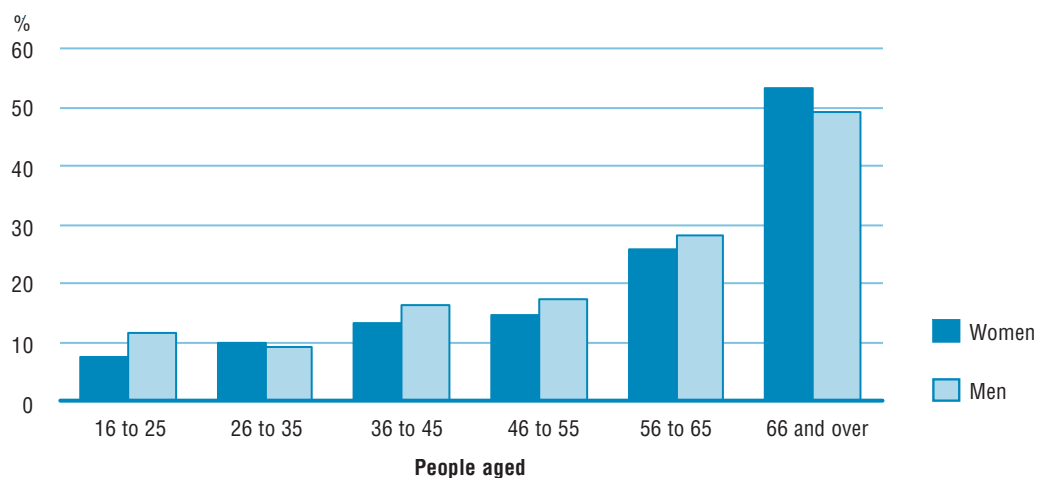
1. Tasks at Level 1 require the reader to perform simple reading skills such as locating and matching a single piece of information in a text. Those at Level 2 require the reader to locate one or more pieces of information in a text, but several detractors may be present or low-level inferences may be required. Tasks at Level 3 require the reader to search for information that requires low-level inferences or that meets specified conditions. Tasks at Level 4/5 require the reader to perform multi-feature matching or provide responses where the requested information must be identified through text-bases references, or to search for information in dense text that contains a number of plausible detractors.

Source: Statistics Canada, Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey.

Older women are much more likely than their younger counterparts to have literacy difficulties. Indeed, in 2003, over half (53%) of women aged 66 and over had very limited reading skills, compared with 26% of women aged 56 to 65, 15% of those aged 46 to 55, 13% of those aged 36 to 45, and 10% or less of those in age groups under age 35. (Chart 4.7)

Chart 4.7

Percentage of women and men at the lowest prose level, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey.

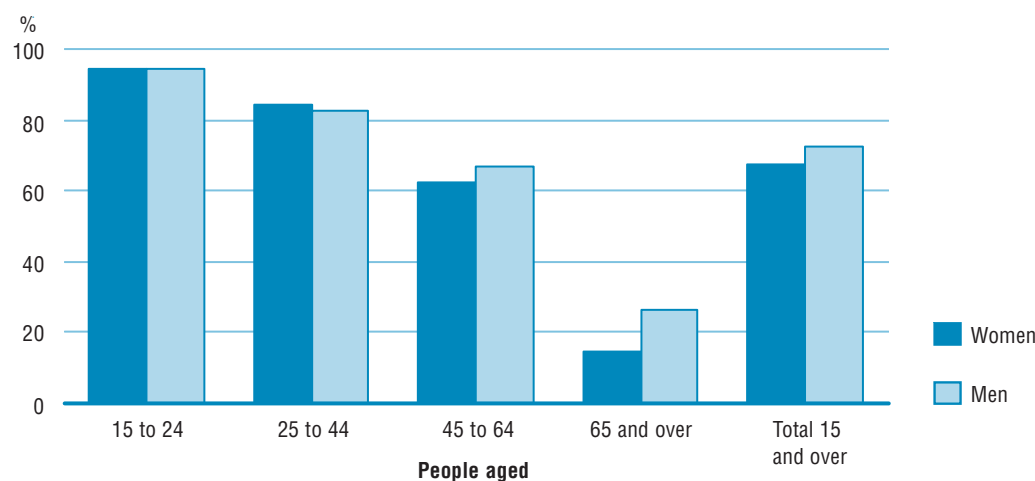
Senior women are also slightly more likely than their male counterparts to have literacy problems. In 2003, 53% of women aged 66 and over had limited reading skills, while the figure was 49% among men in this age range. In contrast, with the exception of those aged 26 to 35, women in younger age groups are generally less likely than men in these age ranges to have difficulty reading.

Most use the internet

Two out of three women in Canada use the Internet. In 2003, 68% of women aged 15 and over reported that they used the Internet during the previous 12 months. The proportion of women using the Internet, though, was slightly below the figure for men, 72% of whom reported using the Internet in the same period. (Chart 4.8)

Chart 4.8

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over who reported using the Internet in the previous 12 months, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

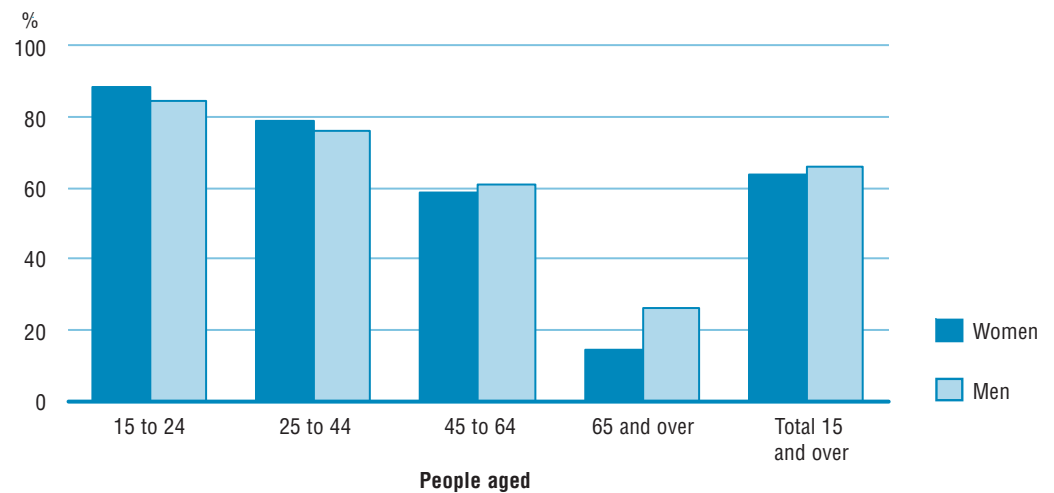
Not surprisingly, reported Internet use by women is highest among those in younger age groups. Indeed, in 2003, 94% of women aged 15 to 24 said they had used the Internet within the previous year, while the figure was 84% among those aged 25 to 44. In contrast, just 63% of women aged 45 to 64 had used the Internet in the previous 12 months, while the figure was only 14% among senior women.

Young women are about as likely as their male counterparts to use the Internet. Indeed, in 2003, 94% of both women and men aged 15 to 25 reported using the Internet within the previous year. There was a similar trend among those aged 25 to 44, while in older age ranges women were somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to use the Internet. Among seniors, for example, just 14% of women, about half the figure for men aged 65 and over (27%), had used the Internet the previous year,

There is a similar pattern for email usage. In 2003, 64% of women aged 15 and over reported they had used email in the previous 12 months, a couple of percentage points below the figure for men (66%). Again, young women were the most likely to have used electronic mail, while few senior women used this technology. Indeed, that year, just 15% of women aged 65 and over had used email in the previous year. (Chart 4.9)

Chart 4.9

Percentage of women and men who reported using email in the previous 12 months, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Notes

1. Apprenticeship training involves a contract between an apprentice and an employer, registered with a province, in which the employer provides the apprentice with training and experience for a trade. Programs vary in length from one to five years, depending on the trade. Registered apprenticeship combines on-the-job experience with six to eight week periods of in-class training. There are 180 established trades in Canada that have recognized registered apprenticeship programs. The 15 trades discussed in this section are among those with the largest number of participants. There are also two trades—hair stylists and cooks—which do attract a large number of female applicants.

Table 4.1

Educational attainment of people aged 15 and over, 2001

Educational attainment	Women		Men		Women as a percent of the total
	000s	%	000s	%	
Less than grade 9	1,246.5	10.2	1,104.0	9.4	53.0
Some secondary school	2,568.1	20.9	2,558.3	22.0	50.1
High school graduate	1,847.8	15.1	1,520.1	13.1	54.9
Some postsecondary	1,351.2	11.0	1,239.0	10.7	52.2
Trades certificate/diploma	955.4	7.8	1,643.4	14.1	36.8
College certificate/diploma	2,123.3	17.3	1,455.1	12.5	59.3
University certificate/diploma below bachelor's degree	359.3	2.9	242.2	2.1	59.7
University graduate					
Bachelor's/first professional degree	1,505.8	12.3	1,411.2	12.1	51.6
Master's	282.5	2.3	359.5	3.1	44.0
Doctorate	34.7	0.3	93.9	0.8	27.0
Total with university degree	1,823.0	14.9	1,864.7	16.0	49.4
Total	12,274.6	100.0	11,626.8	100.0	51.4

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 4.2

Educational attainment of women and men, by age, 2001

Educational attainment	People aged							
	20 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 64		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Less than high school graduation	13.4	19.2	15.9	19.5	29.6	28.3	59.7	54.2
High school graduate	12.7	17.2	14.3	13.3	17.5	12.7	12.9	8.9
Trades certificate/diploma	6.9	9.4	9.8	16.2	8.7	17.0	5.2	13.4
Some postsecondary	29.4	29.1	11.0	10.9	8.0	7.6	6.2	5.2
Postsecondary certificate/diploma	23.7	16.8	26.2	19.3	21.4	15.0	11.4	7.7
University degree	13.8	8.4	22.8	20.8	14.7	19.4	4.6	10.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000s)	963.3	980.5	4,607.9	4,439.2	3,680.0	3,561.2	2,032.8	1,592.1

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 4.3

Full-time university enrolment of women, by level, 1972-73 to 2001-02

	1972-73			1981-82			1992-93			2001-02		
	000s	%	Women as a percent of total in level	000s	%	Women as a percent of total in level	000s	%	Women as a percent of total in level	000s	%	Women as a percent of total in level
Bachelor's/first professional degree	98.1	93.3	38.4	154.9	91.4	46.7	249.8	90.4	53.5	293.4	89.0	57.7
Master's	5.2	4.9	27.1	11.3	6.7	41.1	18.9	6.9	46.2	25.1	7.6	51.4
Doctorate	1.9	1.8	18.8	3.2	1.9	31.0	7.4	2.7	35.2	11.3	3.4	45.9
Total	105.1	100.0	37.0	169.4	100.0	45.8	276.1	100.0	52.2	329.8	100.0	56.7

Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Table 4.4

Women as a percentage of full-time university enrolment, by level and field of study, 2001-02

Field of study	Bachelor's and first professional degree	Master's	Doctorate	Total
	%			
Education	78.5	76.0	68.3	77.9
Fine/applied arts	66.7	62.1	61.4	66.3
Humanities	60.8	59.0	50.4	60.3
Social sciences	61.0	51.9	56.4	60.1
Agricultural/biological sciences	63.1	56.4	44.8	60.7
Engineering/applied sciences	23.7	28.7	19.1	24.0
Health professions	76.2	74.4	58.8	75.4
Mathematics/physical sciences	29.8	35.3	27.2	30.2
Total¹	57.7	51.4	45.9	56.7

1. Includes those with no specialization and those for whom no specialization was stated.

Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Table 4.5

**Full-time community college enrolment¹ of women,
by field of study, 1999-2000**

Field of study	Women enrolled		Women as a percent of total in field
	000s	%	
Fine/applied arts	17.9	8.1	58.4
Arts and sciences	66.0	29.9	58.4
Humanities	2.2	1.0	66.3
Secretarial science	9.0	4.1	92.8
Other business/commerce	38.2	17.3	54.7
Mathematics/computer science	7.2	3.3	23.7
Engineering/applied science	8.1	3.7	15.4
Nursing	13.5	6.1	89.0
Other health sciences	12.4	5.7	80.0
Natural sciences/primary industries	7.1	3.2	46.2
Education/counselling services	9.0	4.1	92.4
Other social sciences/services	29.4	13.3	70.1
Total²	220.6	100.0	54.0

1. Refers to enrolment in career programs only.

2. Includes other and not reported.

Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Table 4.6

**Participation of employed women and men in job-related education or
training programs, 2002**

	Women		Men	
	000s	As a percent of all employed women	000s	As a percent of all employed men
Academic programs	641	9.8	538	7.3
Other courses	2,046	31.3	2,060	27.8
Total¹	2,429	37.2	2,410	32.5

1. Columns add up to more than total because respondents could take both types of programs.

Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Table 4.7

**Enrolment of women in apprenticeship programs in selected trades,
1988, 1992, 1997 and 2002**

Program	1988		1992		1997		2002	
	Number of women enrolled	As a percent of total enrolled in program	Number of women enrolled	As a percent of total enrolled in program	Number of women enrolled	As a percent of total enrolled in program	Number of women enrolled	As a percent of total enrolled in program
Bricklayer	7	0.2	22	0.6	17	0.9	35	1.2
Carpenter	125	0.5	385	1.4	396	2.1	496	1.8
Electrician – construction	143	0.7	305	1.3	388	2.0	675	2.3
Electrician – industrial	73	1.0	56	0.6	69	1.1	221	2.9
Heavy-duty equipment mechanic	15	0.3	14	0.3	27	0.6	44	0.7
Millwright	29	0.5	56	0.7	65	1.0	116	1.4
Machinist	76	1.9	126	3.8	102	2.4	146	2.6
Motor vehicle body repair	28	0.7	56	1.5	47	1.4	43	1.3
Motor vehicle mechanic	84	0.4	255	1.4	273	1.6	321	1.7
Painter/decorator	53	1.8	124	3.6	91	3.9	265	7.6
Plumber	28	0.4	46	0.6	66	1.0	113	1.2
Refrigeration/air conditioning	7	0.3	23	0.8	26	0.8	26	0.6
Sheet metal worker	16	0.3	29	0.5	58	1.3	88	1.6
Steam/pipe fitters	33	0.4	45	0.4	35	0.5	136	1.5
Welder	41	1.2	37	0.9	122	1.9	328	3.3
Total	758	0.6	1,579	1.2	1,782	1.6	3,053	2.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.

Chapter 5

Paid and Unpaid Work

By *Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey*

More women employed

The increased participation of women in the paid work force has been one of the most significant social trends in Canada in the past quarter century.¹ In fact, there were 7.5 million Canadian women with jobs in 2004, twice the figure in the mid-1970s. Overall, 58% of all women aged 15 and over currently are part of the paid work force, up from 42% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men who were employed fell during this period from 73% to 68%. As a result, women accounted for 47% of the employed workforce in 2004, up from 37% in 1976. (Table 5.1)

There was a particularly sharp rise in the employment of women during the 1970s and 1980s. The share of women with jobs rose from 42% in 1976 to 54% in 1990. In contrast, there was little change in the female employment rate during the first half of the 1990s as a result of the recession in this period. Indeed, the proportion of women who were employed in 1996 (52%) was actually a couple of percentage points below the 1990 figure. The employment level of women, though, began to rebound in the mid-1990s and has increased every year since.

The employment level of men has also increased in recent years, reversing the long downward trend in the share of men with jobs. By the early 1990s, just 65% of men aged 15 and over were participating in the paid work force, down from 73% in the late 1970s. Since 1995, however, there has been slow, but steady growth in the proportion of the adult male population with jobs. The current percentage of men with jobs (68%), though, is still well below the figure in the late 1970s.

Provincial variations in employment

Women in Alberta are more likely than those in other provinces to be employed. In 2004, 64% of women aged 15 and over in Alberta had jobs, while the figure was 60% in Manitoba, 59% in both Ontario and Saskatchewan, 57% in Prince Edward Island, 56% in both Quebec and British Columbia, 55% in New Brunswick, and 54% in Nova Scotia. At the same time, Newfoundland and Labrador, where just 47% of women were employed that year, was the only province in which fewer than half of women were part of the paid work force. (Table 5.2)

While the employment levels of women in the western provinces and Ontario tend to be somewhat higher than those in Quebec and the Atlantic region, the gap has closed in the past decade. Between 1995 and 2004, for example, the share of women aged 15 and over with jobs rose almost 9 percentage points in Nova Scotia, while the figure was up 8 percentage points in both Quebec and New Brunswick and 7 in both

Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland and Labrador. In contrast, employment levels of women are currently around 5 percentage points higher than they were a decade ago in Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, while there was a 4 percentage increase in Alberta. The smallest growth in employment among women occurred in British Columbia, where 56% of women were employed in 2004, up only two percentage points from 54% in 1995.

In all provinces, though, women are less likely than men to be employed. In Alberta, for example, 64% of women aged 15 and over were part of the paid work force in 2004, compared with 76% of men, a difference of 12 percentage points. There was also an 11 percentage point gap in the employment rates of women and men in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan, while the difference in the remaining provinces ranged from 10 percentage points in both Ontario and Quebec to just 6 in each of New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island.

The gaps in employment levels of women and men across the country, though, are much smaller than they have been in the past. As recently as a decade ago, the share of women aged 15 and over who were employed was well over 10 percentage points below that for their male counterparts in just about every province, while in 1976 the gap was around 30 percentage points right across the country.

Educational attainment and employment

Not surprisingly, the likelihood of women being employed increases dramatically the higher their level of educational attainment. In 2004, 75% of women with a university degree, and 69% of those with a certificate or diploma from a community college, were part of the paid workforce, compared with 60% of high school graduates, 37% of women who had attended, but had not completed high school, and just 16% of those who had not gone beyond Grade 8. (Table 5.3)

Regardless of their level of educational attainment, however, women are still somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. Among people with a university degree, for example, 75% of women, versus 79% of men, had jobs in 2004. Similarly, among those with a non-university certificate or diploma, 69% of women, compared with 77% of men, were employed that year.

Age and employment

Currently those between the ages of 25 and 54 have the highest employment levels among women. In 2004, 77% of women aged 25 to 44 and 76% of those aged 45 to 54 were part of the paid workforce, compared with 58% of younger women aged 15 to 24 and 46% of those aged 54 to 65. (Table 5.4)

The current situation contrasts sharply with that in the mid-1970s, when women aged 15 to 24 were slightly more likely than their older counterparts to be employed. In the intervening years, though, there have been dramatic increases in the labour force participation rates of women over the age of 25, while the employment rate of women aged 15 to 24 has changed little. In 2004, 76% of women aged 45 to 54 were employed, up from just 46% in 1976. There was a similar rise in the employment levels of women aged 25 to 44, while the share of women aged 55 to 64 participating in the paid workforce rose from 30% to 46% in the same period. On the other hand, the share of women aged 15 to 24 who were employed rose only from 51% to 58% in the past three decades.

Despite these trends, women between the ages of 25 and 54 are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. In 2004, 77% of 25- to 44-year-

old women had jobs, compared with 86% of men in this age group. Similarly, 76% of women aged 45 to 54 were employed that year, compared with 85% of their male counterparts. These gaps, however, have closed significantly since the mid-1970s, when women in these age ranges were only about half as likely as their male counterparts to be employed.

Women aged 55 to 64 are also substantially less likely to be employed than men in this age range, although this gap has narrowed over the past two decades. On the one hand, there has been a substantial increase in employment rates among women aged 55 to 64. In 2004, 46% of these women were part of the paid workforce, up from 30% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men aged 55 to 64 who are currently part of the paid work force is over 10 percentage points less than it was in the mid-1970s. Indeed, in 2004, 62% of men in this age range were employed, versus 73% in 1976. However, after almost two full decades of decline, the share of men aged 55 to 64 who are employed has risen since the mid-1990s, when just 53% of these men were employed. As a result of these trends, women aged 55 to 64 were still considerably less likely than men in this age range to be employed in 2004: 46% versus 62%. This is less than half the gap, though, that existed in 1976.

In contrast to older age groups, employment rates are similar for women and men aged 15 to 24. In fact, in 2004, 58% of both females and males in this age range were employed. This also represents a change from 1976, when young women were somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be employed: 51% versus 60%.

Employment and presence of children

There has been particularly sharp growth in the employment rate of women with children in the past two decades. In 2004, 73% of all women with children under age 16 living at home were part of the employed workforce, up from 39% in 1976. Women with children, though, are still less likely to be employed than women without children. In 2004, 79% of women under age 55 without children living at home had jobs. (Table 5.5)

There have been particularly dramatic increases in the employment levels of women with very young children. Indeed, by 2004, 65% of all women with children under age 3 were employed, more than double the figure in 1976 when just 28% were employed. Similarly, 70% of women whose youngest child was aged 3 to 5 worked for pay or profit in 2004, up from 37% in 1976.

Women with pre-school-aged children, though, are still less likely than those with school-aged children to be employed. Overall, in 2004, 67% of women with children under age 6 were employed, compared with 77% of those whose youngest child was aged 6 to 15.

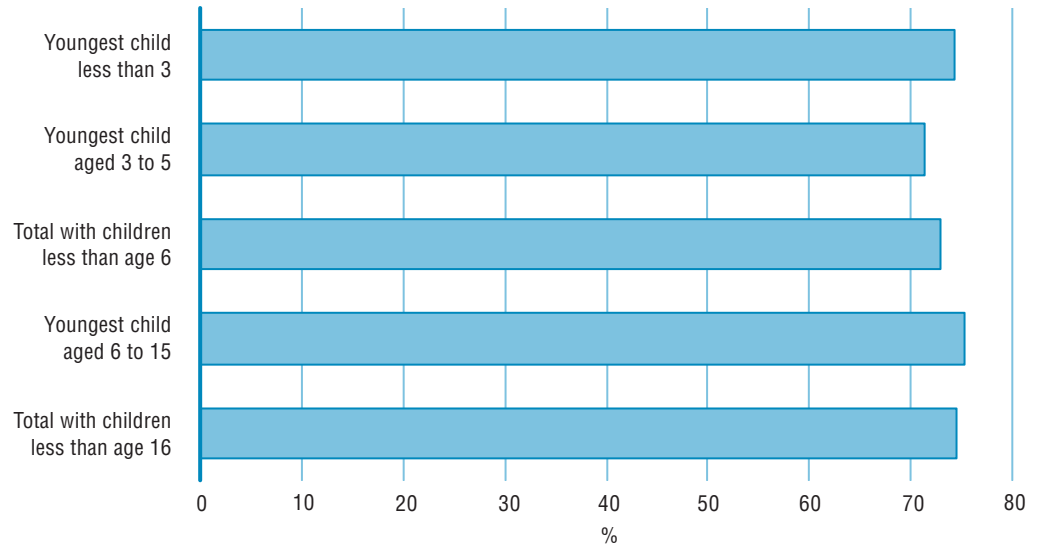
The vast majority of employed women with children hold full-time jobs. Indeed, in 2004, almost three out of four employed women with at least one child under age 16 at home were employed full time, that is, they worked 30 or more hours per week at their jobs. That year, 74% of all employed women with at least one child under the age of 16 at home were part of the paid workforce. (Chart 5.1)

In addition, the age of the children appears to have very little impact on the likelihood of mothers being employed full-time. Indeed, 74% of employed women whose youngest child was under 3 years of age had full-time jobs in 2004, while the figures were 71% for those whose youngest child was aged 3 to 5 and 75% for those whose youngest child was between the ages of 6 and 15.



Chart 5.1

Percentage of employed mothers working full-time, by age of youngest child, 2004



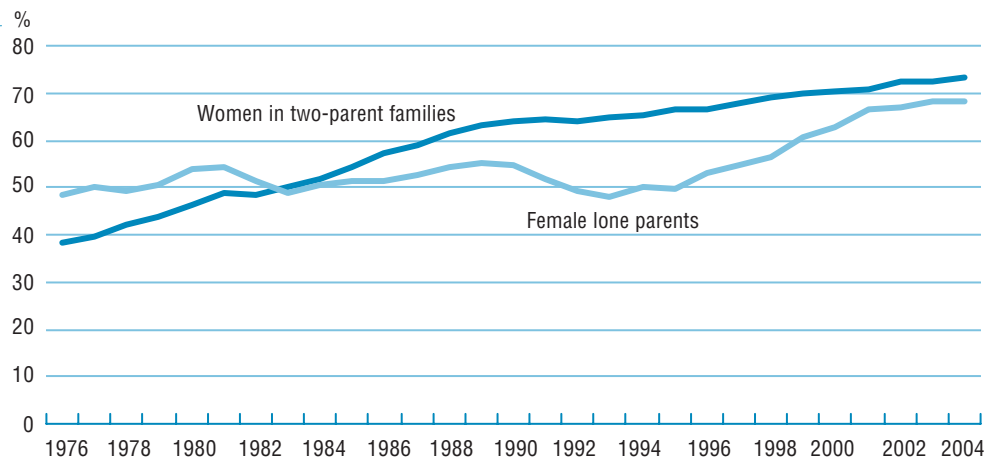
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Employment of female lone parents

Female lone parents are somewhat less likely than mothers in two-parent families to be employed. In 2004, 68% of female lone parents with children less than age 16 living at home were employed, compared with 73% of their counterparts in two-parent families. (Chart 5.2)

Chart 5.2

Employment of women with children, by family status, 1976 to 2004



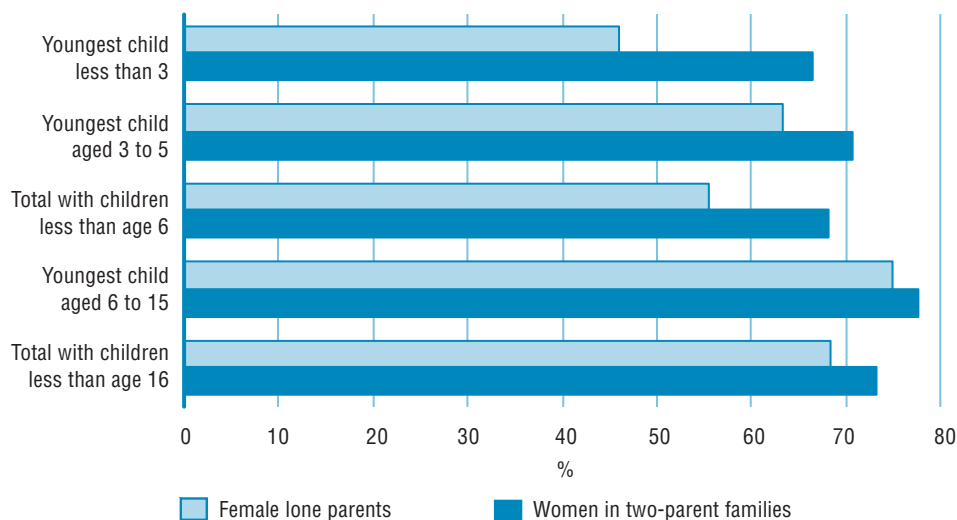
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

As with their married counterparts, the share of female lone parents with jobs has risen dramatically over the last three decades. In 2004, 68% of female lone parents were employed, whereas the figure was under 50% in 1976. There has, in fact, been particularly sharp growth in the employment levels of female lone parents since the early 1990s when fewer than half were employed. This reflects, in part, the fact that there were a substantial drop in employment among lone mothers during the recession in the early 1990s, a trend contrary to that observed among mothers in two-parent families.

The employment of female lone parents is also very much influenced by the presence of young children. In 2004, less than half (46%) of lone mothers with children under age 3 were employed, compared with 63% of those whose youngest child was aged 3 to 5 and 75% of those whose youngest child was between the ages of 6 and 15. (Chart 5.3)

Chart 5.3

Employment of mothers, by age of youngest child and family status, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Female lone parents with very young children are also considerably less likely to be employed than their counterparts in two-parent families. Among women with a child under the age of 3, 46% of female lone parents, compared with 67% of those with a spouse, were employed in 2004. There was a smaller gap, 63% versus 71%, among those whose youngest child was aged 3 to 5, while there was almost no difference in employment rates of female lone parents (75%) and women with a spouse (78%) whose youngest child was between the ages of 6 and 15.

Child care

There has been a substantial increase in the number of licensed child care spaces available to families in the past several decades. By 2003, there were almost 750,000 licensed child care spaces in Canada, 59% more than in 1998. The current figure is also twice that in the early 1990s and close to seven times greater than that in 1980. (Table 5.6)

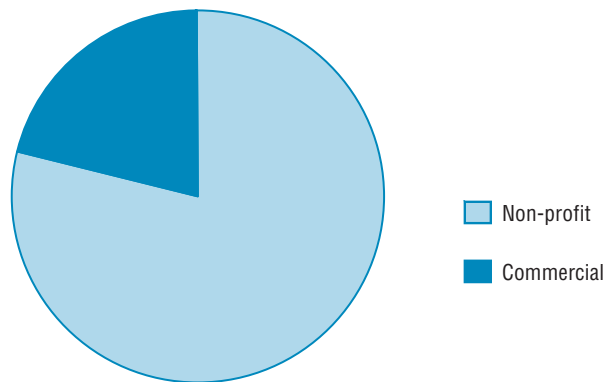
Recent increases in the number of child care spaces, in fact, are more than double those that occurred throughout most of the 1990s. In the two year period between 2001 and 2003, the number of spaces increased by around 13% per year, compared with increases of 6% per year between 1990 and 1998. The current growth rate in the number of child care spaces, though, is still smaller than that in the period from 1982 to 1987 when the number of available spaces grew by close to 20% per year.

The majority of licensed day-care spaces in Canada are in regular day-care centres. In 2003, 82% of all licensed day-care spots were in regular day-care centres, while 18% were licensed spots in a family home. Increases in the number of spaces in family day-care settings, though, accounted for a disproportionate share of the overall increase in the number of available day-care spaces in recent years. Between 2001 and 2003, the number of family day-care spaces increased by 54%, while the number of regular day-care spaces rose by only 21%. Indeed, in this period, growth in the number of family day-care spaces accounted for 31% of the overall increase in the number of day-care spaces available to Canadian families.

Most regular day-care centre spaces are in non-profit centres. In 2003, 79% of all day-care centre spaces were in non-profit centres, while 21% were in commercial centres. As well, these non-profit centres have accounted for most of the growth in the overall number of day-care centre spaces in recent years. In fact, 87% of the increase in the number of day-care centre spaces between 1996 and 2003 occurred in non-profit centres. (Chart 5.4)

Chart 5.4

Sponsorship of day care centres,¹ 2003



1. Excludes New Brunswick and British Columbia.

Source: Childcare Resource and Research Unit, University of Toronto, Status of Child Care in Canada.

Absences from work due to other responsibilities

Employed women are far more likely than their male counterparts to lose time from their jobs because of personal or family responsibilities, including maternity leave. During an average week in 2004, for example, 5% of all full-time female paid employees lost some time from work for these reasons, compared with just 2% of male employees. Overall that year, female employees missed an average of 10 days due to these commitments, up from around four days per year in the mid-1980s and just two days in the late 1970s. Employed men, on the other hand, missed only about a day and a half of work, on average, because of personal or family responsibilities in 2004, a figure that has risen only marginally since the late 1970s. (Table 5.7)

Part-time employment

Women are much more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time, that is, work less than 30 hours per week. In 2004, over 2 million employed Canadian women, 27% of the total female workforce, were part-time employees, compared with just 11% of employed men. The overall share of employed women working part-time, though, is currently somewhat lower than it was throughout the 1990s when around 29% of employed females worked part-time. Still women currently account for about seven in 10 of all part-time employees, a figure which has not changed appreciably since the mid-1970s. (Table 5.8)

Young women are the most likely to work part-time. Indeed, in 2004, over half (52%) of employed women aged 15 to 24 worked part-time, compared with 21% of those between the ages of 25 and 54 and 30% of those aged 55-64. (Table 5.9)

Women in all age groups, though, are far more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time. This is especially true of women between the ages of 25 and 54. In 2004, over 20% of women in both the 25 to 44 and 45 to 54 age ranges worked part-time, compared with less than 5% of men in each of these groups. At the same time, women aged 55 to 64 were about three times as likely as men in this age range to work part-time: 30% versus 11%. Meanwhile, employed women under age 25 are also more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time. However, because large numbers of young men also are employed part-time, the gap is not as dramatic as that in older age groups. That year, 52% of employed women aged 15 to 24 worked part-time, while the figure was 37% among young male employees.

Most women work part-time either because they do not want full-time employment or because part-time work is more appropriate for their personal situation. In 2004, 27% of women employed part-time reported they did not want full-time work, while 25% indicated they were going to school, 14% said they did so because they were either caring for children, and 4% did so because of other personal or family responsibilities. (Table 5.10)

Women, in fact, are far more likely than men to work part-time because of child care or other personal or family responsibilities. In 2004, a total of 18% of employed women said they worked part-time either because of child care or other personal or family responsibilities, compared with only 2% of males employed part-time. Women were also somewhat more likely than men to have worked part-time that year because of personal preference: 27% versus 23%. In contrast, men were far more likely than women to work part-time because they were going to school; that year, 42% of male part-time workers did so because of their educational status, compared with 25% of female part-timers.

At the same time, a substantial number of women work part-time because they cannot find full-time employment. In 2004, 26% of all female part-time employees



indicated that they wanted full-time employment, but could only find part-time work. Women, though, were about as likely as men to work part-time involuntarily, as 28% of male part-time employees also wanted full-time work that year.

The reasons women work part-time vary considerably by age. Women aged 25 to 44, for example, were more likely than other women to work part-time in 2004 because of personal or family responsibilities. Indeed, that year, 34% of women in this age range worked part-time because of child care responsibilities, compared with just 5% of those aged 45 and over and only 2% of those in the 15 to 24 age bracket. At the same time, women aged 25 to 44 were also more likely than other women to work part-time because they couldn't find full-time employment. In contrast, women aged 15 to 24 were the most likely to work part-time because they were going to school, while those aged 45 and over were the most likely not to want full-time employment.

Self-employment

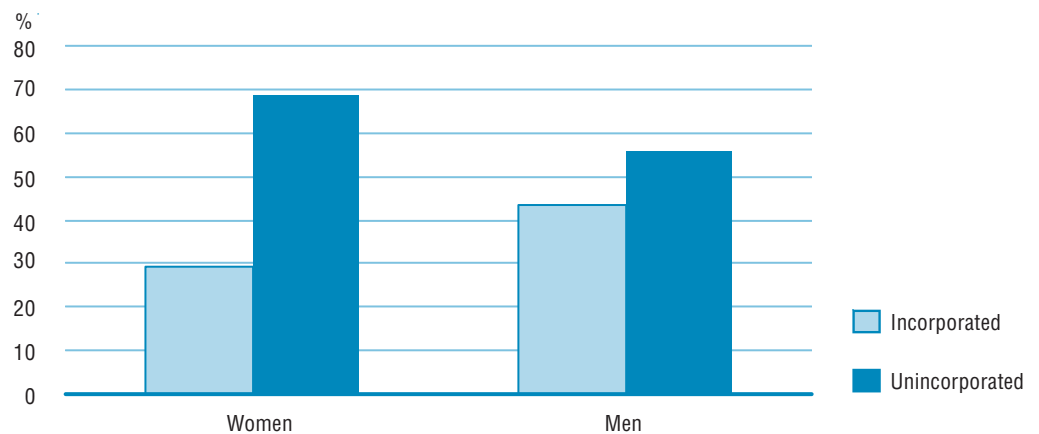
Currently, over one in 10 employed women in Canada is self-employed. In 2004, almost 840,000 women, 11% of all employed women, were self-employed, up from 9% in 1976. The share of employed women who work for themselves, though, peaked in the latter part of the 1990s, when over 13% of women with jobs were self-employed, and has edged downwards since. (Table 5.11)

There has been a similar trend among employed men, although men are still more likely than women to be self-employed. In 2004, 11% of self-employed women worked for themselves, compared with 19% of employed men. Overall, women accounted for 34% of all self-employed workers in 2004, up from 31% in 1990 and 26% in 1976, but down slightly from a peak of 36% in 1998.

Self-employed women are also less likely than their male counterparts to run an incorporated business. In 2004, just 29% of self-employed women ran an incorporated business, compared with 43% of their male counterparts. In contrast, 68% of self-employed women, versus 56% of their male counterparts, ran unincorporated businesses. (Chart 5.5)

Chart 5.5

Percentage of self-employed women and men in incorporated and unincorporated businesses,¹ 2004



1. Includes those with and without paid employees.

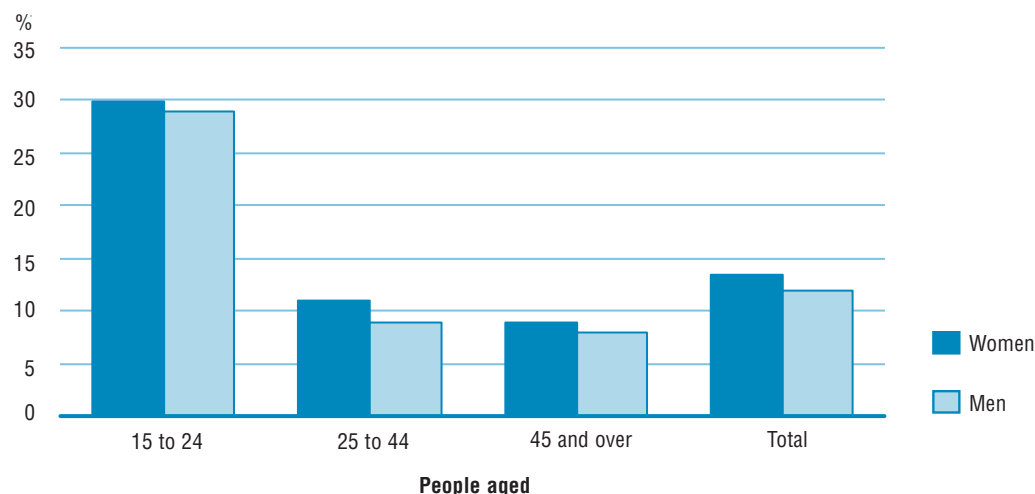
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Temporary work

Women are slightly more likely than men to have temporary employment, that is, they are working at a job with a predetermined end date. In 2004, 14% of female employees, compared with 12% of male employees, had a temporary work arrangement. (Chart 5.6)

Chart 5.6

Percentage of employed women and men with temporary work, by age, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Women aged 15 to 24 are much more likely than older workers to have temporary jobs. In 2004, 30% of these young female employees had temporary work, compared with just 11% of employed women aged 25 to 44 and 9% of those aged 45 and over. At all ages, though, employed women were slightly more likely than their male counterparts to be in a temporary work arrangement.

More multiple jobholders

A small, but growing share of employed women in Canada hold more than one job. In 2004, 6% of employed women were multiple jobholders, up from 4% in 1987. As well, women were slightly more likely to be multiple jobholders than men in 2004: 6% versus 4%. That year, women accounted for 55% of all multiple jobholders, up from 42% in 1987. (Table 5.12)

Young women are especially likely to hold more than one job. In 2004, 8% of employed women aged 15 to 24 were multiple jobholders, compared with 6% of those aged 25 to 44 and 5% of those aged 45 and over. Again, though, employed women in all age ranges were more likely than their male counterparts to have more than one job.

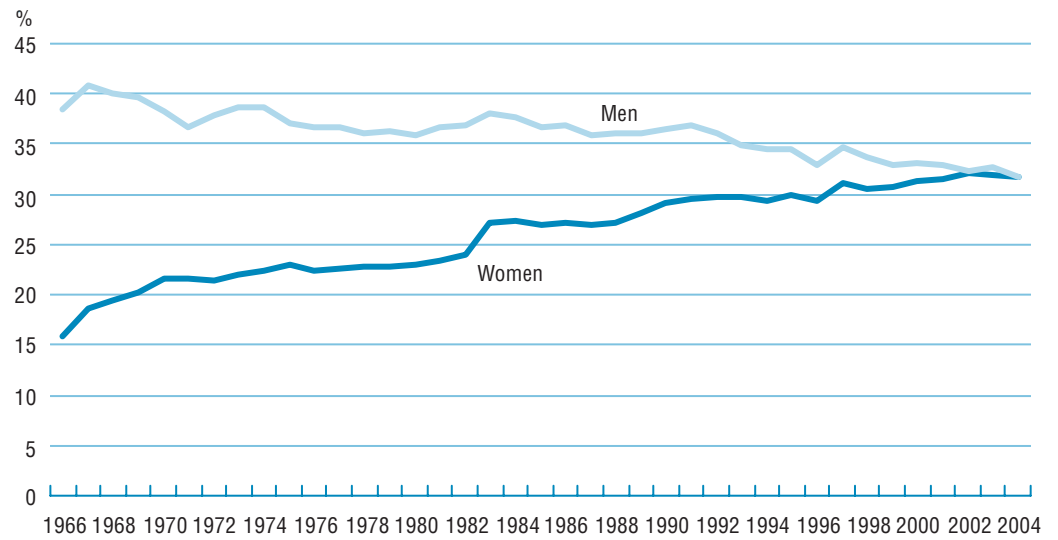
Women in unions

There has been a dramatic increase in the share of women who are unionized over the past three decades. In 2004, 32% of female employees belonged to a union, double the figure in 1966 when just 16% of female workers were unionized. This contrasts sharply

with the experience of male employees, whose union membership declined in the same period, dropping from over just 40% in the late 1960s to 32% in 2004. In fact, unionization rates among women and men are currently almost exactly the same. (Chart 5.7)

Chart 5.7

Percentage of female and male workers unionized, 1966 to 2004

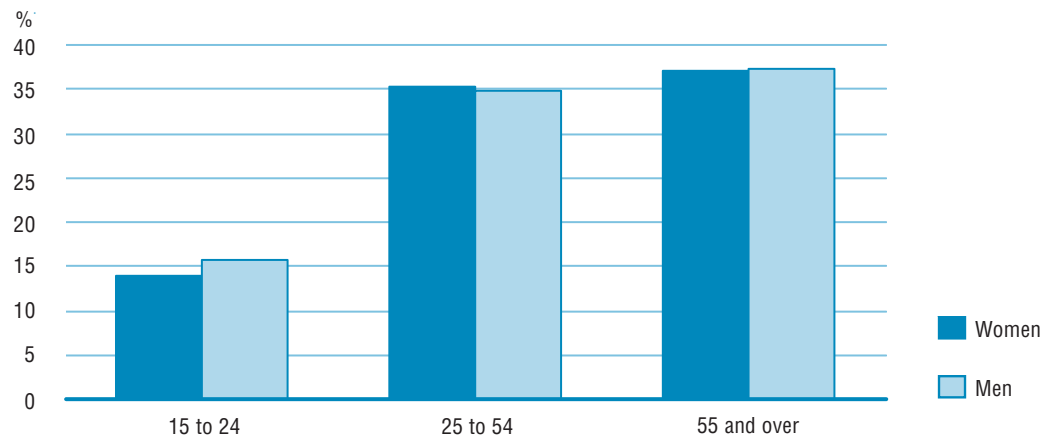


Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey; and CALURA.

Among female workers, those over the age of 25 are more likely to be unionized than their younger counterparts. In 2004, 37% of female employees aged 55 and over were unionized, while the figure was 35% for those aged 25 to 54. In contrast, just 14% of young female workers aged 15 to 24 were union members. (Chart 5.8)

Chart 5.8

Percentage of female and male workers unionized, by age, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Occupational distribution

The majority of employed women continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 2004, 67% of all employed women were working in teaching, nursing and related health occupations, clerical or other administrative positions, and sales and service occupations. This compared with just 30% of employed men. (Table 5.13)

There has also been virtually no change in the proportion of women employed in these traditionally female-dominated occupations over the past decade. In fact, the share of female workers employed in these areas in 2004 was almost exactly the same as that in 1996. In contrast, the percentage of women working in these traditional female-dominated occupational groupings had declined in the previous decade from 72% in 1987 to 67% in 1996.

Women also continue to account for large shares of total employment in each of these occupational groups. In 2004, women made up 87% of all nurses and health-related therapists, 75% of clerks and other administrators, 65% of teachers, and 57% of those working in sales and service.

At the same time, though, women have increased their representation in several professional fields in recent years. Indeed, women currently make up well over half those employed in diagnostic and treating positions in medicine and related health professions. In 2004, 55% of all doctors and dentists in Canada were female, up from 43% in 1987. Women also currently make up over half of those employed as business and financial professionals. In 2004, women made up 51% of those employed in these occupations, up from 38% in 1987. Women also continue to make up a growing share of professionals employed in social science or religious occupations. In 2004, women represented 72% of all those employed in these areas, compared with 62% in 1987.

There has also been a long-term increase in the share of women employed in managerial positions. In 2004, 37% of all those employed in managerial positions were women, up from 30% in 1987. All of this growth, though, occurred in the early part of this period. Indeed, the share of management positions accounted for by women actually dipped slightly in the period from 1996 to 2004.

As well, among managers, women tend to be better represented in lower-level positions as opposed to those at more senior levels. In 2004, women made up only 22% of senior managers, compared with 38% of managers at other levels. Even more significantly perhaps, female representation at senior management levels has actually declined in the past decade. In 2004, women made up 22% of senior managers in Canada, whereas in 1996, the figure had been 27%.

Women also continue to remain very much a minority among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. In 2004, just 21% of professionals in these occupations were women, a figure which has changed little since 1987 when women accounted for just under 20% of professionals in these highly technical fields. In addition, it is unlikely that female representation in these occupations will increase in the near future, because, as reported in Chapter 4, women continue to account for relatively small shares of total university enrolments in these fields.

There are also relatively few women employed in most goods-producing occupations in which few women have traditionally worked. In 2004, 31% of workers in manufacturing were women, as were 19% of those in primary industries and just 7% of those in transportation, trades, and construction work. The representation of women has grown somewhat in the latter category since the late 1980s, while there has been almost no change in the representation of women in either manufacturing or primary occupations in the past two decades.



Women in agriculture

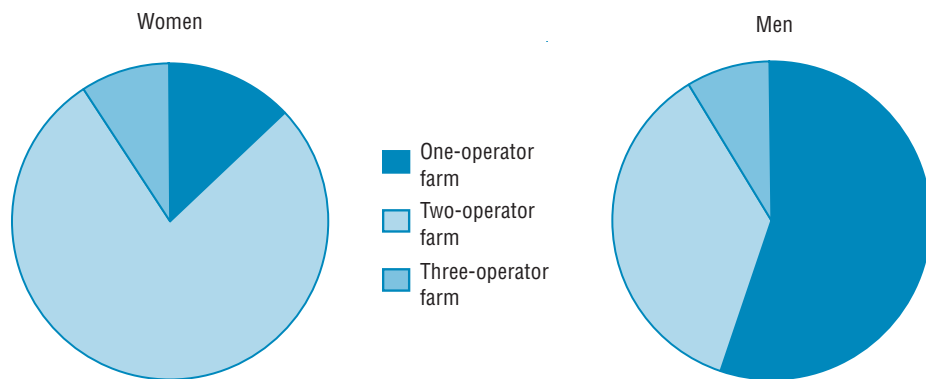
Women currently make up about one in four farm operators in Canada. In 2001, there were just over 90,000 female farm operators who represented 26% of all farm operators in the country. In contrast, women made up 34% of all those classified as self-employed and 47% of all labour force participants. (Table 5.14)

Female farm operators are also considerably older, on average, than other female labour force participants in Canada. In 2004, 30% of all female farmers were aged 55 and older, compared with 19% of all self-employed women and just 10% of all female labour force participants. In contrast, only 12% of female farmers were under age 35, versus 20% of the self-employed female workforce and 39% of all female labour force participants.

The large majority of female farm operators share the responsibilities of management with at least one partner. In 2001, 78% of female operators were partners on two-operator farms and 9% managed farms with three or more operators, while only 13% managed farms on their own. In contrast, 55% of male farm operators managed farms on their own, while 36% were partners on a two-operator farm and 9% were involved in multi-owner farms. (Chart 5.9)

Chart 5.9

Farm operators, by number of operators, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Agriculture.

Unemployment rates lower

Female labour force participants are generally less likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts.² In 2004, 549,000 women, 6.8% of all female labour force participants, were unemployed, compared with 7.5% of their male counterparts. In fact, the unemployment rate has been lower among women than men since the late 1980s, whereas the reverse was the case for much of the period from 1976 to 1989. (Table 5.15)

As with the male workforce, young women are considerably more likely than those in older age ranges to be unemployed. In 2004, 11.8% of female labour force participants aged 15 to 24 were unemployed, compared with just 6.4% of those aged 25 to 44 and 5.2% of those aged 45 to 64. (Table 5.16)

Young women, though, are still considerably less likely than young men to be unemployed. In 2004, 11.8% of female labour force participants aged 15 to 24 were unemployed, whereas the figure was 14.9% among males in this age group. In contrast, women in both the 25 to 44 and 45 to 64 age ranges were about as likely to be unemployed as men in these age ranges.

Women in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec generally have higher unemployment rates than their counterparts in Ontario and the Western provinces. In 2004, 14.2% of female labour force participants in Newfoundland and Labrador were unemployed, while the figure was 10.6% in Prince Edward Island, and around 8% in each of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Quebec. In contrast, the female unemployment in the rest of the country ranged from 7.1% in British Columbia to just 4.7% in both Alberta and British Columbia. (Table 5.17)

Unemployment rates among women in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec, however, are considerably below than those of their male counterparts. In Newfoundland and Labrador, for example, 14.2% of female labour force participants were unemployed in 2004, compared with 17.0% of men. At the same time, the gap in the unemployment rate of women and men in the other provinces in the Atlantic region and Quebec ranged from 3.0 percentage points in New Brunswick to 1.3 percentage points in Quebec. In contrast, with the exception of Saskatchewan where the female unemployment rate was 1.2 percentage points lower than that of men, the unemployment rate of women was within a percentage point of that of men in each of Ontario and the western provinces. In fact, in both Alberta and British Columbia, the unemployment rate of women was essentially the same as that for men.

The largest number of unemployed women either lost, or were laid off from, their last job. In 2004, 40% of all unemployed women fell into this category. Another 26% of unemployed women were labour force re-entrants who had not worked for pay or profit in the last year, while 10% were new job-market entrants who had not previously been employed. At the same time, 6% of unemployed women had left their last job because they were going to school, 3% had left because of personal or family responsibilities, and another 3% had left because of personal illness. (Table 5.18)

Unemployed women, though, are generally less likely their male counterparts to have lost, or been laid off from, their last job. In 2004, 40% of unemployed women, versus 50% of unemployed men, had lost their job or been laid off. On the other hand, unemployed women were more likely than men to have been either new job-market entrants who had never worked for pay or profit or labour force re-entrants who had not been employed in the previous year. Unemployed women, though, were also more likely than their male counterparts to have left their last job because of personal or family responsibilities: 3% versus 1%.

Employment Insurance recipients

While the unemployment rate of women has declined in recent years, the number of women receiving Employment Insurance (EI) benefits has actually increased through the early part of the 2000s. In 2004, an average of 440,000 women received such benefits each month, up from 314,000 in 2000. The current number of women receiving EI benefits, though, remains well below the peak figure of 616,400 recorded in 1992 at the height of the recession in the early 1990s. (Table 5.19)



The trend in the number of women receiving EI benefits contrasts sharply with that of men. Indeed, while the number of female EI beneficiaries has increased in the 2000s, the figure for men has generally been rather stable. As a result, women made up over half (53%) of all EI beneficiaries in 2004, up from around 47% in the late 1990s and less than 40% in the early 1980s.

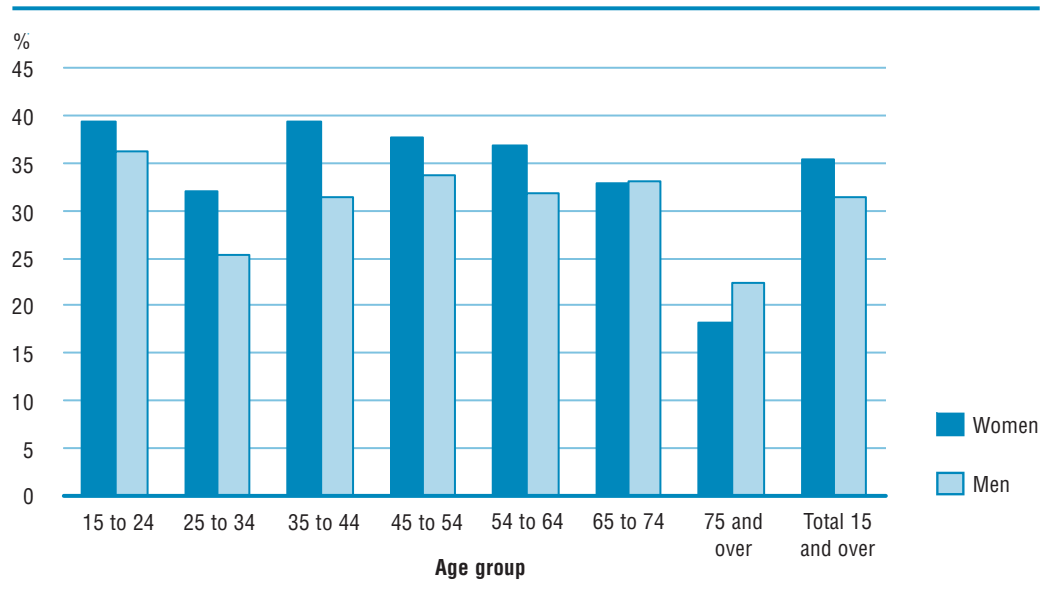
Increases in the number of women receiving Employment Insurance benefits have been accounted for largely by those receiving maternity or parental benefits. As a result, by 2004, 40% of all female EI beneficiaries were receiving either maternity or parental benefits. In fact, women are far more likely than men to receive family-related EI benefits. In 2004, 40% of all women receiving EI got maternity or parental benefits, compared with just 2% of male beneficiaries. Still, almost exactly half of all women receiving EI got regular benefits, while 8% got sickness benefits, and 2% received training benefits. At the same time, very small percentages received work-sharing, job-creation, fishing, or self-employment assistance benefits. (Table 5.20)

Volunteer work

While a growing number of women are part of the paid workforce in Canada, many women also participate in their communities through formal volunteer activities. In 2003, over 4.5 million Canadian women aged 15 and over, 35% of the total female population, did unpaid work for a volunteer organization. (Chart 5.10)

Chart 5.10

Percentage of women and men doing unpaid volunteer work for an organization,¹ by age, 2003



1. Refers to volunteer work done in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

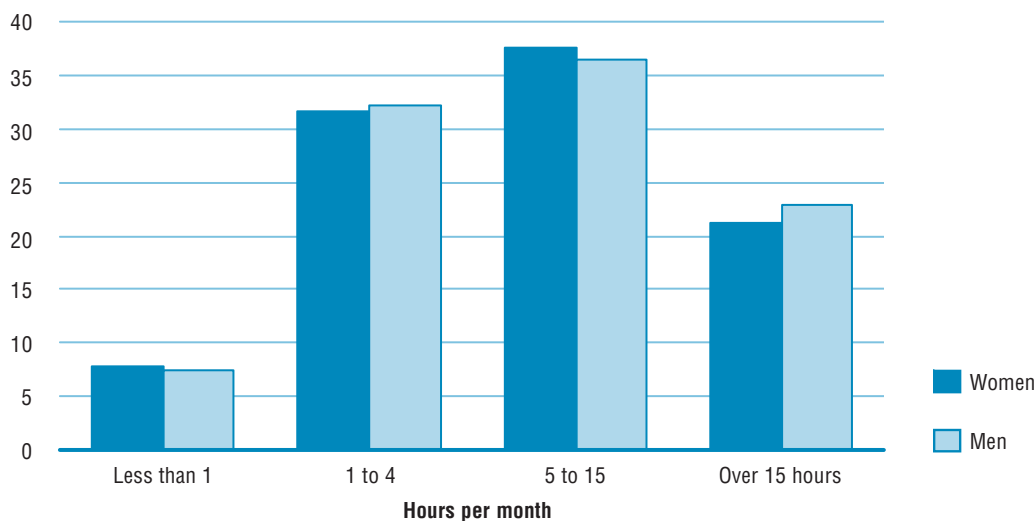
In fact, women make up the largest part of the volunteer workforce in Canada. In 2003, 35% of women aged 15 and over participated in a volunteer organization, compared with 31% of men. That year, women made up 54% of all those doing unpaid volunteer work through a formal organization.

Among women, those between the ages of 35 and 44, as well as 15 to 24-year-olds, are the most likely to participate in formal volunteer activities. In 2003, 39% of women in both age ranges did unpaid work for a volunteer organization, while the figures were 38% for those aged 45 to 54, 37% for those aged 55 to 64, 33% for seniors aged 65 to 74 and 32% for women aged 25 to 34. With the exception of senior women, many of whom are precluded from participating in volunteer activities because of poor health, women in all age ranges were more likely than their male counterparts to participate in formal volunteer activities.

As well, most women who do volunteer spend considerable amounts of time on these activities. In 2003, of women who did unpaid volunteer work for an organization, 21% did more than 15 hours of work per month, while 38% put in between five and 15 hours. There was, however, little difference in the time female and male volunteers devote to these types of activities. (Chart 5.11)

Chart 5.11

Time distribution of women and men doing unpaid volunteer work for an organization,¹ 2003



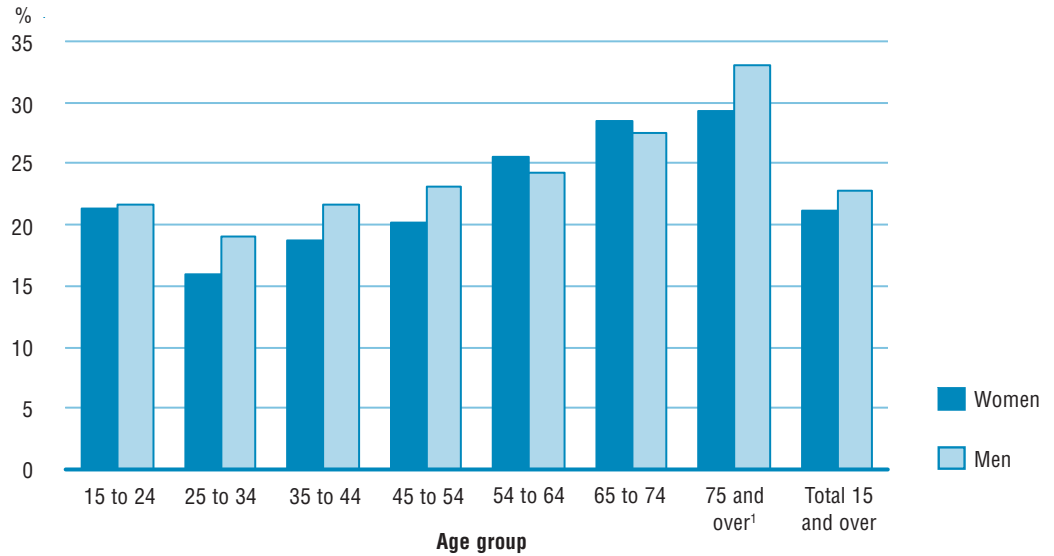
1. Includes only those who did volunteer work.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Among women that volunteer, those in older age ranges tend to devote the most time to these types of activities. In 2003, 29% of female volunteers aged 65 and over averaged over 15 hours a month on unpaid volunteer work activities, while this was the case for 26% of female volunteers aged 55 to 64. In contrast, only around 20% or less of female volunteers in younger age ranges spent more than 15 hours per week on these types of activities. (Chart 5.12)

Chart 5.12

Percentage of women and men doing unpaid volunteer work for an organization spending more than 15 hours per month on these activities, 2003



1. The figure for males aged 75 and over should be used with caution.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Notes

1. The total entity of work covers a range of activities including participation in the paid workforce, as well as generally unpaid activities such domestic work and volunteering. For the most part, this chapter focuses on paid work activities, although there is short section on volunteer work. The topic of household work was covered extensively in the 2000 edition of Women in Canada.

However, there are currently no new national data on unpaid household work activities. New data on this topic, though, should be available in 2006 from the General Social Survey. The issue of unpaid household work, of course, is crucial to understanding the work experience of women. Indeed, while the majority of women, even those with young children, are now part of the paid work force, women are still largely responsible for the care of their children and families.

2. People are considered unemployed if they are not working for pay or profit, but are available for work during the reference week and who either: 1) have actively looked for work in the previous month; 2) are on temporary lay-off with an expectation of recall; or 3) have not actively looked for work, but have a new job to start within the next four weeks. The unemployment rate represents the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.

Table 5.1

Employment trends of women and men aged 15 and over, 1976 to 2004

	Women		Men		Women as a percent of total employment
	Total employed 000s	Percent of all women employed	Total employed 000s	Percent of all men employed	
1976	3,618.2	41.9	6,129.3	72.7	37.1
1977	3,729.3	42.3	6,187.9	71.9	37.6
1978	3,904.2	43.4	6,316.0	72.0	38.2
1979	4,139.9	45.1	6,528.7	73.1	38.8
1980	4,348.1	46.4	6,635.9	72.8	39.6
1981	4,556.6	47.7	6,748.4	72.8	40.3
1982	4,513.0	46.5	6,430.7	68.4	41.2
1983	4,605.7	46.8	6,416.3	67.4	41.8
1984	4,749.5	47.7	6,552.2	68.0	42.0
1985	4,942.7	49.0	6,684.5	68.5	42.5
1986	5,126.5	50.2	6,860.1	69.5	42.8
1987	5,309.6	51.3	7,024.4	70.3	43.0
1988	5,528.8	52.7	7,179.6	70.9	43.5
1989	5,698.8	53.5	7,286.9	71.1	43.9
1990	5,803.8	53.7	7,275.1	69.9	44.4
1991	5,784.1	52.7	7,066.9	66.9	45.0
1992	5,762.0	51.9	6,957.6	65.0	45.3
1993	5,792.3	51.4	6,989.3	64.5	45.3
1994	5,907.1	51.8	7,136.6	65.1	45.3
1995	6,021.2	52.1	7,249.8	65.3	45.4
1996	6,087.4	52.0	7,304.3	64.9	45.4
1997	6,218.9	52.5	7,457.6	65.4	45.4
1998	6,413.6	53.6	7,605.6	65.9	45.7
1999	6,596.3	54.5	7,793.6	66.7	45.8
2000	6,788.6	55.4	7,970.0	67.3	46.0
2001	6,911.5	55.6	8,035.2	66.8	46.2
2002	7,126.4	56.6	8,181.5	67.1	46.6
2003	7,320.7	57.4	8,344.3	67.6	46.7
2004	7,470.1	57.8	8,479.6	67.8	46.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.2

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over employed, by province, 1976 to 2004

	1976		1985		1990		1995		2004	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%									
Newfoundland and Labrador	27.7	57.5	34.5	52.0	40.8	53.3	39.4	47.9	46.7	53.7
Prince Edward Island	38.0	66.3	44.2	61.9	49.4	62.8	50.6	60.2	57.4	63.0
Nova Scotia	36.0	65.8	41.9	61.3	47.7	63.3	45.7	58.8	54.2	62.8
New Brunswick	34.0	62.2	39.8	56.9	45.9	60.0	47.1	57.8	54.8	60.8
Quebec	37.4	70.5	44.4	65.4	48.5	67.0	47.9	62.1	55.5	65.3
Ontario	45.8	75.3	53.3	72.8	57.6	73.1	53.4	66.2	58.8	69.0
Manitoba	44.5	73.8	50.8	70.2	54.7	70.3	55.1	68.3	60.2	70.7
Saskatchewan	41.1	75.1	49.6	70.9	53.7	70.3	54.4	69.0	59.1	69.9
Alberta	49.2	80.0	56.4	74.5	59.9	75.3	60.1	73.0	64.2	76.1
British Columbia	41.9	71.3	46.5	64.1	53.7	68.8	54.3	67.2	56.3	65.4
Canada	41.9	72.7	49.0	68.5	53.7	69.9	52.1	65.3	57.8	67.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.3

Percentage of women and men employed, by age and educational attainment, 2004

Educational attainment	People aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 and over		Total	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Less than Grade 9	24.8	32.2	40.5	61.5	12.6	25.3	15.8	30.3
Some secondary school	41.5	43.2	57.5	76.0	27.5	46.8	37.4	52.1
High school graduate	69.9	71.6	73.7	86.7	47.6	61.7	59.6	73.5
Some postsecondary	60.3	59.1	73.4	83.5	51.8	59.0	61.7	67.0
Postsecondary certificate or diploma ¹	76.4	76.7	82.0	89.7	54.4	64.5	69.0	77.0
University degree	75.7	70.2	82.1	89.0	65.2	68.9	75.3	78.8
Total	58.4	57.8	77.1	86.3	43.3	56.4	57.8	67.8

1. Includes trades certificate.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.4

Percentage of women and men employed, by age, 1976 to 2004

	People aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 54		55 to 64	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	51.4	59.9	50.0	90.9	45.6	88.9	30.3	72.9
1977	51.6	59.8	51.3	90.0	45.4	87.8	29.7	71.0
1978	52.4	60.4	53.6	90.0	46.5	88.0	29.4	70.8
1979	54.6	63.1	55.7	90.7	48.2	88.2	31.4	71.3
1980	56.1	63.4	58.0	90.2	49.8	88.1	30.9	71.2
1981	57.2	63.5	60.3	90.1	51.8	88.4	31.1	70.4
1982	53.9	56.1	59.7	85.5	51.5	85.1	30.7	67.0
1983	53.9	55.3	60.5	84.0	52.8	84.8	30.0	65.2
1984	55.0	57.3	62.1	84.5	53.3	84.0	29.9	64.4
1985	56.2	58.6	63.7	85.4	56.4	84.3	30.8	62.8
1986	58.1	60.6	66.4	86.3	55.9	85.7	30.3	62.3
1987	59.4	62.5	67.5	87.1	58.5	86.7	31.6	61.1
1988	61.0	64.0	69.3	87.9	61.3	86.6	32.3	61.1
1989	61.9	64.7	70.5	87.8	63.3	86.8	31.7	60.8
1990	59.9	62.6	71.5	86.7	63.9	85.5	32.8	59.9
1991	57.6	57.1	70.4	83.6	64.2	84.1	32.3	57.0
1992	55.1	54.4	69.3	81.4	64.9	82.4	32.5	55.2
1993	53.2	53.4	69.1	81.7	65.2	81.8	32.3	53.9
1994	53.3	54.1	69.5	82.4	65.5	82.3	33.7	53.6
1995	53.1	54.3	70.3	83.0	66.5	82.7	33.2	53.1
1996	51.9	53.2	70.8	82.8	66.0	82.1	33.5	53.4
1997	50.2	52.7	71.9	84.0	67.7	82.4	33.8	54.9
1998	52.0	53.0	73.0	85.2	69.4	82.6	35.8	54.5
1999	53.7	55.4	74.2	85.8	70.5	83.5	37.0	56.5
2000	55.7	56.8	75.1	86.5	71.4	84.2	39.1	57.3
2001	56.2	56.6	75.3	85.9	72.3	84.0	39.4	57.3
2002	57.6	57.4	75.9	85.6	74.3	84.2	41.4	58.9
2003	58.5	57.9	76.2	86.1	75.4	84.5	45.3	60.8
2004	58.4	57.8	77.1	86.3	76.2	85.3	46.2	62.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.5

Percentage of women with children employed, by age of youngest child, 1976 to 2004

	Youngest child under age 3	Youngest child aged 3 to 5	Total with youngest child under age 6	Youngest child aged 6 to 15	Total with children under age 16	Total under age 55 without children under age 16 living at home
	%					
1976	27.6	36.8	31.4	46.4	39.1	60.9
1977	29.3	37.9	32.7	47.5	40.4	61.2
1978	32.0	40.6	35.4	49.2	42.6	62.3
1979	34.6	42.9	37.8	50.9	44.6	64.1
1980	36.9	45.2	40.1	53.5	47.1	65.2
1981	39.3	46.7	42.1	56.2	49.3	66.0
1982	39.4	46.5	42.1	55.3	48.8	64.9
1983	42.2	47.9	44.4	55.0	49.8	65.7
1984	44.1	49.1	46.1	57.0	51.6	66.1
1985	46.7	52.0	48.7	59.1	53.9	67.7
1986	49.3	54.4	51.3	61.8	56.6	69.1
1987	50.2	56.1	52.6	63.8	58.2	69.9
1988	51.8	58.1	54.3	66.4	60.4	71.7
1989	52.8	59.2	55.3	69.0	62.2	72.7
1990	53.3	59.5	55.7	70.1	62.9	73.4
1991	54.3	60.0	56.4	68.9	62.7	72.5
1992	53.9	59.3	56.0	67.9	62.0	71.5
1993	54.4	59.3	56.3	68.4	62.3	71.5
1994	55.5	59.1	57.0	68.4	62.7	72.0
1995	55.9	60.1	57.6	69.7	63.7	72.8
1996	57.7	60.3	58.8	69.7	64.4	72.2
1997	58.6	61.9	60.0	71.0	65.7	73.2
1998	59.0	63.7	61.0	72.0	66.8	74.6
1999	59.9	65.9	62.5	73.3	68.3	75.9
2000	60.3	67.3	63.2	74.4	69.2	76.3
2001	61.3	67.0	63.7	75.3	70.1	76.8
2002	61.9	68.1	64.5	77.0	71.4	77.9
2003	62.7	68.4	65.1	76.7	71.6	79.0
2004	64.5	69.5	66.6	77.1	72.5	79.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.6

Licensed day care spaces, by type, 1971 to 2003

	Regular day care	Family day care	Total
1971	16,791	600	17,391
1975	65,281	4,671	69,952
1980	98,238	10,903	109,141
1982	109,535	14,427	123,962
1983	123,292	15,778	139,070
1984	149,965	21,689	171,654
1985	169,751	22,623	192,374
1986	197,802	22,715	220,517
1987	216,685	26,860	243,545
1988	232,787	30,839	263,626
1989	259,891	38,192	298,083
1990	282,465	38,159	320,624
1991	292,338	40,744	333,082
1992	302,790	47,890	350,680
1993	308,424	54,394	362,818
1994	332,173	62,115	394,788
1995	346,810	65,933	412,743
1996	366,451	69,027	435,478
1997	374,040	69,070	443,110
1998	397,970	71,020	468,990
2001	505,743	86,816	592,559
2003	611,639	133,615	745,254

Sources: Health and Welfare Canada, *Status of Day Care in Canada*; and Human Resources and Development Canada, and Childcare Resource and Research Unit, University of Toronto, *Status of Child Care in Canada*.

Table 5.7

Absences of paid employees from work due to personal or family reasons,¹ 1976 to 2004

	Women		Men	
	Percent of employed losing time per week	Average days lost per year	Percent of employed losing time per week	Average days lost per year
1976	1.7	1.9	1.0	0.7
1977	1.7	1.9	1.1	0.7
1978	1.7	2.0	1.1	0.7
1979	2.0	2.8	1.3	0.8
1980	2.1	2.9	1.1	0.7
1981	2.2	3.1	1.1	0.7
1982	2.1	3.0	1.1	0.7
1983	2.4	3.8	1.2	0.8
1984	2.6	4.1	1.2	0.8
1985	2.6	4.0	1.2	0.8
1986	2.6	4.3	1.2	0.8
1987	2.6	4.3	1.1	0.8
1988	2.9	4.7	1.3	0.9
1989	3.2	5.2	1.4	0.9
1990	3.2	5.4	1.4	1.0
1991	3.1	5.7	1.2	0.9
1992	3.0	6.0	1.1	0.8
1993	3.2	6.6	1.1	0.9
1994	3.3	6.5	1.2	0.9
1995	3.3	6.7	1.2	0.9
1996	3.4	6.6	1.1	0.9
1997	3.4	6.4	1.2	0.9
1998	3.3	6.2	1.2	1.0
1999	3.4	6.6	1.3	1.1
2000	3.4	6.2	1.4	1.1
2001	3.7	7.0	1.5	1.3
2002	4.6	8.5	1.9	1.6
2003	4.5	9.1	1.8	1.5
2004	4.8	9.7	1.9	1.6

1. Includes maternity leave.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.8

Part-time employment of women and men, 1976 to 2004

	Women employed part-time 000s	Percent of women employed part-time ¹	Percent of men employed part-time ¹	Women as a percent of total part-time employment
1976	854.2	23.6	5.9	70.1
1977	906.2	24.3	6.2	70.2
1978	952.8	24.4	6.3	70.6
1979	1,040.3	25.1	6.5	70.9
1980	1,117.1	25.7	6.8	71.2
1981	1,187.4	26.1	7.2	70.9
1982	1,229.3	27.2	8.0	70.6
1983	1,287.8	28.0	8.7	69.7
1984	1,309.5	27.6	8.9	69.2
1985	1,396.9	28.3	8.8	70.3
1986	1,417.1	27.6	8.9	69.8
1987	1,446.4	27.2	8.6	70.4
1988	1,512.0	27.3	8.7	70.8
1989	1,522.8	26.7	8.7	70.5
1990	1,551.7	26.7	9.2	69.9
1991	1,617.8	28.0	10.1	69.3
1992	1,626.5	28.2	10.5	68.9
1993	1,678.4	29.0	11.1	68.3
1994	1,704.5	28.9	10.8	68.9
1995	1,716.4	28.5	10.7	68.8
1996	1,771.0	29.1	10.8	69.2
1997	1,828.9	29.4	10.6	69.9
1998	1,839.0	28.7	10.5	69.6
1999	1,842.1	27.9	10.3	69.6
2000	1,848.1	27.2	10.3	69.2
2001	1,864.3	27.0	10.4	68.9
2002	1,974.4	27.7	11.0	68.8
2003	2,039.8	27.9	11.1	68.8
2004	2,028.2	27.2	10.9	68.8

1. Expressed as a percentage of total employed.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.9

Percentage of employed women and men working part-time,¹ by age, 1976 to 2004

	People aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 54		55 to 64	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	24.8	17.9	21.8	1.5	24.0	1.4	24.7	3.7
1977	25.6	18.4	22.3	1.8	25.0	1.7	25.7	3.7
1978	26.1	18.5	22.1	1.7	25.7	1.8	25.8	4.2
1979	27.6	19.0	22.4	1.7	26.2	1.8	26.1	4.7
1980	27.9	19.8	23.0	1.9	27.0	2.0	27.7	4.4
1981	29.0	21.3	23.1	2.1	27.3	2.1	27.6	4.3
1982	32.3	24.6	23.3	2.6	28.0	2.6	29.6	5.0
1983	34.3	26.7	23.9	3.2	27.9	2.9	30.0	6.2
1984	35.6	27.4	22.8	3.2	27.1	2.9	30.2	5.7
1985	36.8	27.7	23.7	3.2	27.4	2.9	29.8	6.0
1986	37.4	28.3	22.8	3.2	26.8	2.8	30.4	6.7
1987	37.6	27.8	22.3	3.1	25.6	2.7	31.7	6.5
1988	38.3	29.4	22.2	2.9	26.3	2.4	31.2	7.0
1989	39.3	30.0	21.3	2.9	24.2	2.8	32.5	7.0
1990	40.7	32.3	21.4	3.3	24.2	2.7	31.2	7.3
1991	45.1	36.4	22.3	3.9	24.1	3.4	32.2	8.6
1992	47.1	38.7	22.5	4.3	23.6	3.6	32.7	8.9
1993	50.2	40.7	23.0	5.1	23.8	3.7	33.6	9.2
1994	51.0	39.2	22.8	4.8	23.2	3.9	34.3	9.7
1995	51.2	39.3	22.7	4.7	22.3	4.3	32.7	9.6
1996	53.0	38.6	23.1	5.1	23.3	4.3	32.7	10.0
1997	53.9	37.6	23.6	5.0	23.7	4.4	32.7	10.3
1998	53.2	37.7	22.7	4.9	23.0	4.4	32.6	10.5
1999	51.6	37.2	22.2	4.4	22.0	4.3	31.5	10.3
2000	51.0	36.6	21.3	4.4	21.4	4.3	30.1	10.4
2001	50.4	36.8	21.1	4.7	21.3	4.4	29.2	9.9
2002	52.4	37.6	21.2	4.9	21.4	4.5	31.3	10.8
2003	52.8	37.6	21.2	4.9	21.3	4.7	31.0	10.7
2004	52.2	37.4	20.5	4.7	20.6	4.2	29.6	10.6

1. Expressed as a percentage of total employed.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.10

Reasons for part-time work, by age, 2004

	Women aged				Men aged			
	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 and over	Total	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 and over	Total
	%							
Own illness	0.6	2.7	6.0	3.1	0.8	5.7	7.8	3.8
Caring for children	1.7	33.7	4.9	14.3	F	3.2	0.8	0.9
Other personal/family responsibilities	0.8	4.4	5.7	3.7	0.4	2.0	1.7	1.1
Going to school	70.9	6.7	0.7	24.7	75.0	17.4	0.8	41.9
Personal preference	5.7	18.6	56.8	27.1	4.5	18.4	59.7	23.2
Other voluntary	0.4	1.3	1.1	0.9	F	2.6	1.6	1.1
Other ¹	19.9	32.6	24.9	26.1	19.0	50.7	27.6	28.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total employed part-time (000s)	631.1	733.4	663.6	2,028.2	467.6	189.7	264.0	921.3
% employed part-time ²	52.2	20.5	24.7	27.2	37.4	4.7	8.2	10.9

1. Includes business conditions and unable to find full-time work.

2. Expressed as a percentage of total employed.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.11

Self-employment trends among women and men, 1976 to 2004

	Self-employed women 000s	Self-employed men 000s	Percent of women self-employed ¹	Percent of men self-employed ¹	Women as a percent of total self-employment
1976	311.6	873.4	8.6	14.2	26.3
1977	329.8	880.4	8.8	14.2	27.2
1978	353.1	910.3	9.0	14.4	27.9
1979	380.1	944.6	9.2	14.4	28.7
1980	391.7	971.9	9.0	14.6	28.7
1981	404.6	1,020.6	8.9	15.1	28.4
1982	426.5	1,056.7	9.4	16.4	28.8
1983	448.7	1,094.5	9.7	17.1	29.1
1984	473.3	1,096.4	10.0	16.7	30.2
1985	537.2	1,188.9	10.9	17.8	31.1
1986	498.5	1,175.6	9.7	17.1	29.8
1987	518.0	1,195.2	9.8	17.0	30.2
1988	542.9	1,237.5	9.8	17.2	30.4
1989	556.9	1,234.2	9.8	16.9	31.1
1990	575.5	1,266.0	9.9	17.4	31.3
1991	583.8	1,311.9	10.1	18.6	30.8
1992	614.0	1,315.5	10.7	18.9	31.8
1993	657.8	1,365.5	11.4	19.5	32.5
1994	683.4	1,354.6	11.6	19.0	33.5
1995	703.4	1,375.6	11.7	19.0	33.8
1996	750.4	1,422.3	12.3	19.4	34.5
1997	833.3	1,519.5	13.4	20.4	35.4
1998	864.8	1,554.6	13.4	20.4	35.7
1999	859.7	1,592.5	13.0	20.4	35.1
2000	840.2	1,544.8	12.4	19.4	35.2
2001	773.8	1,504.2	11.2	18.7	34.0
2002	817.0	1,502.0	11.4	18.4	35.2
2003	830.2	1,569.6	11.3	18.8	34.6
2004	839.3	1,612.6	11.2	19.0	34.2

1. Expressed as a percentage of total employed.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.12

Multiple job holders as a percentage of total employed women and men, by age, 1987 to 2004

	People aged								Women as a percent of multiple job holders
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 and over		Total		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
	%								
1987	4.5	4.7	4.1	4.3	3.0	3.6	4.0	4.2	41.8
1988	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.6	3.3	4.0	4.4	4.4	43.4
1989	5.4	4.6	4.7	4.9	3.6	4.2	4.6	4.6	43.6
1990	5.6	4.9	5.2	5.0	3.7	3.9	5.0	4.7	45.7
1991	5.6	4.9	5.2	4.8	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.6	47.0
1992	6.2	5.3	5.1	4.7	4.4	3.9	5.1	4.6	48.1
1993	7.1	5.4	5.1	5.0	4.4	4.1	5.3	4.8	47.8
1994	7.7	5.2	5.3	4.8	4.2	3.9	5.4	4.6	49.4
1995	7.6	5.2	5.4	4.7	4.2	3.7	5.4	4.4	50.4
1996	8.4	5.3	5.7	4.8	4.4	3.9	5.8	4.6	51.1
1997	8.0	5.4	6.0	4.9	4.4	3.8	5.8	4.6	51.3
1998	8.2	5.2	5.7	4.5	4.3	4.1	5.6	4.4	51.5
1999	7.7	5.4	5.7	4.6	4.5	3.8	5.6	4.4	51.7
2000	7.6	5.1	5.5	4.4	4.7	3.5	5.6	4.2	53.2
2001	7.8	4.9	5.3	4.2	4.6	3.5	5.5	4.1	53.6
2002	7.8	5.2	5.7	4.7	5.1	3.8	5.8	4.4	53.4
2003	8.3	5.3	5.6	4.4	5.0	3.7	5.8	4.3	54.4
2004	8.4	5.4	5.8	4.6	5.0	3.4	5.9	4.3	54.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.13

Distribution of employment of women and men, by occupation, 1987, 1996 and 2004

	1987			1996			2004		
	Women	Men	Women as a percent of total employed in occupation	Women	Men	Women as a percent of total employed in occupation	Women	Men	Women as a percent of total employed in occupation
	%								
Managerial									
Senior management	0.3	0.8	21.1	0.3	0.7	27.3	0.3	1.0	22.1
Other management	5.7	9.8	30.7	7.9	10.9	37.6	6.7	9.8	37.7
Total management	6.0	10.6	30.1	8.2	11.6	37.1	7.0	10.8	36.6
Professional									
Business and finance	1.9	2.3	38.3	2.9	2.7	47.1	3.2	2.7	51.3
Natural sciences/engineering/mathematics	2.3	7.0	19.5	2.3	8.0	19.2	3.0	9.7	21.2
Social sciences/religion	4.3	2.0	61.5	6.1	2.3	69.2	6.2	2.2	71.6
Teaching	3.8	2.6	52.3	5.0	2.8	60.1	5.2	2.5	64.6
Doctors/dentists/other health	0.9	0.9	43.0	1.1	1.1	46.7	1.4	1.0	55.0
Nursing/therapy/other health-related	8.3	0.9	87.1	8.0	1.0	87.4	8.7	1.1	87.2
Artistic/literary/recreational	2.7	2.1	48.5	3.2	2.4	51.5	3.3	2.6	52.8
Total professional	24.1	17.9	50.4	28.4	20.2	54.0	31.0	21.8	55.6
Clerical and administrative	29.7	7.9	73.9	25.7	7.1	75.2	24.3	7.2	74.9
Sales and service	30.0	18.4	55.2	28.8	19.2	55.6	29.2	19.6	56.7
Primary	2.3	7.2	19.7	2.1	6.4	20.8	1.4	5.2	19.4
Trades, transport and construction	2.1	28.9	5.2	2.1	26.6	6.1	2.2	26.1	7.0
Processing, manufacturing and utilities	5.8	9.1	32.3	4.7	8.9	30.7	4.8	9.3	31.1
Total¹	100.0	100.0	43.0	100.0	100.0	45.4	100.0	100.0	46.8
Total employed (000s)	5,309.6	7,024.4	--	6,087.4	7,304.3	--	7,470.1	8,479.6	--

1. Includes occupations that are not classified.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.14

Distribution of farm operators, self-employed workers, and total labour force participants, by age, 2001

People aged	Women			Men		
	Farm operators	Total self-employed ¹	Labour force participants	Farm operators	Total self-employed ¹	Labour force participants
	%					
Under 35	11.5	20.0	38.6	11.5	16.2	36.8
35 to 44	28.8	32.4	28.2	24.1	28.3	27.1
45 to 54	29.9	28.3	23.2	27.6	28.8	22.8
55 and over	29.8	19.4	10.0	36.7	26.7	13.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number (000s)	91.2	630.4	7,420.1	255.0	1,230.8	8,452.0

1. Includes people in incorporated and unincorporated businesses.

Sources: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada and 2001 Census of Agriculture.

Table 5.15

Unemployment trends of women and men, 1976 to 2004

	Women		Men	
	Total unemployed	Unemployment rate	Total unemployed	Unemployment rate
	000s	%	000s	%
1976	323.4	8.2	420.3	6.4
1977	376.5	9.2	491.5	7.4
1978	412.1	9.5	522.2	7.6
1979	394.1	8.7	474.1	6.8
1980	395.0	8.3	500.3	7.0
1981	410.1	8.3	520.7	7.2
1982	543.2	10.7	815.0	11.2
1983	602.2	11.6	903.5	12.3
1984	605.6	11.3	840.6	11.4
1985	590.8	10.7	794.3	10.6
1986	560.2	9.9	725.3	9.6
1987	537.1	9.2	655.4	8.5
1988	493.9	8.2	576.8	7.4
1989	482.2	7.8	582.6	7.4
1990	512.6	8.1	648.8	8.2
1991	622.2	9.7	858.4	10.8
1992	655.6	10.2	953.4	12.1
1993	695.6	10.7	952.3	12.0
1994	644.0	9.8	874.9	10.9
1995	610.4	9.2	791.7	9.8
1996	629.9	9.4	813.0	10.0
1997	613.8	9.0	768.2	9.3
1998	562.2	8.1	715.4	8.6
1999	522.5	7.3	662.7	7.8
2000	487.6	6.7	596.0	7.0
2001	508.7	6.9	655.3	7.5
2002	546.6	7.1	725.6	8.1
2003	566.5	7.2	722.4	8.0
2004	548.9	6.8	684.8	7.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.16

Unemployment rates of women and men, by age, 1976 to 2004

	Labour force participants aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 64		Total ¹	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	11.6	13.0	7.4	4.7	5.0	3.8	8.2	6.4
1977	13.0	14.5	8.0	5.4	6.1	4.6	9.2	7.4
1978	13.3	14.6	8.6	5.7	6.3	5.1	9.5	7.6
1979	12.4	12.9	7.7	5.1	5.6	4.4	8.7	6.8
1980	12.2	13.4	7.0	5.4	5.8	4.3	8.3	7.0
1981	11.7	13.7	7.5	5.5	5.2	4.4	8.3	7.2
1982	15.5	20.7	9.6	9.4	7.1	7.0	10.7	11.2
1983	16.4	21.8	10.5	10.7	8.1	8.0	11.6	12.3
1984	15.4	19.1	10.6	10.1	8.2	7.8	11.3	11.4
1985	14.3	17.6	10.2	9.4	7.8	7.7	10.7	10.6
1986	13.3	16.2	9.3	8.5	7.5	6.6	9.9	9.6
1987	12.0	14.4	8.7	7.6	7.6	6.2	9.2	8.5
1988	10.5	12.4	8.0	6.7	6.7	5.5	8.2	7.4
1989	9.7	12.2	7.9	6.8	6.0	5.5	7.8	7.4
1990	11.0	13.6	7.9	7.7	6.3	5.9	8.1	8.2
1991	12.8	18.5	9.4	10.2	8.0	7.6	9.7	10.8
1992	14.5	19.8	9.7	11.6	8.2	8.7	10.2	12.1
1993	14.5	19.7	10.3	11.3	9.1	9.1	10.7	12.0
1994	13.7	17.9	9.5	10.2	7.9	8.6	9.8	10.9
1995	13.3	16.3	8.8	9.3	7.5	7.6	9.2	9.8
1996	13.8	16.9	8.9	9.5	7.6	7.6	9.4	10.0
1997	15.2	17.2	8.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	9.0	9.3
1998	13.6	16.6	7.3	7.6	6.3	6.6	8.1	8.6
1999	12.7	15.2	6.7	6.9	5.6	5.9	7.3	7.8
2000	11.4	13.8	6.0	6.0	5.3	5.2	6.7	7.0
2001	11.1	14.5	6.3	6.7	5.4	5.6	6.9	7.5
2002	11.7	15.3	6.7	7.3	5.5	6.2	7.1	8.1
2003	11.8	15.3	6.8	6.9	5.5	6.2	7.2	8.0
2004	11.8	14.9	6.4	6.6	5.2	5.5	6.8	7.5

1. Includes those aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.17

Unemployment rates of women and men, by age and province, 2004

	Labour force participants aged							
	15 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 64		Total ¹	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Newfoundland and Labrador	19.0	25.4	14.2	16.7	11.8	14.1	14.2	17.0
Prince Edward Island	15.6	19.4	10.1	10.8	9.1	9.9	10.6	12.0
Nova Scotia	12.5	17.7	7.8	8.5	6.2	7.7	8.0	9.6
New Brunswick	12.6	17.9	7.7	11.0	7.1	8.8	8.2	11.2
Quebec	12.3	16.4	7.1	8.5	6.5	7.0	7.8	9.1
Ontario	12.4	15.8	6.2	5.8	4.5	4.6	6.6	6.9
Manitoba	10.3	11.8	4.4	4.8	3.2	3.6	5.0	5.6
Saskatchewan	8.7	11.7	4.5	5.2	2.9	4.1	4.7	5.9
Alberta	7.7	9.2	4.5	3.9	3.4	3.2	4.7	4.6
British Columbia	12.5	14.4	6.2	6.4	5.7	5.7	7.1	7.3

1. Includes those aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.18

Unemployed women and men, by reason for leaving last job, 2004

	Women		Men	
	000s	%	000s	%
Own illness/disability	14.3	2.6	15.0	2.2
Personal/family reasons	15.3	2.8	6.9	1.0
Going to school	31.3	5.7	38.7	5.7
Lost job/laid off	219.8	40.0	344.1	50.2
Retired	2.7	0.4	5.3	0.8
Other reasons	71.0	12.9	79.7	11.6
Had not worked in last year	140.8	25.7	146.7	21.4
Never worked	53.6	9.8	48.6	7.1
Total	548.9	100.0	684.8	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Table 5.19

Employment Insurance beneficiaries, 1981 to 2004

	000s		Women as a percent of total beneficiaries
	Women	Men	
1981	308.4	411.9	42.8
1982	443.0	694.7	38.9
1983	493.2	754.8	39.5
1984	496.4	698.0	41.6
1985	496.3	648.9	43.3
1986	482.5	613.0	44.0
1987	473.6	559.4	45.8
1988	476.2	538.4	46.9
1989	485.9	543.8	47.2
1990	510.6	610.3	45.6
1991	596.2	769.1	43.7
1992	616.4	771.9	44.4
1993	583.4	708.4	45.2
1994	523.0	591.8	46.9
1995	454.1	502.9	47.4
1996	435.5	475.9	47.8
1997	374.4	401.4	48.3
1998	347.0	398.2	46.6
1999	327.9	372.3	46.8
2000	313.5	340.9	47.9
2001	357.6	378.1	48.6
2002	425.2	403.6	51.3
2003	437.4	403.9	52.0
2004	440.0	385.4	53.3

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 73-202-XPB; and Labour Statistics Division.

Table 5.20

Employment Insurance beneficiaries, by type of benefit, 2004

Type of benefit	Women		Men		Women as a percent of total beneficiaries
	000s	%	000s	%	
Regular	218.4	49.7	322.4	83.7	40.4
Parental/Adoption	118.7	27.0	9.5	2.4	92.6
Maternity	56.6	12.9	0.0	0.0	100.0
Training	8.0	1.8	14.4	3.7	35.8
Sickness	33.1	7.5	22.6	5.9	59.4
Work sharing	0.9	0.2	1.9	0.4	33.1
Job creation	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.1	51.4
Fishing	2.8	0.6	12.4	3.2	18.4
Self-employment assistance	0.9	0.2	1.6	0.4	36.9
Total	440.0	100.0	385.4	100.0	53.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Statistics Division.

Chapter 6

Income and Earnings

By Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey

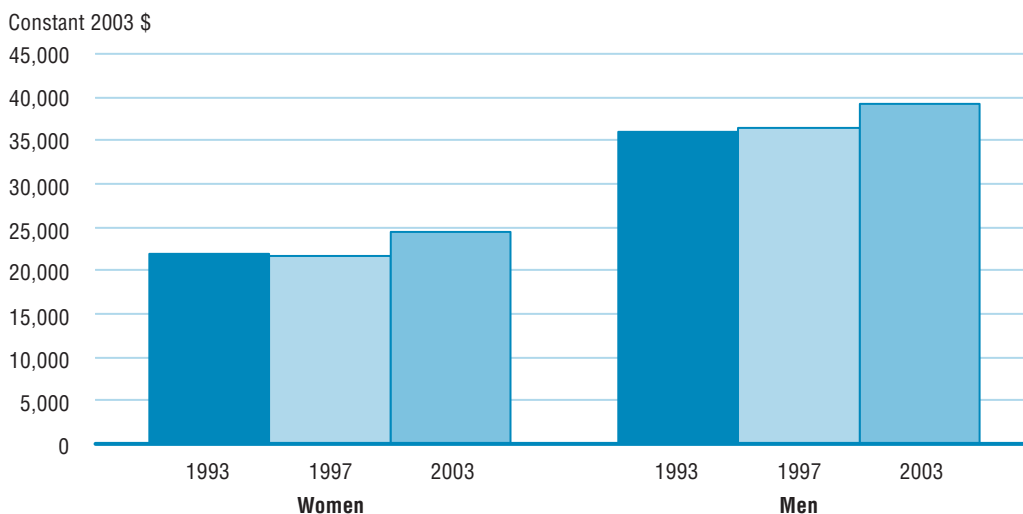
Women's incomes lower

Women generally have lower incomes than men. In 2003, the average annual pre-tax income of women aged 16 and over from all sources, including employment earnings, government transfer payments, investment income, and other money income, was \$24,400. This was just 62% the figure for men, who had an average income of \$39,300 that year. (Chart 6.1)

It should be noted that in analyzing income data for individuals, payments for some government transfer programs, including social assistance, child tax benefits, and seniors benefits, are not taxable and are allocated to only one family member depending on variables such as age, income, and gender. As such, readers should be aware that these transfers are not equally divided among family members.

Chart 6.1

Average income of women and men, 1993, 1997 and 2003¹



1. Data for 1993 and 1997 include 15-year-olds

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

The average incomes of women, however, have risen somewhat faster than those of men in recent years. In fact, the average income of women in 2003 was 13% higher than the figure in 1997, once the effects of inflation have been factored out. In contrast, the real average income of men rose 8% in the same period.

Income by age

Women between the ages of 35 and 54 have higher incomes than women in other age groups. In fact, in 2003, women in both the 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 age groups had average incomes of around \$31,000, while the figure among women in other age groups ranged from \$25,400 among those aged 25 to 34 to only \$13,000 for women aged 20 to 24 and under \$6,000 for teenaged women aged 16 to 19. (Table 6.1)

At all ages women's incomes are lower than those of men, although there is considerable variation in the gap between the incomes of women and men in different age ranges. Among those aged 55 to 64, for example, the income of women from all sources was barely over half that of men in their pre-retirement years. Similarly, the average incomes of women between the ages of 35 to 54, again the age range in which women's incomes are the highest, were around 60% those of their male counterparts, while the figure was close to 70% for both women aged 25 to 34 and seniors. In contrast, the average incomes of women aged 20 to 24 were over 80% those of males in this age range, while the figure was almost 90% for teenagers. In both these latter cases, though, the incomes of females were relatively close to those of males, in large part, because the incomes of both women and men in these age ranges tend to be low.

Incomes vary by province

Women in Ontario have the highest average income of women in Canada, while those in the Atlantic provinces have the lowest. In 2003, women living in Ontario had an average income of \$26,100, while the figure was \$24,100 in Alberta, and around 23,500 in each of Quebec and the other western provinces. In contrast, in the Atlantic region, the average income of women ranged from \$21,500 in Nova Scotia to only \$19,000 in Newfoundland and Labrador. (Table 6.2)

The average incomes of women, though, are well below those of men in all provinces. The biggest gap is in Alberta, where the incomes of women in 2003 were just 56% those of their male counterparts. The figure was also just 60% in Ontario, while in the remaining provinces it ranged from 63% in Nova Scotia to highs of 68% in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

Incomes of lone-parent families up

The income situation of women also varies greatly depending on their family status. Most notably, lone-parent families headed by women have, by far, the lowest incomes of all family types. In 2003, families headed by female lone parents under age 65 had an average income of \$32,500, 38% the figure for non-elderly two-spouse families with children and less than 60% that of lone-parent families headed by men who had an average income of \$54,700. (Table 6.3)

The average incomes of female-headed lone-parent families, though, are somewhat higher than they have been in the recent past. The average income of these families in 2003, for example, was 18% higher than in 1997 once the impact of inflation had been accounted for. This followed almost two decades in which there was almost no change at all in the real incomes of lone-parent families headed by women. Indeed, the average

income of these families in 1997 was actually almost \$2,000 less than the figure in 1980, even with the impact of inflation taken into account.

However, after several years of relatively substantial growth, the average incomes of lone-parent families headed by women have dropped in the last two years. Indeed, the average income of these families peaked in 2001 at just under \$35,000, but by 2003 had fallen 7% to the current figure of \$32,500. In contrast, the average incomes of other families such as two-parent families with children and lone-parent families headed by men both continued to rise in the same period.

Relatively low incomes among unattached women

The incomes of unattached women, including those who either live alone or in a household where they are not related to other household members, also tend to be relatively low. The average income from all sources of unattached women aged 16 and over with at least some income was \$28,100 in 2003, almost \$6,000 less on average per person than unattached men who had an average income of close to \$34,000 that year. (Table 6.4)

Unattached women between the ages of 35 and 54 have higher average incomes than either their younger or older counterparts. In 2003, unattached women aged 45 to 54 had average incomes of over \$43,000, while the figure was \$37,200 for those aged 35 to 44. In contrast, in other age ranges, the figure ranged from just over \$30,000 for those aged 25 to 34 to only \$12,400 for unattached women under the age of 25.

As a general rule, the incomes of unattached women are below those of their male counterparts regardless of age. The exception, though, are unattached women aged 45 to 54 whose average incomes are actually higher than unattached men in this age range. On the other hand, the average incomes of unattached women in other age ranges were less than those of unattached men in the same age group, although in almost all age ranges the gap was relatively small. That year, for example, the average income of unattached women as a percentage of that of men ranged from 87% among those aged 25 to 34 to 71% for those under the age of 25.

Major sources of income

Earnings from employment, including wages and salaries, as well as net income from self-employment, make up the largest source of the income of women in Canada. In 2003, 70% of all the income of women came from these sources, while 17% came from government transfer programs,¹ 6% was income from private retirement pensions, 4% came from investments, while 3% was money from other sources.² (Table 6.5)

While employment earnings account for the largest share of the income of women, 70% in 2003, this figure is below that of men who received almost 80% of all their income from these sources. In addition, in terms of the actual dollars involved, women received, on average, over \$14,000 less in employment earnings per person that year than did men.

In contrast, women receive a larger portion of their total income than men from government transfer payments. In 2003, 17% of the total income of women came from transfer payments, double the figure of men who received only 9% of their total income from these sources.

In terms of the actual dollars, however, women received only about \$800 more in transfer payments than men in 2003. That year, women received, on average, \$4,200 in benefits from government transfer programs, compared with \$3,400, on average, for men.

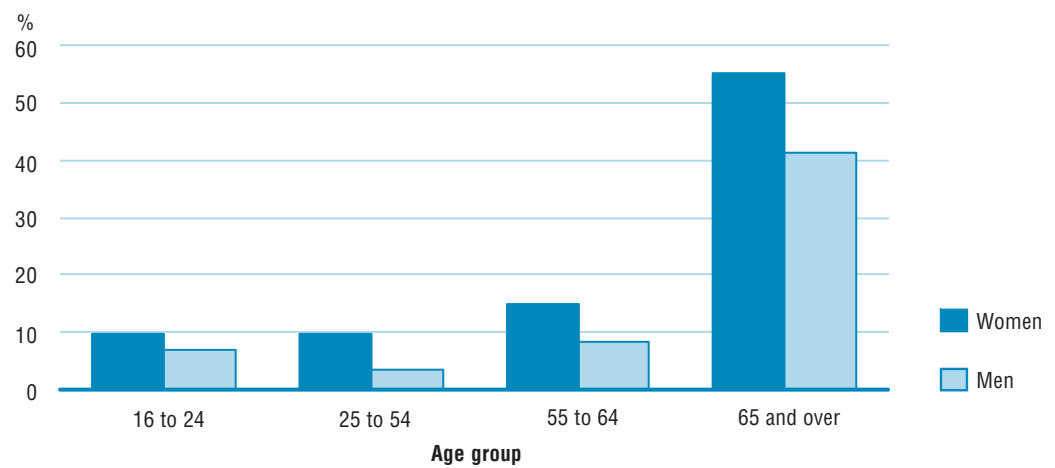


Old Age Security (OAS) payments, including Guaranteed Income Supplements (GIS), make up the single largest component of government transfer benefits received by women. In 2003, 5% of all the income of women came from this source, including 4% in regular OAS benefits and another 1% as GIS supplements. At the same time, 4% of all women's income came from the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, while 3% were Child Tax benefits, 2% were social assistance benefits, and another 2% were employment insurance payouts.

The overall composition of the income of women and men in all age groups, however, masks the fact that there are considerable differences between the primary sources of income of seniors and those under the age of 65.³ In 2003, for example, well over half (55%) the income of senior women in Canada came from government transfer programs, compared with 15% of that of women aged 55 to 64, and 10% or less of that of women in age ranges under age 65. (Chart 6.2)

Chart 6.2

Government transfer payments as a percentage of the total income of women and men, by age group, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Lone-parent families more dependent on transfers

Government transfer payments also make up a relatively large share of the income of lone-parent families headed by women. In 2003, 27% of all income of these families, versus 11% of that of male-headed lone-parent families and just 6% of that for two-parent families with children, came from transfer payments. (Table 6.6)

As with other families, earnings make up the largest share of the income of female-headed lone-parent families, although these families get a much smaller share of their income from employment-related sources than other non-elderly families. In 2003, just 63% of the income of female-headed lone-parent families came from either wages and salaries or net income from self-employment, compared with 86% of that of families with a lone male head and over 90% of that of two-parent families with children.

Women contributing to pension plans

There have been some interesting changes in the pattern of women and men contributing to the various forms of retirement pension plans in recent years. On the one hand, a slightly greater proportion of women are now covered by employer-sponsored pension plans than two decades ago. In 2002, 39% of all employed women were members of such plans, compared with 38% in 1980. (Table 6.7)

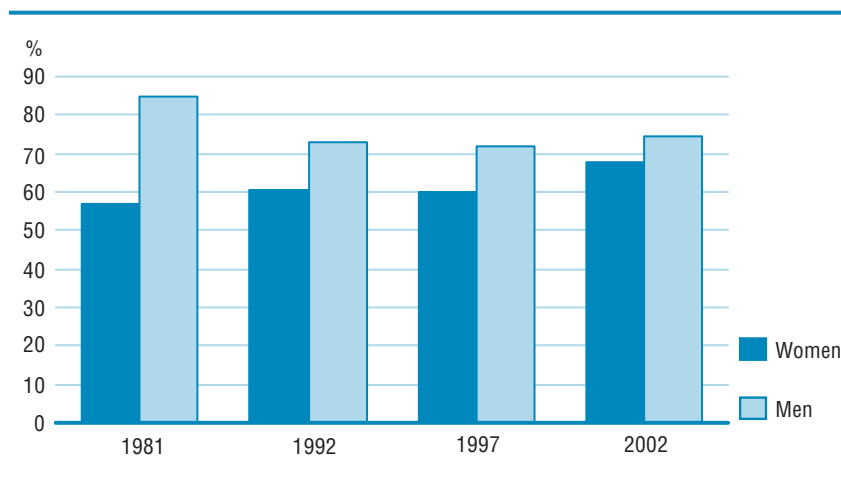
In contrast, the proportion of men covered by employer-sponsored plans has dropped sharply in the same period, falling from 54% in 1980 to 40% in 2002. As a result, the proportion of female workers currently covered by a private pension is virtually the same as that for men. Indeed, by 2002, women made up 46% of all workers covered by employer-sponsored pensions, compared with just 31% in 1980.

The overall long-term increase in the proportion of employed women contributing to an employer-sponsored pension plan, though, masks the fact that the share of women participating in these plans has declined in the past decade. Indeed, the proportion of employed women contributing to a private pension plan peaked at around 42% in the early 1990s and dropped to the current figure of 39% by the late 1990s. On the other hand, there has been almost no change in the share of women participating in these plans in the 2000s. In contrast, the share of employed men participating in these plans declined fairly consistently right through this period.

There has also been an increase in the proportion of women in Canada contributing to the Canada/Quebec Pension Plan in the past two decades as more women have joined the paid workforce. In 2002, 68% of all women aged 20 to 64 contributed to this program, up from 57% in 1981. In contrast, the share of working-aged men participating in this program has fallen in the same period, although the share of men currently contributing to these plans (74%) is still higher than that for women. (Chart 6.3)

Chart 6.3

Contributors to Canada/Quebec Pension Plans as a percentage of women and men aged 20 to 64, 1981 to 2002



Source: Canada Revenue Agency, Taxation Statistics; and Statistics Canada, Demography Division.



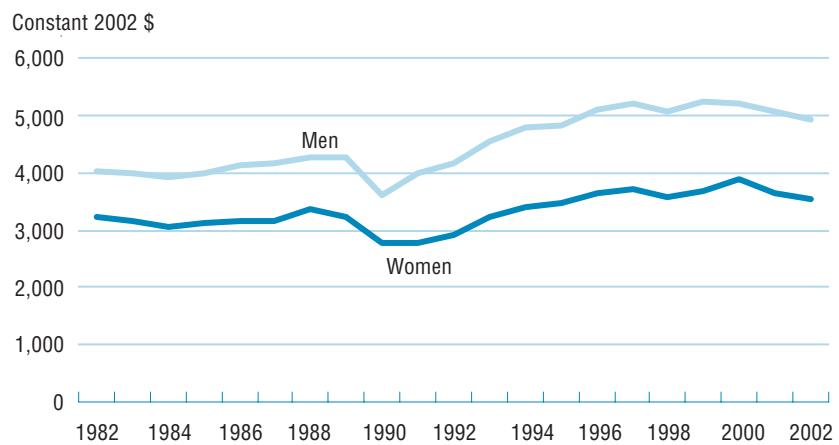
There has also been an increase in the proportion of women contributing to Registered Retirement Savings Plans (RRSPs) in the last two decades. In 2002, 2.8 million women reported contributing to an RRSP. That year, 24% of all female taxfilers were RRSP contributors, up from less than 20% in 1990 and just 10% in 1982. (Table 6.8)

Women, though, are still somewhat less likely than men to contribute to an RRSP. In 2002, 24% of female taxfilers contributed to an RRSP, compared with 29% of their male counterparts.

Women also tend to contribute less to their RRSPs than men, although since RRSP contribution limits are linked to earnings, this difference may simply reflect the fact that women's earnings are also lower, on average, than men's. In 2002, women who purchased an RRSP contributed an average of just under \$3,500, about \$1,400 less than the average contribution for men. (Chart 6.4)

Chart 6.4

Average RRSP contributions of women and men in constant 2002 dollars, 1982 to 2002



Source: Canada Revenue Agency, Taxation Statistics.

The average RRSP contribution made by women has increased in the past decade or so. After accounting for inflation, the average contribution of women to their RRSP was 27% higher in 2002 than in 1991. Trends in the RRSP contribution levels of women, though, generally mirror those of men. Indeed, the average contribution by men rose 23% in the same period.

Average earnings still lower

The average earnings of employed women are still substantially lower than those of men. In 2003, employed women had average earnings of just under \$25,000, a figure that was only 64% that of all men with jobs. (Table 6.9)

Even when employed on a full-time, full-year basis the earnings of women remain well below those of their male counterparts. In 2003, women working full-time, full-year had average earnings of \$36,500, or 71% what men employed full-time, full-year made that year.

As well, while there have been some year-to-year fluctuations, the gap between the earnings of women and men has not changed substantially in the past decade. Indeed, the current difference is actually slightly lower than the peak figure of 72% recorded in the mid-1990s. This is in contrast to the two previous decades when women's earnings as a percentage of those of men rose relatively quickly.

Earnings and education

Not surprisingly, women's earnings rise sharply the higher their level of educational attainment. Female university graduates working full-time, full-year, for example, earned an average of \$53,400 in 2003, whereas no other educational grouping of women made over \$35,000 that year. Indeed, women with less than a Grade 9 education earned only \$21,700 that year. (Table 6.10)

Still, whatever their level of educational attainment, women's earnings are well below those of their male counterparts. In fact, with the exception of the relatively small group of those with only some postsecondary education, the earnings of women employed on a full-time, full-year basis in 2003 were only about 70% those of their male colleagues at all levels of education.

Earnings and occupation

As with men, women in professional and related occupations generally have considerably higher incomes than women in other occupational groups. In 2003, women employed on a full-time, full-year basis as either social sciences or health professionals had average earnings of over \$60,000, while those employed in the natural sciences or as business and finance professionals made over \$55,000. At the same time, women in management positions, as well as teachers, had annual earnings close to \$50,000 that year. In contrast, the average annual earnings of women employed full-time, full-year in non-professional occupations ranged from just under \$36,000 for those employed in administrative positions and \$33,300 for those in clerical jobs to just over \$19,000 for those working in primary industries. (Table 6.11)

Women's earnings, though, are well below those of men in all occupational categories; there is, however, no real pattern in this diversity. Among those in professional categories, for example, the 2003 earnings ratio for women and men employed full-time, full-year was around 80% for those working in either the natural sciences or as artistic and recreational professionals, while the figure was close to 70% among those employed in teaching or the social sciences. In contrast, women in managerial positions, as well as business and financial professionals, had earnings which were only about 60% those of their male counterparts. At the same time, the figure among professionals employed in health-related professions was under 50%. However, this figure is skewed by the fact that almost all men in this field are employed as doctors or other diagnosing professionals, while many women are employed as lower-paid nurses.

There is also considerable diversity in the gap between women's and men's earnings in non-professional occupations. In these areas, women's earnings as a percentage of those of men in 2003 ranged from close to 80% for those employed full-time full-year in clerical positions to under 60% for those employed in jobs in each of the sales and service, trades or transportation, and manufacturing sectors.



Earnings and age

The earnings of women tend to be higher for those over the age of 35 than their younger counterparts. In 2003, women between the ages of 35 and 54 employed full-time, full-year had average earnings of \$40,000, while the figure was \$36,000 for those aged 55 and over. In contrast, the average earnings of women employed full-time were around \$32,000 for those aged 25 to 34 and under \$20,000 for those aged 16 to 24. (Table 6.12)

The earnings of women compared to those of men, however, tend to be highest in younger age groups. In 2003, the female-to-male earnings ratio for those working full-time, full-year was 81% among those aged 16 to 24 and close to 75% for women aged either 25 to 34 or 35 to 44, compared with under 70% for both those aged 45 to 54 and 55 and over.

Earnings and marital status

Overall, there is little variation in the earnings of women depending on their marital status. In 2003, women employed full-time who were either separated, divorced or widowed had average earnings of \$37,600, compared with \$36,800 for married women and \$34,600 for single, never-married females. (Table 6.12)

The earnings of single, never-married women, though, are relatively close to those of their male counterparts. In 2003, the earnings of single women employed on a full-time, full-year basis were 94% those of single men. In fact, among single, never-married people over the age of 45, women actually make more than men.

In contrast, married women make considerably less than their partners. Indeed, in 2003, the earnings of married women employed on a full-time, full-year basis were just 65% those of married men, while the figure was 77% among other women. As well, in both cases the earnings of women were substantially below those of their male counterparts in almost all age categories.

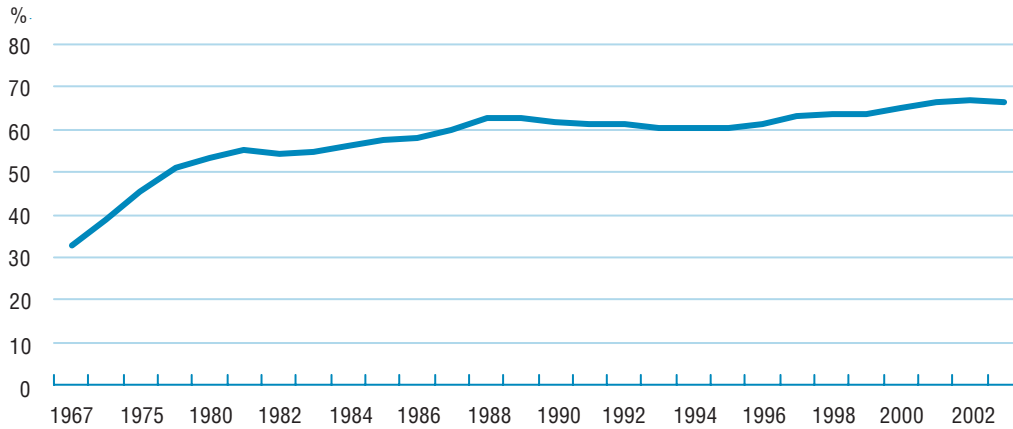
Earnings of wives in dual-earner families

The influx of married women into the labour force over the past three decades has resulted in an increase in the number of dual-earner families. In 2003, both spouses were employed in 66% of all two-spouse families, including both married and common-law couples, double the figure in 1967 when both spouses were employed in just 33% of such families. However, almost all of this increase occurred prior to 1990, although there was also a modest increase in the late 1990s. (Chart 6.5)

There has also been little change in the share of total family earnings being contributed by wives in recent years. In 2003, wives' earnings represented 34% of the income of dual-earner families, a figure that has not changed appreciably since 1998. In contrast, this figure had grown rather consistently in the preceding three decades, rising from 26% in 1967 to 34% in 2003. (Chart 6.6)

Chart 6.5

Dual-earner families as a percentage of all husband-wife families,¹ 1967 to 2003

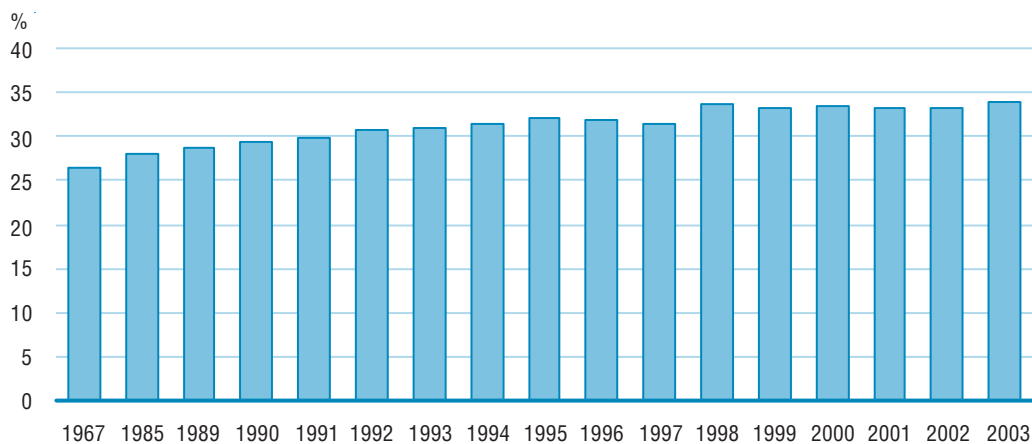


1. Includes those in common-law unions.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Chart 6.6

Earnings of wives as a percentage of total income in dual-earner families,¹ 1967 to 2003



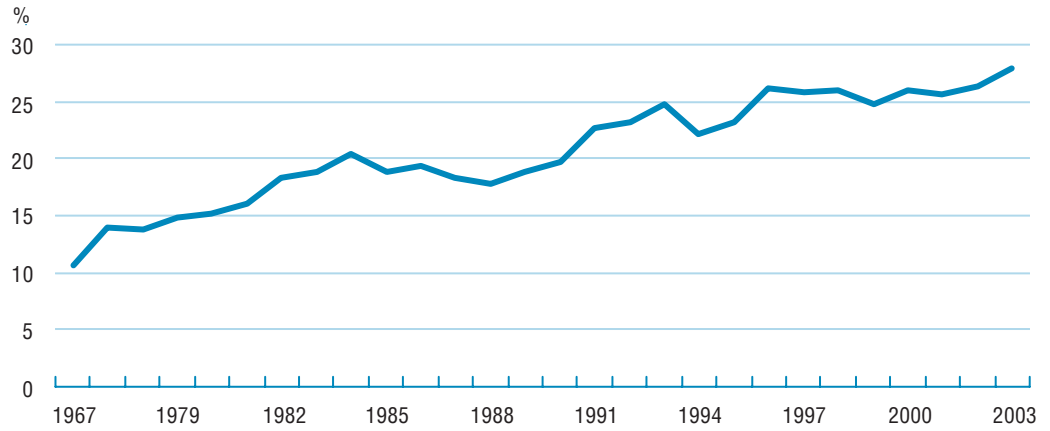
1. Includes those in common-law unions.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

There has, however, been a modest increase in the percentage of wives who earn more than their husbands in the past several decades. In 2003, 28% of wives in dual-earner families had employment earnings that were greater than those of their husbands, up from 23% in 1991 and just 11% in 1967. (Chart 6.7)

Chart 6.7

Percentage of dual-earner families in which wives earned more than husbands, 1967 to 2003

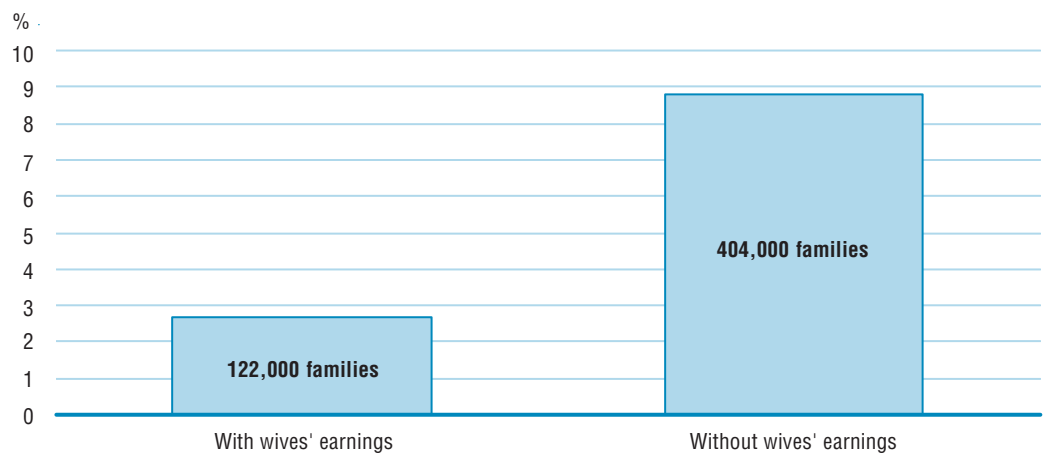


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-215-XPB; and Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

The relative importance of wives' earnings to total family income is reflected in the percentage of families whose income would fall below the Low Income Cut-offs were it not for the contribution of wives' earnings. In 2003, just over 120,000 dual-earner families, 3% of the total, had low incomes. It is estimated, however, that if wives' earnings were deducted from the income of these families, the number of these families with low incomes would jump to over 400,000, or 9% of the total. (Chart 6.8)

Chart 6.8

Percentage of dual-earner families¹ with low income after tax, by presence of wives' earnings, 2003



1. Includes those in common-law unions.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Women with low incomes

Women make up a disproportionate share of the population in Canada with low incomes. In 2003, 1.9 million females, 12% of the total female population, were living in an after-tax low-income situation. At the same time, 11% of the male population had low incomes. That year, females accounted for 53% of all Canadians classified as having low incomes. (Table 6.13)

The proportion of the female population classified as living in a low-income situation is currently somewhat lower than it has been throughout the past couple of decades. In 2003, 12% of all females were considered to be living in a low-income situation, once taxes had been factored in, whereas the figure had been as high as 17% in the mid-1990s.

There has been a particularly sharp drop in low-income rates among senior women. In 2003, just 9% of women aged 65 and over lived in an after-tax low-income situation, compared with over 25% in the early 1980s when senior women were by far the most likely age group to be considered to have low incomes. Indeed, women aged 65 and over are currently actually less likely than their counterparts under age 65 to live in a low-income situation. (Table 6.14)

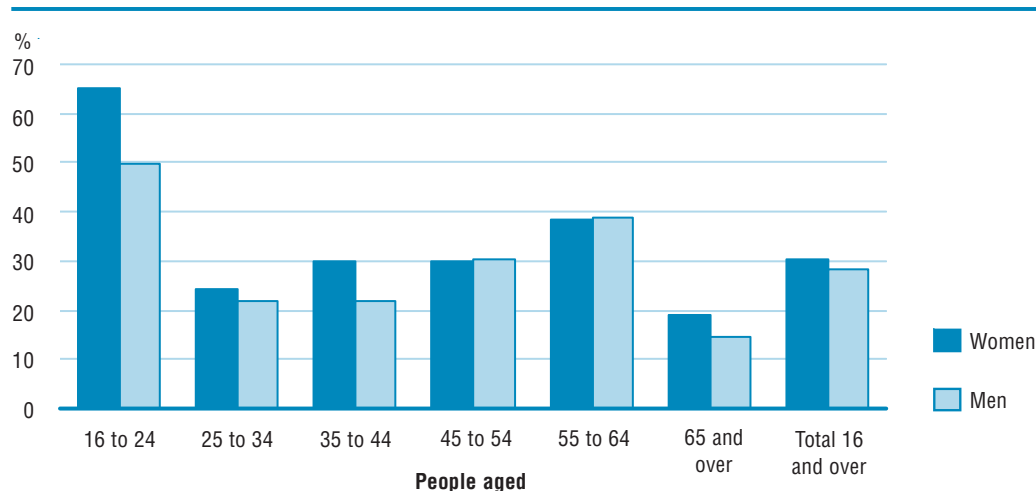
The share of senior women with low incomes, though, is still twice as high as that of senior men. In 2003, 9% of women aged 65 and over, versus just over 4% of their male counterparts, lived in an after-tax low-income situation. Women between the ages of 18 and 64 were also somewhat more likely to have low incomes than their male counterparts in 2003: 13% versus 11%. In contrast, female children were slightly less likely than male children to live in a low-income family that year.

Low income and family status

Unattached women are particularly likely to have low incomes. In 2003, 31% of unattached women aged 16 and over had incomes below the after-tax Low Income Cut-offs, while this was the case for 28% of their male counterparts. (Chart 6.9)

Chart 6.9

Percentage of unattached women and men living with low incomes after tax, by age, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Young adults are the most likely unattached women to have low incomes. Indeed, in 2003, 65% of women aged 16 to 24 living alone were considered to have low incomes, once taxes had been accounted for. At the same time, this was the case for 38% of unattached women aged 55 to 64, 30% of those between the ages of 35 and 54, 24% of those aged 25 to 34, and just 19% of seniors.

As reported in Chapter 11 on Senior Women, the incidence of low income among unattached senior women has dropped sharply since the early 1980s. In 2003, 19% of these women were classified as having after-tax low incomes, down from 57% in 1980.

Despite the dramatic decline in low-income rates among unattached senior women, they are still considerably more likely than unattached senior men to have incomes below the after-tax Low Income Cut-offs. In 2003, 19% of unattached women aged 65 and over had after-low incomes, compared with 15% of unattached senior men. Young unattached women, as well as those aged 35 to 44, were also more likely to have low incomes than their male counterparts, whereas there was little difference in the low-income rates among unattached women and men in other age ranges.

Many lone-parent families headed by women with low incomes

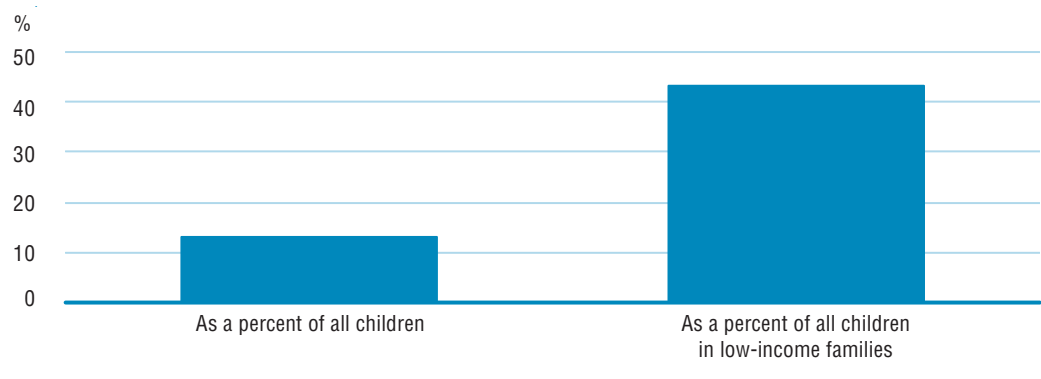
Families headed by female lone parents also have relatively high rates of low income. In 2003, 38% of all families headed by lone-parent mothers had incomes which fell below the after-tax Low Income Cut-offs. In comparison, this was the case for 13% of male lone-parent families and just 7% of non-elderly two-parent families with children. (Table 6.15)

The incidence of low income among female-headed lone-parent families, however, has declined somewhat in recent years. In 2003, 38% of these families had after-tax low incomes, whereas in the period from the early 1980s to the mid-1990s, the figure hovered around 50%.

Despite the overall decline in the incidence of low-income among lone-parent families headed by women, these families continue to be home to a disproportionate share of all children living in low-income situations. In 2003, 43% of all children in a low-income family were living with a single female parent, whereas these families accounted for only 13% of all children under age 18 that year. (Chart 6.10)

Chart 6.10

Children in lone-parent families headed by women as a percentage of all low-income¹ children, 2003



1. Refers to low-income status after tax.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

The Low Income Cut-offs

Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are used to classify families and unattached individuals into "low-income" and "other" groups. Families or individuals are classified as "low income" if they spend, on average, at least 20 percentage points more of their pre-tax income than the Canadian average on food, shelter, and clothing. Using 1992 as the base year, families and individuals with incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs usually spend more than 54.7% of their income on these items and are considered to be in straitened circumstances. The number of people in the family and the size of the urban or rural area where the family resides are also taken into consideration.

Note, however, that Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are not official poverty lines. They have no officially recognized status as such, nor does Statistics Canada promote their use as poverty lines.

Homeownership

Women's homeownership characteristics are related, in large part, to their family status. Women living in two-spouse families, for example, are far more likely than other women to own their own homes. In 2003, 80% of women who were partners in a husband-wife family⁴ lived in an owner-occupied home, compared with 45% of female lone parents. At the same time, just over half (53%) of female seniors who lived alone and just 38% of unattached women aged 15 to 64 owned their homes. (Table 6.16)

Female lone parents are also less likely than male lone parents to own their homes. In 1997, 45% of female lone parents were homeowners, compared with 66% of families headed by male lone parents. On the other hand, unattached women aged 65 and over were only slightly less likely than their male counterparts to own their homes, 53% versus 56%, while among unattached individuals under age 65, women were slightly more likely than men, 38% compared with 35%, to be homeowners.

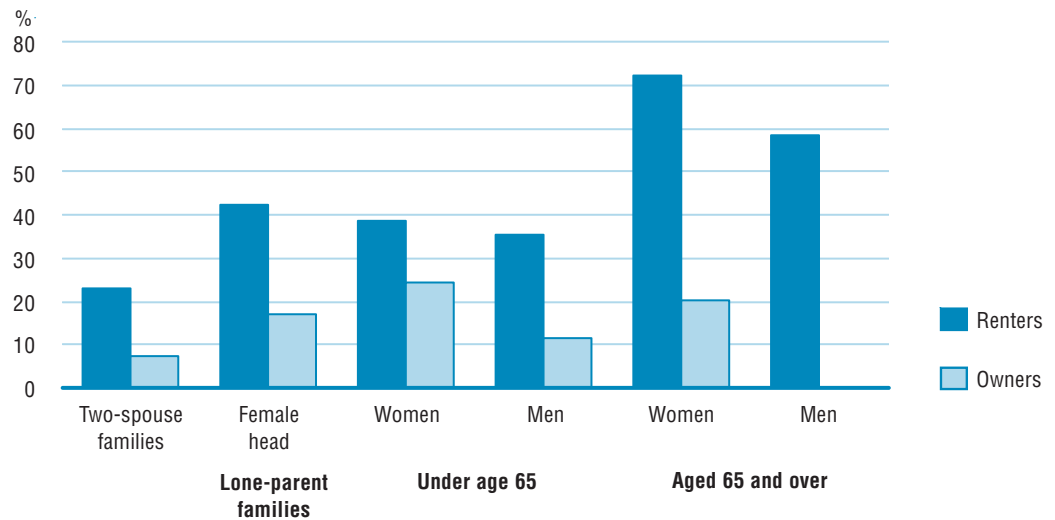
While relatively few unattached women own their homes, a large proportion of those who are homeowners have paid off their mortgages. This is especially true of unattached senior women. In 2003, exactly 50% of all unattached females aged 65 and over owned their homes outright, while only 3% had a mortgage. At the same time, close to half of female lone-parent homeowners were also mortgage-free. That year, 21% of all female lone parents owned a home without a mortgage, while 25% still had a mortgage. In fact, female lone parents were about as likely as their male counterparts to own a mortgage-free home.

Housing affordability

Many women experience housing affordability problems,⁵ especially unattached women and female lone parents who rent their homes. Indeed, in 2003, 72% of unattached women aged 65 and over who rented were considered to have housing affordability problems. Similarly, 42% of renter families headed by female lone parents had housing affordability problems, as did 38% of unattached female renters under the age of 65. (Chart 6.11)

Chart 6.11

Percentage of women and men paying 30% or more of total gross household income on shelter costs, by household type, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Household Spending.

In fact, in those categories in which statistical comparisons are possible, females are more likely than their respective male counterparts to experience housing affordability problems. Among unattached seniors who rented in 2003, for example, 72% of women, versus 58% of men, were considered to have housing affordability problems. Similarly, among unattached homeowners under age 65, 24% of women, compared with 11% of males, had housing affordability problems.

Women who own their homes are considerably less likely than those who rent to have housing affordability problems. Still, among women who owned their homes in 2003, 24% of unattached women under age 65, 20% of unattached seniors, and 17% of female lone parents had housing affordability problems. In contrast, only 8% of women in two-partner households which owned their home were considered to have housing affordability problems. As well, as with renters, female homeowners in these groups were more likely than their male counterparts to have housing affordability problems.

Notes

1. Government transfer payments include all social welfare payments from federal, provincial, and municipal governments, including Child Tax Benefits, Old Age Security and Guaranteed Income Supplements, Spouse's Allowances, Canada and Quebec Pension Plan benefits, Employment Insurance, worker's compensation, training allowances, veteran's pensions, social assistance, and pensions to the blind and persons with disabilities. Refundable tax credits and Goods and Services Tax Credits are included as income.
2. Other money income includes alimony and child support payments, annuities, superannuation, scholarships, and other items not included in other categories.
3. The income of senior women and men is discussed in more detail in the chapter on Senior Women.
4. Includes those living in a common-law relationship.
5. Those with housing affordability problems include families and unattached individuals that spend 30% or more of their total household income on shelter costs. It should be noted, however, that those paying 30% or more of their income on shelter may not necessarily have a housing affordability problem; some, for example, may be paying down their mortgage quickly.



Table 6.1

Average income of women and men,¹ by age, 2003

People aged	Women	Men	Women's income as a percent of men's
	\$		%
16 to 19	5,700	6,500	87.7
20 to 24	13,200	16,200	81.4
25 to 34	25,400	37,000	68.6
35 to 44	30,700	49,200	62.4
45 to 54	31,400	53,300	58.9
55 to 64	23,200	45,100	51.4
65 and over	20,600	30,900	66.7
Total aged 16 and over	24,400	39,300	62.1

1. Includes only people with income in 2003.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.2

Average income of women and men,¹ by province, 2003

	Women	Men	Women's income as a percent of men's
	\$		%
Newfoundland and Labrador	19,000	29,700	64.0
Prince Edward Island	20,300	30,100	67.4
Nova Scotia	21,500	34,200	62.9
New Brunswick	20,700	31,200	66.3
Quebec	23,600	35,500	66.4
Ontario	26,100	43,600	59.9
Manitoba	23,400	34,500	67.8
Saskatchewan	23,600	34,500	68.4
Alberta	24,100	43,200	55.8
British Columbia	23,500	37,400	62.8
Canada	24,400	39,300	62.1

1. Includes only people with income in 2003.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.3

Average family income, by family type, 1980 to 2003

	Non-elderly families ¹						
	Two-parent families with children ²	Married couples without children	Other couples ³	Lone-parent families ²			Elderly families ⁴
				Female head	Male head	Other families	
	Constant 2003 \$						
1980	70,100	66,900	90,600	29,400	46,800	49,800	45,500
1981	69,300	63,700	91,700	29,300	52,900	53,800	43,400
1982	67,700	61,200	89,300	27,000	48,200	53,000	45,700
1983	67,400	61,700	85,400	26,600	44,000	47,700	42,500
1984	67,700	61,200	83,200	27,800	47,100	50,900	45,800
1985	69,600	62,500	86,800	27,800	45,100	50,400	46,300
1986	71,000	62,500	91,400	27,600	46,400	53,900	46,200
1987	72,700	64,900	89,700	28,400	57,500	53,200	44,800
1988	74,000	67,200	92,000	28,800	50,000	54,700	46,000
1989	76,100	66,200	94,300	31,000	62,000	56,700	51,700
1990	74,300	64,800	94,400	28,100	46,300	55,100	50,400
1991	72,400	64,000	89,300	27,300	46,700	53,300	49,300
1992	72,800	66,100	88,700	28,600	47,900	47,900	47,600
1993	71,100	64,200	88,900	27,300	41,400	51,500	48,300
1994	72,400	62,300	89,900	28,200	41,500	52,000	48,000
1995	72,200	63,500	88,400	29,000	42,200	51,400	50,400
1996	72,400	66,200	92,400	27,500	46,300	58,300	46,300
1997	74,700	69,300	92,100	27,500	45,900	57,000	46,600
1998	78,100	70,300	94,600	30,000	48,800	61,500	47,300
1999	80,100	69,600	99,100	31,000	49,700	62,200	49,100
2000	83,300	70,500	105,400	33,400	54,200	64,700	49,400
2001	84,300	74,900	102,100	34,900	51,000	64,800	49,600
2002	84,700	73,400	101,600	32,300	51,200	66,600	50,200
2003	85,600	70,900	101,200	32,500	54,700	61,100	50,200

1. Includes families with major income earner less than age 65.
2. Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.
3. Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.
4. Includes families with major income earner aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.4

Average income of unattached women and men,¹ by age, 2003

People aged	Women	Men	Women's income as
			a percent of men's
			\$
			%
16 to 24	12,355	17,450	70.8
25 to 34	30,054	34,457	87.2
35 to 44	37,160	43,421	85.6
45 to 54	43,256E	37,642	114.9
55 to 59	27,674	33,543	82.5
60 to 64	25,136	31,942	78.7
65 and over	24,830	29,640	83.8
Total aged 16 and over	28,144	33,924	83.0

1. Includes only people with income in 2003.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.5

Composition of income of women and men with income, 2003

	Women		Men	
	\$	%	\$	%
Wages and salaries	15,766	64.6	28,406	72.2
Net income from self-employment	1,386	5.7	2,894	7.4
Total employment income	17,153	70.3	31,300	79.6
Investment income	981	4.0	1,139	2.9
Retirement pensions	1,456	6.0	2,880	7.3
Other income	640	2.6	626	1.6
Income from government transfers				
Old Age Security	881	3.6	670	1.7
Guaranteed Income Supplement/Spouse's Allowance	291	1.2	138	0.3
Canada/Quebec Pension Plan benefits	1,059	4.3	1,230	3.1
Social assistance	486	2.0	218	0.6
Employment insurance benefits	522	2.1	603	1.5
Child tax benefits	611	2.5	31	0.1
Workers compensation benefits	114	0.5	287	0.7
GST/HST credit	120	0.5	123	0.3
Provincial/territorial tax credits	80	0.3	76	0.2
Total government transfers	4,166	17.1	3,378	8.6
Total	24,400	100.0	39,300	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.6

Composition of family income, by family structure, 2003

	Non-elderly families ¹						
	Two-parent families with children ²	Married couples without children	Other couples ³	Lone-parent families ²		Other families	Elderly families ⁴
				Female head	Male head		
				%			
Wages and salaries	82.4	74.7	78.6	59.8	79.2	71.6	9.9
Net income from self-employment	8.1	6.7	7.8	3.1	6.8	5.0	2.9
Investment income	1.6	3.4	2.8	0.8	1.4	2.0	10.1
Retirement income	0.6	7.2	3.7	0.8	0.3	4.1	33.7
Transfer payments	6.0	5.6	5.5	26.7	10.7	14.8	41.6
Other income	1.3	2.3	1.7	8.9	1.5	2.5	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total income (\$)	85,560	70,929	101,231	32,505	54,665	61,103	50,242

1. Includes families with major income earner less than age 65.
2. Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.
3. Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.
4. Includes families with major income earner aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.7

Membership in employer-sponsored pension plans, 1980 to 2002¹

	Women		Men		Women as a percent of all plan members
	000s	Percentage of employed paid female workers	000s	Percentage of employed paid male workers	
1980	1,378	37.6	3,098	54.2	30.8
1982	1,477	36.2	3,181	53.7	31.7
1984	1,525	37.3	3,039	54.7	33.4
1986	1,621	37.0	3,047	52.9	34.7
1988	1,763	37.2	3,082	51.0	36.4
1989	1,981	37.4	3,128	47.0	38.8
1991	2,189	40.8	3,129	49.2	41.2
1992	2,220	41.6	3,025	48.1	42.3
1993	2,249	41.9	2,966	46.8	43.1
1994	2,240	41.1	2,930	45.3	43.3
1995	2,255	40.6	2,895	44.0	43.8
1996	2,250	40.3	2,866	43.4	44.0
1997	2,247	39.9	2,842	42.9	44.2
1998	2,272	39.1	2,819	41.9	44.6
1999	2,363	39.3	2,905	41.9	44.9
2000	2,447	39.3	2,984	41.8	45.1
2001	2,505	39.2	2,966	40.9	45.8
2002	2,565	39.2	2,962	39.9	46.4

1. At January 1st of each year.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 74-401-XPB; and Income Statistics Division.

Table 6.8

Contributors to Registered Retirement Savings Plans, 1982 to 2002

	Women		Men		Women as a percent of all contributors
	000s	Percentage of all female taxfilers	000s	Percentage of all male taxfilers	
1982	706.7	9.7	1,393.6	17.5	33.6
1983	823.4	11.3	1,505.8	18.8	35.4
1984	960.6	12.9	1,684.4	20.8	36.3
1985	1,085.5	14.2	1,807.7	21.9	37.5
1986	1,241.9	15.6	1,974.4	23.1	38.6
1987	1,364.2	16.5	2,119.5	24.1	39.2
1988	1,510.5	17.6	2,291.7	25.4	39.7
1989	1,690.9	19.1	2,470.6	26.7	40.6
1990	1,704.8	18.4	2,435.1	25.6	41.2
1991	1,928.8	20.3	2,688.8	28.1	41.8
1992	2,052.2	21.1	2,784.2	28.6	42.4
1993	2,190.2	22.2	2,942.0	29.6	42.7
1994	2,292.2	22.7	3,075.4	30.5	42.7
1995	2,499.4	24.3	3,228.3	31.6	43.6
1996	2,655.7	25.3	3,344.3	32.4	44.3
1997	2,762.4	25.9	3,423.3	32.8	44.7
1998	2,748.4	25.2	3,412.7	32.5	44.6
1999	2,830.2	25.3	3,481.1	32.5	44.8
2000	2,895.0	25.4	3,520.3	32.4	45.1
2001	2,878.7	24.9	3,436.0	31.2	45.6
2002	2,763.3	23.7	3,274.0	29.3	45.8

Source: Canada Revenue Agency, Taxation Statistics.

Table 6.9

Average annual earnings¹ of women and men, by employment status, 1967 to 2003

	Full-time, full-year workers			Other workers			All earners		
	Women	Men	Earnings ratio ²	Women	Men	Earnings ratio ²	Women	Men	Earnings ratio ²
	\$		%	\$		%	\$		%
1967	21,300	36,400	58.4	7,600	15,100	50.6	13,900	30,200	46.1
1969	23,300	39,700	58.7	9,100	19,800	46.0	14,800	32,300	45.7
1971	25,700	43,100	59.7	8,600	17,000	50.4	16,200	34,700	46.9
1972	26,700	44,600	59.8	8,800	17,000	51.7	16,600	35,900	46.1
1973	26,900	45,400	59.3	9,000	17,200	52.2	16,900	36,600	46.3
1974	28,100	47,300	59.6	9,800	18,400	53.4	17,800	37,400	47.4
1975	29,200	48,500	60.2	9,700	19,200	50.6	18,400	38,300	48.1
1976	30,700	51,900	59.1	10,700	20,400	52.4	19,100	40,800	46.7
1977	29,900	48,200	62.1	10,900	17,900	60.8	19,700	38,700	50.8
1978	30,900	49,000	63.0	10,400	17,700	58.7	19,600	38,600	50.8
1979	30,200	47,600	63.4	10,800	18,600	58.0	19,800	38,400	51.6
1980	31,100	48,500	64.0	10,600	17,200	61.8	19,800	38,500	51.3
1981	30,200	47,600	63.5	11,000	17,700	62.2	20,000	37,600	53.2
1982	30,000	47,100	63.8	10,300	16,300	63.2	19,600	35,800	54.8
1983	30,900	48,000	64.4	9,700	15,600	62.4	19,700	36,000	54.8
1984	30,600	46,800	65.3	10,800	15,500	70.0	20,200	35,300	57.2
1985	30,400	46,900	64.8	10,500	14,900	70.7	20,200	36,200	56.0
1986	30,900	47,100	65.6	11,500	15,500	74.0	21,000	36,600	57.2
1987	31,400	47,700	65.8	11,600	15,200	76.6	21,200	36,900	57.4
1988	31,500	48,300	65.2	11,600	15,500	74.7	21,700	37,800	57.2
1989	31,700	48,100	65.8	12,000	16,300	73.9	22,400	38,000	58.9
1990	32,400	48,400	66.8	11,200	15,900	70.5	21,700	37,100	58.4
1991	33,000	48,100	68.7	10,600	15,100	70.1	21,700	36,000	60.1
1992	34,200	48,600	70.3	10,900	14,200	76.3	22,100	35,600	61.9
1993	34,300	48,100	71.3	10,700	14,500	73.6	22,300	35,700	62.5
1994	33,500	48,900	68.5	11,100	14,200	78.4	22,200	36,700	60.5
1995	34,900	48,200	72.4	11,100	14,500	76.4	22,900	36,100	63.4
1996	34,300	47,400	72.3	12,000	15,800	76.0	22,700	36,100	63.1
1997	34,000	49,700	68.3	12,500	15,400	81.1	22,900	37,000	61.9
1998	36,500	50,700	71.9	12,300	16,900	72.7	23,900	38,100	62.8
1999	35,000	51,300	68.4	12,700	16,500	77.2	24,300	38,800	62.6
2000	36,200	51,200	70.6	13,700	20,000	68.2	24,700	40,100	61.7
2001	36,500	52,300	69.9	13,700	17,500	78.4	24,800	40,000	62.1
2002	36,800	52,400	70.2	13,500	17,200	78.1	25,100	40,000	62.8
2003	36,500	51,700	70.5	12,900	16,000	80.6	24,800	39,100	63.6

1. Expressed in constant 2003 dollars.

2. Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.10

**Average annual earnings of women and men employed full-time, full-year,
by educational attainment, 2003**

Educational attainment	Women	Men	Women's income as a percent of men's
		\$	%
Less than grade 9	21,700	31,200	69.4
Some secondary school	22,900	40,000	57.3
Secondary school graduate	30,500	43,000	71.0
Some postsecondary	31,500	41,600	75.6
Postsecondary certificate or diploma	34,200	49,800	68.6
University degree	53,400	77,500	68.9
Total	36,500	51,700	70.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.11

Average annual earnings of women and men, by occupation, 2003

	Full-time, full-year workers			All workers		
	Women	Men	Earnings ratio ¹	Women	Men	Earnings ratio ¹
	\$		%	\$		%
Managerial	46,600	69,000	67.4	41,700	69,700	59.9
Administrative	35,500	55,700	63.7	30,300	50,800	59.7
Professionals						
Business/finance	55,800	80,400	69.3	48,500	79,200	61.1
Natural sciences	55,300	66,500	83.1	49,200	60,200	81.7
Social sciences/religion	63,900	91,200	70.0	53,400	80,500	66.3
Teaching	47,500	63,300	75.0	35,900	50,800	70.7
Medicine/health ²	61,100	116,300	52.5	51,200	111,400	45.9
Artistic/recreational	33,600	41,900	80.0	25,500	32,500	78.4
Clerical	33,300	41,800	79.7	25,900	33,300	77.6
Sales/service	24,100	43,300	55.7	15,300	29,200	52.2
Trades/transportation	24,800	43,500	57.1	18,600	36,000	51.5
Primary	19,200	31,500	60.8	14,400	25,500	56.4
Manufacturing	26,200	45,100	58.1	20,200	38,100	53.0
Total	36,500	51,700	70.5	24,800	39,100	63.6

1. Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.

2. Includes registered nurses and nurse supervisors.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.12

Average annual earnings of full-time, full-year workers, by age and marital status, 2003

People aged	Single	Married	Other ¹	Total
16 to 24				
Women	19,200	21,500	F	19,700
Men	23,300	30,500	F	24,400
Earnings ratio ²	%	82.2	70.4	80.9
25 to 34				
Women	33,300	31,500	31,500	32,100
Men	37,900	47,100	36,000	43,100
Earnings ratio ²	%	87.9	66.7	87.6
35 to 44				
Women	40,000	40,300	37,700	40,000
Men	45,500	57,400	50,700	54,900
Earnings ratio ²	%	87.8	70.3	74.4
45 to 54				
Women	57,600 E	38,200	39,700	40,300
Men	43,900	63,100	50,900	60,200
Earnings ratio ²	%	131.2	60.6	78.0
55 and over				
Women	39,500	35,100	37,900	36,100
Men	35,800	53,400	51,300	52,700
Earnings ratio ²	%	110.4	65.7	74.0
Total aged 16 and over				
Women	34,600	36,800	37,600	36,500
Men	37,000	56,400	48,600	51,700
Earnings ratio ²	%	93.6	65.3	77.4

1. Includes separated/divorced and widowed.

2. Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 6.13

Females and males¹ with low incomes after tax,² 1980 to 2003

	Females with low income	Percentage of females with low income	Males with low income	Percentage of males with low income	Females as a percent of all people with low income
	000s	%	000s	%	%
1980	1,635	13.5	1,172	9.8	58.2
1981	1,626	13.3	1,197	9.9	57.6
1982	1,715	13.8	1,331	10.9	56.3
1983	1,918	15.3	1,560	12.6	55.1
1984	1,913	15.1	1,538	12.3	55.4
1985	1,839	14.4	1,451	11.5	55.9
1986	1,708	13.2	1,390	10.9	55.1
1987	1,710	13.1	1,364	10.6	55.6
1988	1,637	12.4	1,209	9.3	57.5
1989	1,551	11.5	1,153	8.7	57.4
1990	1,799	13.2	1,392	10.4	56.4
1991	1,958	14.2	1,642	12.1	54.4
1992	1,996	14.3	1,681	12.2	54.3
1993	2,182	15.4	1,822	13.1	54.4
1994	2,139	14.9	1,760	12.5	54.9
1995	2,255	15.6	1,931	13.6	53.9
1996	2,420	16.5	2,135	14.9	53.1
1997	2,400	16.3	2,074	14.3	53.6
1998	2,150	14.5	1,875	12.8	53.4
1999	2,033	13.6	1,817	12.4	52.8
2000	2,055	13.6	1,686	11.4	54.9
2001	1,849	12.1	1,545	10.3	54.4
2002	1,908	12.4	1,628	10.7	54.0
2003	1,878	12.1	1,674	10.9	52.9

1. Includes children under age 18.

2. Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Table 6.14

**Percentage of females and males living in a low-income situation
after tax,¹ by age, 1980 to 2003**

	People aged					
	Under 18		18 to 64		65 and over	
	Female	Male	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%					
1980	12.5	11.6	11.8	8.3	26.7	14.5
1981	12.7	12.1	11.4	8.4	26.3	14.2
1982	14.5	13.6	11.9	9.8	23.8	9.8
1983	15.4	15.8	13.7	11.3	24.4	12.6
1984	15.9	16.0	13.9	11.1	20.7	10.3
1985	15.6	15.5	13.1	10.3	19.3	8.4
1986	13.5	13.9	12.3	10.1	17.6	8.1
1987	13.7	13.5	12.2	9.9	16.7	7.2
1988	12.4	11.9	11.4	8.6	17.5	6.8
1989	11.8	11.6	10.8	8.0	15.1	6.1
1990	14.3	13.2	12.5	10.0	14.4	5.9
1991	14.7	15.2	13.9	11.7	14.5	6.6
1992	14.8	15.1	14.2	12.2	13.4	5.1
1993	17.1	16.4	14.9	12.8	14.8	7.1
1994	16.3	15.4	15.0	12.7	11.9	4.1
1995	17.9	17.3	15.4	13.7	12.2	3.8
1996	18.1	19.1	16.6	14.8	13.0	5.6
1997	17.5	18.0	16.7	14.3	11.8	5.6
1998	14.9	16.0	15.0	12.9	11.1	5.4
1999	14.1	14.7	14.0	12.7	10.3	4.7
2000	14.2	13.4	14.1	11.8	10.0	4.6
2001	12.2	12.0	12.8	10.6	8.3	4.6
2002	11.8	12.7	13.1	11.0	9.7	4.9
2003	12.1	12.6	12.7	11.4	8.7	4.4

1. Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Table 6.15

Percentage of families with low income after tax,¹ by family type, 1980 to 2003

	Non-elderly families ²						Elderly families ⁵
	Two-parent families with children ³	Married couples without children	Other couples ⁴	Lone-parent families ³		Other families	
				Female head	Male head		
				%			
1980	6.9	4.6	2.0	47.7	21.5	17.8	7.2
1981	7.2	5.0	2.1	46.0	11.6	12.1	9.4
1982	8.2	5.7	3.2	49.1	18.9	14.7	5.7
1983	9.2	6.7	3.3	52.1	24.4	19.2	6.9
1984	9.2	7.0	4.2	53.0	21.3	14.9	6.9
1985	8.8	5.9	2.9	53.5	21.2	14.3	4.8
1986	8.2	5.9	2.9	49.0	17.5	12.4	5.1
1987	7.7	6.3	2.6	49.5	12.9	12.9	4.2
1988	6.3	5.1	1.8	46.5	17.5	12.5	4.8
1989	6.3	5.1	1.8	42.5	11.7	9.5	3.7
1990	7.2	6.9	2.4	48.6	18.1	14.1	2.6
1991	8.3	7.9	2.9	50.0	21.3	13.1	3.0
1992	7.8	6.6	4.1	46.6	13.1	17.4	2.9
1993	9.5	8.0	3.1	46.8	20.1	15.3	4.4
1994	9.2	7.8	4.2	46.7	28.2	15.7	2.8
1995	10.7	8.1	4.2	48.5	22.9	13.6	2.4
1996	10.8	8.4	4.3	52.7	24.8	14.7	3.3
1997	10.3	7.6	4.1	49.3	21.4	14.5	3.9
1998	8.5	6.7	4.1	42.9	16.8	14.2	3.9
1999	8.1	8.0	3.1	39.4	18.1	12.0	2.9
2000	8.3	6.9	4.3	36.3	12.3	10.8	3.1
2001	6.9	6.4	4.8	33.8	12.3	8.7	2.5
2002	6.5	7.1	5.0	39.4	12.2	10.8	2.9
2003	6.6	6.5	5.0	38.4	12.6	11.6	2.7

1. Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.

2. Includes families with major income earner less than age 65.

3. Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.

4. Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.

5. Includes families with major income earner aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Table 6.16

Housing tenure, by household type, 2003

	Single-family households			One-person households			
	Two-spouse families ¹	Lone-parent families		Under age 65		Aged 65 and over	
		Female head	Male head	Women	Men	Women	Men
Tenure				%			
Owned with mortgage	44.8	24.8	45.1	21.4	19.7	2.6	F
Owned without mortgage	34.9	20.5	20.9	16.7	14.9	50.1	51.1
Total owned	79.7	45.3	66.0	38.1	34.6	52.8	55.8
Rented	20.3	54.7	34.0	61.9	65.4	47.2	44.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total households (000s)	6,642.1	932.9	211.8	822.2	1,188.9	779.6	276.4

1. Includes couples with and without children present in the household.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Household Spending.

Chapter 7

Women and the Criminal Justice System

By Maggie Charmant, Andrea Taylor-Butts, Cory Aston, Sara Johnson, Karen Mihorean, and Valerie Pottie-Bunge

Women as victims of crime

Traditionally, women's involvement in the criminal justice system has been more as victims of crime rather than as perpetrators. In 2004, women were charged with committing 17% of all crime in Canada, whereas they represented about half (51%) of all victims of violent crime reported to a sample of police forces.¹ (Table 7.1)

Common assaults make up the largest share of violent offences committed against women. In 2004, 53% of all women who were victims of a violent offence were victims of a common assault, while 13% were victims of a sexual assault, 11% were victims of an assault with a weapon causing bodily harm, 10% were victims of criminal harassment, and 8% were robbery victims.

When looking at gender difference, women are considerably more likely than men to be victims of violent crimes such as sexual assault and criminal harassment. In 2004, there were over six times as many female victims of sexual assault as male victims. Similarly, women were over three times more likely than men to be victims of criminal harassment.

According to police-reported data, women are more likely to be victimized by someone they know than their male counterparts. In 2004, relatives or acquaintances made up 70% of the assailants in violent incidents against women, compared with 46% of those committed against men. In contrast, female victims were only half as likely as male victims, 22% versus 42%, to be victimized by a stranger.

In comparison with men, female victims of violent crime are more often victimized by a current or former spouse, a current or former partner in a dating relationship, or a family member. In 2004, 40% of female victims were victimized by someone with whom they had a relationship at one point in time, through either marriage or dating, compared with 8% of male victims. Another 8% of females were victimized by other family members, such as aunts, uncles, sisters, or brothers, while close friends or business acquaintances represented 8% of the perpetrators of violent crimes against women. In comparison, 5% of male victims of violent crime were victimized by family member other than a spouse or dating partner, while 10% were victimized by a friend or business acquaintance.

The prevalence of spousal violence

Statistics Canada has collected data on spousal violence against women and men through the General Social Surveys on Victimization in 1999 and again in 2004. What both these surveys indicated was that relatively equal proportions of women and men experienced some form of physical or sexual violence by a common-law or marital partner

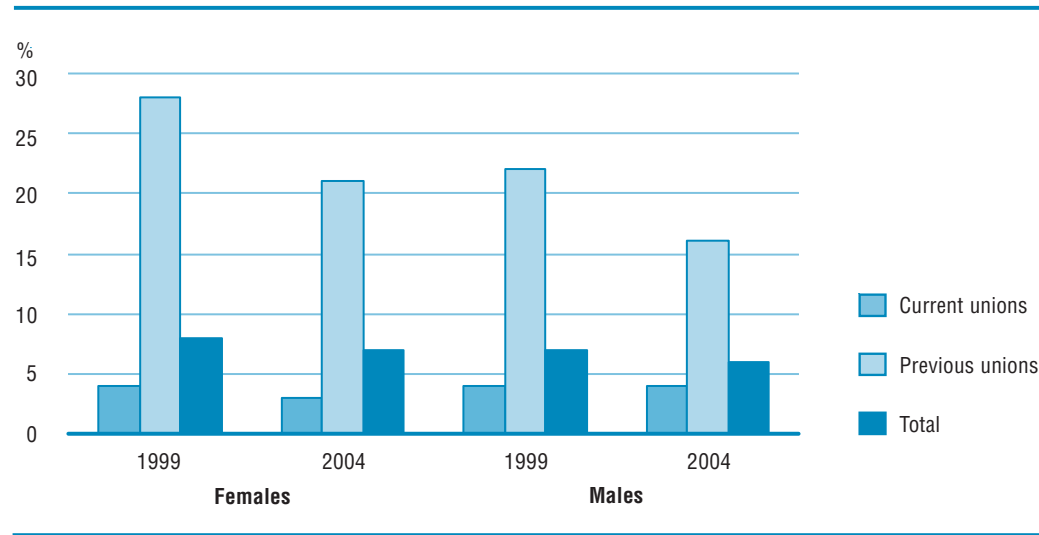
in the five years prior to the survey. However, women and men experience very different types of spousal violence and the impact of the violence is more serious for women than men.

There has been no change in the overall level of spousal violence reported by those who were married or living common-law during the past five years. In 2004, 653,000 women aged 15 and over, 7% of those in either a current or previous marital or common-law union, experienced spousal violence in the past five years. This estimate was basically unchanged from 1999. As well, the percentage of women reporting spousal violence by a spouse or common-law partner was about the same as that for their male counterparts, 6% of whom reported such violence in 2004.²

Women who had been in contact with a previous partner in the five-year period before the survey are considerably more likely than those in a current relationship to be victims of spousal violence. In 2004, 21% of women who had been in contact with a former spouse in this time period reported some form of abuse, whereas this was the case for 3% of women in a current relationship. (Chart 7.1)

Chart 7.1

Proportion of women and men reporting spousal violence¹ in the previous 5 years, 1999 and 2004



1. Includes common-law partners. Excludes people who refused to state their marital status.
 Source: Statistics Canada, 1999 and 2004 General Social Survey.

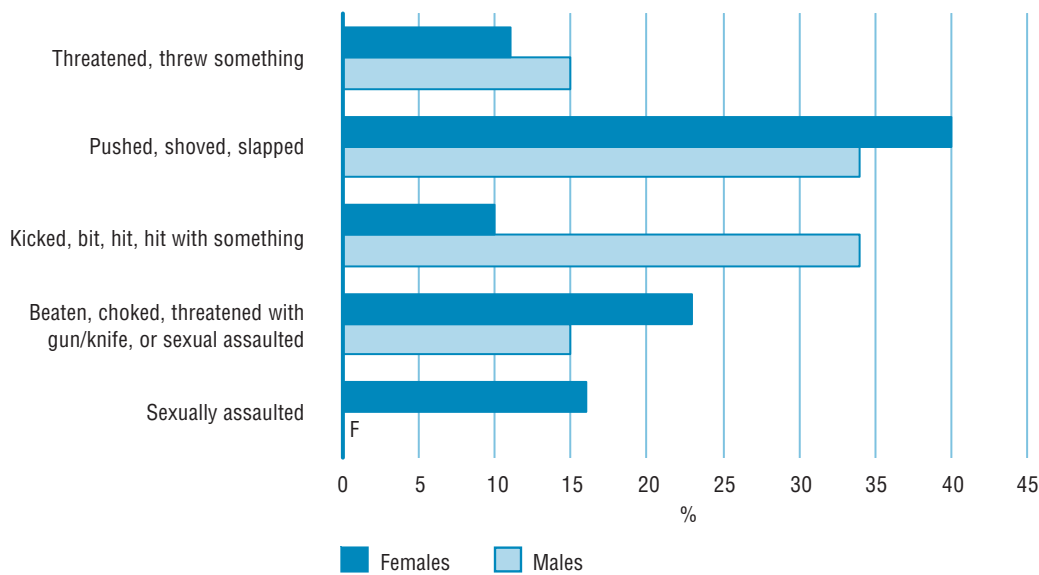
Women were also somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to be victims of spousal violence from a former spouse or partner. In 2004, 16% of men who had been in contact with their former spouse or partner self-reported violence and 4% of men in current relationships indicated experiencing violence.³ In contrast, there was almost no difference in the rates of spousal violence reported by women and men in a current relationship.

The proportion of women experiencing spousal violence at the hands of a former spouse or partner, though, has declined in recent years. As indicated above, in 2004, 21% of women who had been in contact with a previous partner in the five-year period before the survey reported some form of abuse, down from 28% in 1999. Similarly, the share of men reporting some form of spousal abuse from a former partner declined from 22% to 16% in the same period.

While the overall incidence rates of spousal violence experienced by women and men are similar, women are more likely to experience more serious forms of violence. The greatest proportion of both abused women and men indicated that the most serious violence they experienced was being pushed, shoved or slapped (40% and 34%). However, 23% of female victims of spousal violence reported that the most serious violence used against them involved being beaten, choked, or threatened with or had a gun or knife used against them, compared with 15% of their male counterparts. At the same time, 16% of female victims, versus a statistically insignificant share of male victims, reported they had been sexually assaulted. Men victims, on the other hand, were more likely than women victims to report that the most serious violence they experienced was being kicked, bitten, hit or hit with something: 34% versus 10%. (Chart 7.2)

Chart 7.2

Most serious form of spousal violence¹ reported by women and men in the past 5 years, 2004



1. Figures may not add up to 100 due to rounding. Includes women and men who experienced violence by a current or previous partner in the past 5-year period.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2004 General Social Survey.

Women are also more likely than men to experience repeated violence at the hands of a current or former partner. In 2004, 57% of female victims reported that they had been victimized more than once, compared with 50% of male victims. As well, women were almost twice as likely to report that they had been the targets of more than 10 violent incidents at the hands of their partner, than were of male victims (21% versus 11%).

Since women are more likely than men to report more serious types of violence, as well as repeated episodes of violence by a marital or common-law partner, it is not surprising that women are also more likely to suffer physical injury. In 2004, over four in 10 (44%) of female victims reported they had been injured as a result of the violence, whereas this was the case for 19% of male spousal-violence victims. (Table 7.3)

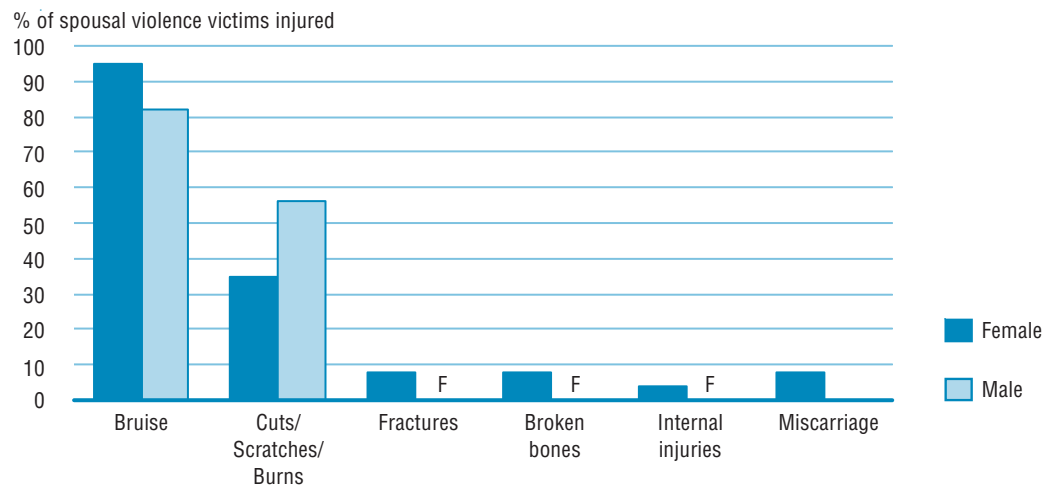
Women are also more likely than men to seek medical attention as a result of spousal violence. In 2004, 13% of women who had been victims of spousal violence in the five-year period prior to the survey indicated that they had sought medical attention, compared with 2% of male victims.

Female victims of spousal violence were also more than three times more likely than male victims to fear for their lives. In 2004, 34% of female victims of spousal violence, versus 10% of their male counterparts, said that they had feared for their lives at some point.

Among female victims of spousal violence cuts and bruises are the injuries most frequently reported. Of female victims of spousal violence in the five years prior to the 2004 survey who had been injured, 95% said they had been bruised, while 35% had been cut. (Chart 7.3)

Chart 7.3

Types of injuries suffered by women and men injured in incidents of spousal violence in the past 5 years, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, 1999 and 2004 General Social Survey.

While women who had been injured were more likely to say that they had been bruised than men, men were more likely to have been cut. These results are consistent with police-reported data that reveal that women in cases of spousal violence are more likely to rely on weapons than men, while men are more likely to use physical force.

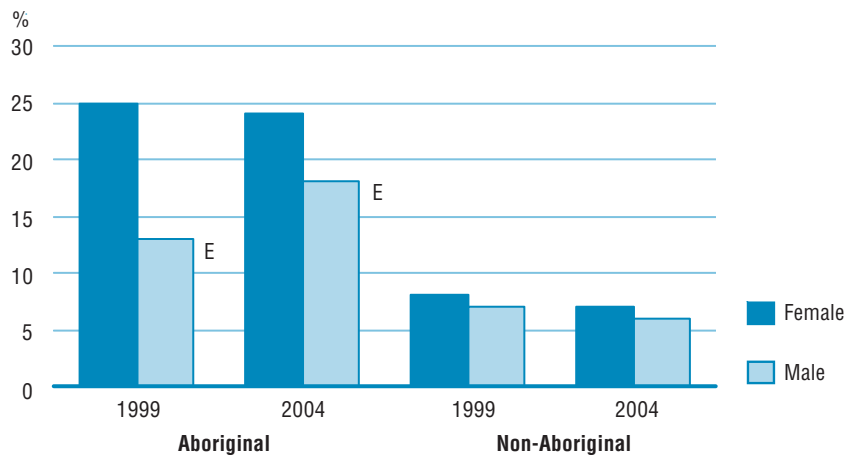
At the same time, female victims of spousal violence are more likely than their male counterparts to report severe injuries, such as fractures and broken bones. As well, approximately 8% of women who were injured reported that they had suffered a miscarriage because of the violence.

Aboriginal women more likely to suffer spousal violence

Aboriginal women are more than three times more likely to report being victims of spousal violence than their non-Aboriginal counterparts.⁴ In 2004, 24% of Aboriginal women reported they had been the victims of some form of spousal violence in the previous five years, compared with 7% of non-Aboriginal women. (Chart 7.4)

Chart 7.4

Rates of spousal violence¹ reported by Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women and men, 1999 and 2004



1. Includes common-law partners but excludes those who refused to state their marital status.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1999 and 2004 General Social Survey.

Female Aboriginal victims of spousal violence also experience more serious forms of violence at the hands of their intimate partners than do non-Aboriginal women. For example, in 2004, 41% of female Aboriginal victims stated that they had either been beaten, choked, sexually assaulted, threatened, or had a gun or knife used against them, versus 27% of non-Aboriginal female victims.

While spousal violence may often not leave a physical mark or injury, it can have lasting emotional impact for both male and female victims. For example, female victims of spousal violence were much more likely than male victims to report they were either fearful in general because of the violence, or depressed, or suffered from anxiety attacks. In fact, 30% of all female victims of spousal violence in the five-year period prior to 2004, compared with 5% of their male counterparts, said they were fearful in general because of the violence. At the same time, over twice as many female victims (21%) as male victims (9%) suffered from anxiety or depression because of the attacks. Women were also more likely than male victims of spousal violence to report being more cautious/aware after the attacks; to have sleeping problems; feeling ashamed or guilty; afraid for the children; more self-reliant; and to have problems relating to other men/women. In contrast, only 6% of female victims of spousal violence in the five-year period prior to 2004 said not much when asked how the violence affected them overall, whereas 30% of male victims gave this as a response.

Women as victims of stalking

Stalking is defined as a pattern of behavior that involves repeated and unwanted intrusive actions which bring about fear and intimidation for its victims. Examples of stalking include being followed or spied on, or receiving threatening and/or unwanted phone calls, e-mails, letters, and unwanted gifts.

Statistics Canada measured the prevalence of stalking for the first time in the 2004 General Social Survey (GSS) on Victimization and found that women are more likely to be victims of stalking than men. In fact, an estimated 1.4 million women, more than one in 10 of the total female population, reported that they had been stalked in the five years preceding the survey in a way that caused them to fear for their lives or the safety of someone known to them. In 2004, 11% of all women reported that they had experienced stalking in the previous five years, compared with 7% of the male population.

More than one-half (52%) of female stalking victims reported that their stalker phoned them repeatedly or made silent or obscene phone calls, while 34% reported being spied on and another 34% said they had been intimidated or threatened.

Results from the 2004 GSS clearly indicate that stalking victims know their stalkers. Female stalking victims were most often harassed by a friend (22%), or an intimate partner, that is either a current or former partner (20%), or a person known only by sight (12%). In fact, female stalking victims were almost twice as likely as their male counterparts to be stalked by a current or former intimate partner, 20% versus 11%, while they were also somewhat more likely, 16% compared with 12%, to be harassed by someone known only by sight. In contrast, male stalking victims were slightly more likely than female victims to be stalked by a friend: 25% versus 22%.

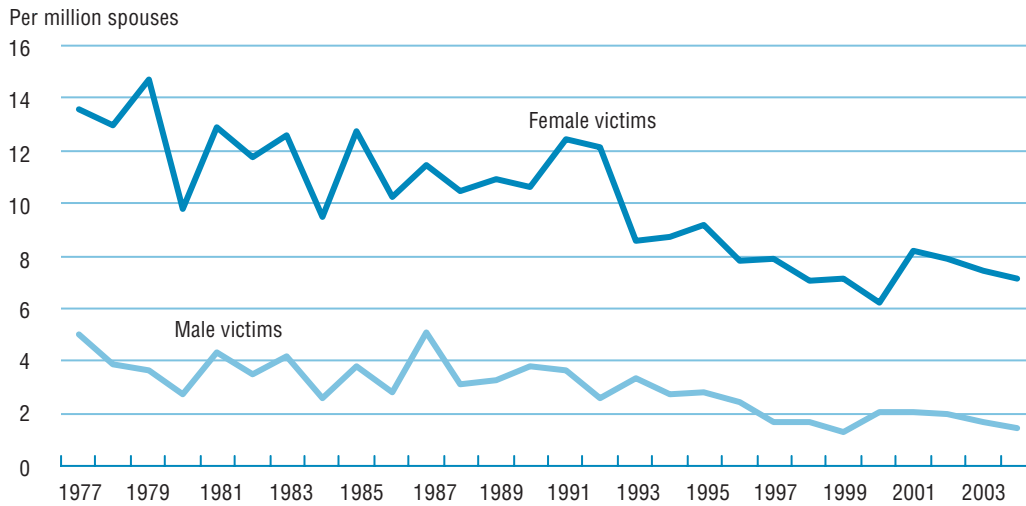
Women at greater risk of spousal homicide.

Women are less than half as likely as men to be murdered (Table 7.4). As with other types of victimization, however, women are much more likely than male victims to be killed by someone they know rather than by a stranger. Indeed, in 2004, 94% of female homicide victims were killed by either a family member or other acquaintance, whereas this was the case for 79% of male victims. In contrast, only 6% of female homicide victims were killed by a stranger, versus 21% of their male counterparts.

Specifically, of all solved homicides in 2004 with a female victim, 59% were committed by a family member. Indeed, 37% of all female homicide victims that year were killed by a current spouse (28%) or ex-spouse (9%). In contrast, only 4% of male homicide victims were killed by their spouse or former spouse. In fact, women made up 84% of all victims of spousal homicide in 2004, whereas they accounted for only 28% of all other homicide victims.

While the number of women killed annually by a current or former spouse continues to be higher than the number of men killed by a spouse, the spousal homicide rate has fallen for both women and men over the past two and a half decades. In 2004, for example, seven wives were murdered for every million couples, half the figure in 1977. In the same period, the incidence of spousal homicide among men dipped by over 60%. (Chart 7.5)

Chart 7.5

Spousal homicide rate,¹ 1977 to 2003

1. Rate per 1,000,000 legally married, common-law, separated and divorced couples 15 years of age and older.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division and Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Almost all spousal homicide-suicide victims are wives

Between 1961 and 2004, there were a total of 873 spousal homicides in Canada⁵ in which the chargeable suspect committed suicide.⁶ Of these spousal murder-suicides, wives were the victims in 97% of the cases, whereas husbands were the victims in only 3%.

As well, many instances of homicide-suicide involve a history of spousal violence. Of the 271 men⁷ accused of spousal homicide-suicides between 1991 and 2004, police reported that four out of 10 (43%) had a known history of family violence. This was especially pronounced for separated couples. There was, for example, a known history of family violence in 64% of cases of homicide-suicide between 1991 and 2004 in which the couple was separated.

Women victims of spousal violence more likely to turn to formal help agencies

Since women who are victims of spousal violence are more likely than male victims to be injured and to suffer more serious and repeated incidents of violence, it is not surprising that a larger proportion of female spousal-violence victims seek out help from various formal helping agencies or supports. They are also more likely to turn to the police and obtain restraining orders against their partner than male spousal-violence victims.

According to the 2004 General Social Survey, female victims of spousal violence are more than twice as likely as male victims to turn to a social service agency for help. That year, almost half of all female victims of spousal violence (47%), versus only 20% of male victims, turned to a social agency for support.

Female victims of spousal violence are the most likely to use the services of a counsellor or psychologist. In 2004, 28% of women victimized by spousal violence contacted one of these types of professionals, while 11% stayed at a transition home, 10% used a crisis centre or crisis line, 9% got help from a community or family centre,

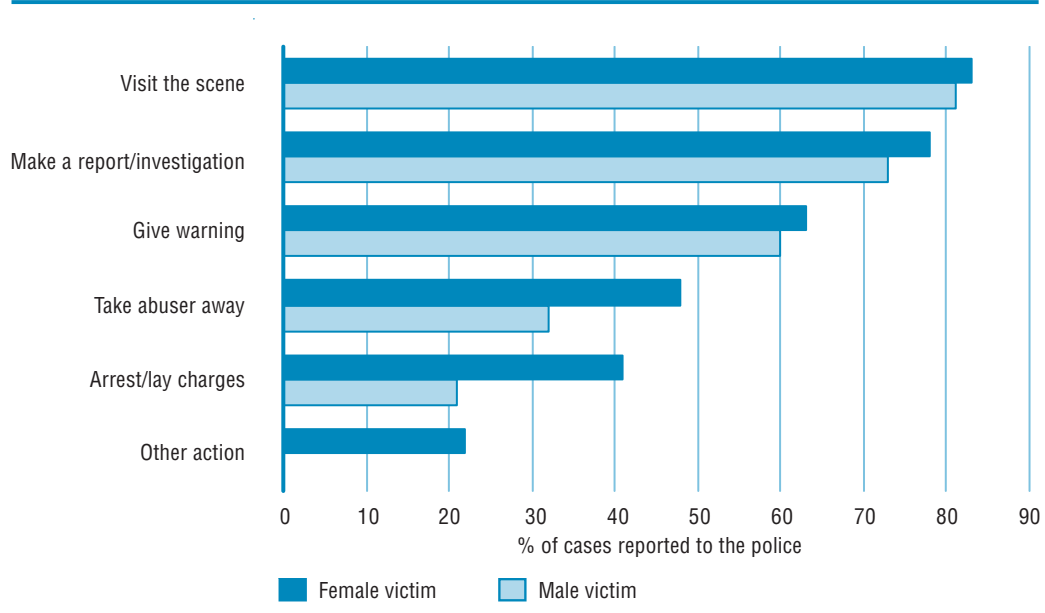
8% employed the services of a women’s centre, and 5% turned to a police or court-based victim service.⁸

In addition, cases of spousal violence perpetrated against women are much more likely than those committed against men to come to the attention of the police. In 2004, 37% of all incidents of spousal violence committed against women were reported to the police, versus 17% of cases in which a male was the victim.

According to the 2004 GSS there are differences in the actions that police take in cases of spousal violence depending on whether the victim is female or male. For example, in almost half of all cases involving a female victim (48%), the abuser was removed from the home by police, compared with 32% of cases involving a male victim. Similarly, police made an arrest or laid a charge in 41% of instances of wife assault, twice the figure in which the husband was the victim (21%). (Chart 7.6)

Chart 7.6

Police action in cases of spousal assault, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

There was also a significant difference in the likelihood of female and male victims of spousal violence seeking restraining or protective orders from the courts. For example, in 2004, female victims of spousal violence who had reported the violence to the police were more than twice as likely to seek the protection of a restraining or protective order as were their male counterparts: 38% versus 15%.⁹

Eight in 10 abused women in shelters were there to escape a current or former spouse/common law partner

In Canada, the establishment of shelters as a refuge for women fleeing abusive situations dates back to the 1970s. Since then, the number of shelters has increased considerably, rising from fewer than 20 known facilities in operation that provided residential services to abused women and their children in 1975 to over 500 by 2004.

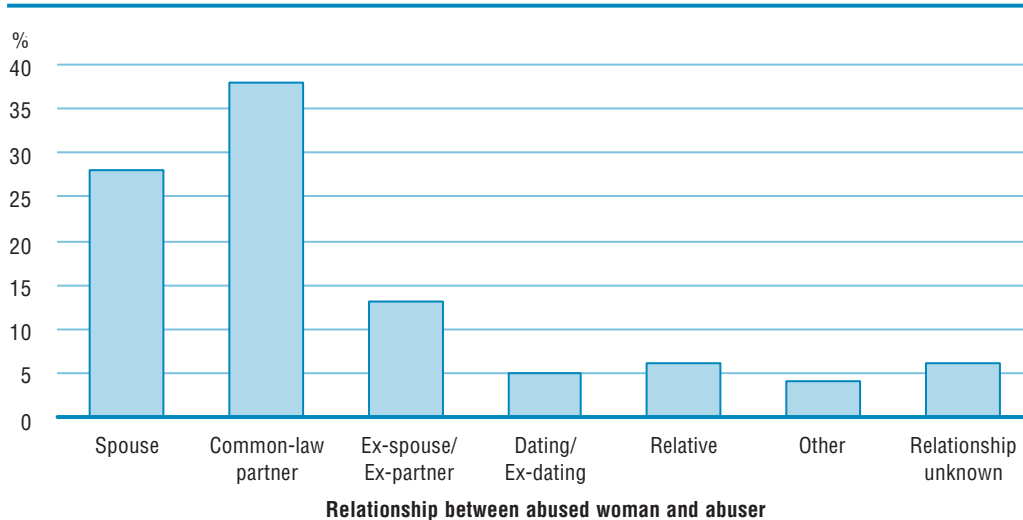
According to the Transition Home Survey, a national survey of 473 facilities providing residential services to abused women and their children, there were more than 95,000 admissions of women and dependent children to shelters across Canada between April 1, 2003 and March 31, 2004.

While some residents may have used shelters for reasons other than to escape domestic violence, such as lack of affordable or available housing, drug or alcohol addiction, or mental health problems, the majority of women and children admitted to shelters were fleeing an abusive situation. Specifically, a one-day snapshot of shelters indicates that more than three-quarters (76%) of women and 88% of children staying in shelters on April 14, 2004, were there to escape abuse.

Most abused women were fleeing the abuse of a current or former spouse/common law partner. Of women fleeing abuse staying in a shelter on April 14, 2004, 38% were fleeing a common-law partner, while 28% were escaping a marital spouse, and 13% were fleeing from a former spouse or partner. (Chart 7.7)

Chart 7.7

**Distribution of abused women in shelters on April 14, 2004,
by relationship to abuser**



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Due to the often cyclical nature of domestic violence, women involved in abusive relationships are often caught in a revolving door of abuse and refuge. Data from the Transition Home Survey show that nearly one-third (31%) of all women in shelters on April 14, 2004 had been there before, with nearly 90% of re-admissions occurring within the previous year. Specifically, four in 10 women had been to the shelter in which they were currently staying once before during the previous year and nearly the same proportion (38%) had two to four prior admissions, while 9% had been re-admitted five or more times in the previous year.

Most women leaving shelters do not plan to return to their abusive spouse or partner. Of the women who left a shelter on April 14, 2004, only about one in 10 (11%) planned to return to their spouse or partner, while 62% intended to depart for another destination. Specifically, over one-fifth (21%) of women leaving on that day left for another shelter¹⁰ and nearly the same proportion left for new accommodations without their spouse or

partner (18%). At the same time, one in 10 women (11%) went to stay with friends or relatives, while 5% returned home without their spouse or partner and 7% left for some other housing arrangement. The destination of the remaining 27% of women leaving these shelters that day was unknown.

In addition to the residential services offered by shelters, there are a number of non-residential agencies to which victims of domestic violence can turn for help. For instance, according to the Victim Services Survey, about two-thirds of victim services agencies across Canada are mandated to serve adult victims of spousal abuse and 63% targeted adult victims of other domestic violence.¹¹ Many of these agencies assist victims of domestic violence by offering information, emotional support, liaison services, safety planning, court accompaniment, as well as a variety of other services.

According to the one-day snapshot of the Victim Services Survey taken October 22, 2003, one-third of all victims of all types of crime served by victim services agencies were the victims of spousal violence, and 94% of these victims were female.

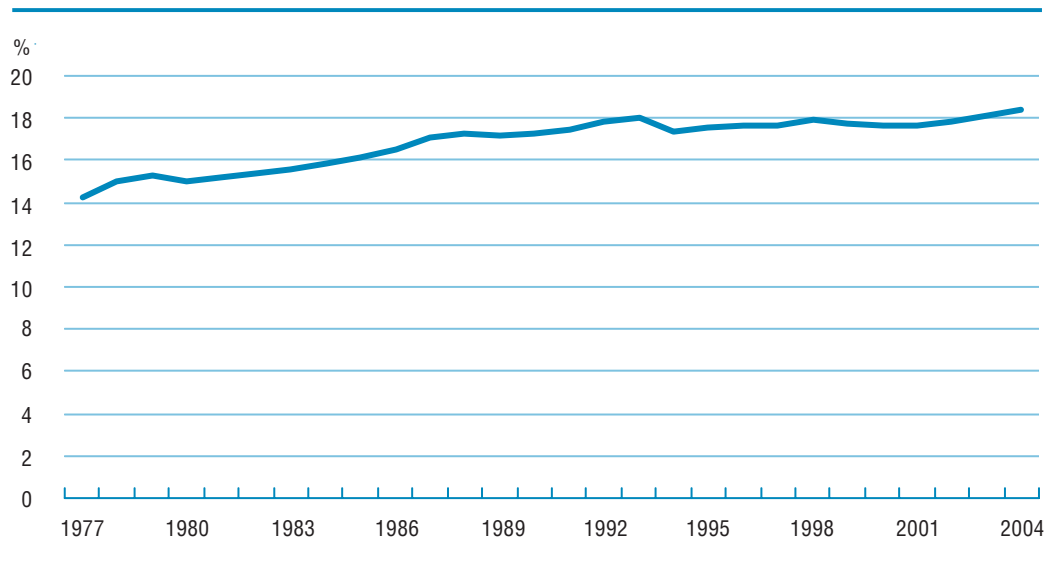
Women as offenders

The level of women’s involvement in criminal activities is relatively low in comparison to their male counterparts. In 2004, women made up 18% of adults charged with criminal code offences. That year, just over 75,000 adult women were charged with a criminal code offence. (Table 7.5)

Women as a proportion of adults charged with criminal activity has risen somewhat in the past few decades. In 2004, women made up 18% of all adults charged with a criminal code offence, up from 14% in 1977. (Chart 7.8)

Chart 7.8

Women as a percentage of adults charged with all criminal code offences,¹ 1977 to 2004



1. Excludes traffic offences.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Women generally make up a greater share of those charged with property offences than violent offences. In 2004, women represented 23% of those charged with property offences, versus 16% of those charged with a violent crime. In fact, women are consistently more likely than men to be charged with property offences than they are with violent offences such as homicide, assault, sexual assault or robbery. That year, for example, 32% of all adult women charged with a crime were charged with a property offence, compared with 22% of men. (Table 7.5)

Moreover, the vast majority of property crimes for which women are charged involve either theft under \$5,000 or fraud. In 2004, 31% of all criminal code offences charged against women were for these offences, compared with only 17% of charges against men. In contrast, men were more likely than women to be charged with break and enter and other types of personal theft.

As with men, common assaults make up the large majority of violent charges against women. In 2004, 62% of all violent charges against women were for common assault. That year, women made up 18% of all those charged with simple assault. In contrast, the proportion of women charged with most other forms of violent crimes such as robbery (11%) and sexual assault (2%) was very low. The exception to this pattern is the relatively rare crime of abduction in which 56% of persons charged were female.

Adult women also account for a relatively large share of those charged with prostitution. In 2004, just under half (47%) of adults charged with prostitution were women. On the other hand, women made up only 15% of those charged with drug offences that year.

Young female offenders

Women between the ages of 15 and 18 years old have much higher levels of criminal activity than adult women. In 2004, there were 2,898 crimes for every 100,000 women 15 to 18, compared with a rate of 631 per 100,000 among women aged 19 and over. In fact, women aged 15 to 18 committed 22% of all property offences and 19% of violent offences that year, whereas they only represented 5% of the total population.

Crime rates among young women, though, are still much lower than they are among their male counterparts. In 2004, there were 2,147 crimes per 100,000 charged against females aged 15 to 18, compared with a rate of 10,084 among young men in this age range.

Young women are more proportionally likely than their older counterparts to engage in violent crimes. Women aged 12 to 17, for example, made up 26% of all youths charged with violent offences, whereas adult women made up only 16% of those aged 18 and over charged with violent crimes. At the same time, young women aged 12 to 17 made up 28% of youths charged with property crimes.

Women and homicide

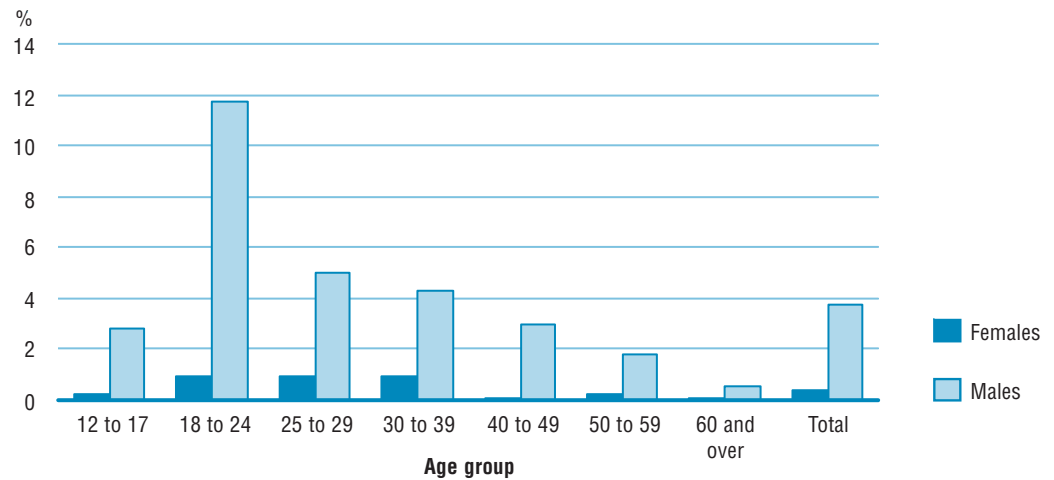
Women make up a relatively small share of people accused of homicide. Among the 622 homicide incidents reported by police in 2004, only one in 10 of those accused of these crimes was female. That year, there were 58 women accused of committing a homicide, compared with 508 accused men.

Adult women under the age of 40 are the most likely to be accused of murder. In 2004, there were 0.9 murder charges for every 100,000 women aged 18 to 24, 25 to 29 and 30 to 39, whereas the murder rates were 0.2 or below for those in older age ranges. In all age ranges, homicide rates for women are well below those of men. (Chart 7.9)



Chart 7.9

Women and men charged with homicide per 100,000 population, by age, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Female offenders in the courts

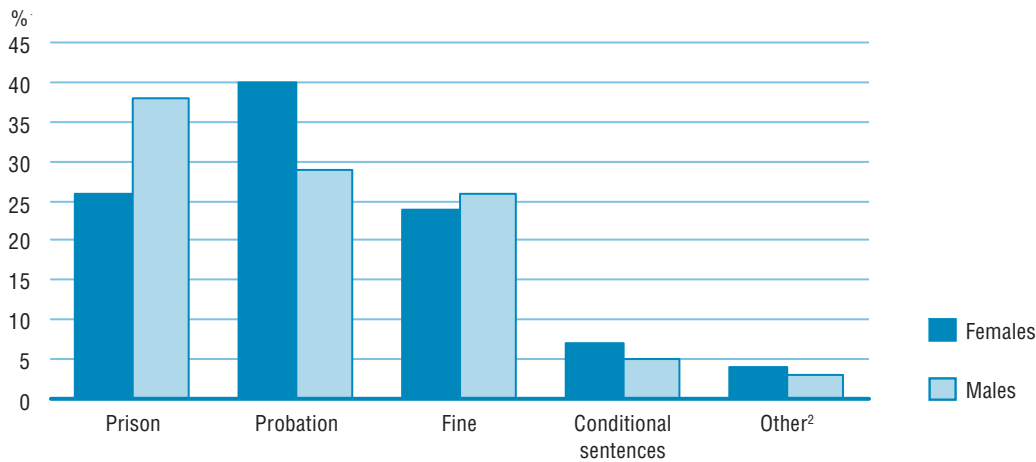
Since women make up a minority of those charged with criminal activity, they also represent a relatively small proportion of those dealt with by the courts. In 2003/04, 15% of the cases completed in adult criminal courts involved female defendants. As well, women who do appear in court are somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be found guilty. In 2003/04, just over half (51%) of the cases against women resulted in a conviction, compared with a figure of 59% for men.

In addition, because women generally commit less serious crimes than men, they are more likely than their male counterparts to be sentenced to probation. In 2003/04, 40% of women convicted of an offence were given probation as their most serious sentence, compared with 29% of men found guilty. In contrast, women were less likely than their male counterparts to be sentenced to prison: 26% versus 38%. (Chart 7.10)

Women who are sent to jail typically receive shorter sentences than their male counterparts. In 2003, for example, the mean term for women sent to prison was 63 days, nearly half the figure for men whose mean prison term was 120 days. The fact that women receive shorter sentences than men is consistent across all offences, with the exception of attempted murder, criminal harassment, and drug trafficking.

Chart 7.10

Distribution of most serious sentence of adult offenders,¹ 2002-03



1. Based on the most serious sentence for those aged 18 years and over. The data represent approximately 80% of the caseload in adult provincial/territorial criminal courts.
2. Includes restitution and compensation.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Women small part of adults under correctional supervision

Women have historically represented a relatively small proportion of the correctional population in Canada. In 2003/04, women represented just 9% of those admitted to provincial or territorial custodial institutions. They also made up 17% of probation intakes. Both figures have varied little over the last 10 years.

Women constitute an even smaller proportion of admissions to the federal corrections system. In 2003/04, just 6% of those admitted to federal penitentiary were female, although this is double the figure in 1994/95 when women made up 3% of those admitted to federal penitentiaries.

Aboriginal representation among women admitted to provincial and territorial institutions was higher than that of men. In 2003/04, 27%¹² of remanded women and 31% of provincially/territorially sentenced women were Aboriginal. In comparison, 16% of male remand admissions and 20% of male sentenced custody admissions were Aboriginal. It is also important to note that this Aboriginal representation among women has increased substantially from ten years ago, from 17% in 1994/95 to 27% in 2003/04 for remand, and from 26% to 31% for provincial/territorial sentenced admissions.

Women held in provincial and territorial correctional institutions were slightly older than men. For example, 65% of women admitted to remand and 63% of women admitted to sentenced custody were between the ages of 25 and 44. This compared to 58% of male admissions to remand and 56% of male sentenced admissions. Slightly fewer women admitted to remand or sentenced custody were 18 to 24 years or 45 years or older.

As described earlier, women represent a relatively small proportion of those dealt with by the courts, proportionately fewer convictions, and receive shorter prison sentences than men. This finding is echoed in the amount of time that women serve in provincial or territorial institutions compared to men, where a larger proportion of men serve longer

periods in sentenced custody than women. In 2003/04, while 70% of women admitted to sentenced custody spent 31 days or less in provincial or territorial institutions, only 54% of sentenced men had served 31 days or less in prison. In addition, women were more likely than men to have spent shorter periods of time in remand. For example, 62% of women compared to 54% of men had spent 7 days or less on remand.

Characteristics of Women under Correctional Supervision in Three Provinces

In total 1,908 women were under adult correctional supervision in Newfoundland and Labrador, New Brunswick and Saskatchewan in 2003/04, compared to 11,140 males in these provincial correctional systems.¹³ Among the total of 1,908 women supervised in correctional services in these jurisdictions during 2003/04, the most common legal status was consistently probation (58%, 1,089). The next most common legal status was sentenced custody (19%, 361), followed by remand (16%, 310) and conditional sentences (16%, 307).

Women were approximately the same age (31 years of age), had similar marital statuses, and had completed a similar level of education as men in these correctional systems. However, relative to males, females were substantially less likely to be employed (28% versus 45%), but considerably more likely to have an 'other – not employed' status at admission. This refers to those who were not in the work force for unknown reasons, but excludes those who were students or retirees. It is particularly notable that only 11% of women held in remand were employed as compared to one-quarter or more of all other legal statuses (25% - sentenced custody, 30% - conditional sentences, 33% - probation).

Approximately three out of ten (30%) women in the correctional system of these three jurisdictions had a violent offence as their most serious offence, compared to nearly four out of ten men (37%). On the other hand, more women than men had a property offence as their most serious offence (33% versus 20%).

Offence profiles of women in remand, sentenced custody and probation showed some important differences. For example, 44% of women remanded to custody had a violent offence, of which almost half were for serious violent offences. Approximately one-third of female probationers had a violent offence, of which more than half were for common assault. In comparison, about 23% of those serving conditional sentences and 21% of those serving a period of sentenced custody had a violent offence as their most serious offence.

Women were most likely to be serving conditional sentences (45%) or probation (39%) for property related offences. In comparison, approximately one-quarter (27%) of women in remand or in sentenced custody had property offences as their most serious offence. About one-quarter (22%) of women in sentenced custody had a criminal code traffic offence, such as dangerous driving causing death, and driving while intoxicated, as their most serious offence. This was more than double the proportion of those on conditional sentences (8%), probation (6%) or remand (1%).

Women in justice-related occupations

The number of females working as police officers, judges, lawyers, paralegals, probation and parole officers, and correctional service officers has grown over the past decades. By 2004, there were nearly 10,000 female police officers, constituting nearly 17% of all police officers in Canada. This is up from just 4% in 1986 and 12% as recently as 1998. (Table 7.6).

In fact, women have accounted for almost all the growth in the number of police officers in recent years. In the period between 2000 and 2004, the number of female officers increased 29%, while the number of male officers inched up by only 3%. Currently, there are nearly five times as many women working as police officers as there were two decades ago. In comparison, the number of male officers has remained fairly stable over this same time period.

Canada has also done well in the recruitment of female police officers when compared with other nations. In an international comparison of 25 countries with the highest percentage of female police officers in 2000, Canada ranked seventh,¹⁴ ahead of the United States which ranked 13th, but behind countries such as Sweden, Norway and England and Wales.

There have also been increases in the representation of women among higher police ranks. In 2004, women represented 5% of senior officers,¹⁵ up from 2% in the late 1990s and less than 1% in the early 1990s. Indeed, the number of women among senior officers has increased ten-fold since 1991. In the same period, women as a proportion of non-commissioned police officers¹⁶ has risen from a half a per cent in the mid 1980s to almost 10% today.

As a result of female police recruitment in recent years, female officers tend to be younger than their male counterparts. In 2001, more than half of all female police officers were under the age of 35, compared to less than a third of male officers. However, with the growing representation of women among police officers and continued careers in law enforcement, as evidenced by their advancement into higher police ranks, this age difference between female and male officers is expected to diminish.

Female police officers also tend to have higher levels of education, on average, than do their male counterparts. In 2001, about one-quarter (27%) of female officers had earned a university degree, compared with 17% of male officers. At the same time, though, female (42%) and male (41%) officers were about as likely to have earned a college diploma or certificate.

The higher level of educational attainment for female police officers might be explained, at least partially, by the fact that police departments across the country generally recruit officers with higher levels of educational achievement. However, even among police recruits under the age of 25, the most likely to have recently entered policing, female police officers still have higher levels of education than their male counterparts.

There has also been notable growth in the number of women working in other occupations in the field of criminal justice, such as judges, lawyers, paralegals, probation and parole officers, and correctional service officers. In 2001, women made up 21% of judges, up from 14% a decade earlier. Similarly, more than a third (35%) of lawyers and Quebec notaries were women in 2001, up from 27% in 1991. Women have also become prominent among correctional service workers. In 2001, 29% of correctional officers were women, up from 22% in 1991. (Table 7.7)



Women continue to make up the majority of paralegals and probation and parole officers. Indeed, in 2001, 81% of paralegals were female, up from 76% a decade earlier. At the same time, women made up 54% of all probation and parole officers in 2001, compared with 50% in 1991.

Maggie Charmant, Andrea Taylor-Butts, Cory Aston, Sara Johnson, Karen Mihorean, and Valerie Pottie-Bunge are analysts with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics

Notes

1. These data are from a non-random sample of 120 police agencies, representing 58% of the national volume of crime.
2. The difference between these numbers is statistically significant.
3. There is no statistical difference between the 3% of women in current relationships who experienced violence and the 4% of men in current relationships who experienced violence.
4. Readers are cautioned that the results of the survey describe rates of violence committed against those who self-identified as Aboriginal, but they do not distinguish the identity of the perpetrator. In addition, this analysis does not include data from the three territories where high concentrations of Aboriginal people live. Ideally, the following analysis examining spousal violence rates of Aboriginal people would be conducted by comparing groups with similar socio-economic conditions. However, the sample size of the GSS is too small to support such detailed analysis.
5. This is an underestimate of the actual number of homicide victims during this time period because prior to 1974, infanticides and manslaughters were not recorded by the Homicide Survey.
6. For the purpose of this discussion, a homicide-suicide is defined as those homicide incidents cleared by suicide by police. The term homicide-suicide is used as opposed to murder-suicide because in the Canadian context, "murder" refers to a restricted set of incidents that do not include infanticide or manslaughter. As suicides following infanticides and manslaughters are included in this examination, we have chosen to refer to the general phenomenon as homicide-suicide.
7. Another 17 cases were excluded for having an unknown history of domestic violence. Since 1991 the Homicide Survey has been collecting data on whether or not a history of family violence between the suspect and victim was previously known to the police. It is important to note that the Homicide Survey does not identify the perpetrator of the violence, only that a history or pattern of violence between one of the victims and the accused person was present.
8. Only those victims who turn to the criminal justice system for help would have access to police-based or court-based victim services.
9. Use with caution, coefficient of variation is high (16.6% to 33.3%).
10. This figure includes second stage housing, another emergency shelter or an out-of-province/territory shelter.
11. Adult victims of other domestic violence include adults who have experienced violence in the home by someone with whom they reside, other than by a partner. This includes adult secondary victims who have witnessed domestic violence, including witnessing partner abuse among a couple (e.g. an adult child who has witnessed the abuse of their mother by their father; a mother who has witnessed the abuse of her adult daughter by her son-in-law, etc.).
12. In order to allow for year-to-year comparisons, these values exclude Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Northwest Territories and Nunavut due to missing data for some years.
13. This represents the unique number of people who were involved in correctional services in 2003/04. However, persons may be involved in more than one type of correctional supervision in 2003/04, and therefore, counts are not mutually exclusive.
14. Economic and Social Data Ranking, OECD: Share of female police personnel, 2000; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime.
15. Senior officers include police officers who have achieved the rank of lieutenant or higher.
16. Non-commissioned officers include police officers between the rank of constable and lieutenant, such as sergeant and corporal.

Table 7.1

Victims of selected violent crimes, by type of crime, 2004¹

	Female victims		Male victims		Female victims as a percent of all victims
	Total	%	Total	%	
Homicide	122	0.1	244	0.3	33.3
Attempted murder	139	0.2	387	0.4	26.4
Sexual assaults – all levels	11,738	12.8	1,900	2.2	86.1
Other sexual offences	1,273	1.4	356	0.4	78.1
Aggravated assault	330	0.4	1,278	1.4	20.5
Assault with a weapon causing bodily harm	10,009	10.9	19,138	21.7	34.3
Common assault	48,439	52.8	46,146	52.4	51.2
Other assaults	380	0.4	1,014	1.2	27.3
Kidnapping/abduction ²	2,111	2.3	929	0.2	69.4
Robbery	7,715	8.4	13,930	15.8	35.6
Extortion	191	0.2	498	0.6	27.7
Criminal harassment	9,145	10.0	2,838	3.2	76.3
Other violent offences	147	0.2	162	0.2	47.6
Total	91,739	100.0	88,820	100.0	50.8

1. These data are from a non-random sample of 120 police agencies, representing 58% of the national volume of crime. Incidents where the age of the victim is unknown were excluded.
2. Includes kidnapping; abduction under 14, not parent/guardian; abduction under 16; removal of children from Canada; abduction under 14 contravening a custody order; abduction under 14, by parent/guardian

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Table 7.2

Age distribution of victims of selected violent crime, by type of offence, 2004¹

	Female victims				Male victims			
	Aged				Aged			
	Under 12	12 to 17	18 and over	Total	Under 12	12 to 17	18 and over	Total
	%							
Homicide	11	..	89	100	5	2	93	100
Attempted murder	4	4	93	100	1	7	93	100
Sexual assaults – all levels	18	34	47	100	49	27	23	100
Other sexual offences	42	40	17	100	66	25	9	100
Aggravated assault	5	11	84	100	2	11	87	100
Assault with a weapon causing bodily harm	4	14	83	100	4	16	80	100
Common assault	3	14	83	100	7	19	73	100
Other assaults	6	13	81	100	4	4	91	100
Kidnapping/abduction ²	9	13	78	100	19	13	67	100
Robbery	1	11	88	100	2	25	74	100
Extortion	1	11	88	100	1	17	81	100
Criminal harassment	1	9	90	100	2	10	87	100
Other violent offences	39	11	50	100	49	8	43	100
Total	6	16	78	100	7	19	74	100

1. These data are from a non-random sample of 120 police agencies, representing 58% of the national volume of crime. Incidents where the age of the victim is unknown were excluded.
2. Includes kidnapping; abduction under 14, not parent/guardian; abduction under 16; removal of children from Canada; abduction under 14 contravening a custody order; abduction under 14, by parent/guardian

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Table 7.3

**Severity of spousal violence reported by female and male victims
in the past five years, 1999 and 2004¹**

Severity of the violence	Female victims				Male victims			
	1999		2004		1999		2004	
	Total (000s)	%	Total (000s)	%	Total (000s)	%	Total (000s)	%
Percent injured								
Physical injury	279	40.4	285	43.6	72	13.1	101	18.5
No physical injury	396	57.4	368	56.4	462	84.2	444	81.3
Not stated/Don't know	15	2.2E	F	F	15	3.0	F	F
Total	690	100.0	653	100.0	549	100.0	546	100.0
Percent receiving medical attention								
Received medical attention	104	15.1	85	13.0	15	2.7E	13	2.3E
Did not receive medical attention	174	25.2	199	30.5	57	10.4	88	16.1
No physical injury	396	57.0	368	56.4	462	84.0	444	81.3
Not stated/Don't know	16	2E	F	F	15	3E	F	F
Total	690	100.0	653	100.0	549	100.0	546	100.0
Percent fearing for their lives								
Feared for their life	259	37.5	224	34.3	41	7.4E	54	9.9
Did not fear for their life	414	60.0	426	65.2	490	89.2	489	89.6
Not stated/Don't know	16	2.3E	F	F	19	3.4E	F	F
Total	690	100.0	653	100.0	549	100.0	546	100.0
Total spousal violence	690	100.0	653	100.0	549	100.0	546	100.0

1. Percentages may not add up to 100 due to rounding.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1999 and 2004 General Social Survey.

Table 7.4

Female and male victims of homicide, by relation to accused, 2004

Relationship of accused to victim	Female victims		Male victims	
	Number	% ⁵	Number	% ⁵
Family				
Spousal relationship				
Spouse	47	27.6	11	3.8
Ex-spouse	15	8.8	1	0.3
Total spouse	62	36.5	12	4.1
Non-spousal relationship				
Parent	19	11.2	17	5.8
Child	8	4.7	9	3.1
Other family relation ¹	11	6.5	22	7.6
Total non-spousal	38	22.4	48	16.5
Total family	100	58.8	60	20.6
Acquaintances				
Intimate Relationship ²	13	7.6	9	3.1
Criminal relationship ³	9	5.3	29	10.0
Casual acquaintance	22	12.9	93	32.0
Other acquaintances ⁴	16	9.4	39	13.4
Total acquaintances	60	35.3	170	58.4
Other				
Stranger	10	5.9	61	21.0
Total solved homicides	170	100.0	291	100.0
Unsolved homicides	28	...	133	...
Total homicides	198	...	424	...

1. Other family includes siblings and all others related by blood, marriage (including common-law), adoption or foster care.
2. Intimate relationships include boyfriends, girlfriends, extra-marital lovers, estranged lovers etc.
3. Criminal relationships include prostitutes, drug dealers and their clients.
4. Other acquaintances include close friends, neighbours, authority figures and business relationships.
5. All percentages are in terms of solved homicides.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Table 7.5

Adult women and men charged, by type of crime, 2004

	Women		Men	
	Total charged	Percent of adults charged	Total charged	Percent of adults charged
Violent offences				
Homicide	49	10.2	432	89.8
Attempted murder	55	10.5	467	89.4
Sexual assault	124	1.8	6,752	98.2
Other sexual offences	22	3.5	605	96.4
Assault	16,332	17.5	76,864	82.4
Abduction	67	55.8	53	44.2
Robbery	750	10.5	6,374	89.4
Total violent offences	18,989	16.2	98,168	83.8
Property offences				
Breaking and entering	1,595	8.1	18,095	91.9
Motor vehicle theft	773	9.7	7,156	90.3
Theft over \$5,000	414	25.4	1,217	74.6
Theft under \$5,000	16,797	29.3	40,545	70.7
Possession of stolen goods	3,808	18.8	16,414	81.2
Fraud	6,356	30.0	14,868	70.1
Total property crimes	29,743	23.2	98,290	76.8
Other Criminal Code				
Prostitution	1,806	47.2	2,017	52.8
Bail Violations	12,908	18.5	56,731	81.4
Mischief	1,816	13.1	12,038	86.9
Other	10,543	13.6	67,091	86.4
Total other Criminal Code offences	27,073	16.4	137,877	83.6
Total Criminal Code offences (excluding traffic)	75,805	18.4	334,335	81.5
Other Federal Statutes				
Drug offences	6,817	14.7	39,638	85.3
Other	789	13.9	4,894	86.1
Total all offences (including traffic)	93,643	17.3	446,413	82.7

1. Includes level 1,2 and 3.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Table 7.6

Women as a percentage of police officers, by level, 1986 to 2004

	Senior officers ¹		Non-commissioned officers ²		Constables		Total	
	Number	Percent of all officers	Number	Percent of all officers	Number	Percent of all officers	Number	Percent of all officers
1986	6	0.2	64	0.5	1,924	5.4	1,994	3.9
1987	5	0.2	82	0.6	2,218	6.1	2,305	4.4
1988	4	0.2	110	0.8	2,594	7.0	2,708	5.1
1989	8	0.3	156	1.1	2,979	7.9	3,143	5.8
1990	10	0.4	177	1.3	3,386	8.6	3,573	6.4
1991	11	0.4	196	1.4	3,757	9.5	3,964	7.0
1992	20	0.7	233	1.6	4,033	10.2	4,286	7.5
1993	33	1.2	265	1.8	4,263	10.8	4,561	8.0
1994	33	1.3	312	2.2	4,711	12.0	5,056	9.1
1995	38	1.6	379	2.7	4,961	12.8	5,378	9.8
1996	39	1.7	408	3.0	5,187	13.5	5,634	10.4
1997	47	2.1	458	3.4	5,586	14.3	6,091	11.1
1998	48	2.2	510	3.9	6,128	15.5	6,686	12.2
1999	60	2.8	633	4.7	6,459	16.2	7,152	12.9
2000	67	3.1	740	5.5	6,843	17.0	7,650	13.7
2001	77	3.5	858	6.3	7,338	17.8	8,273	14.5
2002	94	4.0	978	7.1	7,846	18.6	8,918	15.3
2003	113	4.7	1110	7.7	8,129	19.1	9,352	15.7
2004	129	5.2	1300	8.9	8,468	19.8	9,897	16.5

1. Senior officers include officers who have achieved the rank of lieutenant or higher.

2. Non-commissioned officers include personnel between the rank of constable and lieutenant, such as sergeant and corporal.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Table 7.7

Women as a percentage of those employed in justice-related occupations, 1991 and 2001

Occupation	1991		2001	
	Number	As a percent of total	Number	As a percent of total
Judges	345	14	620	21
Lawyers and notaries	14,845	27	23,185	35
Paralegal and related occupations	12,835	76	24,415	81
Probation and parole officers	1,885	50	3,735	54
Correctional service officers	3,960	22	5,415	29

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

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Chapter 8

Aboriginal Women in Canada

By Vivian O'Donnell

The female Aboriginal population is another key element of the mosaic that is the overall female population in Canada. In 2001, there were just under a half a million Aboriginal females in Canada. Together, these Aboriginal women made up 3% of the total female population that year.¹ (Table 8.1)

In fact, the female Aboriginal population is growing much more rapidly than the rest of the female population in Canada. In the period from 1996 to 2001, the number of Aboriginal females rose by 22%, compared to a 4% growth rate in the non-Aboriginal female population.

The Aboriginal population in Canada consists of three broad groups: North American Indians, Métis and Inuit. In 2001, 63% of Aboriginal women reported being North American Indian, while 29% were Métis and 5% were Inuit. The remaining 3% either reported belonging to more than one Aboriginal group, or they did not identify with an Aboriginal group, but reported having registered Indian status and/or band membership.

As with the overall population, women make up the slight majority of Aboriginal people in Canada. In 2001, women made up 51% of the total Aboriginal population. That year, 52% of the total North American Indian population in Canada was female, while the figure was around 50% for both the Métis and Inuit groups.

Aboriginal women across the country

Aboriginal women account for the largest shares of the overall female provincial populations in Manitoba and Saskatchewan. In 2001, Aboriginal women made up 14% of all females in both these provinces, while the figure was 6% in Alberta, 4% in both British Columbia and Newfoundland and Labrador, and 2% or less in the remaining provinces. (Table 8.2)

Aboriginal women make up much larger shares of the population living in the territories. In 2001, 87% of women in Nunavut were Aboriginal, as were 52% of those in the Northwest Territories and 24% of those in the Yukon.

In terms of actual numbers, however, the largest number of Aboriginal women in Canada live in Ontario. In 2001, there were just over 97,000 Aboriginal women in Ontario. That year, 20% of all Aboriginal females lived in Ontario, while 17% resided in British Columbia, 16% lived in Alberta, 15% in Manitoba, 13% in Saskatchewan, 8% in Québec, and 5% in the Atlantic provinces. The remaining 5% of the female Aboriginal population lived in one of the territories.

There is considerable variation, however, in the distribution of women in the different Aboriginal groups across the country. The largest shares of North American Indian women in 2001, for example, lived in either Ontario (22%) or British Columbia (19%), while Alberta (23%) and Manitoba (20%) were home to the largest concentrations of Métis women. In contrast, almost half (49%) of Inuit women lived in Nunavut that year, while 21% lived in Quebec. (Table 8.3)

Urban and rural distribution of Aboriginal women

The majority of Aboriginal women live in off-reserve areas. Indeed, in 2001, 72% of Aboriginal women lived in non-reserve communities, while only 28% lived on reserve. Aboriginal women are also slightly more likely to live off reserve than Aboriginal men, 70% of whom did not live on a reserve that year. (Table 8.4)

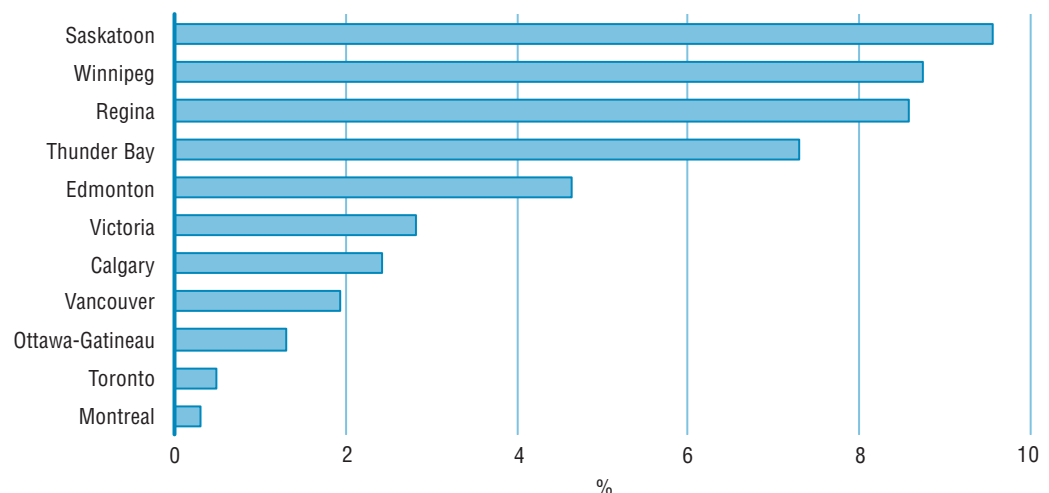
In fact, just over half of the female Aboriginal population lives in an urban area. In 2001, 30% of all Aboriginal females lived in a Census Metropolitan Area, that is, a city with more than 100,000 residents, while 23% lived in other urban areas. Aboriginal women, though, were only about half as likely as other women to live in a Census Metropolitan Area, while they were slightly more likely to reside in smaller urban areas.

Among Aboriginal women, Métis women are the most urbanized. In 2001, 69% of Métis women were living in cities and towns, compared with 45% of North American Indian women and just 29% of Inuit women.

The largest concentrations of Aboriginal women are found in Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Regina and Thunder Bay. In 2001, 10% of the total female population in Saskatoon was Aboriginal, as was 9% of that in each of Winnipeg and Regina and 7% of that in Thunder Bay. Aboriginal women also accounted for 5% of the total female population in Edmonton, while they made up 3% of the female population in Victoria and 2% of that in both Calgary and Vancouver, 1% of that in Ottawa-Gatineau, and less than 1% of that in both Toronto and Montreal. (Chart 8.1)

Chart 8.1

Aboriginal females as a percentage of the total female population in selected Census Metropolitan Areas, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Winnipeg is the urban centre with the largest actual number of Aboriginal women. In 2001, there were almost 30,000 Aboriginal women living in Winnipeg, while there were 22,000 Aboriginal women living in Edmonton, 19,000 in Vancouver, and approximately 11,000 in each of Calgary, Saskatoon and Toronto.

Aboriginal women living on reserve

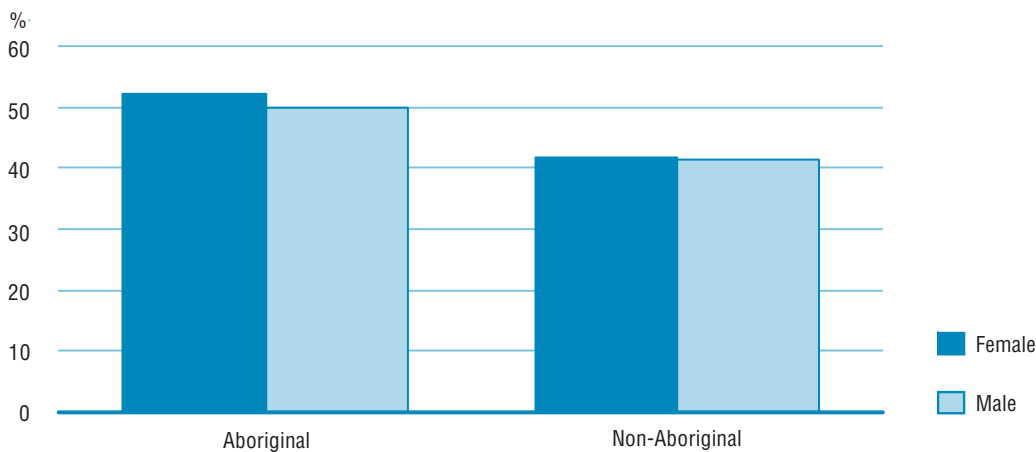
Just over one in four Aboriginal women lives on a reserve. In 2001, 140,000 Aboriginal females, 28% of the total, lived on a reserve. Aboriginal women, though, were slightly less likely than their male counterparts to live on a reserve. That year, 30% of Aboriginal males resided on a reserve. Indeed, women made up less than half (49%) the on-reserve Aboriginal population in 2001, whereas they accounted for 51% of the total Aboriginal population. As well, the vast majority of Aboriginal women living in reserve communities – 95% that year – were North American Indians.

Aboriginal women a highly mobile population

Aboriginal women are generally more likely to change their place of residence than non-Aboriginal women. Between 1996 and 2001, over half of Aboriginal women (52%) changed residences at least once, compared with 42% of non-Aboriginal women. (Chart 8.2)

Chart 8.2

Percentage of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal females and males who made a residential move in the past 5 years, 2001

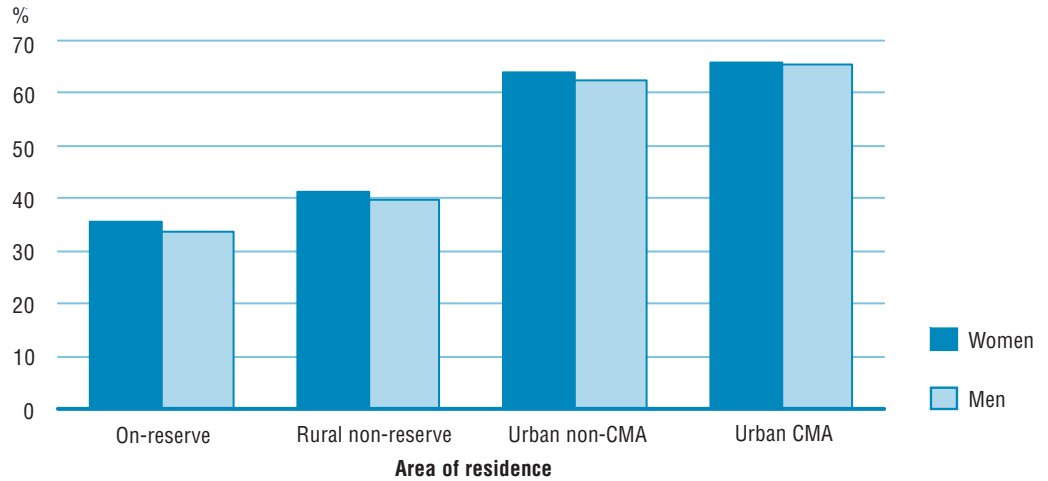


Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Aboriginal women living in urban areas are the most likely to make a residential move. Between 1996 and 2001, 66% of Aboriginal women living in a Census Metropolitan Area made at least one residential move, compared with 41% of those living in a rural non-reserve area and only 36% of their counterparts living on a reserve. (Chart 8.3)

Chart 8.3

Percentage of Aboriginal females and males who moved in the past five years, by area of residence, 2001

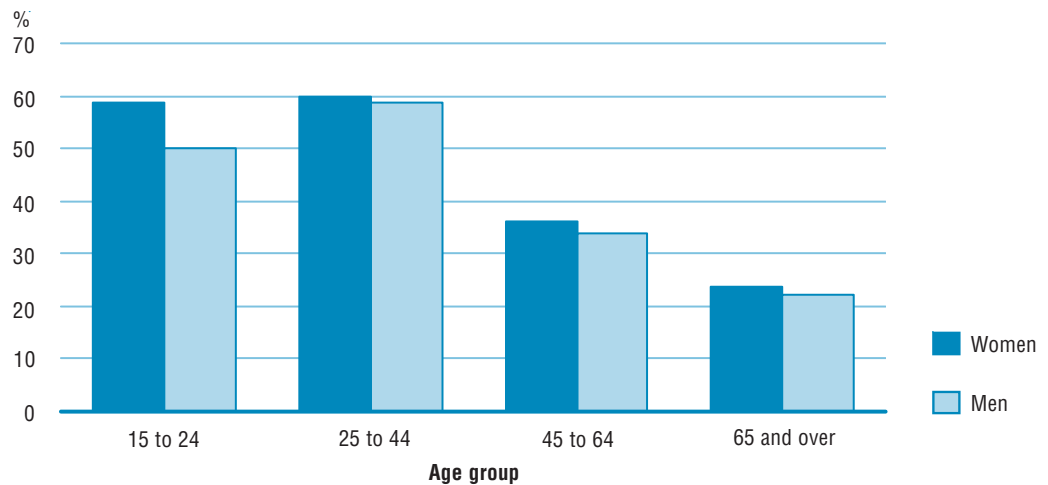


Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Aboriginal women between the ages of 15 and 44 are particularly likely to move. Between 1996 and 2001, roughly 60% of Aboriginal women aged either 15 to 24 or 25 to 44 changed residence at least once. This compared with 36% of Aboriginal women aged 45 to 64 and 24% of those aged 65 and over. (Chart 8.4)

Chart 8.4

Percentage of Aboriginal women and men who moved in the past five years, by age, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Aboriginal females aged 15 to 24 are somewhat more mobile than their male counterparts. In the 1996 to 2001 period, 59% of Aboriginal females in this age range made at least one residential move, compared with 50% of males aged 15 to 24. In contrast, there were few differences in the likelihood of Aboriginal females and males in other age groups having made a residential move in this period.

Registration under the *Indian Act*

Bill C-31 legislative changes to the Indian Act

It should be noted that in the past, legislation regarding the registration of Indian people treated women and men differently. Prior to 1985, under certain provisions in the *Indian Act*, status Indian women who married non-status men (Aboriginal or non-Aboriginal) lost their registered Indian status, and as a result, their First Nation (band) membership. As well, these women could no longer pass registered Indian status on to their children. The opposite was true for status Indian men. Non-status women (Aboriginal or non-Aboriginal) who married status Indian men were automatically conferred Indian status.

Changes were made to the *Indian Act* in 1985 through Bill C-31, which allowed many women and their children to reclaim Indian status, and, in some cases, their First Nation (band) membership. Others who had voluntarily or involuntarily lost their Indian status through other provisions of the *Indian Act* could also apply to have their status restored.

Bill C-31 introduced new inheritance rules regarding the passing of registered Indian status from parents to children. Both parents now must have registered Indian status to pass Indian status on to their children. An exception occurs when at least one parent has been registered under section 6(1) of the legislation. In this case, if one parent is registered under 6(1) and the other parent is not registered, children remain eligible for registration under section 6(2). However, a parent registered under 6(2) can not pass registered Indian status to a child unless the other parent is also a status Indian.

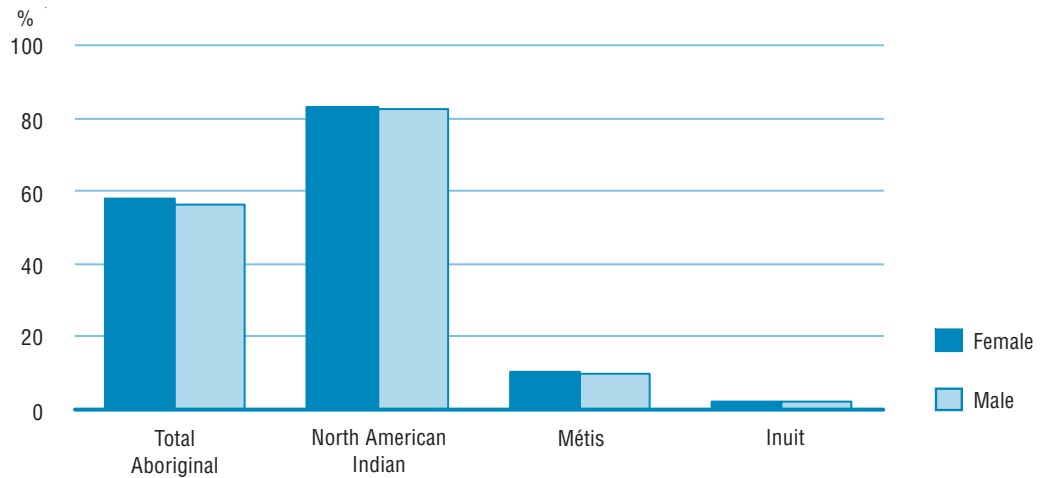
A majority of Aboriginal women are registered under the *Indian Act*. In 2001, almost 290,000 Aboriginal females, 58% of the total, were registered, as were 56% of Aboriginal males. There is considerable variation, though, in the shares of the different Aboriginal groups who are registered under the *Indian Act*. That year, 83% of North American Indian women had registered Indian status, whereas the figures were only 11% of Métis women and 2% of Inuit women. (Chart 8.5)

The registered Indian population has undergone significant growth in the past couple of decades. In fact, females have accounted for a disproportionate share of this growth since the early 1980s. Between 1981 and 2001, for example, there was a 98% rise in the number of women with registered Indian status, while the number of registered Indian males rose by 88% in the same period. Legislative changes to the *Indian Act* have likely made a contribution to this growth, along with factors such as high birth rates, longer life expectancy and improved enumeration. (Table 8.5)



Chart 8.5

Percentage of Aboriginal females and males who are registered under the *Indian Act of Canada*, by group, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

The growth of the registered Indian population is particularly evident in off reserve areas. Indeed, the number of female registered Indians living off reserve rose by 141% between 1981 and 2001, while the number of their male counterparts grew by 135% in the same period.

In light of the inheritance rules governing registered Indian status, “out-marriage rates” among registered Indians will affect the growth of the registered Indian population in years to come. According to a recent study, the proportion of births eligible for registration for the on-reserve population could decrease from around 99% in 2000 to 87% by 2021. For the off reserve population, the proportion of births eligible for registration will be even lower, dropping from 79% in 2000 to 52% by 2021.²

Aboriginal women a relatively young population

The female Aboriginal population in Canada is relatively young. In 2001, 32% of female Aboriginals were under 15 years of age, compared with only 18% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. At the same time, those aged 15 to 24 made up 17% of the female Aboriginal population, compared with 13% of non-Aboriginal females. (Table 8.6)

Among the different Aboriginal groups, the Inuit female population is the youngest. In 2001, 38% of the Inuit female population was under the age of 15, while the figure was 33% among North American Indian females and 28% among the Métis female population.

In contrast, relatively few Aboriginal women are seniors. In 2001, just 4% of Aboriginal women were aged 65 and over, compared with 14% of non-Aboriginal women. As with the non-Aboriginal population, women account for the majority of Aboriginal seniors. That year, 53% of all Aboriginal people aged 65 and over were female. In particular, women made up 54% of North American Indian seniors and 52% of Métis aged 65 and over, whereas only 45% of the Inuit population aged 65 years and over was female.

Aboriginal languages important

Either English or French is the mother tongue, that is, the language first learned and still understood, of the majority of Aboriginal females. In 2001, 74% of all Aboriginal females reported that English was their mother tongue, while another 6% said French was their mother tongue. At the same time, though, the mother tongue of 20% of the female Aboriginal population was an Aboriginal language.

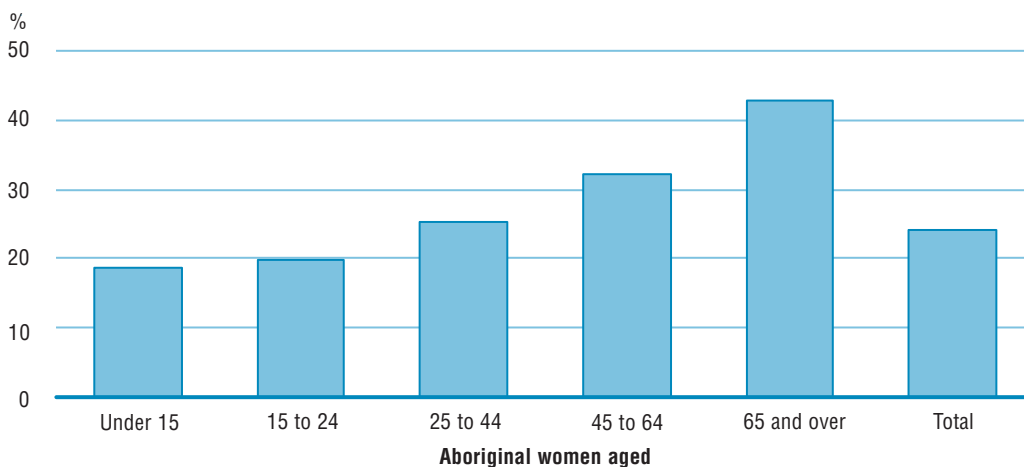
However, the proportion of Aboriginal women who are able to speak an Aboriginal language is actually somewhat larger than the share whose mother tongue is an Aboriginal language. In 2001, 24% of Aboriginal women said they could converse in an Aboriginal language, whereas only 20% reported one of these languages was their mother tongue.

This may indicate that some Aboriginal women are learning an Aboriginal language later in life, which is consistent with findings from the 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey that indicated that Aboriginal languages are important to Aboriginal women. In fact, 63% of Aboriginal women living off reserve reported that learning, relearning or maintaining their Aboriginal language was very or somewhat important. This is a higher percentage than for Aboriginal men living off reserve, 55% of whom rated Aboriginal languages as very or somewhat important.

Older Aboriginal women are considerably more likely than their younger counterparts to be able to speak an Aboriginal language. In 2001, 43% of Aboriginal women aged 65 and over reported they could speak an Aboriginal language, as did 32% of those aged 45 to 64. In contrast, this was the case for 25% of those aged 25 to 44, 20% of those aged 15 to 24 and just 19% of those under the age of 15. (Chart 8.6)

Chart 8.6

Percentage of Aboriginal females able to speak an Aboriginal language, by age, 2001

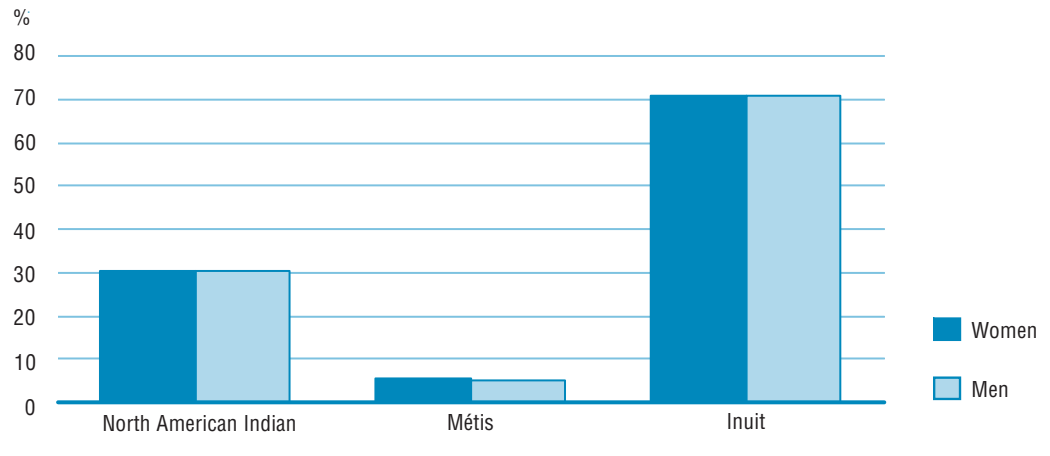


Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Among Aboriginal women, the Inuit are by far the most likely to be able to speak an Aboriginal language. In 2001, 71% of Inuit women reported they were able to speak an Aboriginal language, whereas only 30% of North American Indian women and 5% of Métis women were able to converse in an Aboriginal language. (Chart 8.7)

Chart 8.7

Percentage of Aboriginal women and men who can speak an Aboriginal language, by group, 2001

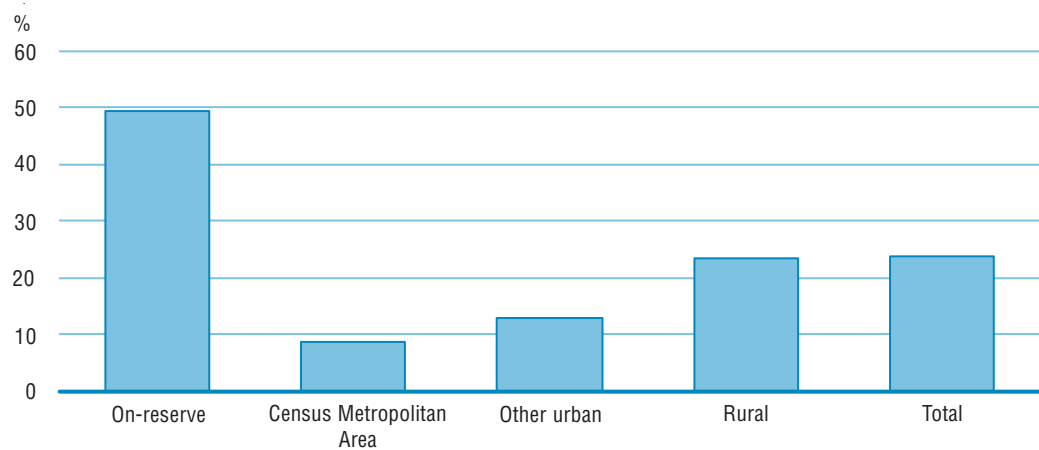


Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

There are also major differences in the ability to speak an Aboriginal language depending on where Aboriginal women live. In 2001, approximately half (49%) of Aboriginal women living on reserve reported that they were able to speak an Aboriginal language, whereas the figure dropped to 24% among Aboriginal women living in rural areas, 13% of those in smaller urban settings, and just 9% of Aboriginal women living in Census Metropolitan Areas. (Chart 8.8)

Chart 8.8

Percentage of Aboriginal women able to speak an Aboriginal language, by area of residence, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

A substantial proportion of Aboriginal females also speak an Aboriginal language at home. In 2001, 6% of Aboriginal women spoke only an Aboriginal language at home, while an additional 12% spoke an Aboriginal language in combination with another language such as English or French at home. English, though, is the language spoken most often at home for the majority (75%) of Aboriginal women, while a small share (4%) speak French most often at home. (Table 8.7)

Inuit women are the most likely to speak an Aboriginal language at home. In 2001, 65% of Inuit females spoke either only an Aboriginal language (31%) or an Aboriginal language in combination with another language (34%) in their homes. In contrast, 23% of North American Indian females spoke an Aboriginal either exclusively or in combination with another language at home, while the figure was just 3% for Métis women.

Aboriginal women and their families

A relatively large proportion of Aboriginal women in Canada live with either their immediate or extended family. In 2001, 87% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over lived with family members, compared with 83% of both non-Aboriginal women and Aboriginal men. (Table 8.8)

Among Aboriginal women, the Inuit are the most likely to live with family members. In 2001, 94% of Inuit women lived with either their immediate or extended families, while the figures were 88% for North American Indian women and 84% for Métis women.

Aboriginal women, though, are less likely than non-Aboriginal women to be living in husband-wife families. In 2001, just 32% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over, versus 49% of non-Aboriginal women, lived with their husband. In contrast, Aboriginal women were about twice as likely as non-Aboriginal women, 17% versus 9%, to be living in a common-law relationship.

Aboriginal women are also much more likely to be lone parents than non-Aboriginal women. In 2001, 19% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over were heading families on their own, compared with 8% of non-Aboriginal women.

Among Aboriginal women, North American Indians are the most likely to be lone parents. In 2001, 21% of North American Indian women over the age of 15 were lone parents, while this was the case for 17% of Inuit women and 16% of Métis women.

As well, lone-parent families headed by Aboriginal women tend to be larger than those headed by their non-Aboriginal counterparts. In 2001, 22% of Aboriginal female lone parents had three or more children, more than twice the figure for their non-Aboriginal counterparts, just 10% of whom had three or more children.

On the other hand, relatively few Aboriginal women live alone. In 2001, just 9% of Aboriginal women lived alone, compared with 14% of non-Aboriginal women. Among Aboriginal women, Métis women were the most likely to live alone. That year, 10% of Métis women, versus 8% of North American Indian women and just 4% of Inuit women, lived by themselves.

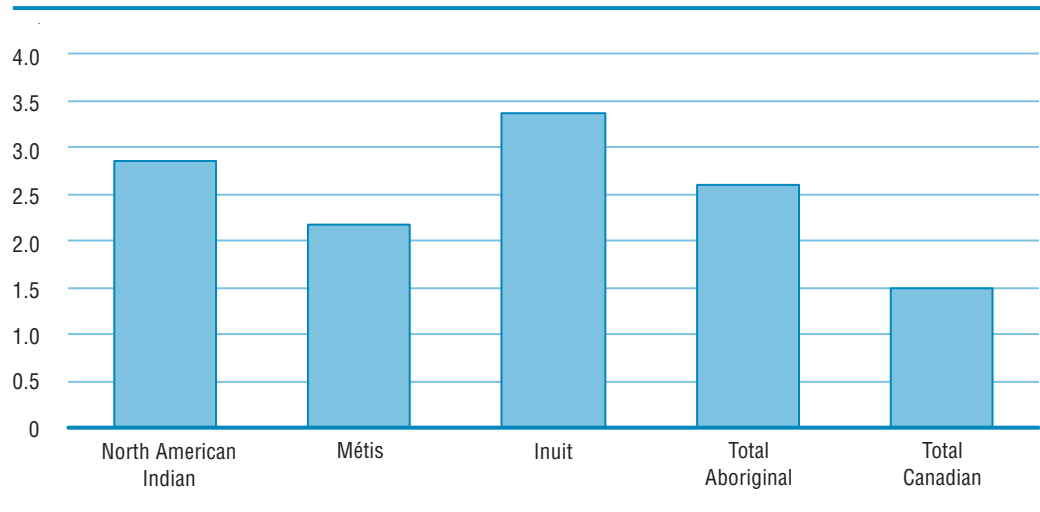
High fertility rates among Aboriginal women

Fertility rates are much higher among Aboriginal women than other Canadian women. In the 1996 to 2001 period, the fertility rate of Aboriginal women was 2.6 children, that is, they could expect to have that many children, on average, over the course of their lifetime. This compared with a figure of 1.5 among all Canadian women (Chart 8.9)



Chart 8.9

Fertility rates of Aboriginal and all Canadian women, by group, 1996 to 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Among Aboriginal women, the Inuit have the highest fertility rate. In the 1996 to 2001 period, the fertility rate for Inuit women was estimated to be 3.4 children, compared with rates of 2.9 children for North American Indian women and 2.2 for Métis women.

While Aboriginal fertility rates are higher than those for the total Canadian population, there has been a substantial decline in fertility rates among Aboriginal women over the past three decades. Indeed, the Aboriginal fertility rate has dropped by half since the end of the 1960s, falling from 5.5 children per woman to the current figure of 2.6.

Lower life expectancy among Aboriginal females

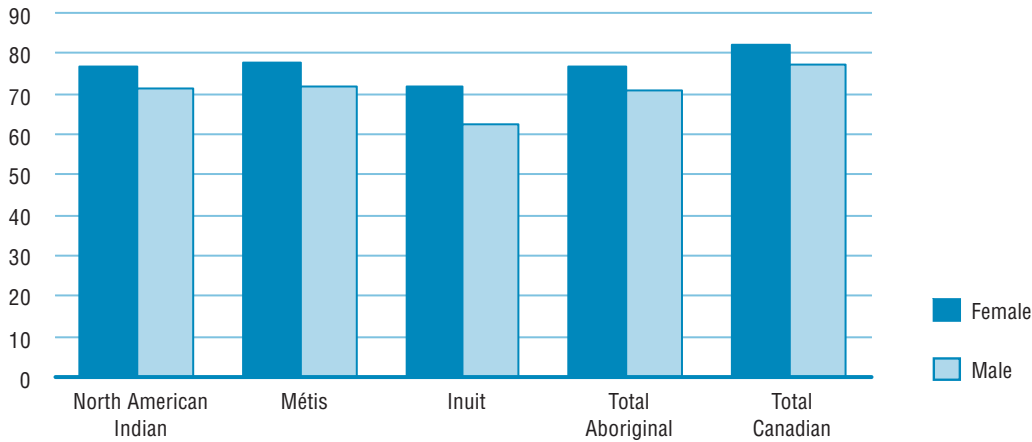
The life expectancy of Aboriginal women is well below that of non-Aboriginal women. In 2001, the estimated life expectancy at birth for Aboriginal females was 76.8 years, over five years below that of their non-Aboriginal counterparts who could expect to live, on average, just over 82 years. (Chart 8.10)

As with their non-Aboriginal counterparts, the life expectancy of Aboriginal women is longer than that of Aboriginal men. In 2001, Aboriginal females had a life expectancy at birth of 76.8 years, compared with 70.9 years for Aboriginal males.

Among the female Aboriginal population, Métis and North American Indian women have longer life expectancies than their Inuit counterparts. In 2001, Métis women had a life expectancy of 77.7 years, while the figure for North American Indian women was 76.7 years. In contrast, Inuit women had a life expectancy of just 71.7 years. In all three groups, though, women had considerably longer life expectancies than men.

Chart 8.10

Life expectancy at birth for Aboriginal and all Canadian females and males, by group, 2001



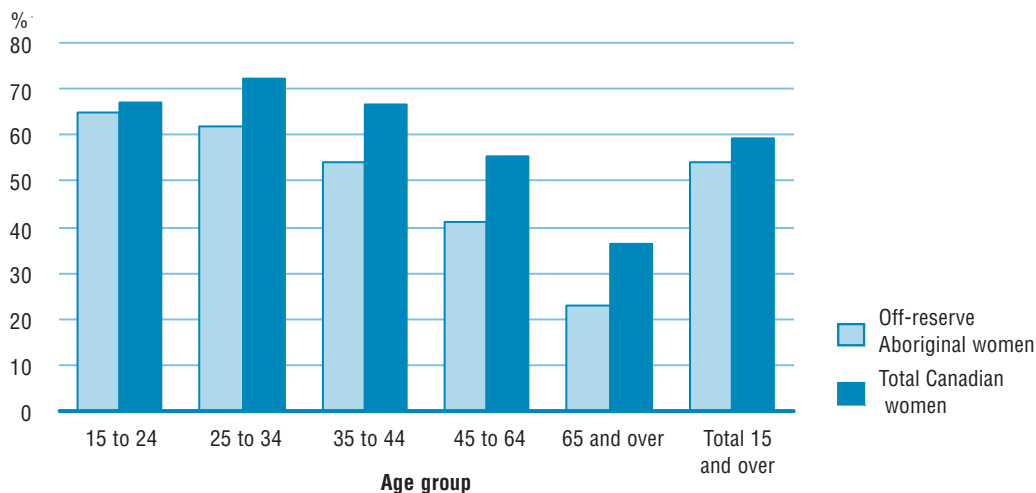
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Most in good health

The majority of Aboriginal women describe their health in positive terms. As reported in the 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey, 54% of Aboriginal women living in off-reserve areas reported that their health was either excellent or very good. The share of Aboriginal women describing their health in these terms, though, was smaller than the figure for all Canadian women, 59% of whom described their health as either excellent or very good. (Chart 8.11)

Chart 8.11

Percentage of off-reserve Aboriginal and all Canadian women reporting excellent or very good health status, by age, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey and 2000/2001 Canadian Community Health Survey.

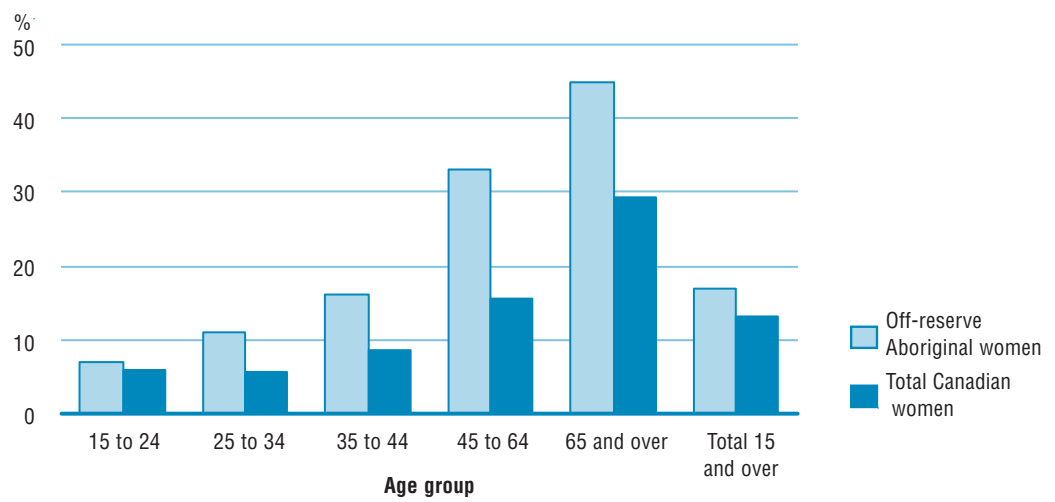


There are particularly wide gaps between the self-perceived health ratings of Aboriginal women and the total Canadian female population in older age groups. Among women aged 65 and over, just 23% of Aboriginal women, versus 36% of all senior women, described their health as either excellent or very good. Similarly, only 41% of Aboriginal women aged 45 to 64, compared with 55% of all women in this age range, reported their health as either excellent or very good.

At the same time, older Aboriginal women are far more likely than all women to report their health as only fair or poor. In 2001, 45% of off-reserve Aboriginal women aged 65 and over described their health as fair or poor, compared with 29% of the total female senior population. A similar picture emerges among women aged 45 to 64 among whom 33% of Aboriginal women, versus only 16% of women in the total population, said their health was only fair or poor. (Chart 8.12)

Chart 8.12

Percentage of off-reserve Aboriginal and all Canadian women reporting fair or poor health, by age, 2001



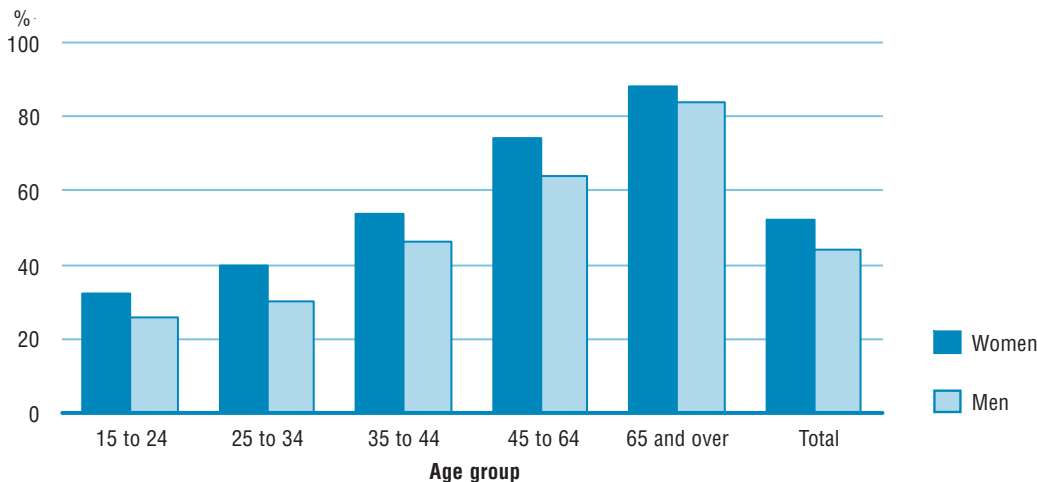
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey and 2000/2001 Canadian Community Health Survey.

In contrast, there are much smaller gaps in the self-perceived health status of Aboriginal females living off reserve and their counterparts in the overall population in younger age ranges. In 2001, 65% of Aboriginal females aged 15 to 24, along with 67% of all females in this age range, described their health as either excellent or very good, while just 7% of Aboriginal women in this age range said their health was only fair or poor, almost the same figure as for all young women in the age range (6%).

While the majority of Aboriginal women living off-reserve report their health status in generally positive terms, more than half have a chronic health condition. In 2001, 52% of Aboriginal women living off reserve had been diagnosed with a chronic condition by a health professional. This compared with 44% of the male Aboriginal population. (Chart 8.13)

Chart 8.13

Percentage of Aboriginal women and men living off-reserve diagnosed with at least one chronic health condition, by age, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

As with the overall female population, the percentage of Aboriginal women living off reserve with a chronic condition rises in the older age groups. Indeed, in 2001, 88% of Aboriginal women aged 65 and over living off reserve had been diagnosed by a health professional with at least one chronic health condition, while the figure in other age groups ranged from 74% among those aged 45 to 64 to 32% among those aged 15 to 24. In all age groups, though, women were more likely than their male counterparts to have been diagnosed with a chronic health condition.

As with the overall population, arthritis or rheumatism is the most common chronic condition diagnosed among Aboriginal women. In 2001, 23% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over living off reserve had been diagnosed with arthritis or rheumatism, while 14% had asthma, 13% had high blood pressure, 12% had stomach problems or intestinal ulcers, and 7% had heart problems.

Rates of diabetes are also considerably higher for the off reserve Aboriginal population than for the total Canadian population. In 2001, 7% of the female Aboriginal off reserve population aged 15 and over had been diagnosed with diabetes, compared with 3% of the total Canadian female population.³ Health Canada has raised diabetes as a significant concern for the Aboriginal population because of “early onset, greater severity at diagnosis, high rates of complications, lack of accessible services, increasing trends, and increasing prevalence of risk factors for a population already at risk.”⁴

Diabetes is particularly prevalent among older Aboriginal women. In 2001, 24% of the off-reserve female Aboriginal population aged 65 and over had diabetes, compared with 11% of all senior women in Canada. Senior Aboriginal women were also somewhat more likely to have diabetes than senior Aboriginal men, 20% of whom had this condition that year.

Diabetes among the off-reserve Aboriginal population is most prevalent in the North American Indian population. In 2001, 8% of the female North American Indian population aged 15 and over had been diagnosed with diabetes, while the figure was 6% among Métis women and just 2% among Inuit women.

Results from the First Nations Regional Longitudinal Health Survey conducted in 2002-2003 indicated that diabetes is particularly prevalent in First Nation communities. Indeed, 15% of adults over age 20 in these communities have been diagnosed with diabetes.⁵

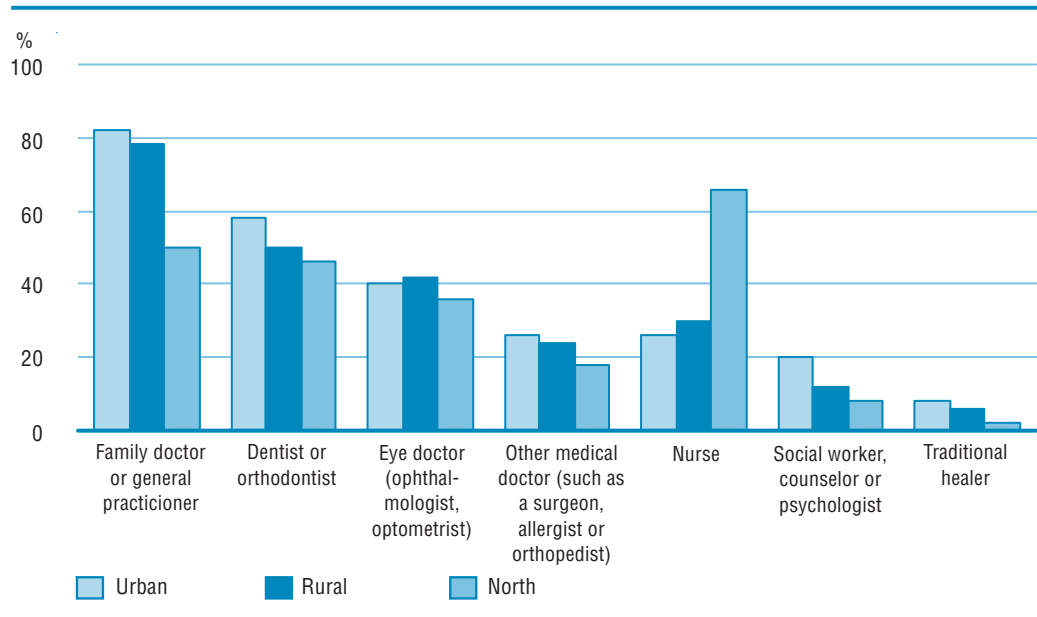
Contact with health care professionals

As with the overall population, Aboriginal women are generally more likely than their male counterparts to have contact with health professionals. In 2001, 80% of Aboriginal women living off reserve reported that they had seen or talked to a family doctor or general practitioner in the 12 months prior to the survey, whereas just 64% of Aboriginal men had done so. That year, higher percentages of Aboriginal women than Aboriginal men had seen a dentist (56% versus 48%), eye doctor (40% versus 32%), nurse (28% versus 22%), or social worker, counselor or psychologist (18% versus 10%). Aboriginal women were also twice as likely as men, 8% versus 4%, to have seen a traditional Aboriginal healer. (Table 8.9)

Where Aboriginal women live has an impact on their contact with health professionals. The 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey found that Aboriginal women who live in the Far North had less contact with family doctors and general practitioners than Aboriginal women living in other off-reserve areas. That year, about 50% of Aboriginal women in the Canadian Arctic had seen or talked on the telephone with a family doctor about their health, compared with 82% of those in urban areas and 78% in rural areas. In contrast, Aboriginal women living in the Canadian Arctic were much more likely to have had contact with nurses as opposed to other types of health professionals. These differences are likely due to the type of health care professionals available to people living in the Canadian Arctic. (Chart 8.14)

Chart 8.14

Percentage of Aboriginal women 15 years and over living off-reserve who have had contact with a health professional in previous year, by region, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

Smoking

Aboriginal women are considerably more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to smoke. In 2001, 39% of all Aboriginal women aged 15 and over reported they smoked daily, compared with just 20% of the overall Canadian female population. (Table 8.10)

As with the overall population, younger Aboriginal women are more likely to smoke than their older counterparts. In 2001, around 40% of Aboriginal women living off reserve between the ages of 15 and 34 smoked daily, whereas the proportion of women smoking daily in older age groups ranged from 36% among those aged 45 to 64 to just 21% among those aged 65 and over.

Among the off-reserve Aboriginal population, Inuit women are most likely to be smokers. In 2001, 60% of Inuit women reported that they smoked daily, compared with around 38% of both North American Indian and Métis women. In fact, the share of Inuit women who smoked daily was three times the proportion of daily smokers in the total Canadian female population (20%).

Results from the 2002-2003 First Nations Regional Longitudinal Health Survey indicate that smoking rates are particularly high in reserve communities. That year, 58% of women over the age of 20 in First Nation communities smoked regularly or occasionally.

Spousal Violence

Results of the 2004 General Social Survey⁶ suggest that violence in marriages and common-law unions is a reality that many Aboriginal women face. Indeed, 24% of Aboriginal women, three times the figure among their non-Aboriginal counterparts (8%), experienced spousal violence from either a current or previous marital or common-law partner in five-year period prior to the survey.⁷ At the same time, 18% of Aboriginal men reported being victims of some form of spousal abuse.

Aboriginal spousal violence victims are also more likely than non-Aboriginal victims to experience serious forms of violence at the hands of their intimate partners. In the five-year period prior to the survey, over half (54%) of Aboriginal women who were victims of spousal violence reported experiencing severe and potentially life threatening violence, including being beaten or choked; threatened with, or had a gun or knife used against them; or had been sexually assaulted. This compared with 37% of non-Aboriginal female victims of spousal abuse. Further, a higher proportion of female Aboriginal spousal violence victims (43%) reported being injured, compared with non-Aboriginal victims (31%). As well, 33% of female Aboriginal spousal violence victims experienced violence serious enough to fear for their lives, compared with 22% of non-Aboriginal victims.

Aboriginal women are also twice as likely as other women to experience emotional abuse from either a current or previous marital or common-law partner. In the five-year period prior to the survey, 36% of Aboriginal women, compared with 17% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts, reported experiencing emotional abuse from a partner. Aboriginal women, though, were about as likely to indicate they had suffered from emotional abuse from a partner as Aboriginal men for whom the figure was 37%. The report indicates that while survey questions regarding emotional abuse are not used to determine rates of spousal violence, they are important in that they provide a context in which violence may occur, as research has shown that emotional abuse is often a precursor to physical violence in a relationship.



Less likely to have a degree

There is a particularly large gap between the shares of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women with university degrees. In 2001, only 7% of Aboriginal women aged 25 and over had a university degree, compared with 17% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. Aboriginal women, though, were slightly more likely to have a university degree than Aboriginal men, only 5% of whom had completed university. Indeed, women made up 62% of Aboriginal people aged 25 and over with a university degree that year. (Table 8.11)

At the same time, Aboriginal women are about as likely as other women to have a diploma or certificate from a community college. In 2001, 17% of Aboriginal women aged 25 and over were community college graduates, while the figure was 18% among non-Aboriginal women in this age range. Aboriginal women were also more likely than Aboriginal men, 17% versus 11%, to have a community college certificate or diploma.

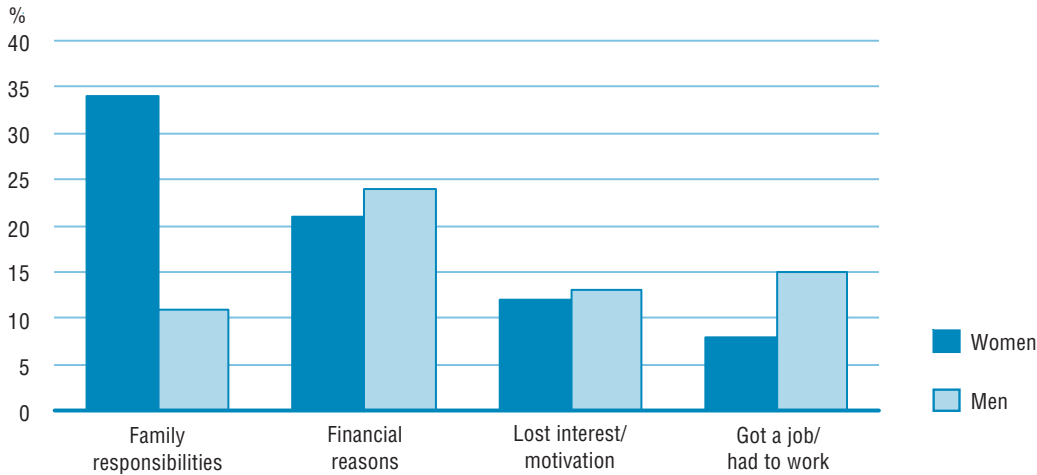
On the other hand, four in 10 Aboriginal women have not completed high school. In 2001, 40% of Aboriginal women aged 25 and over had not graduated from high school, whereas the figure was 29% among non-Aboriginal women. Aboriginal women, though, were somewhat less likely than Aboriginal men to have not completed high school: 40% versus 44%.

According to a recent study of the off-reserve Aboriginal population,⁸ the most common reason that young Aboriginal women aged 15 to 19 gave for leaving elementary or secondary school prior to completion was 'pregnancy or the need to care for children.' Indeed, one in five (20%) female Aboriginal school leavers in this age group gave this reason. The second most common reason was "boredom" (15%). In contrast, nearly one-quarter (24%) of young Aboriginal men living off reserve cited 'boredom' as the reason for leaving school early and 19% said that they wanted to work. Boredom or lost interest was also the top reason given by non-Aboriginal youth who had left elementary or high school prior to completion.⁹

Aboriginal women also continue to face barriers in attaining post-secondary schooling. Of Aboriginal women aged 25 to 44 living off reserve who had started, but had not completed a post-secondary program, 34% reported family responsibilities as the reason they had not finished their post-secondary schooling, while 21% reported financial reasons, 12% lost interest/motivation and 8% got a job or had to work. For Aboriginal men in this age range living off reserve who had not completed their post-secondary schooling, financial reasons (24%) was the most commonly reported reason, while only 11% cited family responsibilities as the reason. (Chart 8.15)

Chart 8.15

Reasons Aboriginal women and men aged 25 to 44 years living off reserve did not complete post-secondary schooling, 2001¹



1. Respondents could give more than one reason.

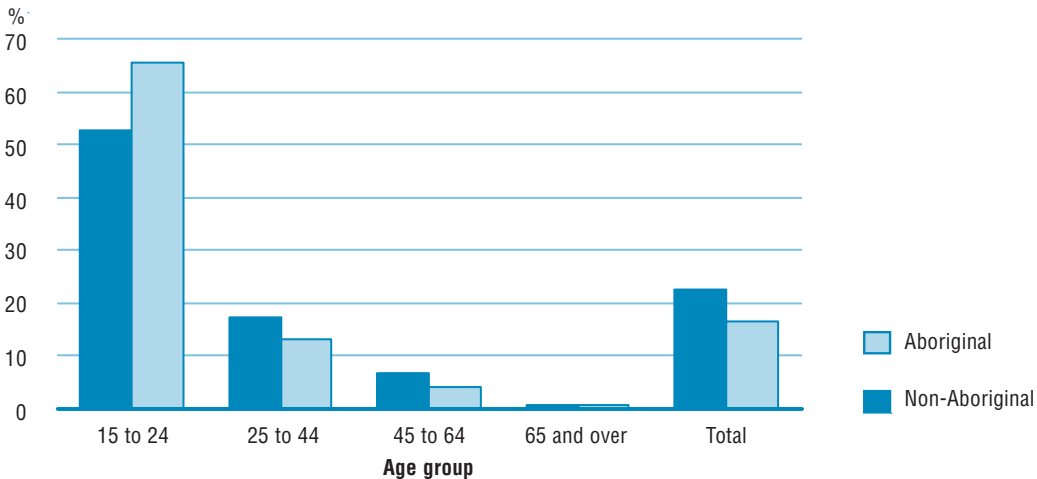
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

Many attending school

While the overall educational attainment levels of Aboriginal women are relatively low, Aboriginal women are attending school at higher rates than both non-Aboriginal women and Aboriginal men. In 2001, 23% of Aboriginal women 15 years of age and older were attending school on either a full-time or part-time basis, compared with 17% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. (Chart 8.16)

Chart 8.16

Percentage of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women aged 15 and over attending school full-time or part-time, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Among young adults, though, Aboriginal females are less likely than other women to be attending school. In 2001, only about half (53%) of Aboriginal women aged 15 to 24 were attending school, compared with 66% of non-Aboriginal women in the same age group.

However, Aboriginal women are more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to return to school at later ages to complete their education. In 2001, 17% of Aboriginal women aged 25 to 44 and 7% of those aged 45 to 64 were attending school either full- or part-time, versus only 13% and 4% of non-Aboriginal women in the corresponding age groups.

The relatively high school-attendance figures for Aboriginal women in age groups over the age of 25 is further reflected in a recent study from Manitoba which shows that Aboriginal people tend to delay entry into post-secondary schooling.¹⁰ The study found that Aboriginal graduates were less likely than non-Aboriginal graduates to have entered their program directly from secondary school. The study found that only 17% of Manitoban Aboriginal graduates had gone on to college directly from secondary school, compared to 25% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. At the bachelor level, about 30% of Aboriginal graduates were enrolled in secondary school in the 12 months prior to enrollment in their post-secondary program, compared with nearly 60% of non-Aboriginal graduates.

Paid work

Aboriginal women are generally less likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to be part of the paid work force. In 2001, 47% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over were employed, compared with 56% of non-Aboriginal women. Aboriginal women were also less likely than their male counterparts, 47% versus 53%, to be employed that year. (Table 8.12).

Among Aboriginal women, the Métis are the most likely to be part of the paid work force. Indeed, in 2001, 56% of these women were employed, the same figure as for the non-Aboriginal female population. In contrast, just 48% of Inuit women, and only 43% of North American Indian females, were employed that year.

As with the overall population, Aboriginal women aged 25 to 44 are more likely to be employed than both their younger and older counterparts. In 2001, 58% of Aboriginal women aged 25 to 44 were employed, compared with 50% of those aged 45 to 64 and 35% of those aged 15 to 24. At all ages, though, Aboriginal women were less likely to be employed than either Aboriginal men or non-Aboriginal women. The gap between the employment rates of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women was particularly large in the 15 to 24 age group in which 35% of Aboriginal women, versus 57% of non-Aboriginal women, were employed.

As with the rest of the population, a large proportion of Aboriginal women with jobs work part-time or part-year. Of those who were part of the paid work force in 2000, 57% of Aboriginal women worked part-time or part-year, compared with 54% of Aboriginal men and 49% of non-Aboriginal women.

Sales and service most common occupation

As with other women, Aboriginal women are heavily concentrated in low-paying occupations traditionally held by women. Of all Aboriginal women who were employed at some point in 2000, 60% worked either in sales or service or in business, finance or administration jobs. That year, 37% of all employed Aboriginal women worked in sales

or service, while 23% had administrative jobs. In fact, Aboriginal women were more than twice as likely to work in these occupations as Aboriginal men, only 26% of whom were employed in these sectors. (Table 8.13)

The share of Aboriginal women in these occupations, though, is only slightly higher than the figure for non-Aboriginal women. In 2000, 60% of employed Aboriginal women worked in sales and service or administrative jobs, while the figure was 57% for employed non-Aboriginal women.

Aboriginal women are also about as likely as both their non-Aboriginal counterparts and Aboriginal men to be employed in management occupations. In 2001, 6% of Aboriginal women had managerial positions, whereas the figure was 7% for Aboriginal men and 8% for non-Aboriginal women.

High unemployment rates

Unemployment rates among female Aboriginal labour force participants are twice those of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. In 2001, 17% of Aboriginal women in the labour force were unemployed, compared with a rate of 7% for non-Aboriginal women. The unemployment rate among Aboriginal women, though, was lower than that experienced by Aboriginal men, 21% of whom were unemployed that year. (Table 8.14)

As with the overall population, unemployment rates among Aboriginal women are highest for young adults. In 2001, 25% of female Aboriginal labour force participants aged 15 to 24 were unemployed, compared with 16% of those aged 25 to 44 and 11% of those aged 45 to 64. In each group, though, unemployment rates among Aboriginal women were around double those for non-Aboriginal women. However, they were lower than those for Aboriginal men.

Among Aboriginal women, those living on reserves experience the highest unemployment rates. In 2001, 22% of female Aboriginal labour force participants living in reserve areas were unemployed, while figures were 17% for those living in small and mid-sized urban centres, 16% for those living in rural non-reserve locales, and 14% for those living in major metropolitan areas. (Table 8.15)

When looking at the unemployment rate, however, it is important to realize that it does not always reflect the complex work situation of Aboriginal people, especially those living in rural or remote communities. Official unemployment rates, for example, may not always reflect work that is carried out for which no payment is received. Work of this type is common in many Aboriginal communities where large amounts of time are spent fishing, trapping, hunting, sewing, and caring for children of friends and family members. Also, there is much seasonal work in many Aboriginal communities.

Incomes lower

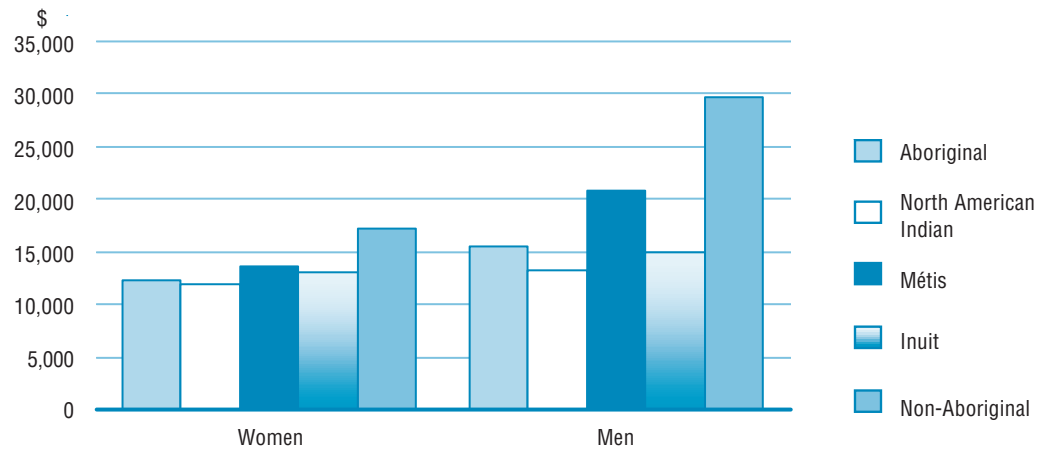
The incomes of Aboriginal women in Canada tend to be relatively low. In 2000, the median income of Aboriginal women was \$12,300, about \$5,000 less than the figure for non-Aboriginal women who had a median income of \$17,300 that year. The median income of Aboriginal women was also about \$3,000 less than that of Aboriginal men for whom the figure was \$15,500.¹¹ (Chart 8.17)

As with other variables, the income of Aboriginal women varies depending on their area of residence. In 2000, those living on reserve had the lowest median income among Aboriginal women at just under \$11,000, while those living in Census Metropolitan Areas had the highest median income at almost \$14,000.



Chart 8.17

Median income of Aboriginal women and men, by group, 2000



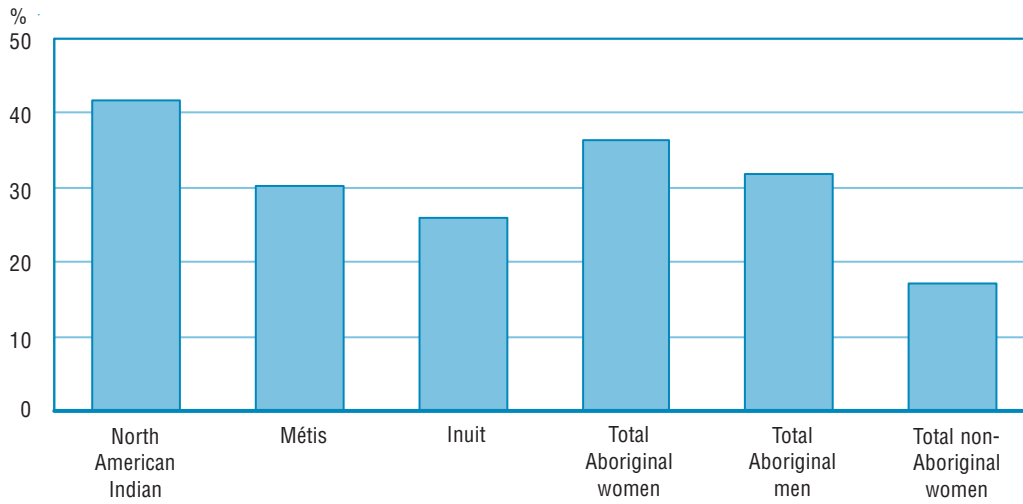
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

The largest share of the income of Aboriginal women comes from employment sources. In 2000, 68% of all the income of Aboriginal women came from employment income. This figure, however, was less than those for both non-Aboriginal women (72%) and Aboriginal men (81%).

In contrast, Aboriginal women get a larger share of their incomes from government transfer payments including unemployment insurance and social welfare benefits. In 2000, 27% of the total income of Aboriginal women came from these sources, compared with 16% of that of both non-Aboriginal women and Aboriginal men.

Aboriginal women also experience relatively high rates of low income.¹² In 2000, 36% of all Aboriginal females were classified as living in a household with incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. This was more than double the figure for non-Aboriginal women, 17% of whom had low incomes that year. The share of Aboriginal women with low incomes was also higher than that for Aboriginal men (32%). (Chart 8.18)

Chart 8.18

Percentage of Aboriginal females with low incomes,¹ by group, 2000

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Among Aboriginal females, North American Indians are the most likely to have low incomes. In 2000, 42% of North American Indian females had incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs, while the figures were 30% among Métis women and 26% for Inuit females.

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Notes

1. The data in this chapter refer to the Aboriginal identity population, that is, those who identified themselves as one of North American Indian, Métis and Inuit. Also included are those who did not identify with an Aboriginal group, but who reported having registered Indian status or Band/First Nation membership.
2. Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, Registered Indian Population Projections for Canada and Regions, 2000 to 2021.
3. The rate of diabetes for the total Canadian population has been age standardized to reflect differences between the age structures of the off-reserve Aboriginal and overall populations.
4. Health Canada, Diabetes Among Aboriginal People in Canada: The Evidence.
5. First Nations Centre, National Aboriginal Health Organization, Preliminary Findings of the First Nations Regional Longitudinal Health Survey (RHS) 2002-03: Adult Survey.
6. AuCoin, Kathy (ed.). Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile 2005. Statistics Canada: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (Catalogue no. 85-224-XIE) July 2005.
7. The results of the survey describe rates of violence committed against those who self-identified as Aboriginal, but do not distinguish the identity of the perpetrator. In addition, this analysis does not include the Northwest Territories, the Yukon or Nunavut, where high concentrations of Aboriginal people live. To measure spousal violence through the General Social Survey on Victimization, a scale of 10 questions was asked of all respondents who were married or living common-law at the time of the survey interview, or who had been married or in a common-law relationship in the 5-year period preceding the survey and who had had contact with their ex-partner during that 5-year period. The scale of questions included both measures of physical and sexual violence as defined by the Criminal Code that could be acted upon by the police.
8. Statistics Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2001: Well-being of the non-reserve Aboriginal Population. (Catalogue No. 89-589-XIE)
9. Data is from Statistics Canada's 2000 Youth in Transition Survey and refers to youth 18-20 years of age.
10. Vaillancourt, Chantal, Manitoba postsecondary graduates from the Class of 2000: how did they fare? Culture, Tourism and the Centre for Education Statistics – Research Papers. Statistics Canada (Catalogue no. 81-595-MIE2005029) May 2005.
11. Median income is calculated from the unrounded number of individuals with income in that group. This concept and procedure applies to total income, employment income, wages and salaries, and any other component of income. The median income marks the midpoint; in other words, it is the point where the incomes of half of individuals fall below the median, and half are above the median.
12. Includes people with incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. For a definition see Chapter 5. It should be noted that the calculations of the Low Income Cut-offs do not include people living on Indian reserves, as well as those living in the territories.

Table 8.1

Female and male Aboriginal populations, by group, 2001

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of the total Aboriginal group	Aboriginal females as a percent of total female population of Canada
	Number	%	Number	%		
North American Indian	314,420	62.9	294,435	61.8	51.6	2.1
Métis	146,130	29.2	146,180	30.7	50.0	1.0
Inuit	22,510	4.5	22,560	4.7	49.9	0.1
Multiple Aboriginal	3,525	0.7	3,140	0.7	52.9	--
Other ¹	13,020	2.6	10,390	2.2	55.6	0.1
Total Aboriginal identity population	499,605	100.0	476,700	100.0	51.2	3.3

1. Includes those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who have registered Indian status and/or First Nation (Band) membership.
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.2

Female and male Aboriginal populations, by province and territory, 2001

	Females		Males		Females as a percent of the total Aboriginal population group in region	Aboriginal females as a percent of total female population in region
	Number	%	Number	%		
Newfoundland and Labrador	9,375	1.9	9,400	2.0	49.9	3.6
Prince Edward Island	715	0.1	635	0.1	53.0	1.0
Nova Scotia	8,690	1.7	8,320	1.7	51.1	1.9
New Brunswick	8,335	1.7	8,655	1.8	49.1	2.3
Quebec	40,410	8.1	38,995	8.2	50.9	1.1
Ontario	97,180	19.5	91,135	19.1	51.6	1.7
Manitoba	77,015	15.4	73,030	15.3	51.3	13.7
Saskatchewan	66,895	13.4	63,295	13.3	51.4	13.7
Alberta	80,275	16.1	75,950	15.9	51.4	5.5
British Columbia	86,805	17.4	83,220	17.5	51.1	4.4
Yukon Territory	3,355	0.7	3,190	0.7	51.3	23.6
Northwest Territories	9,370	1.9	9,355	2.0	50.0	51.7
Nunavut	11,195	2.2	11,520	2.4	49.3	86.8
Canada	499,605	100.0	476,700	100.0	51.2	3.3

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.3

Provincial and territorial distribution of the female Aboriginal population, by group, 2001

	North American Indian	Metis	Inuit	Total Aboriginal female population ¹
				%
Newfoundland and Labrador	1.1	1.8	10.0	1.9
Prince Edward Island	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Nova Scotia	2.1	1.0	0.8	1.7
New Brunswick	1.9	1.3	0.2	1.7
Quebec	8.4	5.2	21.1	8.1
Ontario	21.8	16.3	3.2	19.5
Manitoba	14.9	19.6	0.8	15.4
Saskatchewan	13.7	15.2	0.4	13.4
Alberta	14.0	22.9	2.6	16.1
British Columbia	19.3	15.1	2.1	17.4
Yukon Territory	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.7
Northwest Territories	1.7	1.2	8.9	1.9
Nunavut	--	--	49.4	2.2
Canada	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total	314,420	146,130	22,510	499,605

1. Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who did not identify with an Aboriginal group but who reported having registered Indian status and/or First Nation/band membership

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.4

Area of residence of the female and male Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations, 2001

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
On reserve	28.2	30.4	0.1	0.1
Off-reserve	71.8	69.5	99.9	99.9
Rural	19.5	20.7	18.8	20.2
Urban	52.3	48.8	81.1	79.6
Census metropolitan areas	29.7	27.5	62.2	61.2
Other urban areas	22.6	21.3	18.9	18.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.5

Registered Indian population, 1981, 1991 and 2001

	1981	1991	2001	Growth rate 1981 to 2001
On-reserve	170,055	184,710	274,215	61.3
Male	87,835	95,055	139,185	58.5
Female	82,220	89,660	135,030	64.2
Off-reserve	119,120	201,090	283,955	138.4
Male	54,940	89,870	129,245	135.2
Female	64,180	111,225	154,715	141.1
Total – on and off reserve	289,175	385,805	558,175	93.0
Male	142,770	184,920	268,430	88.0
Female	146,400	200,885	289,745	97.9

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

Table 8.6

Age distribution of female Aboriginal population, by group, 2001

	Total Aboriginal	North American Indian	Métis	Inuit	Total non- Aboriginal
	%				
Females aged					
Under 15	31.7	33.4	28.1	38.0	18.1
15 to 24	17.1	16.8	18.0	17.9	12.8
25 to 44	31.2	30.6	32.3	29.8	30.5
45 to 65	15.7	14.9	17.2	11.4	24.7
65 and over	4.3	4.3	4.5	2.8	13.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population	499,605	314,420	146,130	22,510	14,575,150

Table 8.7

Home language of Aboriginal females and males, by group, 2001

	Home language					Total
	English only	French only	Aboriginal only	Aboriginal and English or French or both	Other	
	%					
North American Indian	72.6	2.8	7.6	15.5	1.6	100.0
Women	72.9	2.9	7.2	15.3	1.6	100.0
Men	72.3	2.7	8.0	15.6	1.5	100.0
Métis	85.2	5.8	0.7	2.2	6.1	100.0
Women	85.4	5.5	0.7	2.1	6.3	100.0
Men	85.0	6.1	0.7	2.2	5.9	100.0
Inuit	33.2	0.7	32.0	33.2	0.9	100.0
Women	33.4	0.7	31.1	33.7	1.1	100.0
Men	33.0	0.6	32.8	32.8	0.8	100.0
Total Aboriginal population¹	74.8	3.8	6.5	11.9	3.0	100.0
Women	75.0	3.8	6.2	11.9	3.1	100.0
Men	74.6	3.9	6.8	11.9	2.9	100.0

1. Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who did not identify with an Aboriginal group but who reported having registered Indian status and/or First Nation/band membership.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.8

Family status of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over, by group, 2001

	Total Aboriginal	North American Indian	Métis	Inuit	Total non-Aboriginal
	%				
Living with family					
With husband or wife	31.7	29.7	35.2	32.1	48.7
With common-law partner	17.1	18.0	14.5	23.0	9.2
Lone parent	19.4	21.3	16.0	16.9	8.4
Child living with parents	15.4	15.3	15.8	18.5	13.9
Living with extended family members	3.4	3.8	2.7	3.1	2.6
Total living with family	87.0	88.2	84.2	93.6	82.9
Not living with family					
Living alone	8.7	8.1	10.2	3.9	13.8
Living with non-relatives	4.3	3.7	5.6	2.5	3.3
Total not living with family	13.0	11.8	15.8	6.4	17.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000's)	340.1	208.8	104.8	13.9	11,890.8

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.9

**Percentage of Aboriginal women and men aged 15 and over living off-reserve
having contact with health professionals in past 12 months, 2001**

	Aboriginal women	Aboriginal men
	%	
Percentage who have seen or talked on the telephone about their physical, emotional or mental health in the past 12 months with the following health professionals		
Family doctor or general practitioner	80	64
Dentist or orthodontist	56	48
Eye doctor (ophthalmologist, optometrist)	40	32
Nurse	28	22
Other medical doctor (such as a surgeon, allergist or orthopedist)	24	18
Social worker, counselor or psychologist	18	10
Chiropractor	14	12
Physiotherapist or occupational therapist	10	10
Traditional healer	8	4

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

Table 8.10

**Percentage of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over living off reserve
who smoke daily, by age and group, 2001**

	Total Aboriginal women	North American Indian women	Métis women	Inuit women	Total Canadian women
	%				
People aged					
15 to 19	39	38	34	62	19
20 to 24	39	38	42	70	24
25 to 34	41	40	44	62	22
35 to 44	42	42	42	64	25
45 to 64	36	38	34	48	21
65 and over	21	20	24	30	10
Total	39	38	38	60	20

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey and 2000/2001 Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 8.11

Highest level of schooling of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women and men aged 25 and over, 2001

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
Highest level of schooling				
Less than high school graduation certificate	40.1	44.1	29.2	28.2
High school graduation certificate only	9.1	9.0	15.3	12.4
Some postsecondary education	13.4	11.6	8.8	8.7
Trades certificate or diploma	11.3	18.9	8.4	16.0
College certificate or diploma	17.3	10.6	18.4	13.6
University certificate or diploma below bachelor's degree	2.2	1.2	3.2	2.3
University degree	6.6	4.5	16.6	18.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population 25 years and over	255,520	227,765	10,065,140	9,364,735

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.12

Percentage of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people employed, by age and group, 2001

	Total Aboriginal		North American Indian		Métis		Inuit		Total non-Aboriginal	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
People aged										
15 to 24	35.0	37.6	28.0	30.4	48.7	52.2	33.5	32.6	56.6	56.9
25 to 44	58.0	64.7	53.7	59.2	66.7	75.7	59.6	61.0	75.8	86.2
45 to 64	49.8	56.9	46.3	52.6	56.0	63.4	49.8	58.7	61.0	75.1
65 and over	5.6	10.6	5.4	9.1	6.0	12.9	10.3	15.5	4.8	13.0
Total	47.1	52.5	42.5	47.0	55.9	63.0	48.0	49.2	56.3	67.6

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.13

Occupational distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women and men, 2001

	Aboriginal people		%	Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
Sales and service	37.1	20.5		28.8	18.9
Business, finance and administration	22.9	5.3		27.9	9.1
Social science, education, government service and religion	15.0	4.9		10.9	4.9
Management	6.1	7.2		8.0	12.7
Health	6.0	1.0		8.9	2.1
Processing, manufacturing and utilities	3.3	8.5		5.0	8.8
Trades, transport and equipment operators and related	3.3	34.5		2.2	25.5
Art, culture, recreation and sport	2.5	2.1		3.3	2.4
Primary industry	2.2	11.5		2.1	6.1
Natural and applied sciences and related	1.6	4.6		3.0	9.6
Total	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.14

Unemployment rates of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal labour force participants, by age, 2001

	Aboriginal people		%	Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
People aged					
15 to 24	24.7	27.9		12.6	13.9
25 to 44	16.0	20.7		6.4	6.3
45 to 64	11.2	17.5		5.0	5.7
65 and over	10.1	14.2		5.9	4.5
Total aged 15 and over	16.7	21.4		7.0	7.2

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 8.15

Unemployment rates of Aboriginal women, by group and area of residence, 2001

	Total Aboriginal	North American Indian	Métis	Inuit	Total non- Aboriginal
On reserve	22	22	19	17	10
Off reserve	15	18	12	20	7
Census metropolitan areas	14	16	11	24	7
Other urban areas	17	21	13	18	8
Total urban areas	15	18	12	20	7
Rural	16	17	14	20	8
Total	17	19	12	20	7

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

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Chapter 9

Immigrant Women

By Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey

An increasingly diverse population

Diversity is one of the defining characteristics of Canadian society. Over the last two centuries, the linguistic, cultural and religious make-up of the country has significantly changed in the wake of various waves of immigrants, first, mostly from Europe; and more recently from a wider range of societies including many non-European countries.

The diversity that marks Canadian society has had a positive effect on the country as new skills and ways of looking at the world have been adapted from succeeding waves of newcomers. The diverse nature of the country, however, can also introduce tensions into the social fabric as different groups struggle to adjust to their new social milieu while at the same time trying to maintain their cultural identity in a rapidly changing environment.

In this scenario, it is very likely that foreign-born women face a particularly complex set of hurdles in their attempt to adapt to Canadian society. On the one hand, they have to cope with all the problems associated with adjusting to, what for many, may be a completely new lifestyle. At the same time, these women may also have to overcome many of the gender-related inequalities which women in Canada have traditionally experienced.

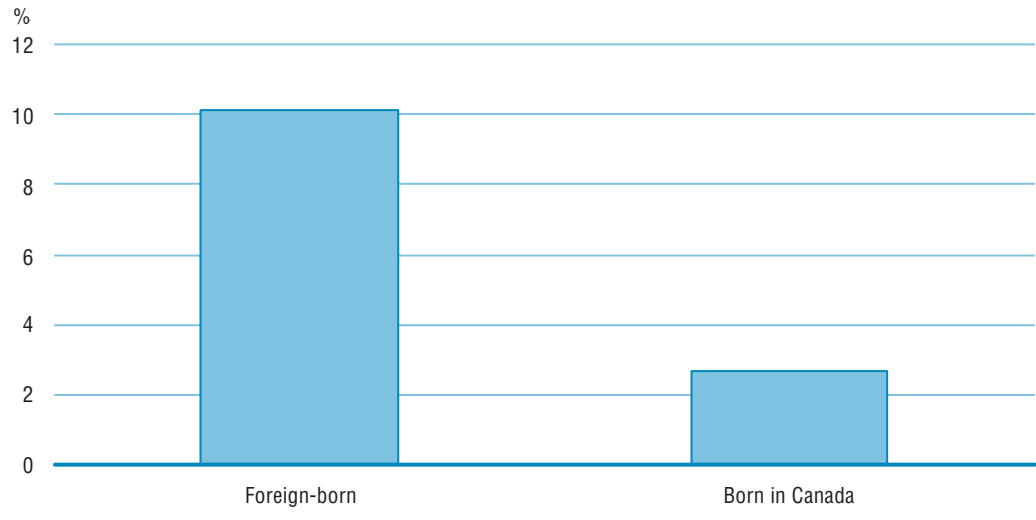
Foreign-born female population growing rapidly

Perhaps the most significant aspect of the growing diversity of Canadian society has been the large flow of new immigrants into the country in recent decades. Indeed, almost one in five females currently living in Canada was born outside the country. Overall, there were a total of 2.8 million foreign-born females living in Canada in 2001. Together, they made up 19% of the country's total female population that year.

In fact, the number of foreign-born females living in Canada has grown considerably more rapidly than the native-born female population in recent years. Between 1996 and 2001, for example, the foreign-born female population in Canada increased by 10%, almost four times faster than did the Canadian-born female population which grew by less than 3% per year in the same period. (Chart 9.1)

Chart 9.1

Growth rates of the foreign-born and native-born female populations, 1996 to 2001

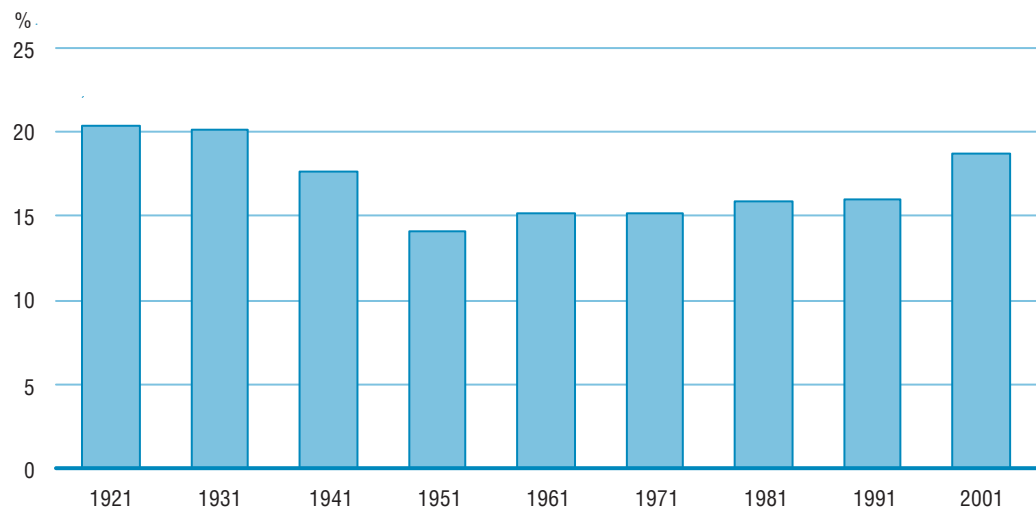


Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

As a result of this trend, the share of the female population accounted for by foreign-born women is currently the largest it has been in more than half a century. In 2001, females born outside the country represented 19% of all women living in Canada, up from 16% in 1991, and 14% in 1951. The share of the female population accounted for by those born outside the country, though, is still lower than in the 1920s and 1930s when over 20% of the female population in Canada was born outside the country. (Chart 9.2)

Chart 9.2

Foreign-born females as a percentage of the total female population, 1921 to 2001



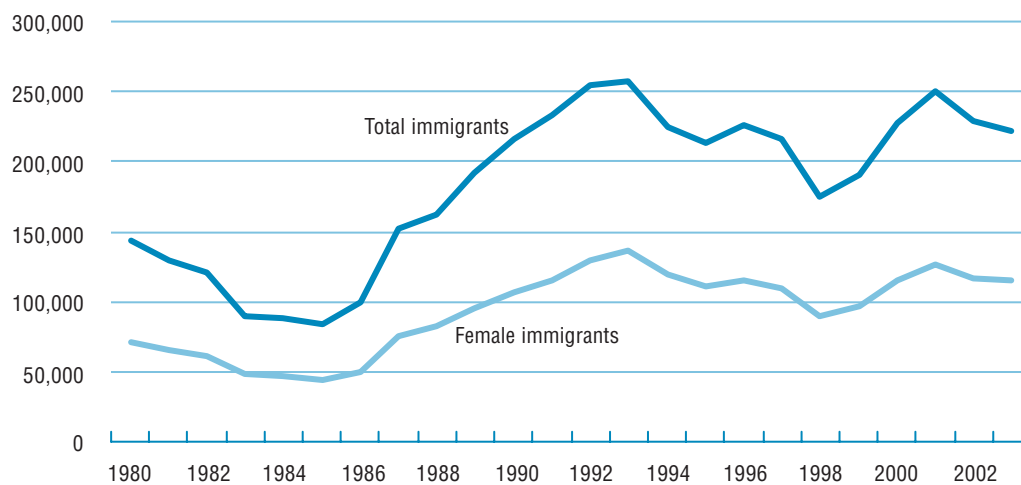
Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

Higher immigrant flows in the 1990s

The recent increase in the size of the foreign-born female population reflects, in part, the fact that immigration levels have been relatively high over the past decade. Since the early 1990s, for example, an average of almost 225,000 immigrants has been admitted to the country each year, compared with only about 126,000 per year during the previous decade. (Chart 9.3)

Chart 9.3

Total number of immigrants arriving in Canada between 1980 and 2003



Source: *Citizenship and Immigration Canada.*

It should be noted, though, that increases in the relative size of the foreign-born population also reflect a decline in the birth rate among those born in Canada in recent decades. In fact, immigration currently accounts for about half of all population growth in Canada. It is also projected that by the second decade of the new century all population growth will be the result of immigration.

Women comprise just over half of all people who immigrate to Canada. In the period 1994 to 2003, for example, a total of just over 1.1 million females were admitted to Canada as immigrants. These women made up 51% of all immigrants admitted to Canada in this period. (Table 9.1)

Immigration to Canada

The foreign-born population in Canada includes those who have landed-immigrant status, whether or not they have acquired Canadian citizenship. Note, though, that children born in Canada to immigrant parents are not included in the immigrant population.

The number of immigrants entering Canada each year is largely determined by government policies controlling admissions. Since the late 1970s, Canada's immigration policy has been guided by three broad objectives: (1) to reunite families, (2) to foster a strong and viable economy in all regions of Canada, and (3) to fulfil Canada's international legal

obligations and to maintain compassionate and humanitarian traditions with respect to refugees. These objectives are reflected in the primary categories under which people are admitted to Canada each year as permanent residents: family, economic, and refugee.

The family class of immigrants includes people sponsored to come to Canada by close relatives who are already living here. Economic immigrants include skilled workers and business immigrants, such as investors, entrepreneurs, and the self-employed, as well as spouses and dependants of these persons. Economic immigrants are selected for immigration on the basis of their labour market skills. Since 1967, skilled workers have been rated on a “point” system based on their age, education, training, occupational skills, demand for their occupation in Canada, existence of pre-arranged employment, and knowledge of English or French.

The refugee class includes people who are unable or unwilling to return to their home country because of fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership in a particular social group. As well, the refugee category includes people displaced by emergency situations and people whom Canada has recognized as being in a special class for humanitarian reasons.

It should also be noted that considerable caution should be exercised in comparing overall trends for the foreign-born population with those of the rest of the population. In particular, the assessment of causal factors will be difficult to impute because the data presented in this chapter have not been weighted to account for differences in key variables such as age and education.

Most women come to Canada with their spouse or family

The majority of females immigrating to Canada come with their family. Of all foreign-born females admitted to Canada in the decade between 1994 and 2003, 36% were considered family class immigrants, while another 37% came as the spouse or dependant of an economic immigrant. At the same time, just over one in 10 female immigrants arrived as an economic immigrant themselves, while another 10% were admitted as refugees.

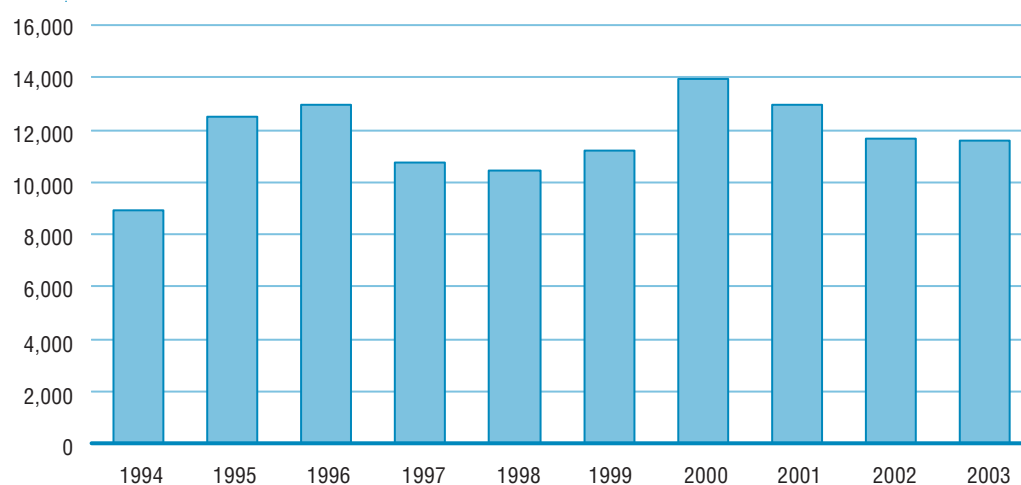
The number of women admitted to Canada as refugees, though, has declined slightly in recent years. In 2003, close to 11,600 female refugees were admitted to Canada, down from 13,000 in 2001 and 14,000 in 2000. The current number of female refugees admitted to the country, though, is higher than in the late 1990s when an average of fewer than 11,000 females were admitted to Canada as refugees each year. (Chart 9.4)

Female immigrants are also somewhat less likely than male immigrants to be admitted to Canada as refugees. In the decade between 1994 and 2003, 10% of female immigrants, versus 13% of male immigrants, were admitted to Canada for humanitarian reasons. (Table 9.1)

Female immigrants are also only about a third as likely to be admitted to Canada as the principal applicant in the economic class. In the period 1994 to 2003, for example, only 11% of female immigrants were so classified, compared with 33% of male entrants. In contrast, female immigrants are considerably more likely than males to be admitted to Canada as family members. Between 1994 and 2003, 72% of female immigrants came to Canada as either family class immigrants or spouses or dependents of economic class applicants, whereas this was the case for just over 50% of their male counterparts.

Chart 9.4

Females admitted to Canada as refugees, 1994 to 2003



Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Many are recent arrivals

The largest share of the foreign-born female population arrived here in the past decade. In 2001, there were almost 1 million foreign-born females living in Canada who had arrived in the country between 1991 and 2001. These recent arrivals made up 34% of all foreign-born females living in Canada that year. Indeed, foreign-born women who arrived here in the past decade made up 6% of the total female Canadian population. Of the remaining foreign-born female population, 19% had arrived here between 1981 and 1990, while 17% came in the 1970s, 14% came between 1961 and 1970, and 16% arrived before 1961. (Table 9.2)

Primary region of origin for immigrant females is changing

There has been an even more dramatic shift in the number of foreign-born females coming from different regions of the world in recent years. In fact, well over half (58%) of all female immigrants living in Canada in 2001 who arrived here in the 1990s came from Asia, including the Middle East, whereas this was the case for just 3% of those who arrived prior to 1961. There was a similar trend for female immigrants coming from Africa. Of all foreign-born female residents who arrived here in the past decade, 7% were from Africa, whereas this region accounted for less than 1% of those who arrived prior to 1961. (Table 9.3)

The share of female immigrants currently coming to Canada from both the Caribbean and Central and South America is also much higher than it was before 1961 when these areas accounted for less than 1% of female immigration. In contrast, women from the Caribbean made up 5% of all female immigrants to Canada who arrived between 1991 and 2001, while the figure was 6% for those from Central and South America. Neither of these latter figures, though, are highs for that particular region. Indeed, female immigrants from the Caribbean made up 11% of all female immigrants in the 1970s,

while the current figure for those from Central and South America is down somewhat from a high of 10% in the 1980s.

At the same time, there have been sharp declines in the shares of foreign-born females coming from traditional source regions such as the United Kingdom or other European countries. Indeed, just 19% of all immigrant females living in Canada in 2001 who arrived the previous decade were from either the United Kingdom or other European nation, whereas this was the case for 90% of immigrant women who had arrived before 1961.

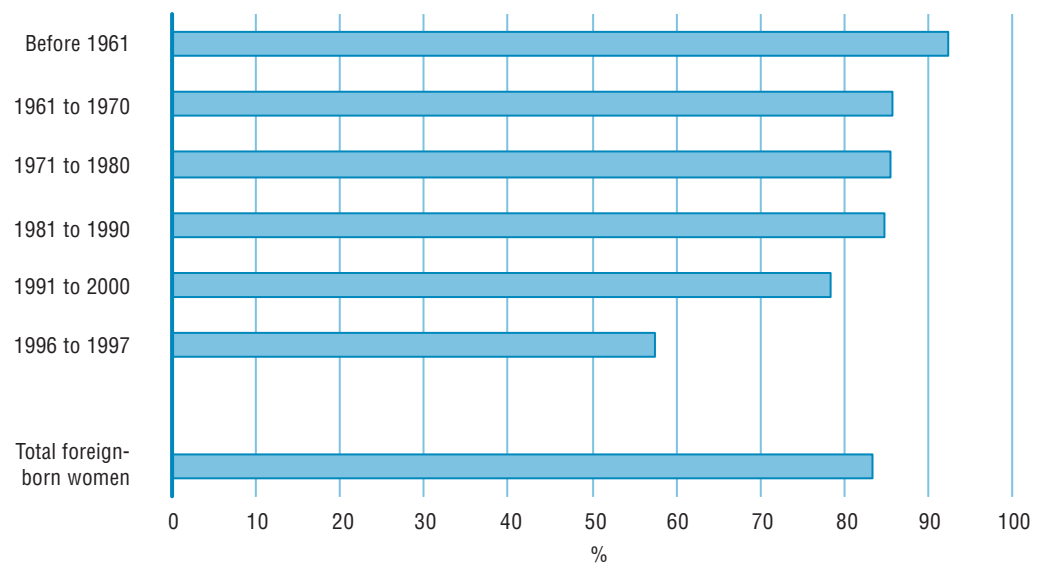
Despite these changes, the largest share of foreign-born females currently living in Canada is still European. Of all immigrant females living in Canada in 2001, 41% were from either the United Kingdom or other European country, while 36% were from Asia or the Middle East. At the same time, smaller shares originated in the Caribbean or Bermuda (6%), Central or South America (6%), Africa (5%) or the United States (5%).

Most become Canadian citizens

The vast majority of female immigrants to Canada have become citizens.¹ Indeed, by 2001, 83% of female immigrants eligible to have applied for citizenship had become naturalized Canadian citizens. (Chart 9.5)

Chart 9.5

Proportion of eligible female immigrants who have become naturalized Canadian citizens, by period of immigration, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Not surprisingly, immigrants who have resided in Canada for many years are more likely to have obtained Canadian citizenship than newer residents. More than nine out of 10 women who immigrated to this country before 1961 were Canadian citizens by 2001, along with 86% of those who arrived here between 1961 and 1980, and 85% of those who immigrated between 1981 and 1991. Still, well over half (58%) of women who had arrived in Canada as recently as 1996 and 1997 had become citizens by 2001.

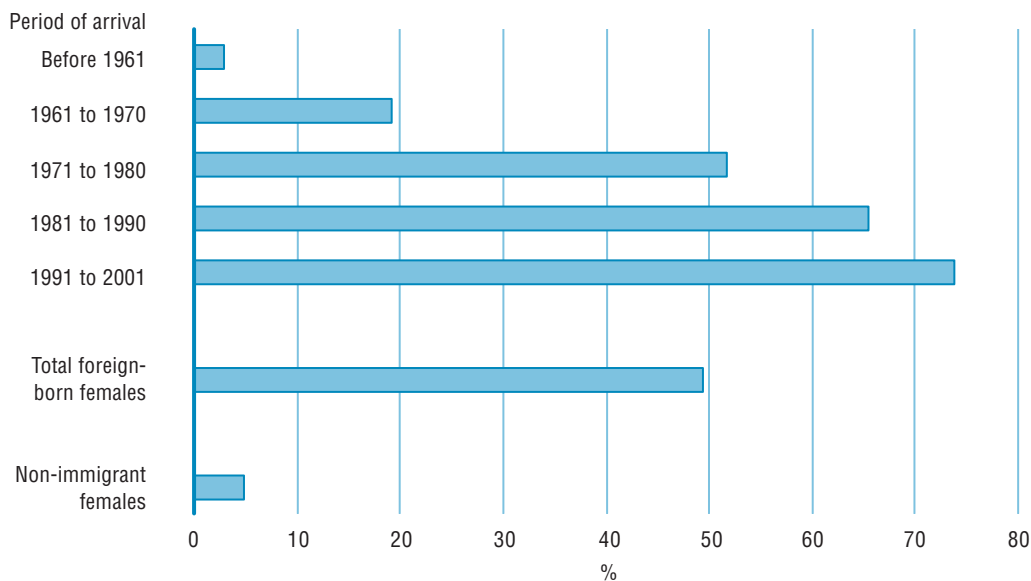
Female immigrants, however, are slightly less likely to have obtained Canadian citizenship than male immigrants. By 2001, 83% of all foreign-born women living in Canada who were eligible to apply for citizenship had done so, compared with 85% of all eligible immigrant men. Among recent immigrants, though, eligible women (58%) were about as likely as men (57%) to have obtained Canadian citizenship by 2001.

Many in a visible minority

Almost half the foreign-born female population in Canada is a part of a visible minority. Of immigrant women living in Canada in 2001, 49% were considered to be a visible minority.² That year, there were almost 1.5 million foreign-born women in a visible minority living in Canada. Together, they made up 9% of the total female population in Canada. (Chart 9.6)

Chart 9.6

Proportion of foreign-born women who are in a visible minority, by period of immigration, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Not surprisingly, given recent trends in the primary source countries of immigration to Canada, recent arrivals in Canada are far more likely to be part of a visible minority than those who have been in the country for longer periods. Indeed, almost three-quarters (74%) of foreign-born females who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2001 are visible minorities, whereas this is the case for only 19% of those who arrived here in the 1960s and just 3% of those who arrived in Canada before 1961.

A largely urban population

Immigrants to Canada tend to settle in the country's largest metropolitan areas. In 2001, for example, 62% of the foreign-born female population in Canada lived in Toronto, Vancouver, or Montreal. In contrast, these three urban areas were home to only 27% of

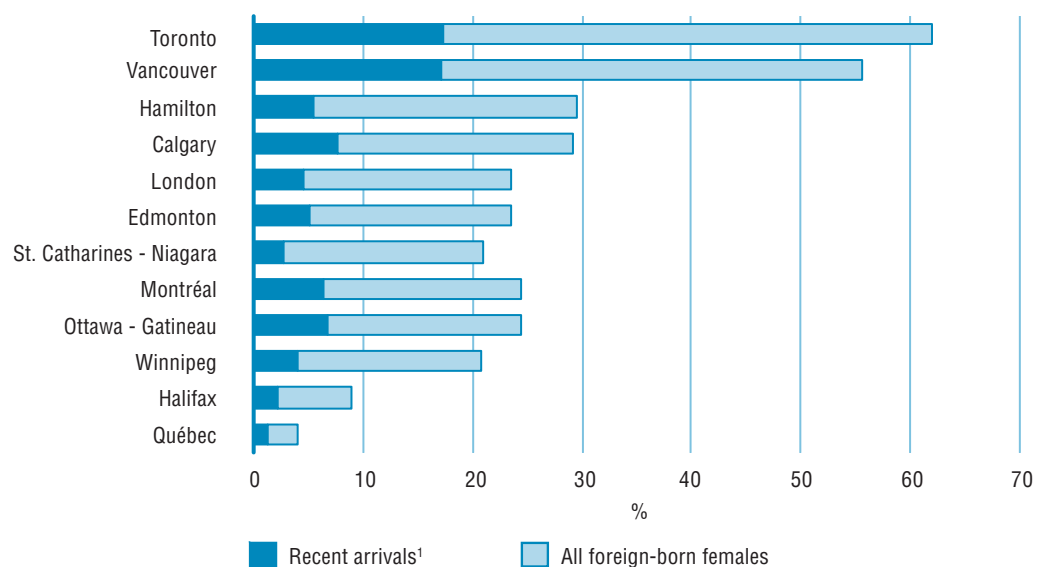
their Canadian-born counterparts. That year, 38% of all immigrant women lived in Toronto, while 14% resided in Vancouver and 11% made Montreal their home. (Table 9.4)

Recent arrivals are even more likely to be centred in one of these three urban areas. Indeed, 73% of foreign-born females who arrived in Canada in the last decade resided in the Toronto, Vancouver or Montreal metropolitan areas in 2001. That year, 43% of all foreign-born women living in Canada who arrived in the last decade made Toronto their home, while 18% resided in Vancouver and 11% lived in Montreal.

Foreign-born women make up particularly large shares of the overall female populations of both Toronto and Vancouver. In 2001, 45% of all female residents of Toronto, and 39% of those in Vancouver, were born outside the country. In fact, that year, 17% of all female residents of both Toronto and Vancouver were immigrants who had arrived in the country within the past decade. (Chart 9.7)

Chart 9.7

Foreign-born females as a percentage of the total female population in selected Census Metropolitan Areas, 2001



1. Includes those who arrived between 1991 and the first four months of 2001.

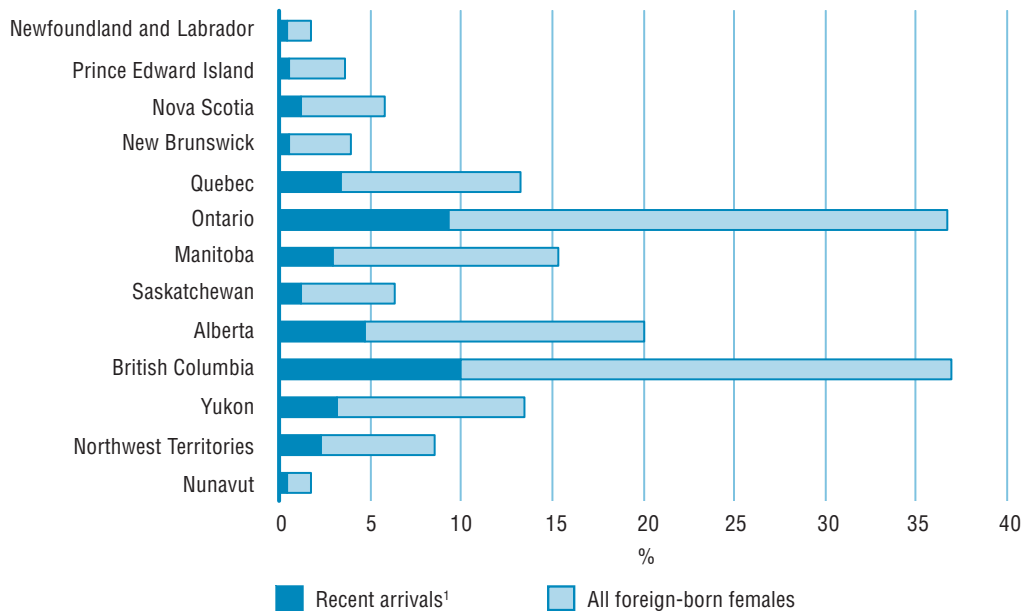
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Foreign-born females, though, also make up relatively large shares of the overall female population in several other major urban areas. In 2001, for example, 24% of female residents of Hamilton were born outside the country, while the figure was 21% in Calgary, 18% in each of Edmonton, Montreal and Ottawa-Gatineau, and 17% in Winnipeg.

The tendency for immigrants to settle in either Toronto or Vancouver is further reflected in the fact that foreign-born women also account for relatively large shares of the overall female populations of Ontario and British Columbia. Indeed, immigrants made up 27% of all female residents in both provinces in 2001. Immigrants also made up 15% of the female population of Alberta that year, while the figure was 12% in Manitoba and 10% in each of Quebec and the Yukon. In contrast, the figure was well under 10% in the remaining provinces and territories. (Chart 9.8)

Chart 9.8

Foreign-born females as a percentage of the total female population, by province and territory, 2001



1. Includes those who arrived between 1991 and the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

An older population

The foreign-born female population tends to be older, on average, than the overall female population in Canada. In particular, immigrant women are considerably more likely than their non-immigrant counterparts to be in their prime working years. In 2001, 67% of all foreign-born women were between the ages of 25 and 64, compared with 52% of native-born women. That year, roughly one in three (34%) immigrant women was aged 25 to 44, while another third (33%) was between the ages of 45 and 64. (Table 9.5)

Women born outside the country are also more likely than other women to be seniors. In 2001, 20% of all immigrant women in Canada were aged 65 and over, compared with 12% of their native-born counterparts. As with the overall population, women represent a disproportionate share of the foreign-born senior population. That year, women made up 54% of the immigrant population aged 65 and over living in Canada, although this was somewhat lower than the figure in the non-immigrant population in which 57% of seniors were women.³

In contrast, young people make up relatively small shares of the foreign-born female population. In 2001, just 14% of all immigrant females were under the age of 25, compared with 36% of their non-immigrant counterparts. That year, 6% of female immigrants, versus 22% of the non-immigrant female population, were under the age of 15, while 8% of female immigrants, compared with 14% of non-immigrants, were aged 15 to 24.

Most living with family members

The large majority of foreign-born women live with their families. Indeed, in 2001, 86% of immigrant women aged 15 and over were living in some form of family setting. That year, 59% were living with their husband, 3% were in a common-law relationship, 9% were lone parents, 10% were daughters living with their parents, and 5% were living with other relatives. (Table 9.6)

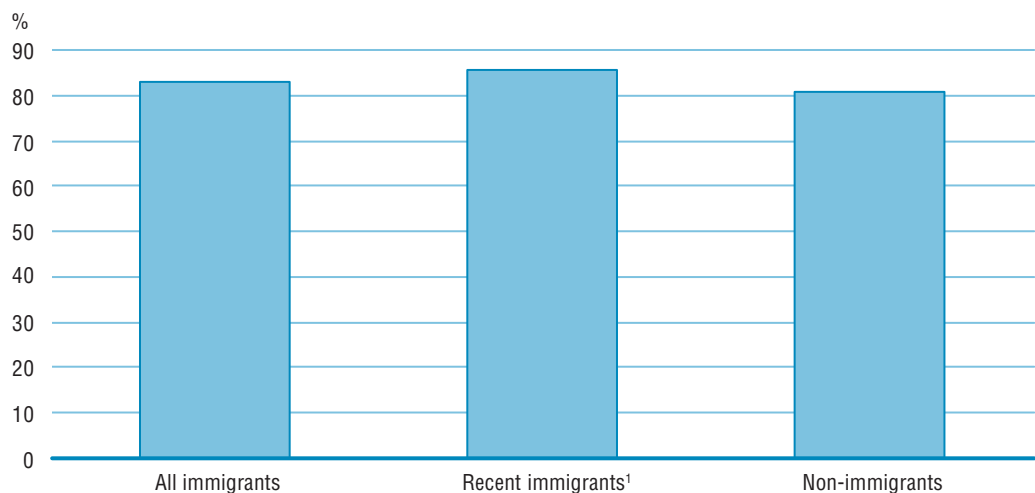
Foreign-born women, in fact, are somewhat more likely than those born in Canada to live with family members. In 2001, 86% of immigrant women aged 15 and over lived in some form of family setting, compared with 82% of other women in this age range. Foreign-born women were particularly more likely than their native-born counterparts, 59% versus 45%, to be living with their spouse. On the other hand, foreign-born women are much less likely than other women to be living in a common-law relationship. That year, 3% of women aged 15 and over born outside the country were partners in a common-law relationship, compared with 11% of other women.

Foreign-born women are slightly more likely than those born in Canada to be lone parents. In 2001, 9% of foreign-born women aged 15 and over were lone parents, about one percentage point higher than the figure for their Canadian-born counterparts. Among foreign-born women, though, recent arrivals to Canada are somewhat less likely to be lone parents than immigrant women who have been in the country for longer periods. That year, for example, 8% of immigrant women aged 15 and over who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2001 were lone parents.

As with their native-born counterparts, foreign-born women are much more likely than their male counterparts to be a lone parent. In 2001, women made up 83% of all lone parents born outside the country, a figure slightly higher than that in the non-immigrant population in which women made up 81% of all lone parents. Women make up an even greater share of lone parents among recent arrivals to Canada; that year, 86% of lone parents who had immigrated to Canada between 1991 and 2001 were female. (Chart 9.9)

Chart 9.9

Women as a percentage of lone parents, by immigrant status, 2001



1. Includes those who arrived between 1991 and the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Language profile changing

A substantial majority of the foreign-born female population in Canada has a mother tongue other than one of the two official languages. In 2001, 69% of all immigrant women aged 15 and over had a mother tongue, that is, the first language spoken and still understood, other than English or French. In contrast, English was the mother tongue of 28% of these women, while only 3% reported French was their mother tongue. (Table 9.7)

Again, in large part because of changes in the primary countries of origin of recent immigrants to Canada, new arrivals are somewhat more likely than those who have been in the country for longer periods to have a mother tongue other than English or French. In 2001, 83% of foreign-born women aged 15 and over who arrived in Canada in the previous decade had a mother tongue other than one of the two official languages, while the figure was 73% for those who arrived in the 1980s, and around 60% for those who arrived here before 1981.

While the majority of foreign-born women have a mother tongue other than English or French, almost all of these women can speak at least one of Canada's official languages. In 2001, 92% of foreign-born women aged 15 and over reported they could carry on a conversation in either English or French, or both. That year, 77% could conduct a conversation in English only, while 3% spoke French only and 11% were bilingual. At the same time, though, 8% of immigrant women could not conduct a conversation in either official language. (Table 9.8)

Not surprisingly, among foreign-born women, recent arrivals are somewhat more likely than those who have been in the country for longer periods to be unable to speak either English or French. In 2001, 12% of foreign-born women who arrived here between 1991 and 2001 were unable to conduct a conversation in either English or French, compared with 9% of those who arrived in the 1980s, 7% of those who arrived between 1971 and 1980, and less than 5% of those who arrived before 1971. Still, the large majority of even the most recent arrivals are able to speak English or French. That year, 88% of immigrant females who arrived in the past decade said they were able to carry on a conversation in at least one official language.

Foreign-born women are also somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to be unable to speak an official language. In 2001, 8% of all foreign-born women aged 15 and older could not conduct a conversation in either French or English, compared with 5% of immigrant men. Similarly, among those who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2001, 12% of women, versus 8% of men, were unable to speak either official language.

Senior immigrant women are particularly likely to be unable to speak either English or French. In fact, in 2001, 18% of foreign-born women aged 65 and over could not carry on a conversation in one of Canada's two official languages, whereas this was the case for only 8% of those aged 45 to 64 and 5% or less of those in younger age ranges. As well, senior immigrant women were also considerably more likely than their male counterparts, 18% versus 11%, to be unable to carry on a conversation in English or French that year. (Chart 9.10)

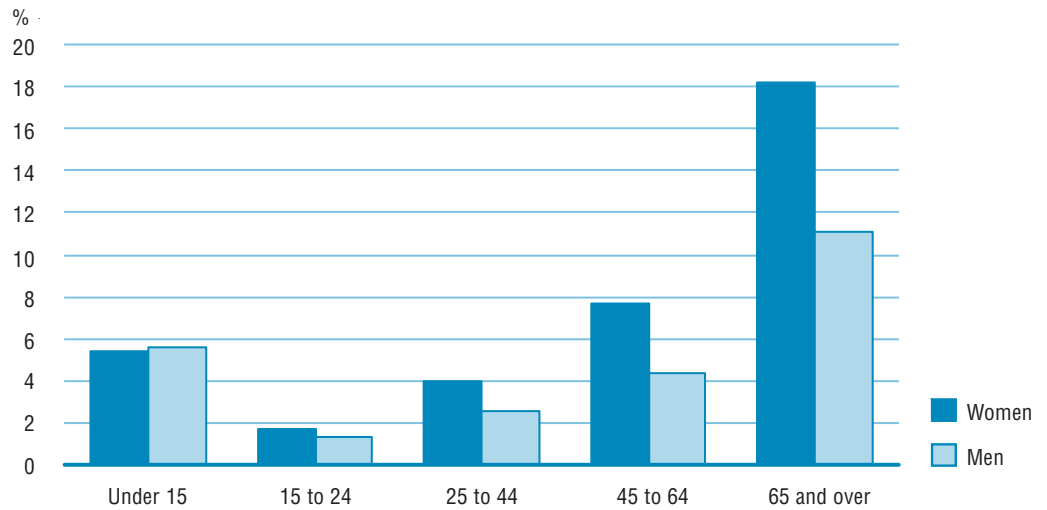
While the large majority of foreign-born women are able to speak at least one of Canada's official languages, a substantial proportion still speak a non-official language in their home. Indeed, in 2001, 47% of all foreign-born women aged 15 and over spoke a language other than English or French most often in their home. Again, recent arrivals were the most likely to speak a non-official language in their home. That year, 68% of immigrant women who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2001 spoke a language other than English or French most often in their home, whereas the figure among earlier



arrivals ranged from just over half (52%) of those who arrived in the 1980s to less than a quarter (23%) of those who had arrived before 1961. (Chart 9.11)

Chart 9.10

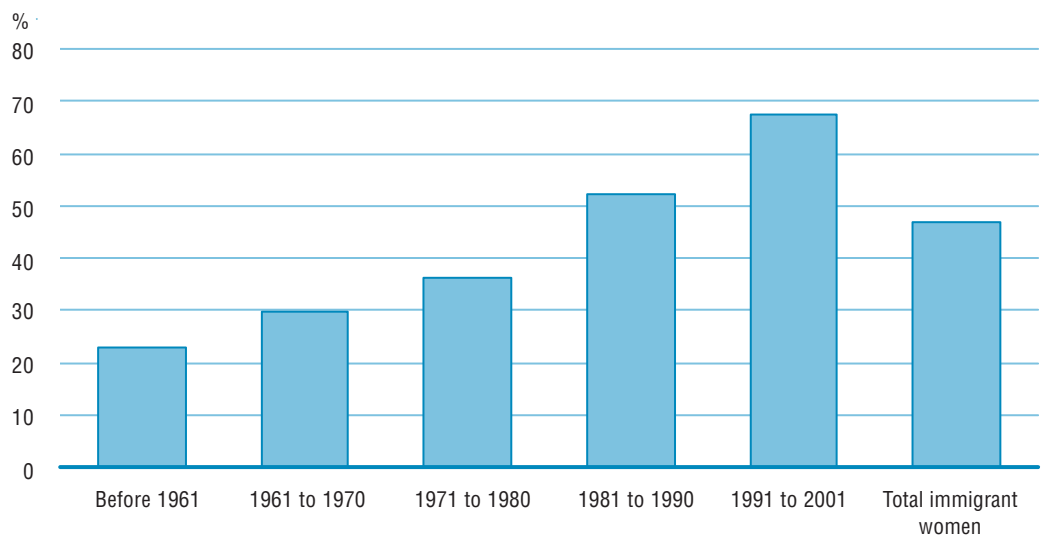
Percentage of the foreign-born population not able to speak English or French, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Chart 9.11

Percentage of foreign-born women speaking a non-official language most often at home, by period of immigration, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

A substantial minority of foreign-born women also speak a language other than English or French at work. In 2001, 6% of all employed immigrant women spoke a language other than one of the two official languages most often at work, while another 2% spoke another language in combination with English or French or both.

Foreign-born women highly educated

Women born outside Canada are more likely than their native-born counterparts to have completed university. In 2001, 18% of all foreign-born women had a university degree, compared with 14% of Canadian-born women. Immigrant women, though, have lower levels of formal education than immigrant men, 24% of whom had a degree that year. This contrasts with the Canadian-born population among which women are currently about as likely as men to have earned a university degree. (Table 9.9)

Foreign-born women are also more likely than other Canadian women to have an advanced university degree. In 2001, 6% of immigrant women had a Master's degree or an earned doctorate, compared with 4% of women born in Canada. Again, though, foreign-born women were considerably less likely than male immigrants to have an advanced degree. Indeed, that year, almost 10% of foreign-born men had post-graduate qualifications.

Among the foreign-born female population, recent arrivals are particularly likely to have university qualifications. In 2001, 26% of female immigrants who arrived in Canada in the previous decade had a university degree. Indeed, close to one in 10 of these women had graduated with a degree higher than the bachelor's level.

It should be noted, though, that data on the educational status of the foreign-born population do not take into account whether the highest level of formal training was completed before they came to Canada or once they arrived here. As well, those who had completed their educations prior to coming to Canada often experience some difficulties getting their credentials recognized upon arrival in Canada.

While a relatively large number of foreign-born women have postsecondary qualifications, almost one in three of these women never attended high school. In 2001, 33% of immigrant women aged 15 and over had not completed high school, a slightly higher figure than among non-immigrant women (31%). Immigrant women, though, were more likely not to have attended high school than their male counterparts, among whom the figure was 28%.

On the other hand, relatively few recent female immigrants have not attended high school. That year, 27% of foreign-born women aged 15 and over who arrived between 1991 and 2001 had not attended high school, compared with 33% of all immigrant women.

Young female immigrants likely to be attending school

A relatively large proportion of young female immigrants are attending school. In 2001, 83% of foreign-born females aged 15 to 19 were attending school on either a full or part-time basis, compared with 78% of their non-immigrant counterparts. Similarly, among 20 to 24-year-old females, 58% of those born outside Canada were in some form of educational program that year, versus 50% of those born in Canada. (Table 9.10)

Overall, young foreign-born women are about as likely as their male counterparts to be going to school. This contrasts with trends among the rest of the population where rates of school attendance are substantially higher among young women than they are for young men.

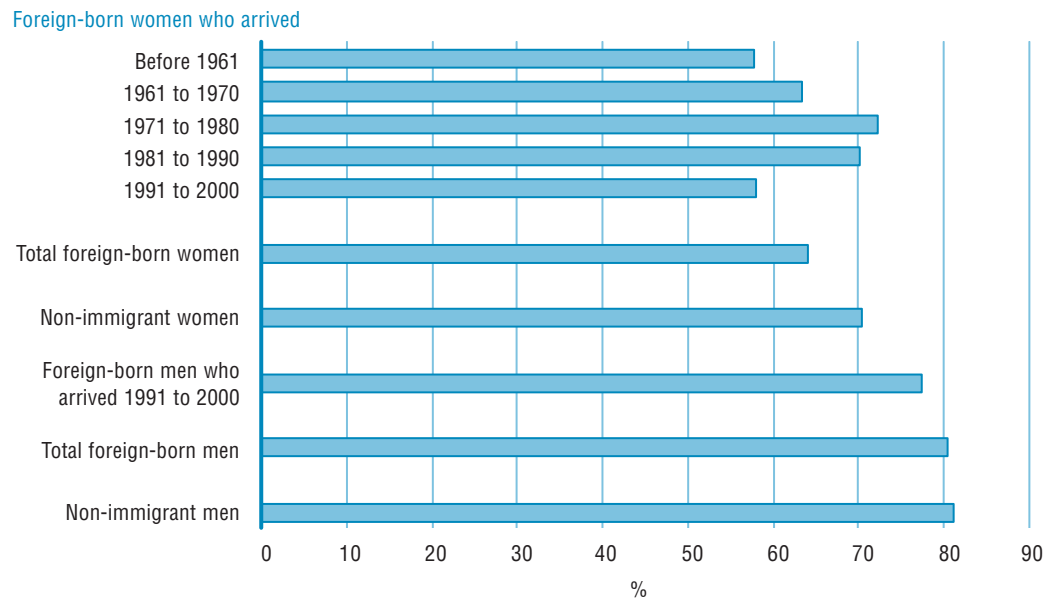


Less likely to be employed

While foreign-born women are generally better educated than their Canadian-born counterparts, those born elsewhere are less likely to be employed. Among women between the ages of 25 and 64, for example, only 64% of those born outside the country were part of the paid workforce in 2001, compared with 70% of non-immigrant women. As with other women, foreign-born women are also considerably less likely to be employed than their male counterparts, 80% of whom were part of the paid workforce that year. (Chart 9.12)

Chart 9.12

Percentage of foreign-born women aged 25 to 64 employed, by period of immigration, 2001¹



1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Among the foreign-born female population, recent arrivals in Canada are the least likely to be employed. Indeed, in 2001, just 58% of women between the ages of 25 and 64 who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2001 were part of the paid workforce, compared with around 70% or more of those who arrived here in the 1970s and 1980s and 63% of those who arrived in the country between 1961 and 1970.

As well, as with other women in Canada, a relatively large proportion of foreign-born women work on a part-time or part-year basis. In 2001, 47% of all employed immigrant women between the ages of 25 and 64 worked primarily on a non-standard schedule. This was slightly higher than the figure among their non-immigrant counterparts, 45% of whom worked on a largely part-time, part-year basis that year. Foreign-born women were also much more likely to have a non-standard work arrangement than immigrant men, just 34% of whom were employed on a primarily part-time, part-year basis that year. (Table 9.11)

Among immigrant women, the most recent arrivals are the most likely to work part-time. Indeed, in 2001, well over half (56%) of all employed foreign-born women

who arrived in the preceding decade worked on a primarily part-time basis, whereas this was the case for less than 45% of immigrant women who arrived here prior to 1991.

Concentrated in traditional female jobs

As with the overall female workforce in Canada, the majority of foreign-born female workers are concentrated in occupations traditionally held by women. In 2001, for example, 46% of all foreign-born women who participated in the paid workforce worked in either administrative or clerical jobs or in sales or service positions, although this was somewhat below the figure for Canadian-born women, 49% of whom were employed in these areas. In contrast, the share of immigrant women working in these types of jobs was almost double that for their male counterparts; that year, just 22% of employed foreign-born men had jobs in these areas. (Table 9.12)

Foreign-born women are over-represented among women employed in the manufacturing sector. In 2001, 11% of all employed women born outside Canada worked in manufacturing jobs, compared with just 4% of women born in Canada. In contrast, immigrant women tend to be underrepresented in the ranks of females employed in professional occupations in education, government, social services, religion, recreation, and culture, while they are about as likely as other women to be employed as professionals in the health sector or in management jobs. Foreign-born women, though, were less likely to be employed as managers than immigrant men. That year, 9% of employed immigrant women worked in management positions, versus 15% of foreign-born men.

Foreign-born women also make up a somewhat disproportionate share of women employed in occupations in the natural and applied sciences. In 2001, 4% of employed foreign-born women worked in these types of jobs, versus 3% of their counterparts born in Canada. Immigrant women, though, were still considerably less likely to work in these high-end jobs than their male counterparts, 14% of whom were employed in science-related jobs.

High unemployment rates

Foreign-born women have relatively high unemployment rates. In 2001, 8.1% of all female labour force participants born outside the country were classified as unemployed, compared with 7.0% of those born in Canada. Immigrant women are also somewhat more likely to be unemployed than male immigrants, among whom the figure was 6.8% that year. (Chart 9.13)

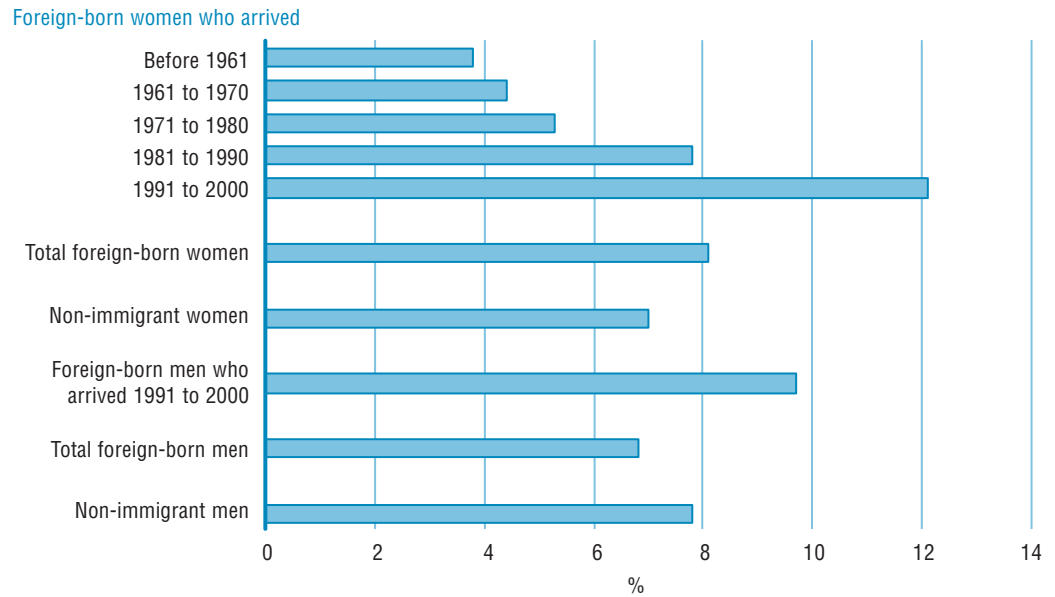
Among foreign-born women, recent arrivals are the most likely to be unemployed. Indeed, 12.1% of female labour force participants who immigrated to Canada in the past decade were unemployed in 2001, compared with 7.8% of those who arrived in 1981-1990 and 5% or less of those who came to Canada before 1981. The most recent female immigrant labour force participants are also considerably more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts, 9.7% of whom were unemployed in 2001.

As with the overall female population, young immigrant females are much more likely to be unemployed than their older counterparts. In 2001, 14.9% of foreign-born female labour force participants aged 15 to 24 were unemployed, compared with 8.9% of those between the ages of 25 and 44 and 5.7% of those aged 45 to 64. Young female immigrants also have a substantially higher unemployment rate than their counterparts born in Canada, 12.7% of whom were unemployed that year. On the other hand, there was almost no difference in the unemployment rates of young female and male immigrants. This contrasts with the situation among the non-immigrant population in which young women aged 15 to 24 are less likely than men in this age range to be unemployed. (Table 9.13)



Chart 9.13

Unemployment rates of foreign-born women, by period of immigration, 2001¹



1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 2001.
 Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Little difference in earnings

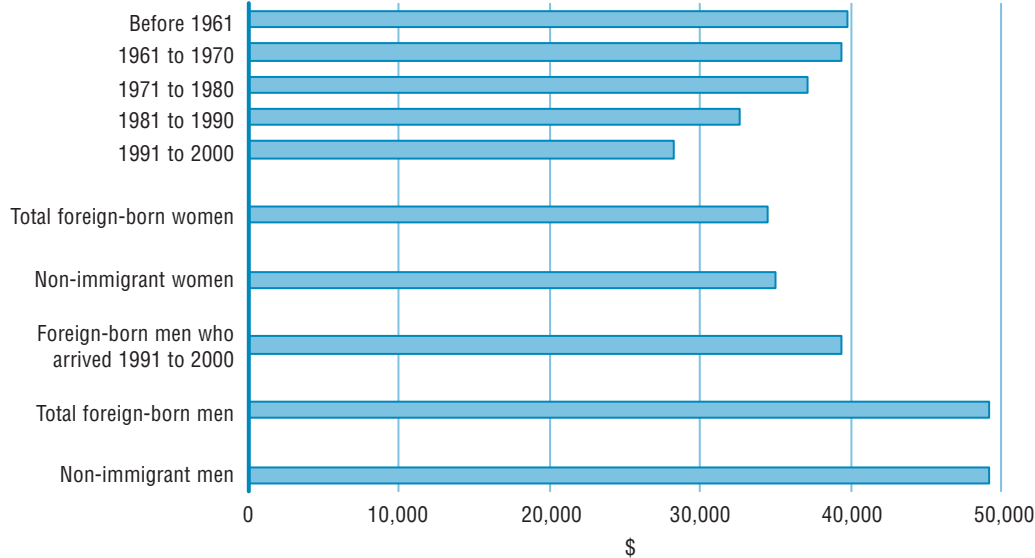
Immigrant women with jobs generally earn about the same as other women in Canada. Foreign-born women employed on a full-time, full-year basis in 2000, for example, earned an average of \$34,500, only about \$500 less per person than the figure for their Canadian-born counterparts. Like Canadian-born women, though, immigrant women earn considerably less than their male counterparts. That year, the earnings of foreign-born women employed on a full-time, full-year basis were just 70% those of their male counterparts, while the figure was 71% among the non-immigrant population. (Chart 9.14)

The average earnings of recently arrived immigrant women, however, are relatively low. Foreign-born women who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2000 averaged a little over \$28,000 for full-year, full-time employment in 2000, roughly 20% below the figures for both all immigrant and non-immigrant women. As with other women, however, the earnings of recently arrived foreign-born women were about 70% those of their male counterparts.

Chart 9.14

Average employment income of foreign-born women aged 15 and over who were employed full-year, full-time in 2000,¹ by period of immigration

Foreign-born women who arrived



1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Total incomes slightly less

Similar to trends in earnings, the average total income from all sources of foreign-born women is slightly lower than that of their Canadian-born counterparts. Among women aged 15 and over, those born outside Canada had an average income from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income and transfer payments, of \$22,400 in 2000. This compared with \$23,100 for those born in Canada. As with Canadian-born women, however, foreign-born women have considerably lower total incomes than immigrant men. In fact, the average income of female immigrants aged 15 and older was just 61% that of their male counterparts that year, about the same as the figure (62%) among the Canadian-born population. (Table 9.14)

As well, foreign-born women who arrived in Canada in the past decade have particularly low incomes. Indeed, women aged 15 and older who immigrated to Canada in the last decade had an average income of only \$16,700 in 2000, around \$6,000 less than the figure for both the overall female immigrant population, as well as Canadian-born women.

More dependent on transfer payments

Foreign-born women generally receive a slightly larger proportion of their total income from government transfer payments, including family allowances, employment insurance, and other types of social assistance, than their Canadian-born counterparts. In 2000, transfer payments accounted for 19% of the total income of female immigrants aged 15 and older, compared with 16% of that of females born in Canada. Foreign-born women also receive a larger share of their income from transfer payments than male immigrants, just 10% of whose income that year came from government sources. (Table 9.15)

Senior immigrant women receive a particularly large share of their income from government transfer payments. In 2001, 59% of the income of immigrant women aged 65 and over came from these sources, while the figure was 57% among Canadian-born senior women. Foreign-born women aged 25 to 44 also receive a somewhat higher share of their incomes from government assistance programs than their non-immigrant counterparts, whereas the opposite is the case among both those aged 15 to 24 and 45 to 64. As well, immigrant women under the age of 65 who arrived in Canada in the past decade also receive a particularly large share of their income in the form of government assistance, whereas this was not the case among recently-arrived senior women.³

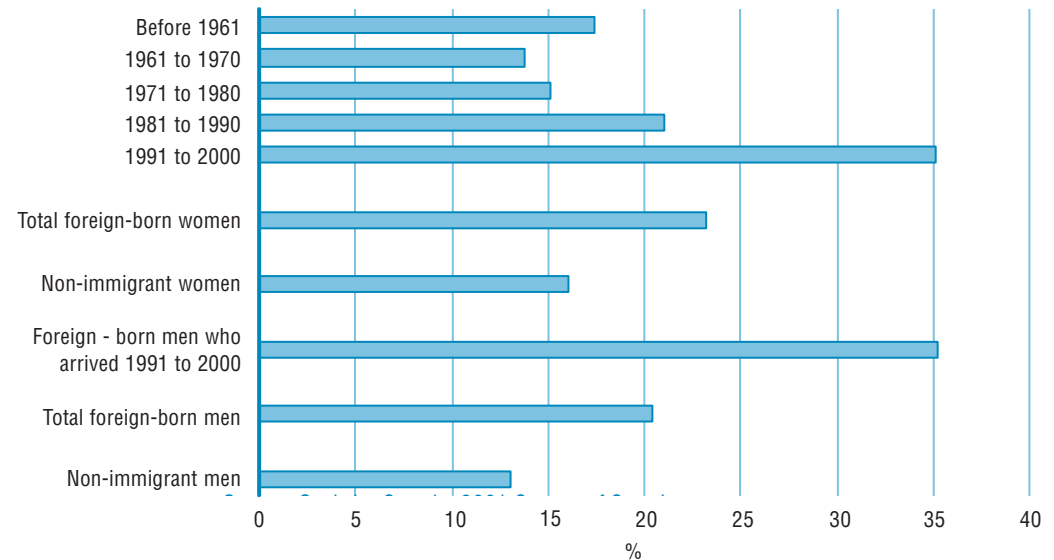
Many live in low-income situations

A relatively large proportion of the foreign-born female population in Canada have incomes which fall below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. In 2000, 23% of all foreign-born females lived in a low-income situation, compared with just 16% of their Canadian-born counterparts. Immigrant females were also more likely to be classified as living in a low-income situation than were male immigrants, 20% of whom were part of a low-income household that year. (Chart 9.15)

Chart 9.15

Proportion of the female foreign-born population living in a low-income situation, by period of immigration, 2000

Foreign-born women who arrived



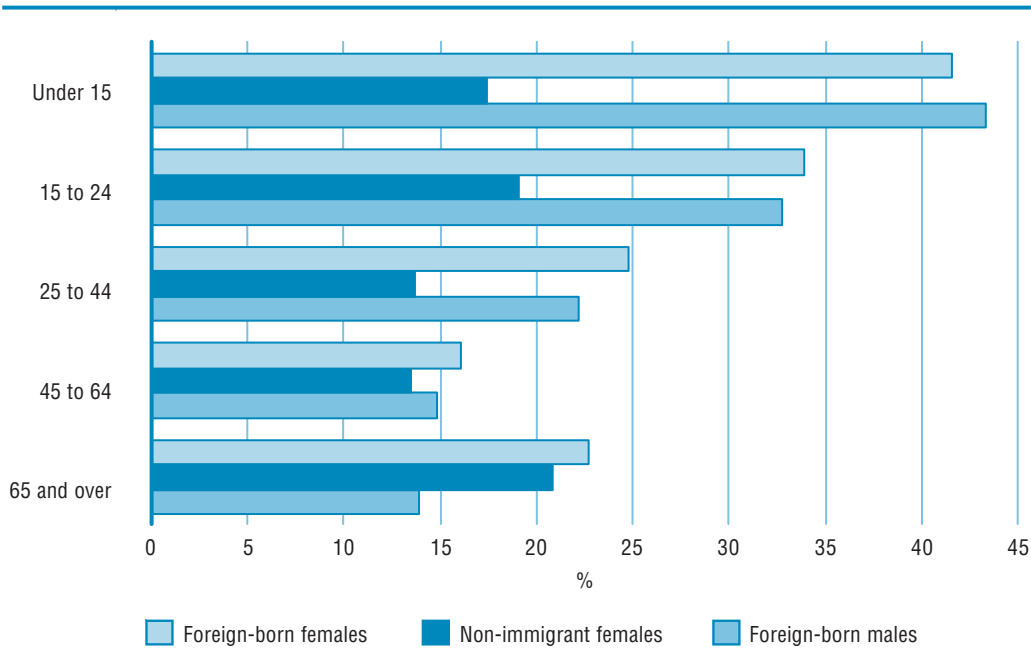
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Females who immigrated to Canada most recently are particularly likely to be living in a low-income situation. In 2000, 35% of females who immigrated here between 1991 and 2000 were living in a low-income household, compared with 21% of women who immigrated between 1981 and 1990, and fewer than two in 10 of women who arrived in Canada before 1981.

As well, among the female immigrant population, children are the most likely to live in a low-income situation. Indeed, in 2000, 42% of female immigrants under the age of 15 were living in a low-income household. This was well over twice the figure for their non-immigrant counterparts, 17% of whom were classified as living in a low-income situation that year. Young immigrant women aged 15 to 24, as well as those between the ages of 25 and 44, were also much more likely to be living in low income situations than were their non-immigrant counterparts that year, whereas there were much smaller gaps among those over the age of 45. (Chart 9.16)

Chart 9.16

Proportion of the population living in a low-income situation, by age, 2000¹



1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.



Notes

1. Immigrants who wish to become a Canadian citizen must apply for it. This process of obtaining citizenship is called naturalization. In order to apply for Canadian citizenship, immigrants must: be 18 years of age; be a legal permanent resident in Canada; have lived in Canada for three years out of the four years right before the day of application; be able to communicate in English or French; and, have knowledge of Canada, including the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
2. The female visible minority population is profiled in more detail in Chapter 10. The Employment Equity Act defines visible minorities as “*persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour*”. The visible minority population includes the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab/West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese, Korean and Pacific Islander.
3. More details on the foreign-born female senior population are provided in Chapter 12.

Table 9.1

Immigrants arriving in Canada, by immigrant class, 1994 to 2003

Immigrant class	1994 to 2003 ¹			
	Female		Male	
	Number	%	Number	%
Family class				
Immediate family	269,197	24.2	168,777	16.0
Parents and grandparents	131,352	11.8	98,238	9.3
Total family class	400,549	35.9	267,015	25.2
Economic class²				
Principal applicants in economic class	123,657	11.1	349,865	33.1
Dependants of principal applicants in economic class	417,396	37.4	264,264	25.0
Refugees ³	116,945	10.4	137,719	13.0
Other ⁴	41,558	3.7	22,956	2.2
Backlog and not stated	14,465	1.3	15,742	1.4
Total	1,114,570	100.0	1,057,561	100.0

1. Between 1994 and 2003, gender was unknown for 120 immigrants.

2. Includes skilled workers and business people, along with their dependants.

3. Includes government-assisted refugees, privately sponsored refugees, refugees landed in Canada (asylum), and dependants abroad.

4. Includes live-in caregivers and their dependants, deferred removal order and post-determination refugees, retirees, and provincial/territorial nominees.

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Table 9.2

The foreign-born female population, by period of immigration, 2001

	Total population	As a percent of all people in group	As a percent of all females in Canada	As a percent of all foreign-born females
Foreign-born females who arrived				
Before 1961	461,095	51.5	3.1	16.3
1961 to 1970	381,835	51.2	2.5	13.5
1971 to 1980	486,930	52.0	3.2	17.2
1981 to 1990	538,735	51.7	3.6	19.1
1991 to 2001 ¹	957,275	52.3	6.4	33.9
Total foreign-born females	2,825,870	51.9	18.7	100.0
Non-permanent residents	98,685	49.7	0.7	...
Non-immigrants	12,150,200	50.6	80.6	...
Total	15,074,755	50.9	100.0	...

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.3

Region of birth of female immigrants, by period of immigration, 2001

Region of birth	Period of arrival					Total
	1991 to 2001 ¹	1981 to 1990	1971 to 1980	1961 to 1970	Before 1961	
United States	2.9	4.6	7.4	6.7	4.8	4.8
Central and South America	6.4	9.9	6.8	2.4	0.7	5.7
Caribbean and Bermuda	4.9	7.4	10.6	6.2	0.8	5.9
Europe						
United Kingdom	2.2	5.9	13.0	21.9	26.8	11.4
Other Northern and Western Europe	3.0	4.4	5.9	11.7	26.8	8.8
Eastern Europe	9.3	9.6	3.3	5.2	15.1	8.7
Southern Europe	4.8	5.0	13.1	29.9	21.4	12.4
Total Europe	19.3	24.8	35.4	68.7	90.1	41.3
Africa	7.2	5.2	5.5	2.9	0.4	4.8
Asia						
West Central Asia and the Middle East	8.1	6.3	2.8	1.5	0.4	4.7
Eastern Asia	23.4	15.4	10.6	5.1	1.7	13.7
South-East Asia	11.5	16.0	11.3	2.4	0.3	9.3
Southern Asia	15.3	9.2	8.0	2.9	0.3	8.8
Total Asia	58.4	46.9	32.7	11.9	2.7	36.4
Oceania and other	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.2	0.4	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.4

The foreign-born female population in selected Census Metropolitan Areas, 2001

Census Metropolitan Areas	Immigrants							
	Arrived 1991 to 2001 ¹		Arrived before 1991		Total immigrants		Non-immigrants	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Toronto	413,510	43.2	647,060	34.6	1,060,570	37.5	1,288,390	10.6
Vancouver	171,495	17.9	214,790	11.4	386,285	13.7	600,160	4.9
Montreal	110,000	11.4	206,540	11.1	316,545	11.2	1,407,495	11.6
Calgary	36,335	3.8	64,995	3.4	101,340	3.6	366,505	3.0
Ottawa ²	33,125	3.4	53,510	2.9	86,635	3.1	315,370	2.6
Edmonton	24,260	2.5	61,095	3.3	85,350	3.0	378,840	3.1
Hamilton	18,630	1.9	61,950	3.3	80,590	2.9	251,770	2.1
Winnipeg	13,730	1.4	42,965	2.3	56,690	2.0	281,265	2.3
Kitchener	13,580	1.4	32,810	1.8	46,395	1.6	160,165	1.3
London	10,125	1.1	31,550	1.7	41,675	1.4	176,810	1.4
St. Catharines - Niagara	5,315	0.6	29,415	1.6	34,720	1.2	155,020	1.3
Windsor	12,185	1.3	22,470	1.2	34,655	1.2	118,845	1.0
Victoria	5,365	0.6	25,770	1.4	31,135	1.1	127,895	1.1
Oshawa	3,790	0.4	20,015	1.1	23,800	0.8	124,870	1.0
Abbotsford	5,330	0.6	11,040	0.6	16,385	0.6	56,380	0.4
Halifax	3,945	0.4	8,455	0.4	12,390	0.4	171,155	1.4
Other CMAs	18,650	1.9	45,915	2.4	64,545	2.3	1,213,920	10.0
Total CMAs	899,355	93.9	1,580,345	84.6	2,479,705	87.7	7,194,855	59.2
Total urban areas	930,645	97.2	1,733,365	92.8	2,664,015	94.3	9,291,435	76.4
Total rural areas	26,630	2.8	135,230	7.2	161,855	5.7	2,858,765	23.5
Canada	957,275	100.0	1,868,585	100.0	2,825,870	100.0	12,150,200	100.0

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

2. Does not include Gatineau, Quebec.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.5

Age distribution of the foreign-born female population, by period of immigration, 2001

	People aged				
	Under 15	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 64	65 and over
	%				
Foreign-born females who arrived					
Before 1961	1.3	36.9	61.7
1961 to 1970	18.8	56.6	24.6
1971 to 1980	...	1.6	34.7	49.7	13.9
1981 to 1990	2.2	14.1	46.6	26.4	10.6
1991 to 2001 ¹	15.1	15.4	47.6	16.4	5.4
Total foreign-born females	5.5	8.2	33.7	32.8	19.7
Non-immigrant females	21.6	14.0	29.7	22.6	12.1
Non-immigrant males	6.1	9.1	32.7	34.0	18.0
Foreign-born males	23.3	14.9	29.8	22.4	9.4

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.6

Family status of foreign-born women aged 15 and over, 2001

	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ¹	Non-immigrants
	%		
Living with family			
Wives	59.3	59.2	45.2
Common-law partners	3.4	3.0	11.2
Lone parents	9.4	8.2	8.5
Daughters living with parents	9.5	16.6	15.3
Living with extended family	4.8	5.6	2.0
Total living with family	86.4	92.6	82.2
Not living with family			
Living with non-relatives only	2.2	3.1	3.4
Living alone	11.3	4.4	14.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Refers to those who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2000 and the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.7

Mother tongue of foreign-born women aged 15 and over, by period of immigration, 2001

	English only	French only	Other ¹	Total
Foreign-born women who arrived				
Before 1961	36.8	2.3	61.0	100.0
1961 to 1970	40.6	3.3	56.0	100.0
1971 to 1980	37.7	3.4	58.9	100.0
1981 to 1990	24.5	2.8	72.7	100.0
1991 to 2001 ²	14.2	2.3	83.4	100.0
Total foreign-born women	28.2	2.8	69.0	100.0
Non-immigrant women	64.7	29.2	6.0	100.0
Foreign-born men who arrived 1991 to 2001	13.9	2.7	83.4	100.0
Total foreign-born men	26.3	3.0	70.7	100.0
Non-immigrant men	65.7	28.6	5.7	100.0

1. Includes non-official languages as well as multiple responses.

2. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.8

**Knowledge of official languages of foreign-born women aged 15 and over,
by period of immigration, 2001**

	English only	French only	Both English and French	Neither English nor French	Total
			%		
Foreign-born women who arrived					
Before 1961	85.4	2.0	9.3	3.2	100.0
1961 to 1970	78.7	3.0	12.6	5.7	100.0
1971 to 1980	77.6	3.6	12.3	6.5	100.0
1981 to 1990	74.2	4.2	12.5	9.0	100.0
1991 to 2001 ¹	74.3	3.9	9.6	12.2	100.0
Total foreign-born women	77.4	3.4	11.1	8.0	100.0
Non-immigrant women	62.8	16.0	21.2	0.1	100.0
Foreign-born men who arrived 1991 to 2001	78.0	3.1	11.3	7.6	100.0
Total foreign-born men	79.4	2.8	13.0	4.7	100.0
Non-immigrant men	64.5	13.4	22.0	0.1	100.0

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.9

**Highest level of education of foreign-born women aged 15 and over,
by period of immigration, 2001**

	Less than high school	High school graduation	Some post-secondary	University certificate or diploma	University with bachelor's degree	University with degree higher than bachelor's degree	Total with university degree	Total
Foreign-born women who arrived								
Before 1961	48.9	13.7	27.4	2.3	4.6	3.1	7.7	100.0
1961 to 1970	35.8	13.5	32.7	3.1	9.1	5.7	14.8	100.0
1971 to 1980	28.3	12.8	36.0	3.5	13.4	5.8	19.3	100.0
1981 to 1990	29.7	13.2	35.4	3.6	12.6	5.4	18.0	100.0
1991 to 2001 ¹	27.0	13.4	29.1	5.0	16.9	8.6	25.5	100.0
Total foreign-born women	32.8	13.4	31.8	3.7	12.2	6.1	18.3	100.0
Non-immigrant women	30.7	15.6	37.3	2.7	10.1	3.7	13.8	100.0
Total foreign-born men	27.8	10.6	34.8	3.2	13.8	9.7	23.5	100.0
Non-immigrant men	32.6	13.8	38.1	1.7	9.6	4.2	13.8	100.0

1. Includes only the first four months of 2001.
Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.10

**School attendance of foreign-born women aged 15 and over,
by period of immigration, 2001**

	People aged							
	15 to 19		20 to 24		25 to 44		45 and over	
	Total attending school ¹	Attending school full-time	Total attending school ¹	Attending school full-time	Total attending school ¹	Attending school full-time	Total attending school ¹	Attending school full-time
	%							
Foreign-born women who arrived								
Before 1961	7.3	1.4	1.6	0.3
1961 to 1970	10.0	2.4	2.6	0.4
1971 to 1980	53.7	42.7	13.2	4.5	4.1	0.8
1981 to 1990	81.3	78.0	62.3	52.2	13.7	4.9	4.4	1.1
1991 to 2001 ²	84.0	80.7	56.4	45.4	21.4	9.8	7.1	2.3
Total foreign-born women	83.2	79.8	58.2	47.5	16.9	7.0	3.4	0.8
Non-immigrant women	77.7	74.1	49.8	41.3	12.2	4.4	2.9	0.5
Total foreign-born men	82.4	79.4	57.9	47.2	14.8	6.5	2.9	0.7
Non-immigrant men	74.9	71.2	43.4	35.3	9.6	3.9	2.0	0.4

1. Refers to school attendance on either a full- or part-time basis.

2. Includes only the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.11

**Full- or part-time status of foreign-born women aged 25 to 64 who were employed
at some time in 2000, by period of immigration¹**

	Mainly full-time		Mainly part-time	
	Number	As a percent of total employed	Number	As a percent of total employed
Foreign-born females who arrived				
Before 1961	62,670	55.8	49,680	44.2
1961 to 1970	112,420	56.4	86,915	43.6
1971 to 1980	187,290	58.3	133,920	41.7
1981 to 1990	167,820	55.8	133,180	44.2
1991 to 2000	173,545	43.7	223,145	56.3
Total foreign-born females	703,760	52.9	626,830	47.1
Non-immigrant females	2,680,945	54.8	2,214,635	45.2
Foreign-born males	994,525	65.9	513,905	34.1
Non-immigrant males	3,762,220	69.0	1,687,980	31.0

1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.12

Occupational distribution of employed¹ foreign-born women aged 25 to 64, 2001

Occupation	Women			Men		
	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ²	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ²	Non-immigrants
	%					
Manager	8.8	6.8	9.0	14.9	11.6	14.3
Business and finance professionals	5.1	4.4	5.1	3.3	2.9	3.0
Administrative and clerical	21.3	17.6	25.5	6.0	6.4	6.1
Natural sciences professions	4.4	7.0	2.8	13.6	18.4	9.3
Health professions	9.1	7.3	10.1	2.7	2.1	2.1
Social science, education, government, religion and other professions	11.9	10.3	16.0	8.4	7.4	8.9
Sales and service	24.8	27.9	23.2	16.1	17.4	14.8
Trades and transport	2.4	2.6	2.3	22.9	18.7	28.2
Primary	1.4	1.5	2.0	2.2	1.9	6.1
Processing and manufacturing	10.7	14.4	3.8	11.2	14.3	8.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Includes people who were employed in the week prior to the census.

2. Includes those who arrived in the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.13

Unemployment rates, by age and immigrant status, 2001

Age groups	Women		Men	
	Immigrants	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Non-immigrants
15 to 24	14.9	12.7	14.8	14.2
25 to 44	8.9	6.1	6.9	6.6
45 to 64	5.7	4.9	5.3	6.1
Total¹	8.1	7.0	6.8	7.8

1. Includes people aged 65 and over.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.14

Average total income¹ of foreign-born women aged 15 and over, by age, 2000

People aged	Women			Men		
	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ²	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ²	Non-immigrants
	\$					
15 to 24	8,624	7,985	9,128	10,254	9,309	11,440
25 to 44	23,816	18,945	27,043	36,617	30,737	41,489
45 to 64	26,013	17,256	27,050	45,435	28,303	47,437
65 and over	18,708	13,248	19,753	29,523	18,494	31,321
Total aged 15 and over	22,415	16,667	23,079	36,577	26,201	37,017

1. Refers to income from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income, and government transfer payments.

2. Refers to those who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2000.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 9.15

Government transfer payments as a proportion of total income of foreign-born women aged 15 and over,¹ 2000

	People aged				
	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 64	65 and over	Total 15 and over
	%				
Foreign-born women who arrived					
Before 1961	...	4.9	8.3	54.9	34.0
1961 to 1970	...	6.2	7.8	57.0	16.7
1971 to 1980	8.7	7.6	6.2	65.9	12.2
1981 to 1990	8.7	10.5	8.0	72.8	14.6
1991 to 2000	11.1	14.4	12.1	64.0	16.4
Total foreign-born women	10.0	10.8	7.9	58.6	18.5
Non-immigrant women	10.6	9.3	8.1	56.8	15.6
Total foreign-born men	6.1	3.7	4.2	42.0	10.1
Non-immigrant men	6.6	3.7	5.0	40.9	8.3

1. Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 2001.

Chapter 10

Women in a Visible Minority

By Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey

A growing population

Visible minority women make up a diverse and growing population in Canada, in large part because of increasing immigration from countries outside Europe.¹ Indeed, in 2001, there were over 2 million females in Canada who reported they belonged to a visible minority group, up from 1.6 million in 1996 and just 800,000 in 1986.

In recent years, the female visible minority population in Canada has grown at a much faster rate than the number of women not in a visible minority. Between 1996 and 2001, for example, the number of visible minority females increased by 25%, whereas the non-visible minority female population rose by only 1%. In fact, the growth in the number of visible minority women in the past five years accounted for over three-quarters of the growth in the overall female population in Canada in this period.

This chapter provides information on women in a visible minority as defined for employment equity purposes. The Employment Equity Act defines visible minorities as “persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour.” The visible minority population includes the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab, West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese, and Korean.

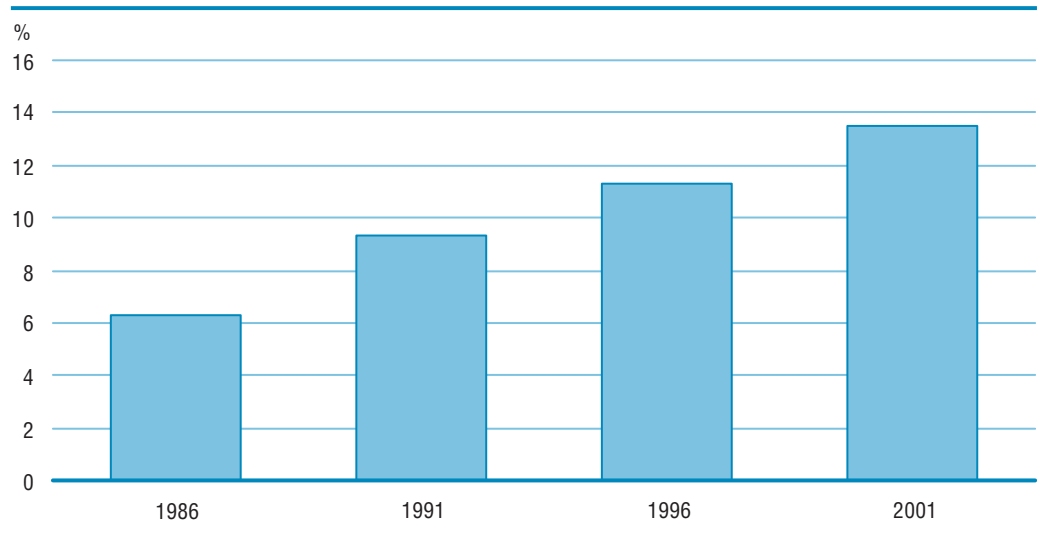
Data presented in this chapter are primarily from the 2001 Census of Canada. It should be noted, however, that these data have not been adjusted to account for differences in age, period of immigration, or other characteristics of visible minority and other women in Canada. As a result, some caution should be exercised in making conclusions based on comparisons between groups.

Visible minority women, of course, share many experiences with other women in this country; however, they may also have very different characteristics from non-visible minority females. Some visible minority women, for example, may be doubly disadvantaged, encountering barriers not only because of their gender but also because of their visible minority status.

As a result of these trends, visible minority females account for an increasing share of all females living in Canada. In 2001, 14% of all females living in Canada belonged to a visible minority group, compared with 11% just five years earlier and only 6% in 1986. (Chart 10.1)

Chart 10.1

Visible minorities as a percentage of the female population in Canada, 1986 to 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.

As with the overall population, females make up the majority of visible minorities in Canada. In 2001, 51% of all those who identified themselves as being a member of a visible minority group were female, about the same share of the total Canadian population accounted for by women.

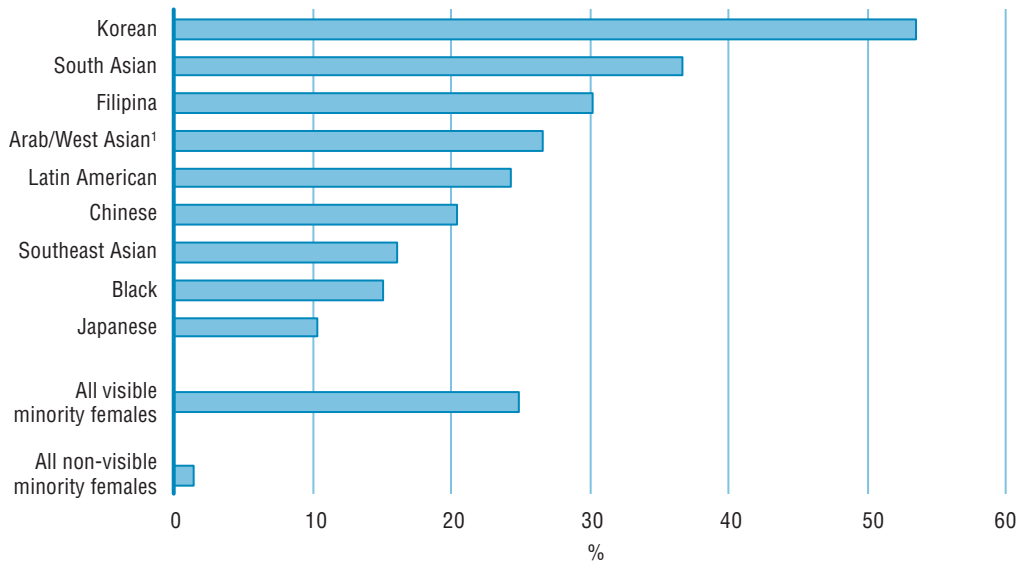
From many different backgrounds

Chinese, South Asians and Blacks make up the largest female visible minority groups in Canada. In 2001, 26% of females reporting they were in a visible minority were Chinese, while 22% were South Asian, and 17% were Black. At the same time, 9% of visible minority women were Filipinas, while smaller shares were accounted for by Latin Americans (5%), Southeast Asians (5%), Arabs (4%), West Asians (3%), Koreans (3%) and Japanese women (2%). In addition, another 3% were part of other smaller visible minority groups, while 2% belonged to more than one visible minority group. (Table 10.1)

There has also been substantial growth in most of these female visible minority groupings in recent years. Between 1996 and 2001, for example, the number of Korean females living in Canada rose by 54%, while there was a 37% increase in the number of South Asian females. At the same time, there were increases of 30% among Filipinas, 27% among Arab and West Asian females, 24% among Latin Americans, and 20% among Chinese women. In contrast, there was somewhat smaller growth in the number of Southeast Asian (16%), Black (15%) and Japanese (10%) females in this period. Even these increases, however, were well above that for the non-visible minority female population, which grew by just 1% in this period. (Chart 10.2)

Chart 10.2

**Percentage increase in the number of visible minority females,
by group, 1996 to 2001**



1. In 1996, Arabs and West Asians were grouped together; in 2001 they were counted separately.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Censuses of Canada*.

There is also considerable variation in the share of the individual visible minority populations accounted for by females. Filipinas, for example, made up 58% of all Filipinos living in Canada in 2001, while the figure was 55% among the Japanese population and 52% among both Blacks and Koreans. On the other hand, females made up less than half the Arab, West Asian, and South Asian communities in Canada. (Table 10.1)

Most are foreign born

The majority of visible minority women living in Canada were born outside the country.² In fact, 69% of visible minority females living in Canada in 2001 were foreign-born, while 28% were born in Canada. The remaining 3% were non-permanent residents, such as those who hold a student or employment authorization or a Minister's permit, as well as refugee claimants. Non-permanent residents, though, can apply for landed immigrant status and become immigrants to Canada. (Table 10.2)

As well, the largest share of foreign-born female visible minorities are recent arrivals in Canada. Indeed, half of female visible minority immigrants living in Canada in 2001 arrived here between 1991 and 2000, while 25% came in the 1980s and 18% landed here between 1971 and 1980. In contrast, just 5% of foreign-born visible minority females currently living in Canada arrived here in the 1960s and only 1% had immigrated prior to 1961.

Female West Asians are particularly likely to be recent immigrants to Canada. Almost 60% of these women living in Canada in 2001 arrived here between 1991 and 2000. Recent immigrants, though, also made up relatively large shares of the Arab (42%), Korean (42%), Chinese (40%), Filipina (40%), South Asian (37%) and Latin American (34%) female populations. In contrast, Southeast Asian women, 26% of whom had immigrated to Canada in the past decade, along with Black (22%) and Japanese (13%) women were somewhat less likely to have arrived in Canada over the course of the past decade.

A highly concentrated population

Three out of four visible minority females live in either Ontario or British Columbia. In 2001, 54% of the female visible minority population in Canada lived in Ontario, while 21% resided in British Columbia. That year, females in a visible minority made up 22% of the overall female population of British Columbia and 19% of that of Ontario. At the same time, women in a visible minority made up 11% of the female population of Alberta, 8% of that of Manitoba, and 7% of that of Quebec, while the figure was 5% or lower in the remaining provinces and territories. (Table 10.3)

As well, within Ontario and British Columbia, visible minority women are centered largely in Toronto and Vancouver. Indeed, in 2001, 62% of all female visible minorities in Canada resided in one of these two metropolitan areas, whereas Toronto and Vancouver accounted for only 17% of the total non-visible minority female population of Canada. That year, 37% of all female residents of both cities were part of a visible minority. (Table 10.4)

Female visible minorities, though, also make up a relatively large share of the overall female population in most major urban centres in Canada. In 2001, for example, women in a visible minority represented 18% of the overall female population of Calgary, along with 17% of that in Ottawa,³ 15% in Edmonton, 13% in Montreal and 12% in Winnipeg. In fact, 95% of all female visible minorities in Canada reside in one of the country's census metropolitan areas, whereas these urban centers account for only 60% of their non-visible minority counterparts.

There are, however, divergent settlement patterns for the different female visible minority groups within the various major metropolitan areas across Canada. The female visible minority community in Vancouver, for example, is largely Chinese or South Asian, while Blacks, Arabs and West Asians make up almost half of that in Montreal. The female visible minority population in Toronto, on the other hand, includes relatively large numbers of women in most of the various groups.

A relatively young population

The female visible minority population in Canada is somewhat younger, on average, than the overall female population. In 2001, for example, 23% of the female visible minority population was under the age of 15, compared with 18% of non-visible minority females. Similarly, 15% of female visible minorities were aged 15 to 24, while women in this age group made up just 13% of the non-visible minority female population. Women in the prime working age category between the ages of 25 and 44 also make up a disproportionate share of the female visible minority population. That year, 35% of all female visible minorities, versus 30% of their non-visible minority counterparts, were aged 25 to 44. (Table 10.5)

In contrast, visible minority women are only about half as likely as other women to be seniors. In 2001, 7% of the female visible minority population was aged 65 or over, compared with 14% for their non-visible minority counterparts. Similarly, just 20% of visible minority women were aged 45 to 64, compared with 25% of other women.

As with the overall population, however, women make up the large majority of visible minority seniors in Canada. In 2001, 55% of all visible minority people aged 65 and over were women, while the figure was 56% among the non-visible minority population.

There are also noticeable differences in the age structure of the various female visible minority groups. Arab and Black females, for example, tend to be younger, on average, than their counterparts in other visible minorities. In 2001, close to three out of ten of both Arab and Black females were under the age of 15, compared with fewer than two in ten Japanese, Chinese, Korean, and Filipino females. In contrast, close to 40% of Filipino, Latin American, Southeast Asian and West Asian women were aged 25 to 44, whereas this was the case for only 32% of Black females.

On the other hand, Japanese and Chinese women are more likely to be seniors than women in other visible minority groups. In 2001, 13% of Japanese women and 10% of Chinese women were aged 65 or older, whereas seniors made up 5% or less of the Southeast Asian, Korean, Arab, West Asian, and Latin American female populations.

As with the overall population, though, women make up the majority of seniors in most of the different visible minority groups. Indeed, in 2001, more than 60% of Filipino, Latin American, and Black seniors were women. The exceptions to this pattern were Arab and West Asian seniors, only about half of whom were female.

Family status varies by visible minority group

Visible minority women are somewhat more likely than their non-visible minority counterparts to live with their families. In 2001, 90% of female visible minorities aged 15 and older were living with their husband, common-law spouse, unmarried children, parents or other relatives, compared with 82% of non-visible minority women. (Table 10.6)

Women in a visible minority are also generally more likely than other women to be living with their spouse. In 2001, just over half (51%) of visible minority women aged 15 and over were living with their spouse, versus 48% of their non-visible minority counterparts. On the other hand, visible minority women are considerably less likely than other women to live in a common-law relationship. That year, just 3% of visible minority women aged 15 and over were living with a common-law partner, compared with 10% of non-visible minority women.



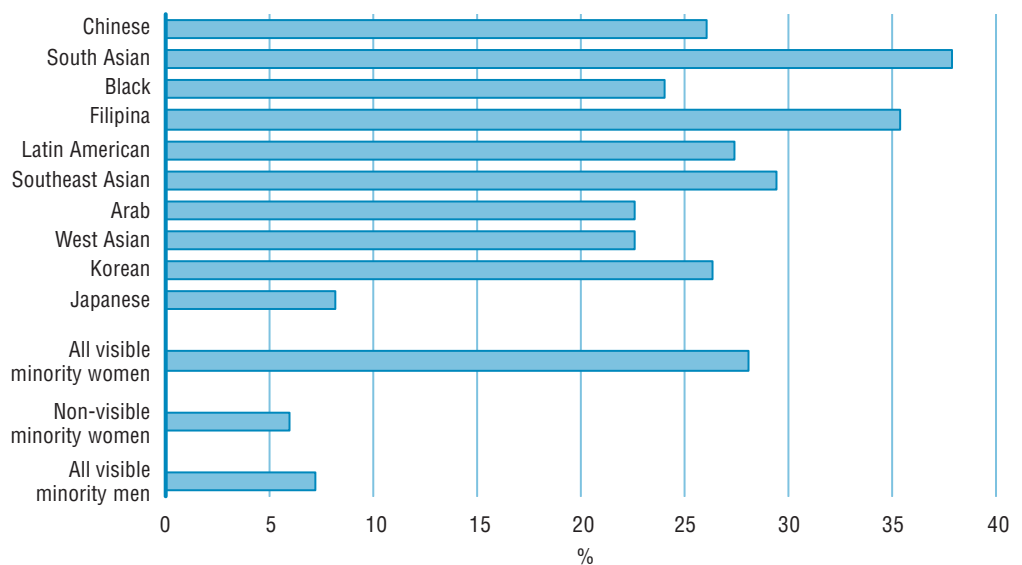
Visible minority women are slightly more likely than other women to be a lone parent. In 2001, 10% of visible minority women aged 15 and over were lone parents, compared with 8% of their non-visible minority counterparts. As with the overall population, though, women make up large majority of lone parents in the visible minority community. That year, 85% of all visible minority lone parents were female, while in the non-visible minority population, women made up 81% of lone parents.

Among visible minority women, Blacks are by far the most likely to be lone parents. In 2001, 24% of Black women aged 15 and over were lone parents, whereas in the other visible minority groups the figure ranged from 15% among Latin Americans to just 5% among Korean women.

There are even sharper differences in the family arrangements of senior visible minority women and their non-visible minority counterparts. In particular, senior visible women are much more likely than other senior women to live with members of their extended family. In 2001, 28% of senior visible minority women, versus 6% of other senior women, were living with members of their extended family. (Chart 10.3)

Chart 10.3

Percentage of visible minority women aged 65 and over living with members of their extended family, 2001

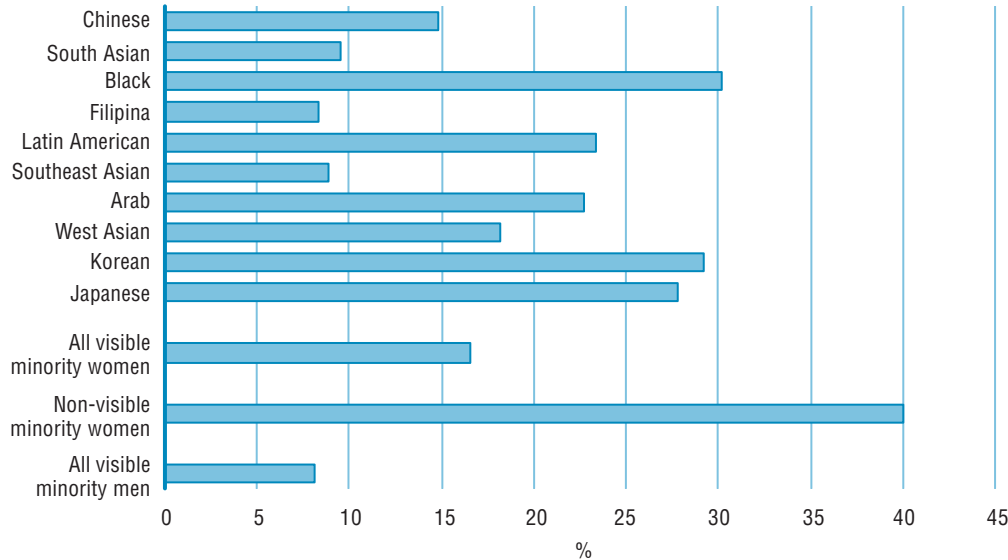


Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

In contrast, senior visible minority women are considerably less likely than other senior women to live alone. In 2001, just 17% of visible minority women aged 65 and older were living alone, compared with 40% of non-visible minority senior women. (Chart 10.4)

Chart 10.4

Percentage of visible minority women aged 65 and over living alone, by group, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Senior South Asian women are particularly likely to live with extended family members. As of 2001, 38% of these women aged 65 and older were living with family members other than their spouse, unmarried children, or parents, as were 35% of senior Filipinas. In contrast, just 8% of senior Japanese women lived with their extended family that year, while the figure was around 25% among senior women in each of the other visible minority groups.

At the same time, senior Black, Korean and Japanese women are the most likely to live alone. In 2001, close to 30% of women aged 65 and over in each group lived by themselves, whereas this was the case for less than 10% of senior South Asian and Southeast Asian women, as well as Filipinas aged 65 and over.

Most speak English or French

The vast majority of females in a visible minority speak one of Canada's official languages. Indeed, in 2001, 90% of all visible minority females reported that they could carry on a conversation in at least one of English or French.⁴ That year, 76% spoke English only, while 3% spoke French only and 10% were bilingual. At the same time, though, 10% of visible minority females could not conduct a conversation in either official language. (Table 10.7)

Among the visible minority population in Canada, women are more likely than men not to be able to speak either English or French. In 2001, 10% of female visible minorities reported they could not speak either official language, compared with just 6% of their male counterparts.

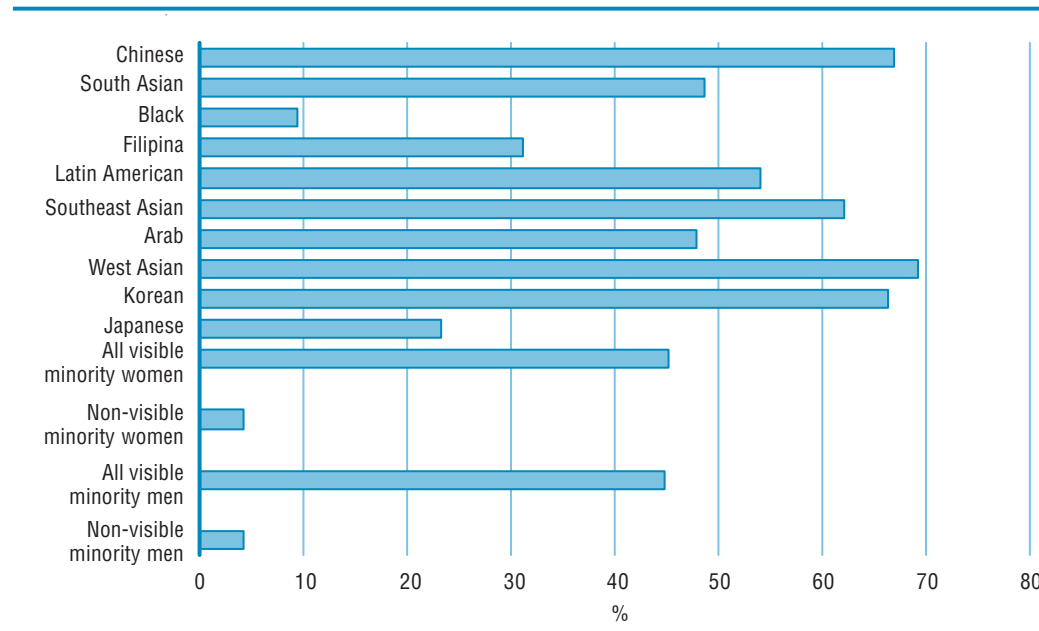
Among the various visible minority groups, Chinese women are the most likely to report that they can not speak an official language. In 2001, 20% of Chinese females

indicated that they could not carry on a conversation in either English or French, while the figure was 15% among Southeast Asian women and 14% among Koreans. In contrast, just 1% of each of Filipinas and Black females were unable to speak one of Canada's official languages.

While the large majority of visible minority females can carry on a conversation in one of Canada's official languages, a substantial number still speak a language other than English or French in their homes. In 2001, 45% of all female visible minorities spoke a non-official language in their home. (Chart 10.5)

Chart 10.5

Percentage of visible minority women speaking a non-official language at home, by group, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

West Asian, Chinese and Korean women are the most likely to speak a non-official language at home. In 2001, 69% of West Asian females, along with 67% of Chinese and 66% of Korean women, spoke a language other than English or French in their home, while the figure was 62% among Southeast Asian females. At the same time, roughly half of Latin American (54%), South Asian (49%) and Arab (48%) women spoke a non-official language in their home, whereas this was the case for only 31% of Filipinas, 23% of Japanese women and just 9% of Black females.

A well-educated population

The female visible minority population in Canada is relatively well educated. As of 2001, 21% of visible minority women aged 15 or older had a university degree, compared with 14% of other women. Visible minority women, though, were somewhat less likely to have a university degree than their male counterparts, 26% of whom had at least a bachelor's degree that year. (Table 10.8)

Visible minority women also make up a somewhat disproportionate share of Canadian women with advanced degrees. In 2001, visible minority women made up

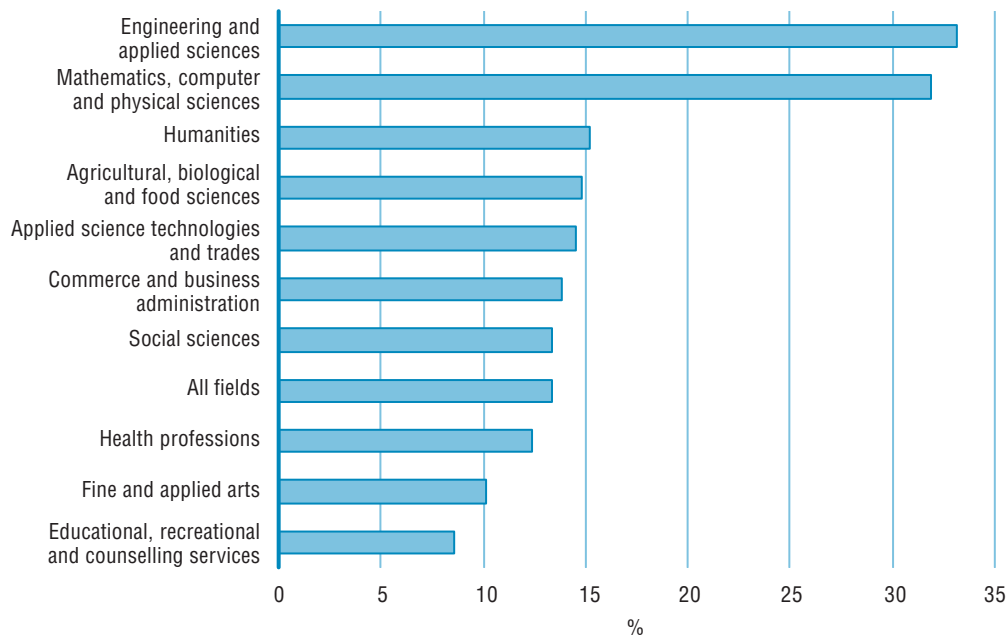
18% of all women with a Master's degree and 17% of those with an earned Doctorate, whereas they represented only 13% of the total female population aged 15 and over.

Among visible minority women, Filipinas and Koreans are the most likely to have a university degree. In 2001, 34% of Korean women aged 15 and older and 33% of Filipinas in this age range had a university degree, while the figure was around one in four for each of Japanese (26%), West Asian (25%), Chinese (24%) and Arab (24%) women. In contrast, just 14% of Latin American women, along with 11% of both Black and Southeast Asian females, were university graduates. However, while relatively few Black and Latin American women have a university degree, a substantial share of females in both these groups have some form of non-university postsecondary qualifications such as a college diploma.

Visible minority women with postsecondary qualifications are also generally more likely than their non-visible minority counterparts to have training in highly technical fields. In 2001, women in a visible minority made up almost a third of all women with postsecondary qualifications in both engineering and the applied sciences (33%) and mathematics, computer science and the physical sciences (32%). In contrast, female visible minorities made up 15% or less of all women with postsecondary qualifications in all other fields. (Chart 10.6)

Chart 10.6

Women in a visible minority as a percentage of all women with postsecondary training, by field of study, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Visible minority women, though, are considerably less likely than their male counterparts to have postsecondary qualifications in highly technical fields. In 2001, those with training in either engineering and applied sciences, mathematics, computer and physical sciences made up 10% of all female visible minorities with postsecondary qualifications, compared with 27% of men. In contrast, women in a visible minority were three times more likely than their male counterparts to have postsecondary

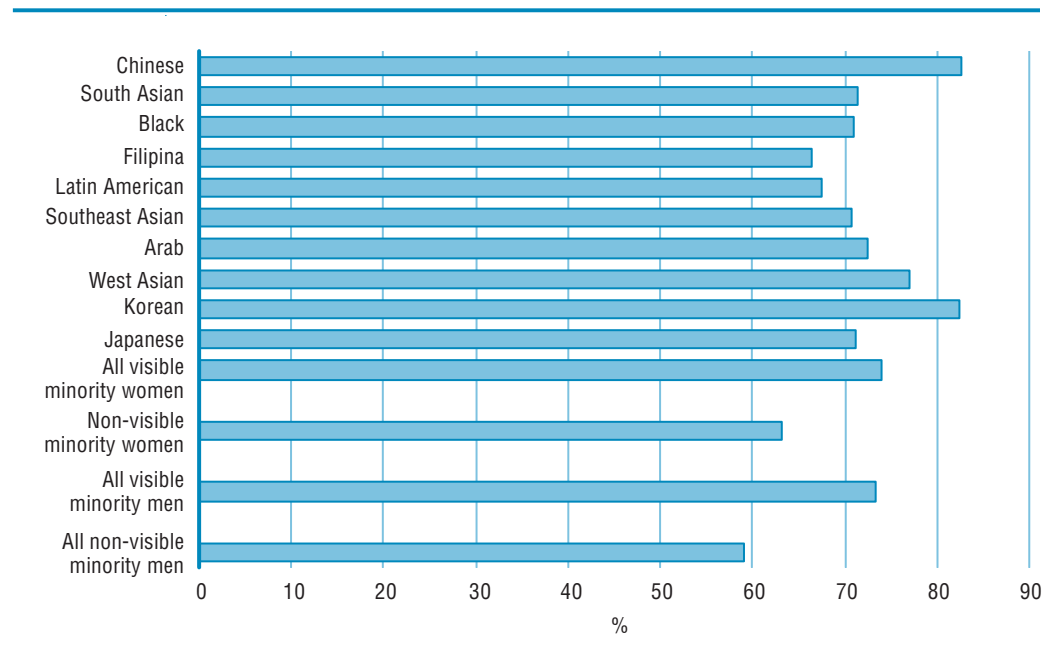
qualifications in educational, recreational and counselling services, while they were considerably more likely to have training in the health professions and related technologies, as well as in the humanities and fine and applied arts.

Many attending school

The gap between the educational attainment levels of women in a visible minority and other women is likely to persist in the future as young visible minority females are more likely than their non-visible minority counterparts to be attending school. In 2001, 74% of visible minority females aged 15 to 24 were attending school on either a full- or part-time basis, compared with 63% of other females in this age range. (Chart 10.7)

Chart 10.7

Percentage of visible minority females aged 15 to 24 attending school, by group, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Young visible minority women are also about as likely as male visible minorities to be enrolled in an educational program. In 2001, close to three out of four of both visible minority women aged 15 to 24 (74%) and their male counterparts (73%) were going to school on either a full- or part-time basis. This contrasts with the situation for other young people aged 15 to 24, among whom females (63%) were somewhat more likely than males (59%) to be going to school that year.

Young Chinese, Korean and West Asian women are particularly likely to be in school. Of women aged 15 to 24 in 2001, 83% of Chinese, 82% of Koreans, and 77% of West Asians were enrolled in some educational program on either a full- or part-time basis, while the figure for the remaining groups ranged from 72% for Arabs to 66% of Filipinas.

Less likely to be employed

While visible minority women are better educated, on average, than other Canadian women, they are somewhat less likely to be employed. In 2001, 63% of all visible minority women aged 25 to 64 were either paid employees or were self-employed, compared with 70% of non-visible minority women in this age range. (Table 10.9)

Most of the difference in the employment rates of visible minority and other women is accounted for by those aged 25 to 44. In 2001, 66% of visible minority women in this age range were part of the paid workforce, compared with 77% of their non-visible minority counterparts. In contrast, visible minority women aged 45 to 64 were only slightly less likely to be employed that year than non-visible minority women in this age range: 59% versus 61%.

As with non-visible minority women, women in a visible minority are considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. In 2001, 63% of visible minority women between the ages of 25 and 64 were employed, compared with 79% of visible minority men in this age range.

Among the various visible minority groups, Filipinas are the most likely to be employed. In 2001, 79% of Filipinas between the ages of 25 and 64 were employed as were 70% of Black women. In contrast, less than half of both West Asian (49%) and Arab (44%) women in this age range were part of the paid workforce.

Higher unemployment rates

Visible minority women are generally more likely to be unemployed than other women. In 2001, 8.9% of female visible minority labour force participants were unable to find work, compared with 5.6% of non-visible minority women. (Table 10.10)

Visible minority women are also more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts. In 2001, 8.9% of female visible minority labour force participants were considered to be unemployed, whereas the figure was 7.4% among visible minority men. This situation contrasts with that of the non-visible minority population in which women were slightly less likely than men to be unemployed that year: 5.6% versus 6.2%.

As with the overall population, unemployment rates for visible minority females are particularly high among younger women. Indeed, in 2001, 15.4% of female visible minority labour force participants aged 15 to 24 were unemployed, compared with 9.8% of those aged 25 to 44 and 7.3% of those aged 45 to 64. In all three age groups, however, visible minority women were considerably more likely to be unemployed than their non-visible minority counterparts. Visible minority women over the age of 25 were also more likely to be unemployed than male visible minorities, whereas visible minority females aged 15 to 24 were less likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts.

There is also considerable variation in unemployment rates among women in the different visible minority groups. Of female labour force participants aged 25 to 64 in 2001, for example, 16% of both West Asians and Arabs were unemployed, while the figure in the remaining groups ranged from 11% among Latin Americans to around 5% for Japanese women and Filipinas.



Majority employed in administrative, clerical, sales, and service jobs

For the most part, the occupational distribution of visible minority women is similar to that for all Canadian women. Indeed, in 2001, just over half of all employed females, whether in a visible minority or not, worked in either sales or service jobs or in business, clerical and related administrative occupations. That year, 51% of all employed visible minority women, and 52% of their non-visible minority counterparts, were employed in these types of jobs. In contrast, this was the case for only 31% of visible minority men and 24% of other men. (Table 10.11)

Visible minority women are also about as likely as other women to occupy management positions. In 2001, 7% of employed visible minority women and 8% of those not in a visible minority held management positions. Both visible and non-visible minority women, though, were considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed in management.

At the same time, visible minority women make up a disproportionate share of women employed in occupations in the natural and applied sciences. In 2001, female visible minorities represented 19% of all women employed in these sectors, whereas they made up 13% of all women who were part of the paid workforce that year. On the other hand, employed visible minority women were somewhat less likely than other women, 23% versus 28%, to be employed in other professional occupations.

Visible minority women are also about three times more likely than other women to be employed in manufacturing and related jobs. Of those who worked for pay or profit in 2001, 12% of visible minority women were employed in manufacturing jobs, compared with just 4% of other women. Southeast Asian women, roughly one in four of whom was employed in this sector in 2001, were particularly likely to be employed in manufacturing jobs.

Many work part time

Like their non-visible minority counterparts, the majority of employed visible minority women work a non-standard schedule. In 2001, for example, 55% of all visible minority women who were part of the paid workforce worked on either a part-time or part-year basis, as did 52% of all other women. In contrast, the majority of employed visible minority men worked full-time that year, while only 46% were employed on a part-time or part-year basis. (Chart 10.8)

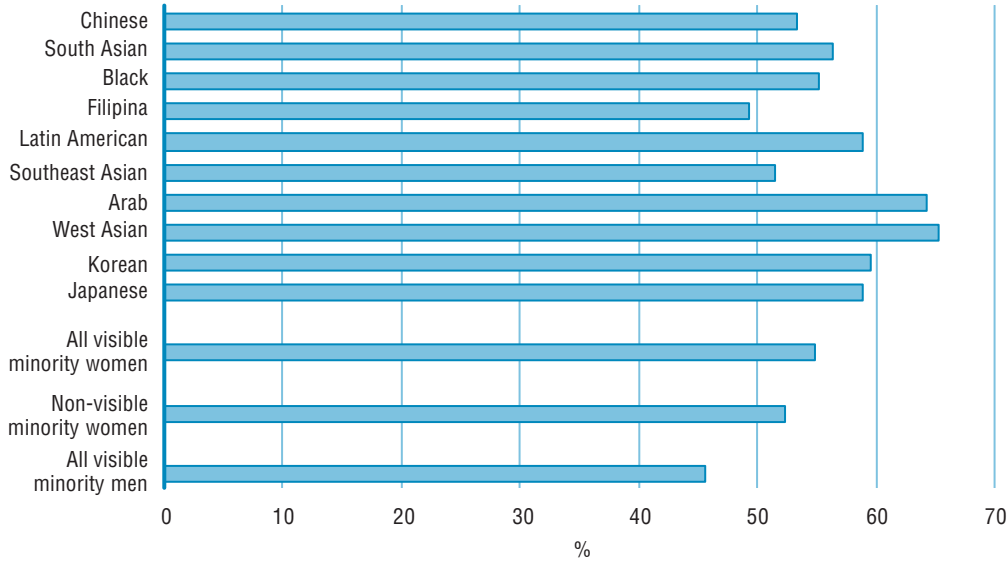
Among the various visible minority groups, Arab and West Asian women are the most likely to work non-standard hours. In 2001, 65% of employed West Asian women and 64% of Arab women worked either part-time or for only part of the year, while the figure was around 60% among Korean, Japanese, and Latin American women. In contrast, 49% of employed Filipinas worked on a part-time basis that year, the only group of visible minority women in which the majority did not work a non-standard schedule.

Few self-employed

A relatively small proportion of visible minority women are self-employed. In 2001, 8% of employed visible minority women were self-employed, compared with 9% of other Canadian women and 13% of visible minority men. (Chart 10.9)

Chart 10.8

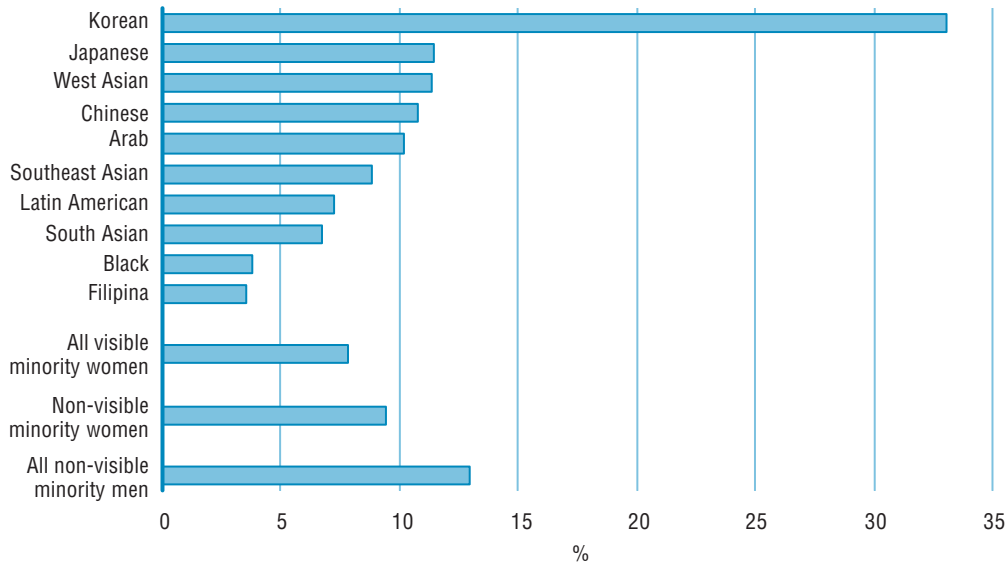
Percentage of employed visible minority women working part-time or part-year, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Chart 10.9

Percentage of employed women who were self-employed in 2000 or 2001, by visible minority group



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.



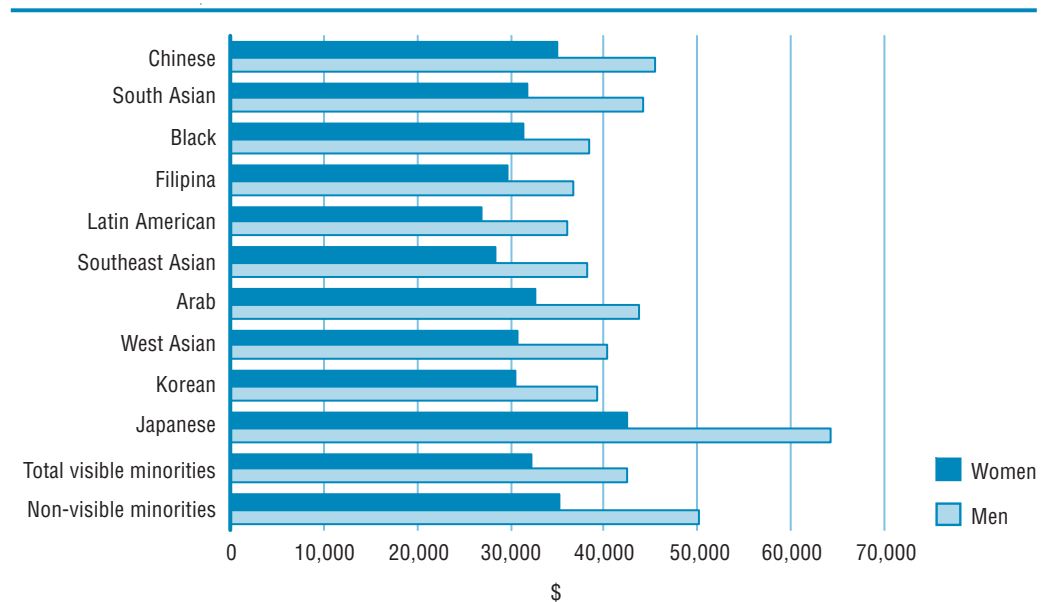
While self-employed workers make up a relatively small sector of the overall female visible minority labour force, Korean women have one of the highest rates of self-employment in the country. Indeed, in 2001, 33% of employed Korean women were self-employed, whereas the figure for women in other visible minority groups ranged from 11% among Japanese, West Asian and Chinese women to just 4% among Blacks and Filipinas.

Lower employment earnings

Visible minority women generally earn less at their jobs than do other women. Among those employed on a full-time, full-year basis in 2000, for example, visible minority women earned an average of \$32,100. This was just over \$3,000, or about 10%, less than the employment earnings of their non-visible counterparts. (Chart 10.10)

Chart 10.10

Average earnings of women in a visible minority employed full-time, full-year, by group, 2000



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

As with other women, the employment earnings of visible minority women are also considerably below those of their male counterparts. In fact, in 2000, the average earnings of visible minority women who were employed on a full-year, full-time basis were only 76% those of visible minority men who worked full-time that year. This figure, though, was actually higher than that for non-visible minority workforce participants, among whom the earnings of women employed on a full-time basis were only 70% of those of men.

Japanese women generally have the highest average employment earnings among visible minority women. In 2000, Japanese women employed on a full-year, full-time basis earned an average of \$42,500. This was over \$7,000 more than Chinese women who had the next highest earnings among the various visible minority groups. It was also over \$10,000 more than the average full-time, full-year earnings of non-visible minority

women. At the same time, the average earnings among women in other visible minority groups ranged from around \$32,600 for Arab women to just \$26,800 among Latin Americans.

For all visible minority groups, though, the average earnings of women are substantially below those of their male counterparts. Japanese women, for example, who had the highest average earnings of all visible minority women that were employed full-time in 2000, actually earned only about 66% what Japanese men did that year, the lowest figure among the various groups. In contrast, the earnings of both Black women and Filipinas were over 80% the earnings of their male counterparts, while the figure was 78% among Koreans and 77% for both Chinese and West Asians.

Relatively low average incomes

In large part because their employment earnings are relatively low, visible minority women also have comparatively low total incomes. In 2000, visible minority women had an average income from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income, and transfer payments, of \$20,000, over \$3,000 less than the figure for other women in Canada. The incomes of women in a visible minority were also almost \$9,000 less, on average, than those of visible minority men that year. (Table 10.12)

Senior visible minority women have particularly low incomes compared with their non-visible minority counterparts. In 2000, women in a visible minority aged 65 and over had an average income from all sources of just \$16,000, almost \$4,000, or 24%, less than the figure for other senior women. At all ages, though, the average incomes of visible minority women were less than those of their non-visible minority counterparts.

The incomes of senior visible minority women are also substantially below those of senior visible minority men. In 2000, the incomes of women aged 65 and over in visible minority were over \$7,000 less, on average, than those of senior visible minority men that year. Again, though, the average incomes of visible minority women were considerably lower than those of their male visible minority counterparts in all age ranges.

Largely because of their relatively high earnings from employment, Japanese women have an average income considerably above that for women in other visible minority groups. In 2000, Japanese women had an average income from all sources of almost \$25,000, while in the other visible minority groups the figure ranged from \$22,500 among Filipinas to under \$16,000 for both West Asian and Arab women.

Most income earned

As with other women, the largest share of the overall incomes of visible minority women is earned. Indeed, 77% of the total income of visible minority women in 2000 came from earned sources. This was, in fact, higher than the figure for non-visible minority women who received 71% of their income from earned sources. It was lower, though, than the figure for visible minority men, 86% of whose income that year came from earnings. (Table 10.13)

At the same time, women in a visible minority generally obtain about the same share of their total income from government transfer payments as that of other women. In 2000, 15% of the income of all visible minority women came from government transfer payments, such as family allowances, public pension benefits, and employment insurance, while the figure was 16% for non-visible minority women.



Government transfers account for a particularly large share of the incomes of Arab women. In 2000, 23% of the income of these women came from public sources, while the figure was close to 20% for West Asian, Latin American, Southeast Asian, and Black women. In contrast, just 11% of the total income of Filipinas, as well as 12% of that of Japanese women and 13% of that of Chinese women, came from government transfer payments that year.

Again, as with other women, senior visible minority women are particularly dependent on government transfer payments. In 2000, 67% of the total income of visible minority women aged 65 and over came in the form of government transfer payments. This compared with 57% of the income of non-visible minority women and less than half of that of visible minority men who received 48% of their income from these sources.

Many with low incomes

Visible minority women are nearly twice as likely as other women in Canada to have low incomes. In 2000, 29% of visible minority women living in a private household had incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs.⁵ This was close to double the figure for non-visible minority women, 16% of whom had low incomes that year. Visible minority women, though, were about as likely to live in a low-income situation as visible minority men, among whom the figure was 28% that year. (Table 10.14)

There is, however, considerable variation in the incidence of low income among women in the various visible minority groups. Almost half of all West Asian women (46%), for example, were considered to be living in a low-income situation in 2000, while the figure was 44% among Arab women and 43% among Koreans. In contrast, just 20% of Japanese women and 18% of Filipinas were living with low incomes that year.

Among the visible minority population, children are particularly likely to live in a low-income situation. In 2000, 34% of visible minority females under the age of 15 lived in a household with an income under the low-income cut-offs; this was more than twice the figure (16%) for their non-visible minority counterparts. The share of female visible minority children considered to be living in a low-income situation, though, was the same as that for male visible minorities under the age of 15.

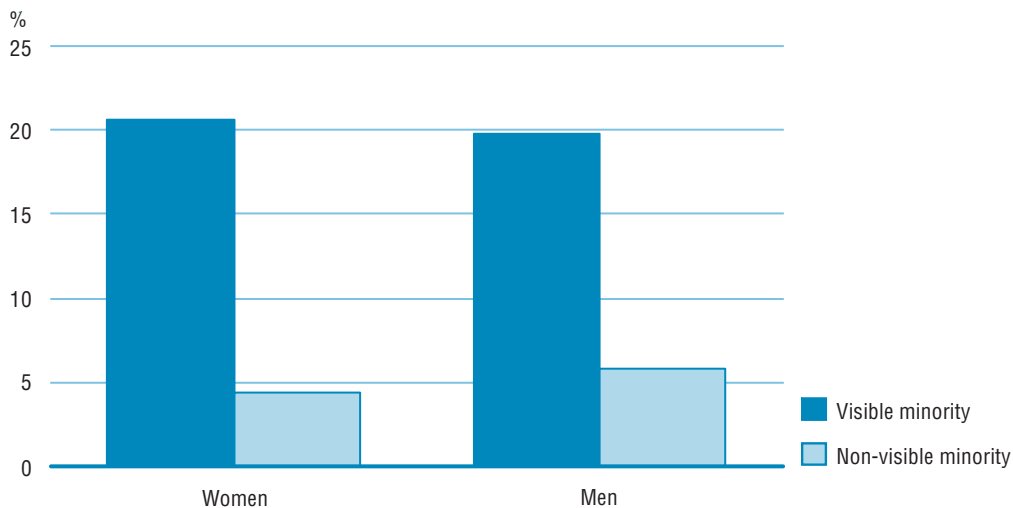
At the same time, one in four senior visible minority women was considered to have a low income. In 2000, 25% of visible minority women aged 65 and over had incomes below the low-income cut-offs, versus 21% of non-visible minority women in this age range and 20% of visible minority men over the age of 65.

Many experience discrimination

Women in a visible minority report experiencing discrimination or unfair treatment because of their ethnicity, culture, race, skin colour, language, accent or religion over five times more often than women in the overall population. In 2002, 21% of visible minority women aged 15 or over said they had experienced discrimination or unfair treatment often or sometimes in the previous five years because of one of these factors, compared with 4% of other women. Visible minority women, though, were also about as likely as their male counterparts to report having experienced some form of discrimination in this period; that year, 20% of visible minority men reported experiencing some kind of discrimination. (Chart 10.11)

Chart 10.11

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over experiencing discrimination,¹ by visible minority status, 2002



1. Includes those experiencing discrimination often or sometimes because of race, skin colour, language, accent or religion in the five years prior to the survey or since arriving in Canada.

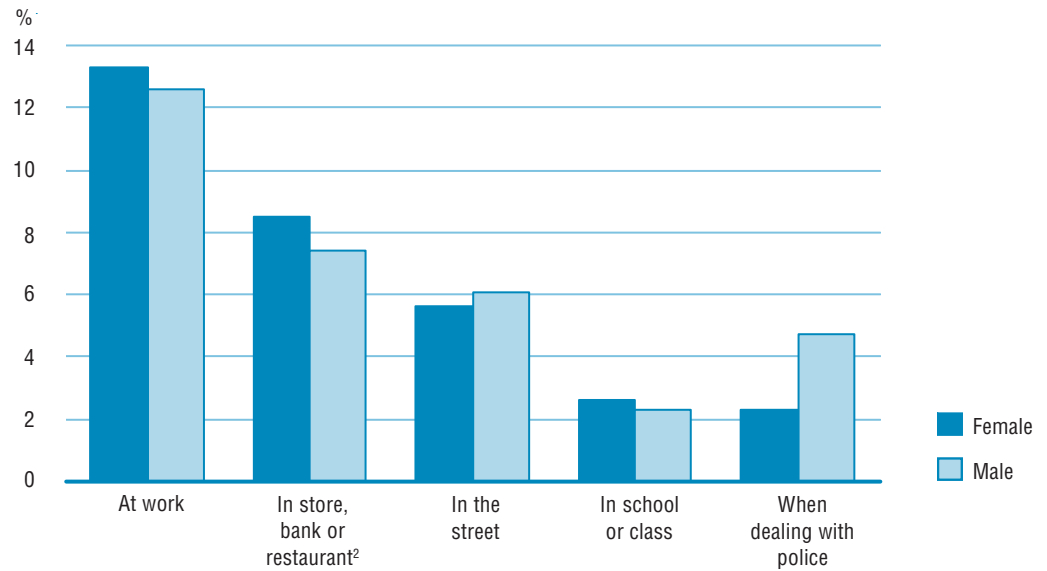
Source: Statistics Canada, *Ethnic Diversity Survey*.

The workplace is the most common locale where visible minority women experience discrimination or unfair treatment. In 2002, 13% of visible minority women who reported they had experienced some form of discrimination often or sometimes in the previous five years said that the incident took place in a work setting, either while they were on the job or when applying for a job or promotion. Another 9% reported problems when getting service from a bank, store or restaurant, while 6% said they experienced such problems on the street, 3% had problems at school or class, and 2% experienced such treatment dealing with the police or courts. (Chart 10.12)

Visible minority women were actually slightly more likely than their male counterparts to report experiencing discrimination in the workplace as a result of their ethno-cultural characteristics. They were also slightly more likely to report having experienced discrimination when getting service from a store, bank or restaurant, but less likely to experience discrimination from the justice system.

Chart 10.12

Percentage of women and men in a visible minority experiencing discrimination,¹ by location, 2002



1. Includes those experiencing discrimination often or sometimes because of race, skin colour, language, accent or religion in the five years prior to the survey or since arriving in Canada.
2. Includes while at work, or when applying for a job or promotion.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Ethnic Diversity Survey*.

Notes

1. For more information on immigrant women, see Chapter 9.
2. Immigrants include people who are not Canadian citizens by birth, but who have been granted landed-immigrant status, that is, the right to live in Canada permanently. Some immigrants have lived in Canada for a number of years, while others are recent arrivals. Most immigrants were born outside Canada, but a small number were born in Canada.
3. Includes the Ontario portion only.
4. The census question on knowledge of official languages asks respondents whether they are able to conduct a conversation in either or both English and French. The information collected is thus based on respondents' self-assessments and may overstate (or understate) the actual abilities of these individuals in either or both languages.
5. For a definition of the Low Income Cut-offs see Chapter 6. In this situation, low income refers to the situation of the individual's economic family or, if they live alone, to their personal income.

Table 10.1

Women in a visible minority, by group, 2001

	Number	As a percent of all women in Canada	As a percent of all visible minority women	As a percent of all persons in the visible minority group
Visible minority women				
Chinese	530,015	3.5	26.0	51.4
South Asian	451,600	3.0	22.2	49.2
Black	346,145	2.3	17.0	52.3
Filipina	177,580	1.2	8.7	57.5
Latin American	111,240	0.7	5.4	51.3
Southeast Asian	100,585	0.7	4.9	50.6
Arab	88,735	0.6	4.4	45.6
West Asian	51,410	0.3	2.5	47.0
Korean	52,160	0.3	2.6	51.8
Japanese	40,000	0.3	2.0	54.6
Other visible minority	51,650	0.3	2.5	52.2
Multiple visible minority	37,220	0.2	1.8	50.4
Total visible minority women	2,038,335	13.5	100.0	51.2

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.2

Women in a visible minority, by immigrant status, 2001

	Born in Canada	Non-permanent residents	Immigrants			Total immigrants	Total
			Arrived before 1981	Arrived 1981-1990	Arrived 1991-2001		
%							
Visible minority women							
Chinese	23.0	2.1	16.5	18.2	40.2	74.9	100.0
South Asian	28.4	1.7	17.3	15.4	37.3	69.9	100.0
Black	43.1	2.7	19.9	12.7	21.6	54.2	100.0
Filipina	21.7	3.1	17.4	18.2	39.7	75.2	100.0
Latin American	19.4	6.0	13.7	26.6	34.3	74.6	100.0
Southeast Asian	26.8	1.9	15.7	29.7	25.8	71.3	100.0
Arab	26.8	4.2	10.0	17.0	42.0	69.0	100.0
West Asian	12.7	3.3	4.8	20.1	59.1	84.0	100.0
Korean	15.9	12.8	15.3	13.8	42.2	71.3	100.0
Japanese	58.3	13.9	10.4	4.3	13.2	27.9	100.0
Other visible minority	28.2	1.7	23.7	20.3	26.1	70.1	100.0
Multiple visible minority	43.1	1.6	17.4	17.9	20.0	55.3	100.0
Total visible minority women	28.4	3.0	16.6	17.3	34.7	68.6	100.0
Other women	88.8	0.3	7.6	1.4	1.9	11.0	100.0
Visible minority men	31.0	3.1	16.3	16.8	32.8	65.8	100.0
Other men	89.1	0.3	7.4	1.4	1.9	10.6	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.3

Women in a visible minority, by province and territory, 2001

	Total female visible minority population	As a percent of provincial female population	As a percent of total Canadian visible minority population
Newfoundland and Labrador	1,865	0.7	0.1
Prince Edward Island	585	0.9	0
Nova Scotia	17,870	3.9	0.9
New Brunswick	4,665	1.3	0.2
Quebec	251,485	6.9	12.3
Ontario	1,103,155	19.2	54.1
Manitoba	43,770	7.8	2.1
Saskatchewan	6,080	5.3	0.3
Alberta	168,020	11.4	8.2
British Columbia	432,020	22.0	21.2
Yukon	580	4.1	0
Northwest Territories	820	4.5	0
Nunavut	95	0.7	0
Canada	2,038,335	13.5	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.4

Urban/rural distribution of visible minority women, 2001

Area of residence	Visible minority women			Other women as a percent of women in region
	Number	As a percent of visible minority women in Canada	As a percent of women in region	
Census metropolitan area				
Toronto	882,415	43.3	37.1	11.4
Vancouver	375,140	18.4	37.4	4.8
Montreal	231,865	11.4	13.3	11.6
Calgary	83,600	4.1	17.7	3.0
Ottawa ¹	69,685	3.4	17.2	2.6
Edmonton	69,675	3.4	14.9	3.1
Winnipeg	41,640	2.0	12.3	2.3
Hamilton	32,415	1.6	9.7	2.3
Kitchener	21,400	1.0	10.3	1.4
Windsor	19,470	1.0	12.6	1.0
London	19,175	0.9	8.7	1.5
Victoria	14,420	0.7	9.0	1.1
Halifax	13,000	0.6	7.0	1.3
Other census metropolitan areas	64,800	3.2	3.8	12.5
Total census metropolitan areas	1,938,700	95.1	19.9	60.0
Other urban areas	65,685	3.2	2.9	16.8
Total urban areas	2,004,385	98.3	16.7	76.8
Rural areas	33,950	1.7	1.1	23.2
Canada	2,038,335	100.0	13.5	100.0

1. Does not include Gatineau.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.5

Age distribution of women living in a private household, by visible minority group, 2001

	People aged						Total
	Under 15	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	65 and over	
Visible minority women							
Chinese	18.4	14.0	34.3	15.6	7.3	10.4	100.0
South Asian	24.2	15.4	34.6	11.7	7.6	6.4	100.0
Black	27.9	16.0	32.3	11.1	7.0	5.7	100.0
Filipina	18.8	12.4	37.9	16.2	8.0	6.6	100.0
Latin American	21.6	16.9	38.2	13.4	5.8	4.0	100.0
Southeast Asian	24.5	16.0	37.9	11.4	5.0	5.3	100.0
Arab	29.1	16.1	35.3	10.3	4.7	4.5	100.0
West Asian	22.2	18.2	37.4	12.4	5.5	4.2	100.0
Korean	18.0	20.2	36.5	13.3	7.1	4.9	100.0
Japanese	15.3	14.2	36.0	12.4	9.0	13.3	100.0
Other visible minority	21.3	14.7	35.7	14.1	7.5	6.6	100.0
Multiple visible minority	33.4	17.0	30.1	10.0	5.3	4.3	100.0
Total visible minority women	22.7	15.2	34.9	13.1	7.0	7.1	100.0
Other women	18.0	12.6	29.9	15.1	10.0	14.4	100.0
Visible minority men	24.8	16.6	32.9	12.8	6.9	6.0	100.0
Other men	19.5	13.5	30.1	15.1	10.0	11.7	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.6

Family status of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 2001

	Married	Common-law partner	Lone parent	Children living at home	Living with other relatives	Total living with family	Living with non-relatives	Living alone	Total
Visible minority women									
Chinese	55.4	2.1	6.5	21.0	6.2	91.2	3.2	5.6	100.0
South Asian	61.8	1.4	6.0	20.0	6.1	95.3	1.6	3.2	100.0
Black	30.0	4.8	24.0	20.2	6.0	85.0	4.0	11.0	100.0
Filipina	47.6	4.1	8.9	17.0	8.6	86.1	8.9	5.0	100.0
Latin American	47.0	6.1	15.0	18.5	4.3	90.8	3.6	5.6	100.0
Southeast Asian	48.5	5.3	12.3	20.8	5.8	92.7	3.7	3.6	100.0
Arab	58.9	1.3	8.3	20.7	4.2	93.4	1.2	5.3	100.0
West Asian	55.2	1.7	9.0	22.7	4.2	92.8	2.4	4.8	100.0
Korean	53.5	2.1	5.3	22.0	4.6	87.6	6.1	6.3	100.0
Japanese	49.1	5.5	5.6	12.9	2.4	75.5	10.2	14.3	100.0
Other visible minority	47.4	4.3	12.6	20.1	5.2	89.7	2.9	7.4	100.0
Multiple visible minority	42.3	4.9	11.0	26.8	4.6	89.5	3.6	6.8	100.0
Total visible minority women	50.8	3.1	10.4	20.1	5.9	90.3	3.7	6.0	100.0
Other women	47.9	10.4	8.4	13.1	2.2	81.9	3.3	14.8	100.0
Visible minority men	53.9	3.4	2.0	25.6	3.6	88.5	4.7	6.7	100.0
Other men	50.6	11.0	2.1	18.0	1.6	83.4	4.7	12.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.7

Knowledge of official languages of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 2001

	English only	French only	Both English and French	At least one official language	Neither English nor French	Total
	%					
Visible minority women						
Chinese	74.4	0.4	5.5	80.4	19.6	100.0
South Asian	82.2	0.2	7.4	89.8	10.2	100.0
Black	71.9	9.7	17.3	98.9	1.1	100.0
Filipina	94.3	0.1	4.4	98.8	1.2	100.0
Latin American	61.9	12.6	17.5	92.0	8.0	100.0
Southeast Asian	63.4	7.0	14.9	85.3	14.7	100.0
Arab	48.8	13.0	31.9	93.8	6.3	100.0
West Asian	75.7	1.4	12.7	89.9	10.1	100.0
Korean	79.6	0.4	6.4	86.4	13.6	100.0
Japanese	88.4	0.3	7.5	96.3	3.7	100.0
Other visible minority	86.9	1.2	10.6	98.6	1.4	100.0
Multiple visible minority	77.4	1.5	13.9	92.8	7.2	100.0
Total visible minority women	76.1	3.4	10.4	89.9	10.1	100.0
Other women	64.5	14.6	20.2	99.3	0.7	100.0
Visible minority men	79.9	2.6	11.6	94.1	5.9	100.0
Other men	66.0	12.3	21.2	99.6	0.4	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.8

Highest level of education for women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 2001

	Less than high school	High school graduation	Some post-secondary	Non-university post-secondary	University certificate or diploma	University with bachelor's degree	University with degree higher than bachelor's degree	Total with university degree	Total
	%								
Visible minority women									
Chinese	32.5	12.5	11.6	15.2	4.2	18.0	5.9	23.9	100.0
South Asian	32.6	14.3	12.6	14.9	2.8	15.6	7.2	22.8	100.0
Black	28.0	12.6	13.8	31.3	3.0	8.2	3.1	11.2	100.0
Filipina	14.3	9.0	13.7	22.1	8.1	27.9	4.9	32.8	100.0
Latin American	29.8	14.0	14.3	24.1	4.1	8.9	4.8	13.7	100.0
Southeast Asian	47.4	12.6	11.7	14.1	2.8	9.3	2.2	11.4	100.0
Arab	27.9	13.7	12.9	16.9	4.9	17.9	5.8	23.7	100.0
West Asian	24.8	15.7	13.3	15.8	5.3	18.6	6.4	25.0	100.0
Korean	17.9	12.7	17.5	10.6	7.5	26.0	7.7	33.7	100.0
Japanese	17.4	12.6	13.4	24.3	6.0	20.3	5.9	26.2	100.0
Other visible minority	29.1	16.2	13.6	27.0	2.4	8.9	2.8	11.6	100.0
Multiple visible minority	27.8	10.6	14.2	21.4	3.6	16.5	5.8	22.3	100.0
Total visible minority women	29.4	12.9	12.9	19.3	4.1	15.9	5.4	21.3	100.0
Other women	31.3	15.4	10.7	25.9	2.7	9.8	4.1	13.9	100.0
Visible minority men	26.5	12.0	13.4	18.5	3.6	17.0	9.0	26.0	100.0
Other men	32.2	13.2	10.3	27.8	1.9	9.7	4.9	14.6	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.9

Employment rates¹ for women aged 25 to 64, by visible minority group, 2001

	People aged		
	25 to 44	45 to 64	Total aged 25 to 64
	%		
Visible minority women			
Chinese	65.7	55.0	61.4
South Asian	65.2	51.9	60.4
Black	69.9	69.1	69.6
Filipina	81.0	76.5	79.2
Latin American	62.6	59.9	61.7
Southeast Asian	63.7	56.4	61.5
Arab	44.2	42.0	43.6
West Asian	50.1	45.7	48.6
Korean	52.0	59.3	54.6
Japanese	63.9	63.6	63.8
Other visible minority	71.4	63.2	68.3
Multiple visible minority	73.8	65.5	71.0
Total visible minority women	65.9	59.1	63.4
Other women	76.9	61.0	69.6
Visible minority men	80.3	75.5	78.5
Other men	86.4	74.7	81.1

1. Refers to those employed in the week prior to the 2001 Census.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.10

Unemployment rates¹ for women, by visible minority group, 2001

	Labour force participants aged			Total aged 15 to 64
	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 64	
	%			
Visible minority women				
Chinese	15.3	8.3	6.1	7.5
South Asian	15.0	10.6	10.0	10.4
Black	18.9	11.6	7.3	10.1
Filipina	9.8	5.0	4.3	4.7
Latin American	15.1	11.9	8.9	11.0
Southeast Asian	15.3	10.7	7.1	9.7
Arab	16.1	17.5	12.3	16.1
West Asian	18.8	17.3	13.9	16.2
Korean	12.1	9.3	6.4	8.2
Japanese	12.0	6.1	4.3	5.4
Other visible minority	13.5	8.0	6.3	7.4
Multiple visible minority	14.5	7.0	5.7	6.6
Total visible minority women	15.4	9.8	7.3	8.9
Other women	12.6	6.1	4.8	5.6
Visible minority men	16.9	8.0	6.6	7.4
Other men	13.9	6.5	5.8	6.2

1. Refers to those unemployed in the week prior to the 2001 Census.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.11

Occupational distribution of visible minority women employed in 2000 or 2001

	Occupation							Total
	Managers	Natural sciences	Other professionals	Administrative/clerical	Sales/service	Manufacturing	Other	
Visible minority women	%							
Chinese	8.8	7.5	22.6	21.2	25.2	12.1	2.4	100.0
South Asian	6.2	3.9	20.3	22.5	27.3	14.8	4.9	100.0
Black	4.6	2.3	28.7	23.9	29.2	9.2	2.2	100.0
Filipina	4.1	2.7	26.6	19.4	36.2	8.9	2.0	100.0
Latin American	5.0	2.9	19.8	19.0	37.4	12.4	3.3	100.0
Southeast Asian	5.6	4.3	15.4	12.6	30.2	24.9	7.1	100.0
Arab	10.1	5.3	23.8	19.7	34.2	5.1	1.8	100.0
West Asian	8.7	6.5	22.1	15.9	38.6	6.0	2.1	100.0
Korean	23.8	3.3	20.8	12.0	35.4	3.0	1.6	100.0
Japanese	10.3	4.4	30.7	22.1	28.6	1.4	2.4	100.0
Other visible minority	7.7	2.8	20.9	29.6	25.5	10.4	2.9	100.0
Multiple visible minority	7.2	4.8	23.9	22.6	28.0	11.0	2.4	100.0
Total visible minority women	7.0	4.4	23.3	21.1	29.4	11.6	3.1	100.0
Other women	8.0	2.8	28.2	23.5	28.9	4.0	4.5	100.0
Visible minority men	11.4	13.5	12.6	8.2	22.4	12.8	18.9	100.0
Other men	12.8	8.9	12.0	6.0	18.4	8.2	33.7	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.12

Average total income of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 2000

	People aged				Total
	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 64	65 and over	
	\$				
Visible minority women					
Chinese	7,636	24,581	23,555	15,620	20,764
South Asian	8,928	22,055	22,643	14,849	19,329
Black	8,502	23,200	26,271	17,531	20,929
Filipina	9,718	23,794	27,792	15,328	22,505
Latin American	8,485	18,681	19,543	14,620	16,900
Southeast Asian	8,532	21,248	20,263	14,100	18,299
Arab	7,615	17,314	18,804	14,622	15,659
West Asian	6,621	17,795	18,746	15,672	15,765
Korean	6,741	19,573	20,980	14,454	17,040
Japanese	7,444	26,101	33,090	22,674	24,651
Other visible minority	9,207	24,210	25,824	16,676	21,620
Multiple visible minority	8,995	25,602	27,067	18,734	21,904
Total visible minority women	8,353	22,635	23,936	15,898	20,043
Other women	9,161	26,950	27,118	19,728	23,283
Visible minority men	9,195	32,311	37,201	23,070	28,929
Other men	11,616	41,794	48,125	31,380	37,956

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.13

Major sources of income of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 2000

	Earnings	Government transfers	Other	Total					
					%				
Visible minority women									
Chinese	74.7	13.0	12.3	100.0					
South Asian	78.3	15.4	6.3	100.0					
Black	76.3	17.6	6.1	100.0					
Filipina	84.7	10.7	4.6	100.0					
Latin American	75.7	19.4	5.0	100.0					
Southeast Asian	77.6	18.4	4.0	100.0					
Arab	69.7	22.9	7.4	100.0					
West Asian	72.3	19.5	8.2	100.0					
Korean	76.8	13.6	9.6	100.0					
Japanese	72.7	12.1	15.2	100.0					
Other visible minority	81.2	13.3	5.5	100.0					
Multiple visible minority	82.5	11.1	6.4	100.0					
Total visible minority women	77.1	14.9	8.0	100.0					
Other women	71.0	16.4	12.6	100.0					
Visible minority men	85.9	7.5	6.6	100.0					
Other men	80.0	8.8	11.2	100.0					

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 10.14

Incidence of low income among women living in a private household, by visible minority group, 2000

	People aged					Total
	Under 15	15 to 24	25 to 44	45 to 64	65 and over	
%						
Visible minority women						
Chinese	26.7	34.7	27.1	22.8	25.8	27.0
South Asian	28.5	23.4	24.0	17.3	18.4	23.3
Black	43.6	38.9	36.8	24.6	31.3	36.4
Filipina	18.4	16.1	21.1	13.9	15.9	17.9
Latin American	40.8	35.1	32.2	26.1	34.4	33.4
Southeast Asian	36.0	34.4	28.0	24.1	23.9	30.1
Arab	53.3	42.4	43.4	33.4	32.5	44.1
West Asian	56.3	48.9	43.7	34.6	41.2	45.7
Korean	48.8	49.2	43.1	30.7	48.9	43.1
Japanese	13.5	39.4	22.7	9.8	15.6	20.0
Other visible minority	28.8	22.8	22.1	17.2	27.9	23.0
Multiple visible minority	25.5	22.2	20.3	17.9	18.0	21.9
Total visible minority women	33.8	32.4	29.0	21.5	24.9	28.8
Other women	15.9	19.4	14.0	13.4	21.1	15.9
Visible minority men	34.2	31.2	26.0	21.1	20.0	27.6
Other men	15.9	15.4	11.5	11.4	10.3	12.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

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Chapter 11

Senior Women

By *Colin Lindsay and Marcia Almey*

A rapidly growing population

Women aged 65 and over constitute one of the fastest growing segments of the female population in Canada. In 2004, there were an estimated 2.3 million senior women, up 26% from 1991 and 72% from 1981. Indeed, the growth rate in the number of senior women has been twice that for women under the age of 65 over the course of the past couple of decades. (Table 11.1)

As a result of these trends, the share of the overall female population accounted for by senior women has risen sharply in the last several decades. In 2004, women aged 65 and over made up 15% of the total population, up from 13% in 1991, 9% in 1971, and just 5% in 1921.

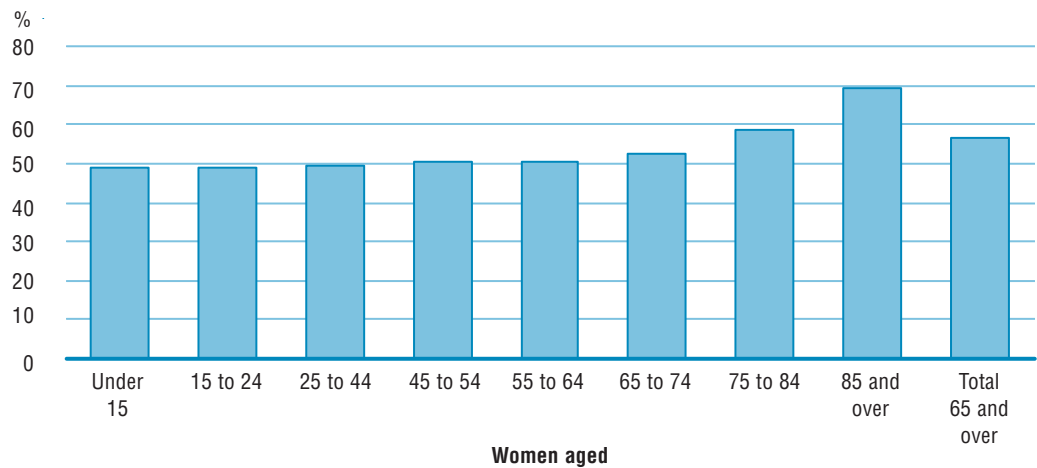
The female population aged 65 and over is expected to grow even more rapidly during the next several decades, particularly once women born during the baby boom years from 1946 to 1965 begin turning age 65 early in the next decade. Statistics Canada has projected¹ that by 2016 18% of the female population will be aged 65 and over, and that by 2031, one in four of all females in Canada will be a senior.

In fact, the senior population in Canada is predominantly female. In 2004, women made up 57% of all Canadians aged 65 and over, whereas they made up just over half (51%) of those aged 55 to 64 and 50% or less of those in age groups under age 55. (Chart 11.1)

Women account for even larger shares of the older segments of the senior population. In 2004, women made up 69% of all persons aged 85 and older and 59% of those aged 75 to 84, compared with 53% of people aged 65 to 74. The fact that women make up such a disproportionate share of the very oldest segments of the population has major implications. The female cohort aged 85 and over is the fastest growing segment of the senior female population, while those in this age range also tend to be the most vulnerable to serious health problems; they are the most likely to live alone and need social support from their families and the community.

Chart 11.1

Females as a percentage of the population, by age, 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Increasing life expectancy

Women now predominate in the ranks of Canadian seniors, in large part because the life expectancy of women has risen more rapidly than that of men during most of the last century. By 2002, a 65-year-old woman could expect to live, on average, another 20.6 years, seven years longer than the figure in 1921. In contrast, the life expectancy of a 65-year-old man rose only four years in the same period. As a result, a 65-year-old woman currently can expect to live, on average, three years longer than her male counterpart. (Table 11.2)

Most of the difference in the life expectancy of senior women and men, however, occurred prior to 1981. Between 1921 and 1981, the life expectancy of a 65-year-old woman rose by over five years, whereas the figure for senior men increased by only about a year and a half. In contrast, since 1981, the life expectancy of senior women has increased by just over a year and a half, almost a full year less than the comparative change among men.

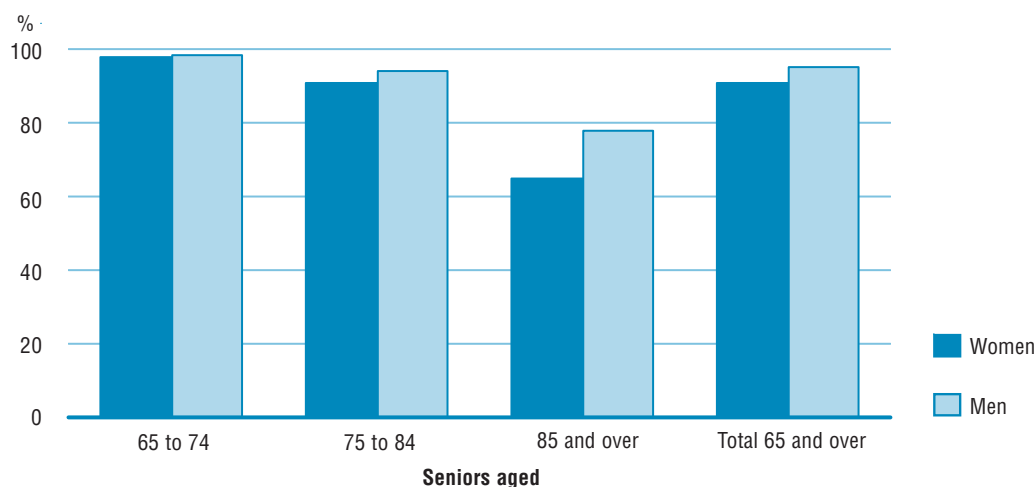
As a result of this trend, the share of the senior population accounted for by women has fallen slightly in recent years. Indeed, in 2004, women made up 57% of the overall senior population, compared with 58% in 1991. The share of the population aged 65 and over accounted for by women is also expected to dip further in the next couple of decades. Statistics Canada has projected that by 2031 the share of the senior population accounted for by women will have dropped to just over 54%.¹ This figure, though, is projected to remain at that level for the rest of the first half of this century. (Table 11.1)

Most live in a private household with family

The vast majority of senior women live at home in a private household. In 2001, 91% of all women aged 65 and over lived at home, although this was less than the figure for their male counterparts, 95% of whom lived at home that year. (Chart 11.2)

Chart 11.2

Percentage of women and men living in a private household, by age, 2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Not surprisingly, younger seniors are more likely to live at home than their older counterparts. In fact, in 2001, almost all women aged 65 to 74 (98%) lived at home, whereas this was the case for only 65% of those aged 85 and over.

As well, there is a particularly wide gap between the proportions of senior women and men in older ranges living at home. In 2001, 65% of women aged 85 and over resided in a private household, compared with 78% of their male counterparts. In contrast, the share of women aged 75-84 living at home was just slightly below the figure for men in this age range, 91% versus 94%, while there was almost no difference in the proportion of women and men aged 65 to 74 living at home.

The majority of senior women living in a private household live with their family, either as a family head or spouse, or with their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son. In 2001, 60% of all women aged 65 and over lived with family members: 43% were living with their husband, while a small percentage (1%) were living with their common-law partner and 8% were lone parents. In addition, over 150,000 senior women, 8% of the total, lived with members of their extended family. (Table 11.3)

Senior women are considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be living with a partner. In 2001, 44% of women aged 65 and over, versus 76% of men in this age range, were living at home with their spouse or common-law partner. In contrast, senior women were more likely than senior men to be a lone parent. That year, 8% of women aged 65 and over were classified as lone parents, whereas just 2% of senior men were lone parents.

Senior women are also considerably more likely than senior men to be living with members of their extended family. In 2001, 8% of women aged 65 and over were living with members of their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son, compared with 3% of senior men.

Not surprisingly, the family structure of senior women varies considerably for those in different age ranges. In 2001, for example, only 12% of women aged 85 and over were living with a partner, whereas this was the case for over half (57%) of women aged 65 to

74. In contrast, women aged 85 and over were much more likely than their younger counterparts to be living with members of their extended family. That year, 15% of women aged 85 and over, compared with 6% of those aged 65 to 74, were living with members of their extended family.

Many live alone

While most senior women live with their family, a substantial number live alone. In 2001, almost 800,000 women aged 65 and over, 38% of all senior women, were living on their own. In contrast, only 17% of men aged 65 and over lived alone.

Older senior women are particularly likely to live alone. In fact, in 2001, 59% of all women aged 85 and over and 47% of those aged 75 to 84 lived alone, compared with 29% of women aged 65 to 74. As well, at all ages, senior women were generally twice as likely as their male counterparts to live alone.

Family status of foreign-born senior women differs

There are some interesting differences in the family status of foreign-born senior women and those born in Canada. In particular, senior female immigrants, and especially recent arrivals, are far more likely than other women aged 65 and over to live with members of their extended family. In 2001, 35% of all female immigrants aged 65 and over who had arrived in Canada in the previous decade lived with members of their extended family, compared with 13% of all senior foreign-born women and just 5% of female seniors born in Canada. (Table 11.4)

At the same time, senior foreign-born women are less likely than those born in Canada to live alone. In 2001, 31% of foreign-born women aged 65 and over, versus 41% of their counterparts born in Canada, lived alone. And among senior foreign-born women, recent arrivals are the least likely to live alone. That year, just 12% of immigrant women aged 65 and over who arrived in Canada in the 1990s lived by themselves.

Seniors living in an institution

While most senior women live in a private household, a substantial number live in an institution. In 2001, over 200,000 women aged 65 and over—9% of all senior women in Canada—lived in an institution. Indeed, senior women are twice as likely as their male contemporaries to live in an institution; that year, only 5% of men aged 65 and over were residents of an institution. (Table 11.5)

Those in older age ranges are the most likely senior women to live in an institution. In 2001, 35% of women aged 85 and over lived in an institution, compared with 9% of women aged 75 to 84 and just 2% of those aged 65 to 74.

Older senior women are also considerably more likely than their male counterparts to live in an institution. In 2001, 35% of all women aged 85 and over lived in an institution, compared with 22% of senior men in this age range. Women aged 75 to 84 were also somewhat more likely than men in this age range to be in an institution: 9% versus 6%. In contrast, there was no difference in the shares of women and men aged 65 to 74 living in an institution.

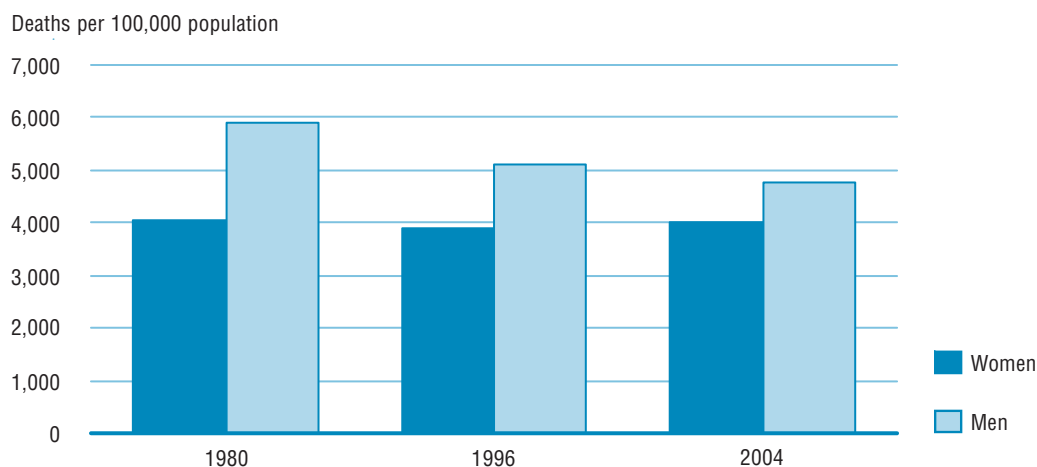
Most senior women in institutions reside in special care homes for the elderly and chronically ill. In 2001, 4% of all women aged 65 and over lived in a chronic care hospital, while another 3% resided in nursing homes. At the same time, 2% of women aged 65 and over lived in a seniors' residence, while less than 1% resided in a religious institution.

Death rates among senior women inching up

The fact that the gap between the life expectancies of senior women and men has closed in the past couple of decades reflects, in part, differences in death rates in these two groups. Indeed, after years of steady decline, the death rate among women aged 65 and over has increased in recent years. Between 1996 and 2004, for example, the death rate among women aged 65 and over rose 3%, offsetting a similar decline in the period from 1980 to 1996. In fact, the overall death rate for senior women in 2004 was almost exactly the same figure as in 1980. In contrast, the death rate for men aged 65 and over fell 19% between 1980 and 2004, including a 7% decline in the 1996 to 2004 period. (Chart 11.3)

Chart 11.3

Age-specific death rates among women and men, 1980, 1996 and 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

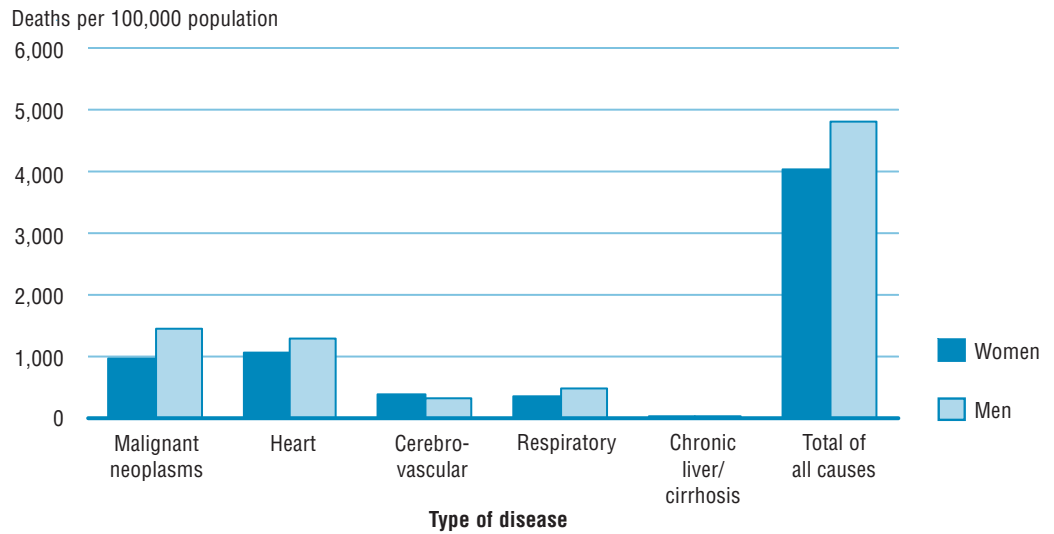
Death rates among senior women, however, are still considerably lower than they are among senior men. In 2004, there were just over 4,000 deaths for every 100,000 women aged 65 and over, 18% lower than the figure of almost 4,800 among senior men. In 1980, though, the death rate among senior women had been 46% lower than that of their male counterparts, while the difference was over 31% as recently as 1996.

Heart disease and cancer main causes of death

Heart disease and cancer account for almost exactly half of all deaths of senior women in Canada. In 2002, 26% of all deaths of women aged 65 and over were attributed to heart disease, while 24% were from cancer. At the same time, strokes and respiratory diseases each accounted for just under 10% of all deaths among senior women, while 32% were attributed to all other diseases and conditions combined. (Chart 11.4)

Chart 11.4

Leading causes of death among women and men aged 65 and over, 2002

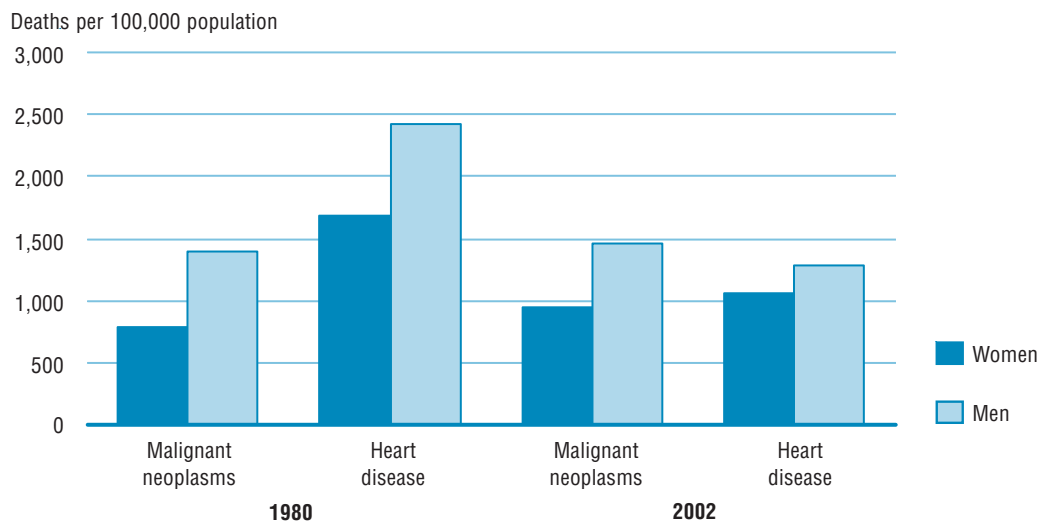


Source: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

There have, however, been considerable differences in the long-term trends for heart disease and cancer deaths among senior women. The death rate due to heart disease among senior women, for example, was 37% lower in 2002 than in 1980, whereas the figure for cancer rose 20% in the same period. (Chart 11.5)

Chart 11.5

Death rates for women and men aged 65 and over from selected causes, 1980 and 2002



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-206-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

As well, the death rate from cancer among senior women has risen somewhat faster than that of their male counterparts in the past two decades. Between 1980 and 2002, the death rate from cancer among senior women rose 20%, compared with only a 4% increase among senior men. Indeed, whereas the cancer death rate among senior women has continued to rise in the past few years, the current figure among senior men is actually lower than that it was in the mid-1990s. Still, the cancer death rate among senior men is currently over 50% higher than that of senior women, although this difference is down from almost 80% in 1980s.

Similarly, declines in deaths due to heart disease among senior women have lagged behind those for their male counterparts in the past several decades. Between 1980 and 2002, for example, the death rate of women aged 65 and over due to heart disease dropped by 37%, compared with a 47% decline among senior men. Again, though, the death rate due to heart disease is currently still 20% lower among senior women than among senior men, although this difference is down from over 44% in 1980.

Much of the rise in the overall cancer death rate among senior women in the past couple of decades has been accounted for by increases in deaths from lung cancer. Indeed, death rates due to lung cancer for both women aged 80 and over and those aged 70 to 79 in 2002 were about three times higher than in 1980, while the figure among women aged 60 to 69 doubled in the same period. In contrast, deaths from lung cancer among men in both the 60 to 69 and 70 to 79 age brackets actually declined between 1980 and 2002, while the figure for men aged 80 and over was up, but only by 28%. Still, in all three age groups the lung cancer death rate among women is currently well below than of their respective male counterparts. (Table 11.6)

There have also been increases in death rates from breast cancer among senior women aged 80 and over in the past two decades, while the figures among women in both the 60 to 69 and 70 to 79 age categories declined somewhat in this period. Between 1980 and 2002, for example, the breast cancer death rates among women aged 80 and over rose 22%, while the figures were down 20% among women aged 60 to 69 and 7% among those aged 70 to 79.

The perceived health of seniors

Most senior women living at home describe their general health in positive terms.² In 2003, 73% of women aged 65 and over said their health was either good (37%), very good (25%), or excellent (10%), while 21% reported their health was fair and only 6% described it as poor. (Table 11.7)

Somewhat surprisingly, there are actually few differences in the likelihood of senior women in different age ranges rating their overall health in negative terms. Indeed, women aged 75 to 84 were about as likely as those aged 85 and over to say that their health was either fair or poor. In 2003, about one in three women in both groups rated their health as either fair or poor, while this was the case for 23% of women aged 65 to 74. In fact, the large majority of women in all three groups describe their health as good, very good, or excellent.

Seniors with chronic health conditions

While most senior women report their overall health is relatively good, almost all have a chronic health condition as diagnosed by a health professional. Indeed, in 2003, 93% of all women aged 65 and over living in a private household had at least one such chronic health condition or problem. This compared with 87% of senior men. (Table 11.8)

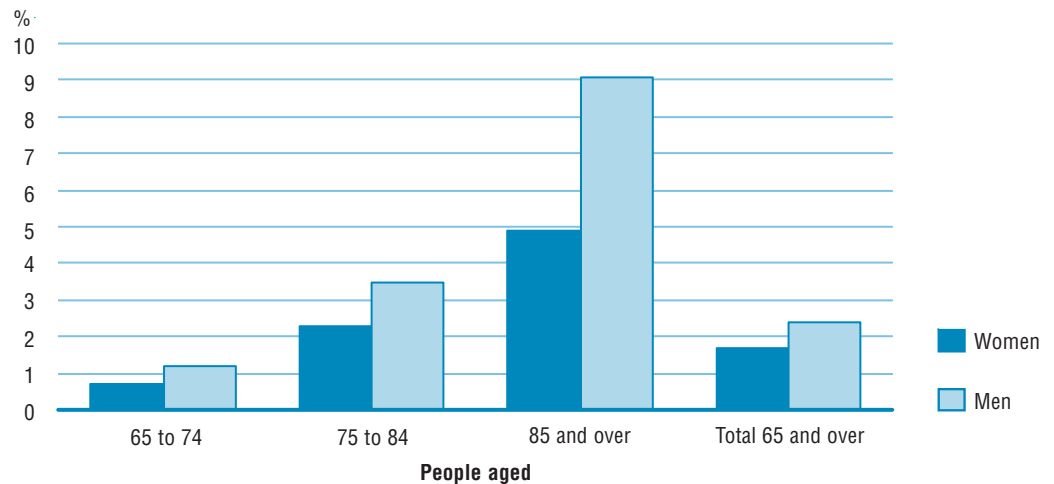


Arthritis or rheumatism and high blood pressure are the most common chronic health problems reported by senior women. In 2003, 55% of all women aged 65 and over living at home had been diagnosed by a health professional with either arthritis or rheumatism, while 47% had high blood pressure. Another 36% of senior women had been diagnosed with food or other allergies including environmental allergies, while 26% had back problems, 24% had cataracts, 18% had a heart condition, 12% had diabetes and another 12% reported they suffered from urinary incontinence. At the same time, smaller percentages of senior women reported having asthma (8%) glaucoma (8%), migraine headaches (7%), chronic bronchitis (6%), or intestinal or stomach ulcers (5%).

In addition, a small percentage of senior women living at home have Alzheimer's Disease. In 2003, 2% of women aged 65 and over living at home had been diagnosed with this condition. The incidence of this disease, though, is higher among those in the oldest age ranges. That year, 5% of women aged 85 and over had Alzheimer's, while the figure was 2% among those aged 75 to 84 and less than 1% among those aged 65 to 74. (Chart 11.6)

Chart 11.6

Percentage of senior women and men living in a private household with Alzheimer's Disease, 2003



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Older senior women, however, are less likely to be diagnosed with Alzheimer's disease than their male counterparts. In 2003, 5% of women aged 85 and over living at home suffered from this condition, compared with 9% of senior men in this age range.

Senior women with disabilities

A substantial share of the senior female population has a long-term disability or handicap. In 2001, 42% of all women aged 65 and over living at home were classified as having disabilities. This was almost twice the figure for women aged 55 to 64, 22% of whom had a disability that year, and well above rates for women under age 55. Senior women were also more likely to have a disability than their male counterparts, 38% of whom had a disability that year. (Table 11.9)

Not surprisingly, the proportion of senior women with a long-term disability rises sharply with age. In 2003, 72% of women aged 85 and over had a disability or handicap, while the figure was 49% among those aged 75 to 84 and 32% for those aged 65 to 74. As well, in each of these age groups, women were slightly more likely than their male counterparts to have a disability.

Senior women experiencing chronic pain

Over one in five senior women in Canada reports they suffer from chronic pain or discomfort. In 2003, 22% of women aged 65 and over living at home reported they experienced chronic pain or discomfort. In fact, senior women are considerably more likely to suffer from chronic pain or discomfort than their male counterparts, just 13% of whom complained of this problem. (Table 11.10)

The likelihood of senior women experiencing chronic pain or discomfort rises somewhat with age. In 2003, 24% of women aged 75 and over living at home suffered from chronic pain, compared with 20% of those aged 65 to 74. Again, women were far more likely than their male counterparts to report suffering from chronic pain or discomfort in both age ranges.

Senior women suffering injuries

Somewhat surprisingly, senior women are no more likely than those in younger age groups to suffer injuries serious enough to limit normal activities. In 2003, 9% of all women aged 65 and over suffered such an injury, the same figure as for women aged 55 to 64 and slightly below that for women between the ages of 25 and 54, 10% of whom were injured that year. Senior women, though, were somewhat more likely than their male counterparts, 9% versus 7%, to have been injured in 2003. (Table 11.11)

Women in older age ranges, though, are more likely than younger senior women to suffer an injury. In fact, those aged 85 and over are the most likely women of any age to be injured. In 2003, 14% of all women aged 85 and over living at home suffered some kind of injury, whereas the figure was 10% or less for all other age groups. In contrast, both women aged 75 to 84 and those aged 65 to 74 were about as likely as women under age 65 to be injured seriously enough to limit their normal activities.

Senior women in the very oldest age ranges are also about twice as likely as their male counterparts to suffer an injury of some sort. In 2003, 14% of all women aged 85 and over living in a private household were injured, compared with 7% of senior men in this age category. In fact, while women aged 85 and over were far more likely than other senior women to be injured, senior men aged 85 and over were no more likely to be injured than other senior men.

Many participate in physical activities

While many senior women have some form of health-related limitation, half of them regularly participate in some form of physical activity. In 2003, 50% of all women aged 65 and over reported they took part in some form of physical activity on a regular basis, while another 12% said they did so occasionally. At the same time, though, almost one in three (32%) senior women only infrequently participated in physical activities. (Table 11.12)



Senior women are somewhat less likely than either younger women or senior men to participate in regular physical activities. In 2003, 50% of women aged 65 and over were regular participants in some form of physical activity, whereas the figure was around 65% or higher among women in age ranges under 65. At the same time, almost 60% of men aged 65 and over indicated they regularly participated in physical activities.

Low levels of educational attainment

Senior women have relatively low levels of formal education. As of 2001, only 5% of all women aged 65 and over had a university degree, compared with 15% of women aged 45 to 64 and 23% of those between the ages of 25 and 44. (Table 11.13)

Senior women are also considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be university graduates. In 2001, 5% of women aged 65 and over had a degree, versus 11% of senior men. The difference between the proportions of senior women and men with university degrees, however, will likely decline in the future as this gap is smaller among men and women in age groups under age 65; indeed, women make up the majority of all university students in Canada today.

While senior women are less likely than their male counterparts to have a university degree, they are more likely to have a diploma or certificate from a community college. In 2001, 11% of all women aged 65 and over, versus 8% of senior men, had completed a college program.

The majority of today's senior women, though, never completed high school. In 2001, 60% of all women aged 65 and over had not completed high school. As well, these women were more likely than senior men to have not graduated from high school.

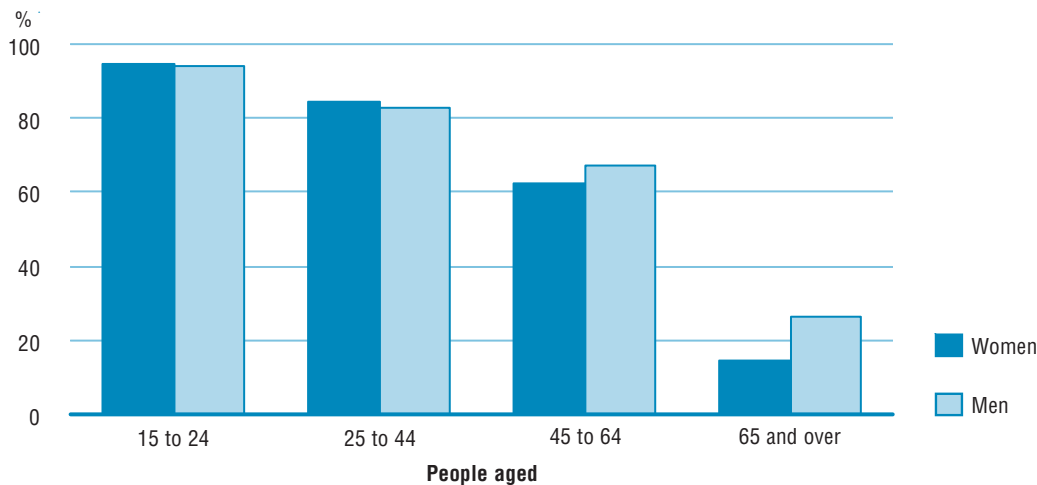
It should be pointed out, though, that the educational opportunities and facilities that were available to today's seniors when they were young were considerably more limited than they were for subsequent generations. As a result, the educational attainment levels of seniors will be greater in the future than they are today, just as today's seniors are actually better educated than seniors were in the past.

Internet usage among senior women

Relatively few senior women use the Internet. In 2003, just 14% of women aged 65 and over reported using the Internet in the previous 12 months, compared with 63% of women aged 45 to 64, 84% of those aged 25 to 44 and 94% of those aged 15 to 24. Senior women were also only about a half as likely as men aged 65 and over to report using the Internet in the previous year. (Chart 11.7)

Chart 11.7

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over who reported using the Internet in the previous 12 months, 2003



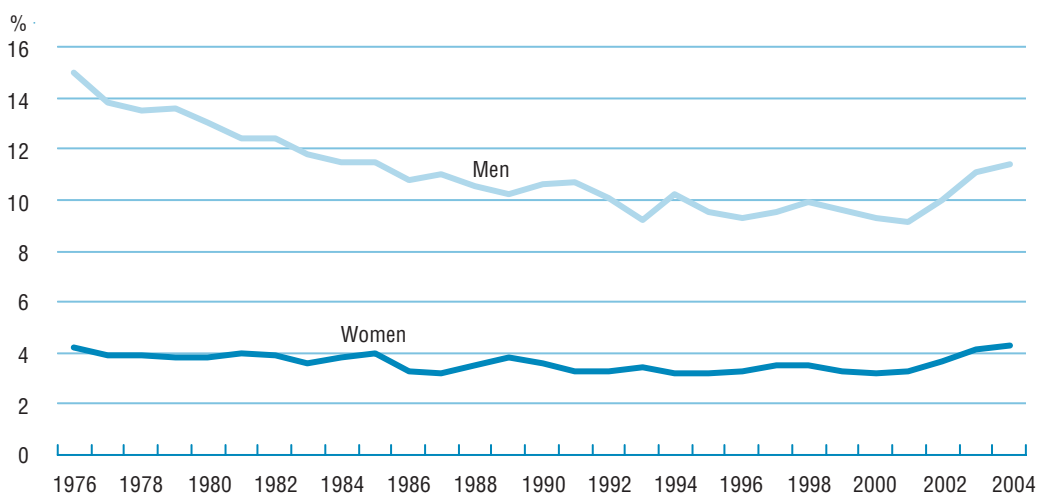
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Few senior women employed

Only a small proportion of senior women are part of the paid workforce. Indeed, in 2004, just 4% of women aged 65 and over had paying jobs, compared with over 11% of senior men. As well, there has been little change in the share of senior women with jobs over the course of the past three decades. On the other hand, the proportion of senior men participating in the paid work force declined steadily from around 15% in the mid-1970s to 9% in 2001. However, the share of senior men with jobs spiked up in this decade to 11% in 2004. (Chart 11.8)

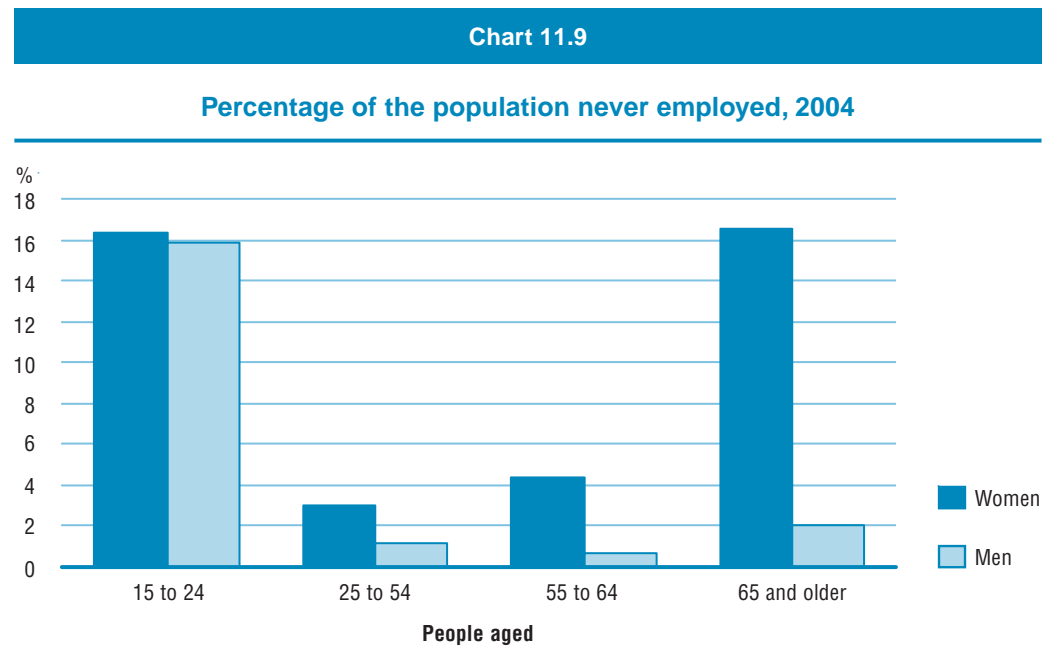
Chart 11.8

Percentage of senior women and men employed, 1976 to 2004



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

As well, a substantial proportion of senior women have never been part of the paid workforce. As of 2004, 17% of all women aged 65 and over, compared with just 2% of men in this age range, had never worked outside the home. (Chart 11.9)



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

This situation will change in the future, however, because women in younger age groups are currently much more likely to be part of the paid workforce than were their senior counterparts. Indeed, as of 2004, only 4% of women aged 55 to 64, and just 3% of those aged 25 to 54, had never been employed outside the home.

A substantial majority of senior women who do work outside the home are employed part-time. In 2004, 63% of women aged 65 and over who participated in the paid workforce worked part-time, compared with 37% of employed senior men.³

At the same time, close to half of employed senior women are self-employed. In 2004, 45% of employed women aged 65 and over worked for themselves, although this was less than the figure for employed senior men, 59% of whom were self-employed that year.

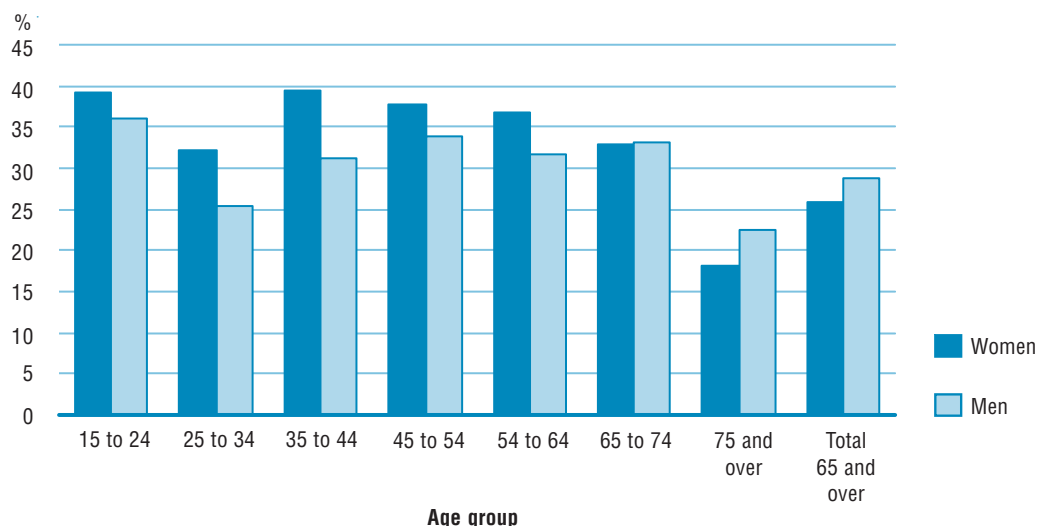
There are also differences in the occupational distribution of senior women and men with jobs. Senior women, for example, were twice as likely as their male counterparts to work in clerical, sales, or service occupations in 2004. Indeed, that year, 50% of employed senior women worked in one of these areas, versus 25% of employed men aged 65 and over. In contrast, senior women were considerably less likely than senior men to work in agriculture, manufacturing, construction, and transportation that year; they were also less likely to have managerial jobs.

Volunteer activities

While relatively few senior women are part of the paid workforce, many stay active in their communities through participation in formal volunteer activities. In 2003, over half a million Canadian women aged 65 and over, 26% of the total, participated in some kind of unpaid volunteer work through an organization. (Chart 11.10)

Chart 11.10

Percentage of women and men doing unpaid volunteer work for an organization,¹ by age, 2003



1. Refers to volunteer work done in the 12 months prior to the survey.

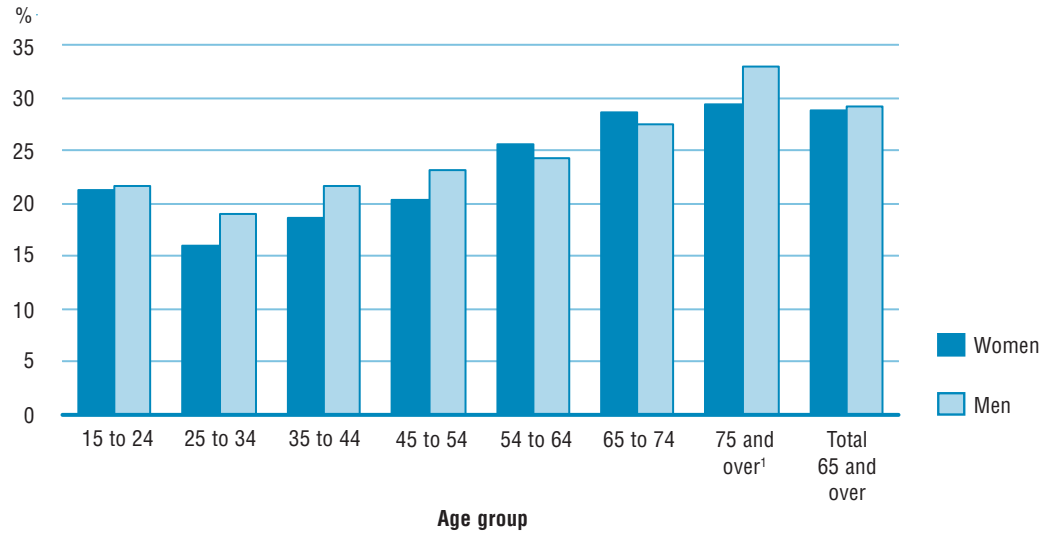
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Women aged 65 to 74 are somewhat more likely than those in older age ranges to participate in formal volunteer activities. In 2003, 33% of women aged 65 to 74 participated in some kind of unpaid volunteer work through an organization, compared with 18% of their counterparts aged 75 and over. In fact, the participation rate of women aged 65 to 74 in formal activities was exactly the same as that for men in this age range, whereas among those aged 75 and over women were less likely to volunteer through a formal organization. Many women in the latter age range, though, are precluded from participating in these types of activities by physical limitations or ill health.

Senior women who do volunteer work tend to devote more time to these activities than younger women. In 2003, 29% of female volunteers aged 65 and over averaged over 15 hours a month on unpaid volunteer work activities, while this was the case for 26% of female volunteers aged 55 to 64 and only around 20% or less of female volunteers in age ranges under 55. (Chart 11.11)

Chart 11.11

Percentage of women and men doing unpaid volunteer work for an organization spending more than 15 hours per month on these activities, 2003



1. The figure for males aged 75 and over should be used with caution.

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

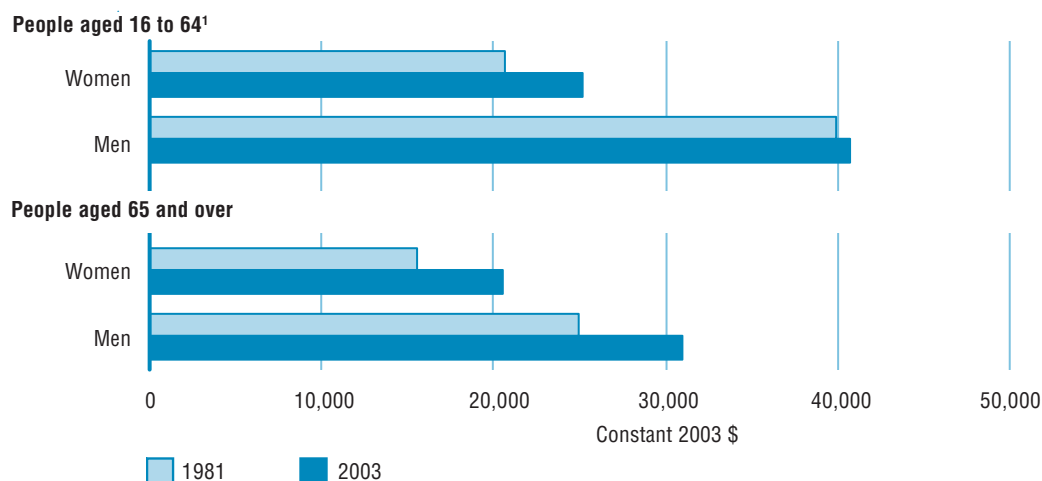
Average income of senior women

Senior women in Canada have relatively low incomes. In 2003, women aged 65 and over had an average income from all sources of just over \$20,000. This was almost \$5,000 less than the average income of women under age 65, and more than \$10,000 less, on average, than senior men. (Chart 11.12)

The real incomes of senior women, however, have risen faster than those of other groups since the early 1980s. Indeed, the average annual income of women aged 65 and over in 2003 was 32% higher than in 1981, once the effects of inflation had been taken into account, whereas the figure for senior men was up 24% in the same period, while that of women under age 65 rose 22%. On the other hand, there was only a 2% increase in the average incomes of men under age 65 in this period.

Chart 11.12

Average income of women and men, by age, 1981 and 2003



1. Data for 1981 include 15-year-olds.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB; and Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Dependent on transfer payments

Over half the income of senior women in Canada comes from government transfer programs. In 2003, 55% of all income of women aged 65 and over came from sources such as Old Age Security (OAS), including Guaranteed Income Supplements (GIS) and spouse's allowances, and the Canada and Quebec pension plans (C/QPP). In fact, senior women are somewhat more dependent on government transfer payments than their male counterparts, 41% of whose income came from these sources that year. (Table 11.14)

The Old Age Security program, including GIS payments and spouse's allowances, accounts for the largest share of the total government transfer payments received by senior women. In 2003, 32% of all income of these women came from the OAS program, including 24% which came in the form of regular benefits and another 7% which came as GIS payments or spouse's allowances.

At the same time, just over one in five of every dollar received by senior women comes from the Canada and Quebec pension plans. In 2003, 21% of all income of women aged 65 and over came from these programs. In fact, senior women received the same share of their income from C/QPP as did senior men that year. In terms of the actual dollars received, however, senior women received, on average, over \$2,000 less in C/QPP payments than senior men. There is considerable variation in the primary income sources of senior women and men. Old Age Security benefits, including Guaranteed Income Supplements, for example, make up a particularly large share of the incomes of senior women. In 1996, 39% of all income of women aged 65 and over came from this program, compared with 22% of that of their male counterparts. (Table 12.18)

Private employment-related retirement pensions also currently account for a substantial share of the income of senior women. In 2003, 26% of the income of women aged 65 and over came from these plans. This was less, though, than the figure for senior men, who got 41% of their total from private employment pensions that year. And in

terms of the actual dollars received, senior women got over \$7,000 less per person on average from private pensions than did senior men.

Differences in the amount of pension dollars from both public and private retirement plans received by senior women and men result, in part, from the fact that historically women have been less likely than men to be part of the paid work force and were therefore less likely to contribute to these plans. As well, because women's earnings have traditionally been lower than those of their male counterparts, their contributions, and therefore their subsequent benefits, are in many cases also lower. The differences between the proportions of the income of senior women and men coming from both private and public retirement pensions, though, is likely to narrow in the future as the proportion of women who are working, and in the process contributing to these plans, continues to rise.

Low income among senior women down

One of the great success stories of social policy in Canada in recent decades has been the reduction of low income among senior women. In 2003, just 9% of women aged 65 and over lived in an after-tax low-income situation, compared with 27% in the early 1980s when senior women were by far the most likely age group to be considered to have low incomes. Indeed, women aged 65 and over are currently actually less likely than their counterparts under age 65 to live in a low income situation. (Table 11.15)

The share of senior women with low incomes, though, is still twice as high as that of senior men. In 2002, 9% of women aged 65 and over, versus just over 4% of their male counterparts, lived in an after-tax low-income situation.

The relatively low overall proportion of senior women with low incomes, however, masks the fact that unattached senior women still have one of the highest rates of low income in Canada. In fact, in 2003, 19% of women aged 65 and over who lived alone were in a low-income situation, once taxes were taken into account. In contrast, just 2% of senior women living in a family were considered to be in an after-tax low-income situation. As well, unattached senior women are more likely than their male counterparts to be classified as having after-tax low incomes: 19% versus 15%. (Table 11.16)

The incidence of low income among unattached senior women, though, has dropped sharply since the early 1980s. In 2003, 19% of these women were classified as having after-tax low incomes, down from 57% in 1980.

Notes

1. Projections are based on assumptions of medium population growth.
2. Note that the data and subsequent sections refer only to those living at home and do not include those living in an institution. Given that almost by definition those living in an institution have more health problems than those living at home, these data tend to underestimate the totality of health problems among the senior population.
3. The data in the remainder of this section are from Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey.

Table 11.1

Population aged 65 and over, 1921 to 2004 and projections to 2051

	Women	Men	Total	Women aged 65 and over as a percent of total female population	Women as a percent of population aged 65 and over
		000s			
1921	204.9	215.1	420.0	4.8	48.8
1931	281.4	294.7	576.1	5.6	48.8
1941	376.9	391.1	768.0	6.7	49.1
1951	534.9	551.4	1,086.3	7.7	49.2
1961	717.0	674.1	1,391.2	7.9	51.5
1971	972.0	790.3	1,762.3	8.9	55.2
1981	1,360.1	1,017.2	2,377.3	10.9	57.2
1991	1,867.4	1,349.8	3,217.3	13.2	58.0
1996	2,065.2	1,513.8	3,579.0	13.8	57.7
2001	2,237.9	1,685.1	3,923.1	14.3	57.0
2004	2,345.5	1,795.4	4,141.0	14.5	56.6
Projections¹					
2016	3,181.2	2,521.2	5,702.4	18.3	55.8
2021	3,681.1	2,989.6	6,670.6	20.6	55.2
2026	4,237.4	3,515.5	7,753.0	23.2	54.7
2031	4,705.9	3,950.2	8,656.1	25.4	54.4
2036	4,934.0	4,132.7	9,066.7	26.4	54.4
2041	5,035.8	4,197.1	9,232.9	26.9	54.5
2046	5,087.2	4,231.4	9,318.7	27.2	54.6
2051	5,108.9	4,257.5	9,366.4	27.4	54.5

1. Based on assumptions of medium population growth.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Table 11.2

Life expectancy of women and men aged 65, 1921 to 2002

	Remaining life expectancy at age 65		
	Women	Men	Total
		Years	
1921 ^{1,2}	13.6	13.0	13.3
1931 ²	13.7	13.0	13.3
1941 ²	14.1	12.8	13.4
1951	15.0	13.3	14.1
1961	16.1	13.6	14.8
1971	17.6	13.8	15.7
1981	18.9	14.6	16.8
1991	19.9	15.8	18.0
1996	20.0	16.1	18.2
2002	20.6	17.2	19.1

1. Excludes Quebec.

2. Excludes Newfoundland.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-537-XPB; and Health Statistics Division.

Table 11.3

Family status of women and men, by age, 2001

	Seniors aged							
	65 to 74		75 to 84		85 and over		Total 65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Living with family								
With husband or wife	55.2	76.4	33.0	71.2	11.7	55.6	43.2	73.5
With common-law partner ¹	1.7	3.4	0.7	1.9	0.3	1.2	1.2	2.8
Lone parent	6.8	1.7	8.7	2.6	12.1	5.2	8.0	2.2
Living with extended family members	5.5	2.1	8.8	3.2	14.8	6.9	7.5	2.7
Total living with family	69.4	83.9	51.3	78.8	38.8	68.9	60.1	81.4
Not living with family								
Living alone	28.9	14.3	47.3	19.4	59.4	29.3	38.3	16.8
Living with non-relatives	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.8
Total not living with family	30.6	16.1	48.7	21.2	61.2	31.1	39.9	18.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000s)	1,109.1	987.6	722.0	500.8	187.8	96.0	2,018.8	1,584.4

1. Includes same-sex couples.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 11.4

Family status of women and men aged 65 and over, by immigrant status, 2001

	Women			Men		
	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ¹	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Recent immigrants ¹	Non-immigrants
	%					
Living with family						
Spouses	45.1	37.1	42.5	77.7	81.9	71.8
Common-law partners	0.7	0.4	1.4	1.8	0.8	3.2
Lone parents	9.1	13.8	7.6	2.4	3.3	2.1
Children living with parents	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Living with extended family	12.9	34.8	5.4	3.4	8.4	2.4
Total living with family	67.9	86.4	57.1	85.4	94.4	79.7
Not living with family						
Living with non-relatives only	1.4	1.9	1.7	1.3	0.9	2.0
Living alone	30.7	11.7	41.2	13.3	4.7	18.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Refers to those who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 2000 and the first four months of 2001.

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 11.5

Women and men living in an institution, by age, 2001

Seniors aged	Percentage of the total population living in				
	Hospitals	Nursing care homes	Residences for seniors	Religious institutions	Total in institutions
	%				
65 to 74					
Women	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.3	2.1
Men	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.8
Total	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.2	2.0
75 to 84					
Women	3.4	3.0	2.3	0.6	9.3
Men	2.5	1.9	1.3	0.2	6.0
Total	3.1	2.6	1.9	0.4	8.0
85 and over					
Women	14.3	12.2	7.6	0.8	35.0
Men	8.7	7.5	5.3	0.4	22.0
Total	12.6	10.8	6.9	0.7	31.1
Total aged 65 and over					
Women	3.5	2.9	2.0	0.4	9.0
Men	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.2	4.6
Total	2.9	2.3	1.6	0.4	7.1

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 11.6

**Cancer death rates among women and men aged 60 and over,
by type of cancer, 1980 and 2002**

	People aged					
	60 to 69		70 to 79		80 and over	
	1980	2002	1980	2002	1980	2002
	Deaths per 100,000 population					
Lung						
Women	67.4	135.2	85.8	224.9	76.8	225.8
Men	290.5	232.0	471.2	449.6	460.8	587.7
Total	172.0	182.2	253.2	325.0	213.4	350.6
Breast						
Women	93.2	74.7	121.8	113.0	168.9	206.7
Prostate						
Men	44.1	40.4	170.5	155.3	510.2	524.7
Colorectal						
Women	62.5	48.2	131.7	104.0	262.3	247.7
Men	85.6	85.9	185.0	171.7	323.7	342.9
Total	73.3	66.5	154.8	134.2	284.2	280.6
Other cancers						
Women	225.9	212.4	419.4	423.2	773.9	764.0
Men	340.6	295.8	636.6	629.4	1,036.4	1,132.0
Total	279.7	253.0	513.8	515.1	867.3	890.9
All cancers						
Women	449.0	470.6	758.7	865.0	1,282.0	1,444.3
Men	760.9	654.8	1,463.2	1,408.4	2,331.1	2,590.6
Total	595.2	560.1	1,064.8	1,107.2	1,655.3	1,839.4

Sources: Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division and Demography Division.

Table 11.7

General health of seniors living in a private household, 2003

People aged	Percentage describing their health as ¹					Total
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	
	%					
65 to 74						
Women	11.8	27.4	38.0	17.4	5.2	100.0
Men	14.4	26.8	36.3	16.7	5.9	100.0
Total	13.0	27.2	37.2	17.1	5.5	100.0
75 to 84						
Women	8.2	22.6	36.7	24.6	7.8	100.0
Men	10.7	23.3	35.3	22.1	8.6	100.0
Total	9.3	22.9	36.2	23.6	8.1	100.0
85 and over						
Women	10.1	20.5	37.3	24.9	7.2	100.0
Men	10.4	22.0	30.2	22.4	15.0	100.0
Total	10.2	21.0	35.1	24.1	9.6	100.0
Total 65 and over						
Women	10.4	25.0	37.4	20.8	6.4	100.0
Men	13.0	25.4	35.6	18.7	7.2	100.0
Total	11.5	25.2	36.7	19.9	6.7	100.0

1. Excludes not stated responses.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 11.8

**Percentage of women and men living in a private household reporting
selected chronic conditions, by age, 2003**

	People aged							
	65 to 74		75 to 84		85 and over		Total 65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Food allergies	9.1	4.6	8.1	4.4	8.3	3.4	8.7	4.5
Other allergies ¹	29.3	16.4	25.7	15.9	20.8	13.0	27.2	16.1
Asthma	8.5	6.4	8.0	8.0	6.0	6.3	8.1	6.9
Arthritis/rheumatism	52.1	35.0	56.9	41.7	60.0	42.0	54.6	37.6
Back problems ²	25.4	22.3	26.8	20.4	26.9	19.4	26.1	21.5
High blood pressure	44.2	37.3	51.0	37.8	48.0	32.2	47.0	37.2
Migraine headaches	8.0	4.2	5.2	2.7	5.6	2.6	6.7	3.6
Diabetes	12.0	16.4	12.3	14.7	9.8	10.2	11.9	15.5
Heart disease	13.3	18.3	22.1	26.4	30.7	33.4	18.1	21.8
Cancer	3.9	6.2	4.7	8.5	4.0	9.3	4.2	7.1
Intestinal/stomach ulcers	4.6	4.4	4.5	3.7	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.2
Effects of a stroke	2.6	3.7	5.4	6.9	5.7	12.5	3.9	5.2
Urinary incontinence	9.5	6.6	13.4	11.6	20.5	18.5	12.0	8.9
Cataracts	19.1	11.8	29.9	22.0	33.6	26.4	24.4	15.9
Glaucoma	5.3	4.1	9.1	7.5	14.1	8.1	7.6	5.4
Chronic bronchitis	5.8	3.7	5.3	5.0	4.3	6.6	5.5	4.3
Emphysema ³	2.6	3.7	3.3	4.8	3.5	7.5	2.9	4.3
At least one chronic condition	91.4	85.8	94.0	89.2	94.9	92.1	92.7	87.1

1. Includes environmental allergies.

2. Excludes fibromyalgia and arthritis.

3. Includes chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 11.9

**Percentage of females and males living in a private household with
long-term disabilities, by age, 2001**

People aged	Women	Men	Total
	%		
0 to 14	2.5	4.0	3.3
15 to 24	4.0	3.8	3.9
25 to 44	7.4	6.6	7.1
45 to 54	14.3	12.6	13.4
55 to 64	22.4	21.1	21.8
65 to 74	32.0	30.2	31.2
75 to 84	49.4	48.8	49.2
85 and over	71.8	69.3	71.0
Total aged 65 and over	42.0	38.4	40.4
Total for all age groups¹	13.3	11.5	12.4

1. Excludes the Yukon, Northwest Territories and Nunavut.

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 11.10

Percentage of females and males living in a private household experiencing chronic pain or discomfort,¹ by age, 2003

People aged	Women	Men	Total
		%	
12 to 34	6.7	3.4	5.0
35 to 44	10.4	9.8	10.1
45 to 54	16.5	9.7	13.2
55 to 64	18.7	11.9	15.3
65 to 74	20.0	11.4	15.9
75 and over	23.8	15.1	20.4
Total 65 and over	21.7	12.7	17.8

1. Refers to pain or discomfort that prevents a few, some or most activities.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 11.11

Percentage of women and men living in a private household injured in the past 12 months, by age, 2003

People aged	Women	Men	Total
		%	
25 to 54	10.4	14.7	12.5
55 to 64	9.0	9.1	9.1
65 to 74	8.1	6.7	7.4
75 to 84	9.1	6.7	8.1
85 and over	13.7	7.0	11.6
Total 65 and over	9.0	6.8	8.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 11.12

Frequency of participation in physical activities, by age, 2003

People aged	Frequency of physical activity				Total
	Regular	Occasional	Infrequent	Not stated	
	%				
15 to 24					
Women	69.2	16.4	12.7	1.7	100.0
Men	74.2	13.2	9.8	2.8	100.0
Total	71.7	14.8	11.2	2.3	100.0
25 to 44					
Women	66.0	16.4	16.5	1.0	100.0
Men	62.0	19.0	17.1	1.9	100.0
Total	64.0	17.7	16.8	1.4	100.0
45 to 54					
Women	64.3	14.8	19.4	1.6	100.0
Men	60.5	19.5	18.1	1.9	100.0
Total	62.4	17.1	18.7	1.7	100.0
55 to 64					
Women	64.2	13.0	20.4	2.4	100.0
Men	60.8	16.0	20.3	2.9	100.0
Total	62.5	14.5	20.3	2.7	100.0
65 and over					
Women	49.9	11.6	32.4	6.1	100.0
Men	58.7	11.0	21.2	9.1	100.0
Total	53.7	11.4	27.5	7.4	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey.

Table 11.13

Educational attainment of women and men, by age, 2001

Educational attainment	People aged							
	20 to 24		25 to 44		45 to 64		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Less than high school graduation	13.4	19.2	15.9	19.5	29.6	28.3	59.7	54.2
High school graduate	12.7	17.2	14.3	13.3	17.5	12.7	12.9	8.9
Trades certificate/diploma	6.9	9.4	9.8	16.2	8.7	17.0	5.2	13.4
Some postsecondary	29.4	29.1	11.0	10.9	8.0	7.6	6.2	5.2
Postsecondary certificate/diploma	23.7	16.8	26.2	19.3	21.4	15.0	11.4	7.7
University degree	13.8	8.4	22.8	20.8	14.7	19.4	4.6	10.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population (000s)	963.3	980.5	4,607.9	4,439.2	3,680.0	3,561.2	2,032.8	1,592.1

Source: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census of Canada.

Table 11.14

Sources of income of senior women and men,¹ 2003

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
Wages and salaries	3.2	6.0	4.7
Net income from self-employment	1.1	2.1	1.7
Total employment income	4.3	8.1	6.4
Investment income	12.6	8.8	10.5
Retirement pensions	26.3	40.5	34.0
Other income	1.5	1.3	1.4
Income from government transfers			
Old Age Security	24.4	15.3	19.5
Guaranteed Income Supplement/Spouse's Allowance	7.3	3.0	5.0
Canada/Quebec Pension Plan benefits	20.5	20.2	20.4
Social assistance	0.5	0.1	0.3
Other government transfers	2.6	2.8	2.5
Total government transfers	55.3	41.4	47.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Includes income recipients only.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 11.15

Percentage of the population with low income after tax, by age, 1980 to 2003¹

	People aged					
	Under 18		18 to 64		65 and over	
	Females	Males	Women	Men	Women	Men
1980	12.5	11.6	11.8	8.3	26.7	14.5
1981	12.7	12.1	11.4	8.4	26.3	14.2
1982	14.5	13.6	11.9	9.8	23.8	9.8
1983	15.4	15.8	13.7	11.3	24.4	12.6
1984	15.9	16.0	13.9	11.1	20.7	10.3
1985	15.6	15.5	13.1	10.3	19.3	8.4
1986	13.5	13.9	12.3	10.1	17.6	8.1
1987	13.7	13.5	12.2	9.9	16.7	7.2
1988	12.4	11.9	11.4	8.6	17.5	6.8
1989	11.8	11.6	10.8	8.0	15.1	6.1
1990	14.3	13.2	12.5	10.0	14.4	5.9
1991	14.7	15.2	13.9	11.7	14.5	6.6
1992	14.8	15.1	14.2	12.2	13.4	5.1
1993	17.1	16.4	14.9	12.8	14.8	7.1
1994	16.3	15.4	15.0	12.7	11.9	4.1
1995	17.9	17.3	15.4	13.7	12.2	3.8
1996	18.1	19.1	16.6	14.8	13.0	5.6
1997	17.5	18.0	16.7	14.3	11.8	5.6
1998	14.9	16.0	15.0	12.9	11.1	5.4
1999	14.1	14.7	14.0	12.7	10.3	4.7
2000	14.2	13.4	14.1	11.8	10.0	4.6
2001	12.2	12.0	12.8	10.6	8.3	4.6
2002	11.8	12.7	13.1	11.0	9.7	4.9
2003	12.1	12.6	12.7	11.4	8.7	4.4

1. Based on Statistics Canada's Low-income Cut-offs, 1992 base.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Table 11.16

**Percentage of senior women and men with low income after tax,
by family status, 1980 to 2003¹**

	In families		Unattached individuals	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
			%	
1980	5.5	6.5	57.1	47.0
1981	6.5	8.1	53.5	39.0
1982	5.3	4.9	50.8	32.3
1983	4.4	6.6	51.2	40.0
1984	5.1	5.7	43.4	32.6
1985	3.6	4.4	42.1	28.7
1986	4.1	4.5	37.2	26.2
1987	3.5	3.9	35.2	23.0
1988	3.9	4.3	35.6	18.7
1989	2.9	3.4	31.9	18.8
1990	2.2	2.6	30.5	20.6
1991	2.7	2.8	30.8	23.8
1992	2.7	2.5	28.8	16.9
1993	3.3	3.7	30.4	21.3
1994	2.5	2.1	25.3	13.1
1995	1.9	1.9	26.7	12.1
1996	3.1	2.5	27.3	19.8
1997	3.8	3.0	23.7	17.2
1998	3.9	2.7	22.0	17.5
1999	2.3	2.0	22.3	17.2
2000	2.5	1.7	21.6	17.6
2001	1.9	1.9	18.6	16.8
2002	2.4	2.3	20.7	15.9
2003	2.3	2.0	18.9	14.7

1. Based on Statistics Canada's Low-income Cut-offs, 1992 base.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics*.

Chapter 12

Women with Disabilities

By *Patric Fournier-Savard*

More women with disabilities

The full participation of persons with disabilities in all aspects of society has been a major policy objective of governments across Canada in recent years. In 2001, almost 2 million women—13% of the total female population—had disabilities.¹ (Table 12.1)

In fact, females make up the majority of the Canadian population with disabilities. In 2001, 54% of those who had a disability were women, whereas females accounted for only 51% of the total population. That year, 13.3% of Canadian females had a disability, compared with 11.5% of the male population.

Defining disability

Disability is difficult to define because it is a complex concept with both objective and subjective characteristics. In fact, constructing a single, harmonized definition of disability may be impossible given the many realities covered in the concept of disabilities, from real or perceived impairments to environmental barriers that restrict participation in a range of activities.

In addition, disability is a fluid rather than a static concept. A disability may be mild or profound; it may also be temporary or permanent. Some disabilities may be constant throughout a person's life, while others undergo periods of remission or are progressively degenerative. Further, just like the overall Canadian population, the population with disabilities is very diverse. Those with disabilities cross boundaries of culture, race, class, education and age. As well, the consequences of a disability for one individual may be different from that of another.

As a result, there is currently no single definition of disability at the federal level in Canada. For the purposes of this report, however, those with a disability include individuals whose ability to carry out everyday activities is limited by a physical or mental condition or health problem as self-identified based on a set of standardized questions.

It should also be noted that the population with disabilities discussed in this chapter includes only those living in a private household. Data on persons with disabilities residing in an institution are not currently available.

Disabilities increase with age

The likelihood of women having disabilities increases with age. In 2001, 42% of all women aged 65 and over had a disability. This was almost twice the figure among women aged 55 to 64, 22% of whom had a disability, and well above figures for women in younger age groups. That year, for example, just 12% of women between the ages of 35 and 54, 5% of those aged 15 to 34, and just 3% of those under the age of 15 were considered to have a disability.

The prevalence of disabilities also increases among women in older age groups in the senior population. Indeed, in 2001, 72% of all women 85 years and over had disabilities, while the figures were 50% among women aged 75 to 84 and 32% for women aged 65 to 74.

Disabilities also increase with age among senior men. There are, however, no statistical differences in the incidence of disabilities among women and men in different age ranges in the senior population. Among those aged 85 and over in 2001, for example, 72% of women and 69% of males had a disability. Because women make up the majority of Canadians seniors, though, there are far more senior women than men with disabilities. Indeed, that year, there were 136,000 women aged 85 and over with disabilities, twice the actual number of men in this age with disabilities.

Severity of disability

The largest proportion of women with disabilities have a mild disability.² In 2001, 32% of women aged 15 and over with disabilities had a mild disability, while 25% had a moderate disability, 28% had a severe disability, and 14% had a very severe disability. That year, just over 800,000 women, nearly 7% of all women aged 15 and over, had disabilities which were considered severe or very severe. (Table 12.2)

Not surprisingly, senior women are more likely than their younger counterparts to have a severe disability. In 2001, 6% of all women aged 65 and over had a very severe disability, while 12% had what was reported as a severe disability. Again, these figures were about twice those for women aged 55 to 64 and well above those for females in younger age groups.

Among seniors, women are also somewhat more likely than men to have a severe disability. In 2001, 12% of women aged 65 and over had a severe disability, versus 9% of men in this age range. In contrast, there was no statistical difference in the shares of senior women and men with very severe disabilities. There were also few differences in the incidence of disability among females and males in younger age groups.

Family status of women with disabilities

As with the overall population, most women with disabilities live with their family.³ In 2001, 64% of women aged 15 and over with a disability were either a spouse in a husband-wife or common-law family, a lone parent, or a daughter living at home with her parents. That year, 47% of women with a disability were living with their husband or common-law partner, 12% were lone parents, while 5% were living at home with their parents. (Table 12.3)

At the same time, though, many women with disabilities live outside a family setting. In 2001, 684,000 women aged 15 and over with disabilities—36% of the total—either lived alone, with another relative, or with an unrelated person. In fact, women with disabilities are much more likely than their male counterparts to live outside their

family. That year, just 24% of men with disabilities lived alone, with another relative, or with an unrelated person.

Senior women with disabilities are particularly likely not to live with family members. In 2001, 53% of women aged 65 and over with disabilities lived alone, with other relatives, or with an unrelated person. This compared with just 24% of senior men with disabilities and 22% of women with disabilities under age 65.

In contrast, women aged 65 and over with disabilities are only about half as likely as senior men with disabilities to be living with their spouse. In 2001, 35% of these women, versus 70% of senior men women, were married.

There is less variation in the family situation of women and men in the 15 to 64 age group with disabilities. In fact, women with disabilities in this age range were just as likely as men with disabilities either to live with a spouse or common-law partner or to not live with their family.

Women aged 15 to 64 with disabilities, however, are considerably more likely than their male counterparts to be lone parents. In 2001, 13% of these women were lone parents, compared with just 3% of their male counterparts.

Level of education

Women with disabilities generally have a lower level of education than women with no disabilities. Of the population aged 15 and over, 10% of women with disabilities had a university degree in 2001, compared with 19% of women without disabilities. At the same time, close to half (48%) of women with disabilities in this age range had not completed high school, whereas the figure among their counterparts without disabilities was only 28%. (Table 12.4)

Women with disabilities, though, are about as well educated as their male counterparts. In 2001, 10% of both women and men with disabilities aged 15 and over had a university degree. At the same time, women with disabilities in this age range were more likely to have a community college diploma than their male counterparts, while they were less likely to have a diploma from a trade school. Women aged 15 and over with disabilities were also about as likely as men with disabilities not have a high school diploma.

As with the overall population, education levels of women with disabilities decline with age. At all ages, though, the educational attainment of women with disabilities is well below that of their counterparts without disabilities. Among those aged 55 to 64, for example, women with a disability were only half as likely as those with no disability to have a university degree in 2001: 8% versus 16%. (Table 12.5)

There is a somewhat smaller gap in the education levels of women aged 15 to 34 with and without disabilities. Still, in 2001, 13% of women in this age range with disabilities had a university degree, compared with 20% women without disabilities. Women aged 15 to 34 with disabilities were also somewhat more likely than their counterparts without disabilities, 30% versus 26%, not to have completed high school.

Women with disabilities between the ages of 15 and 34, though, tend to be better educated than men in this age range with disabilities. In 2001, 13% of women aged 15 to 34 with disabilities had a university degree, close to twice the figure of 7% among men in this age range with disabilities. At the same time, 30% of females in this age category with disabilities had not finished high school, compared with 40% of their male counterparts. This contrasts with the situation for people with disabilities aged 55 and over, among whom men tend to be better educated than women.



Fewer women with disabilities employed

Women with disabilities are generally less likely to be employed than women without disabilities. In 2001, just 40% of women aged 15 to 64 with disabilities were part of the Canadian work force, compared with 69% of women in this age range without disabilities. Women without disabilities were also somewhat less likely than their male counterparts, 40% versus 47%, to be employed that year. (Table 12.6)

The gap between the employment levels of women both with and without disabilities tends to rise with age, although women with disabilities are considerably less likely than their counterparts without disabilities to be employed in all age groups. Indeed, there is a particularly large difference among those aged 55 to 64. In 2001, just 22% of women in this age range with disabilities were part of the paid work force. This was less than the half the figure for their counterparts without disabilities, 46% of whom were employed that year.

Women aged 15 to 34 with disabilities are also less likely than women in this age range without disabilities to be employed. In 2001, 52% of women aged 15 to 34 with disabilities were part of the paid work force, compared with 66% of their counterparts without disabilities. Women aged 15 to 34 with disabilities, though, were about as likely to be employed as men in this age range with disabilities, whereas women in age groups over the age of 35 with disabilities were less likely than men in these age ranges to be employed.

Not surprisingly, the likelihood of women with disabilities being employed declines among those with more serious disabilities. Indeed, in 2001, just 15% of women aged 15 to 64 with a very severe disability, and 29% of those with a severe disability, were part of the paid work force, compared with 47% of those with moderate disabilities and 57% of those with a mild disability. (Table 12.7)

This pattern also holds for men with disabilities, although women with disabilities are generally less likely than their male counterparts to be employed whatever the level of disability. The exception to this pattern are those with very severe disabilities. In 2001, 15% of women aged 15 to 64 with very severe disabilities were employed, compared with only 12% of men in this age range with disabilities. In contrast, employment rates for women with both mild and moderate disabilities were around 10 percentage points below those of their respective male counterparts, while there were no statistical differences in the employment rates of women and men with severe disabilities.

Employment increases with education

As with the overall population, employment levels among women with disabilities rise the higher the level of educational attainment. In 2001, 66% of female university graduates aged 15 to 64 with a disability were employed, compared with 54% of those with a college diploma, 42% of those with a high school diploma and only 22% of those who had not completed high school. (Table 12.8)

Whatever their level of education women with disabilities are less likely than women without a disability to be employed. The gap between the employment rates of women with and without disabilities, though, declines the higher the level of educational attainment. In 2001, women aged 15 to 64 with disabilities who had not completed high school were less than half as likely as their counterparts without disabilities to be employed. In contrast, the share of women with disabilities with a university degree with a job was only 14 percentage points below that of female university graduates without disabilities: 66% versus 80%.

At the same time, women with disabilities with either a university degree or community college diploma were about as likely as their male counterparts to be employed. Among university graduates with a disability, 66% of women and 64% of men were employed in 2001. Similarly, 54% of women with disabilities with a community college diploma, versus 58% of their male counterparts, were part of the paid workforce that year. On the other hand, women with disabilities with lower levels of education were somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be employed that year.

Most in traditional female jobs

Like their counterparts without disabilities, a substantial share of female labour force participants work in areas which have historically been dominated by women. Indeed, in 2001, almost half of all female labour force participants with disabilities worked in either sales or service jobs or in administrative positions. That year, 25% of these women worked in sales or service jobs, while another 24% were employed in administrative positions. (Table 12.9)

The overall share of women with disabilities working in either sales or service jobs or administrative positions, though, is somewhat smaller than that for their non-disabled counterparts. In 2001, 49% of female labour force participants with disabilities worked in one of these two areas, compared with 55% of women without disabilities.

As with the non-disabled population, women with disabilities are much more likely than their male counterparts to be employed in sales and service jobs and administrative positions. In 2001, 49% of female labour force participants with disabilities worked in these types of jobs, versus just 28% of men with disabilities.

At the same time, relatively few women with disabilities are employed in management positions. In 2001, just 4% of all female labour force participants with disabilities were employed as managers, compared with 7% of men with disabilities and 8% of women without disabilities.

On the other hand, there are few differences in the shares of employed women with disabilities working in other professional occupations compared with women without disabilities. In 2001, for example, just 3% all female labour force participants, whether they had disabilities or not, were employed in occupations in the natural and applied sciences. Indeed, both these groups of women were much less likely to be employed in these highly technical fields than their respective male counterparts.

Unemployment in women with disabilities

The unemployment rate among women with disabilities is relatively high. In 2001, 10% of women in the labour force between 15 and 64 years of age with disabilities were unemployed, double the figure for other women, 5% of whom were unemployed that year. (Table 12.10)

As with the overall female population, unemployment rates are highest among younger labour force participants with disabilities. In 2001, 13% of women with disabilities under the age of 35 were unemployed, compared with just 7% of those aged 55 to 64. As well, the unemployment rate for women with disabilities was substantially above that for their counterparts without disabilities in all age ranges.

At the same time, women under the age of 35 with disabilities have a much lower unemployment rate than men in this age range with disabilities. In 2001, 13% of women in this age range with disabilities were unemployed, compared with 18% of their male



counterparts. In contrast, there were few differences in the unemployment rates of women and men with disabilities in older age ranges.

Income of women with disabilities

Women with disabilities generally have relatively low incomes. In 2000, women with disabilities aged 15 and over had an average income from all sources of \$17,200. This was almost \$5,000 less per person than women without disabilities, who had an average income of \$22,000 that year. (Table 12.11)

The incomes of women with disabilities are also substantially lower than those of their male counterparts. In 2000, women aged 15 and over with disabilities had an average income of \$17,200, versus \$26,900 for men in this age range with disabilities. The gap between the incomes of women and men with disabilities, though, is roughly similar to that among people without disabilities. That year, for example, the average earnings of women aged 15 and over with disabilities were 64% those of their male counterparts, while the figure for those without disabilities was 61%.

The incomes of senior women with disabilities are much closer to those of their non-disabled counterparts than they are for younger age groups. In 2000, women with disabilities aged 65 and over had an average income from all sources of \$18,400, only about a \$1,000 less per person than the figure for non-disabled senior women who had average incomes of \$19,400.

The incomes of senior women with disabilities, though, are substantially less than those of senior men with disabilities. In 2000, women aged 65 and over with disabilities had an average income of \$18,400, over \$8,000 less than the figure for senior men with disabilities who had an average income of \$26,800. Again, though, the gap between the incomes of senior women and men with disabilities was less than that for their non-disabled counterparts. That year, the incomes of women with disabilities aged 65 and over were 69% those of senior men with disabilities, whereas for non-disabled seniors the figure was just 60%.

The gap between the incomes of younger women with and without disabilities is also relatively small. Among those aged 15 to 34, for example, women with disabilities had an average income of \$13,800 in 2000, compared with \$15,700 for women without disabilities. In contrast, the incomes of women aged 35 to 54 with disabilities were almost \$10,000 less, on average, than their counterparts without disabilities, while there was a difference of almost \$8,000 per person for women with and without disabilities aged 55 to 64.

There was also a major difference in the incomes of men and women with disabilities aged 55 to 64. In 2000, women in this age range with disabilities had an average income of just \$13,800, less than half the figure for their male counterparts, who had an average income of over \$29,000. There was a similar difference in the average incomes of women and men with disabilities aged 35 to 54, whereas there was no statistical difference in the average incomes of women and men with disabilities under the age of 35.

The incomes of working age women with disabilities also vary by the level of severity of the disability. In 2000, women with very severe disabilities aged 15 to 64 had an average income from all sources of just over \$12,000, compared with \$19,400 per person for those with mild disabilities. Whatever the severity of the disability, though, the incomes of women with disabilities in this age range were substantially less than that of their male counterparts. (Table 12.12)

In contrast, there is no statistical difference in the incomes of senior women with different levels of disabilities. In fact, the income of women aged 65 and over with disabilities was around \$18,000 in 2000 at all levels of disability. Whatever the level of severity, though, the incomes of senior women with disabilities were well below those of their male counterparts.

More dependent on transfers

Women with disabilities generally receive a relatively large share of their income from government transfer programs. In 2000, 60% of all income received by women aged 15 and over with disabilities came from these programs, while 31% came from earned sources, including private pensions, and 10% came from other sources. In fact, the share of the income of women with disabilities accounted for by transfers was over twice that for all women without disabilities; that year, 26% of the income of women without disabilities came in the form of transfer payment payments. (Table 12.13)

Transfer payments also make up a greater share of the income of women with disabilities compared with that of their male counterparts. In 2000, transfer payments represented 60% of the income of women aged 15 and over with disabilities, versus 48% of that of men in this age range with disabilities.

Among women with disabilities, seniors are the most dependent on transfers. Indeed, in 2000, 77% of the total income of women aged 65 and over came in the form of transfer payments. However, this was actually only a few percentage points higher than the figure for senior women without disabilities, 72% of whose income that year came in the form of transfer payments. At the same time, 60% of the income of senior men with disabilities was from government transfer programs.

In contrast to their senior counterparts, the largest share of the incomes of women with disabilities under the age of 65 comes from earned sources. In 2000, 47% of the income of women with disabilities between the ages of 15 and 64 was earned, while 45% came from transfer payments and 9% came from other sources.

Working age women with disabilities, though, still are much more dependent on transfers than their counterparts without disabilities. In 2000, 45% of the income of women aged 15 to 64 with disabilities came from government transfers, compared with just 20% that of women in this age range without disabilities. On the other hand, the share of the income of women between the ages of 15 to 64 with disabilities accounted for by transfers was only slightly larger than that for men in this age range with disabilities: 45% versus 40%.

Many with low incomes

A relatively large proportion of females with disabilities are considered to have low incomes. In 2000, 26% of all women with disabilities aged 15 and over had incomes below official low income cut-offs, compared with 20% of men with disabilities and 16% of non-disabled women. (Table 12.14)

Among women with disabilities, those under the age of 55 are somewhat more likely than their older counterparts to have low incomes. In 2000, 30% of women with disabilities aged 15 to 34, and 29% of those aged 35 to 54, were classified as having low incomes, whereas the figure was 24% for both women with disabilities aged 55 to 64 and seniors



The share of senior women with disabilities with low incomes, though, was relatively high compared to their male counterparts. In 2000, 24% of women with disabilities aged 65 and over lived in a low-income situation, more than twice the figure for senior men with disabilities, 11% of whom had low incomes. In contrast, there were much smaller differences in the incidence of low income among women and men with disabilities under the age of 65. Indeed, the low-income rate for women with disabilities aged 55 to 64 was about the same as that for men with disabilities in this age range.

Senior women with disabilities are also more likely than non-disabled women aged 65 and over to live in a low-income setting. In 2000, 24% of women aged 65 and over with disabilities were classified as having low incomes, compared with 19% of non-disabled senior women. There are, however, even larger gaps between the low-income rates of women with and without disabilities under the age of 65. That year, for example, 29% of women aged 35 to 54 with disabilities had low incomes, compared with just 12% of their counterparts without disabilities.

Local travel

One of the most pressing issues for people with disabilities is mobility. In fact, most women with disabilities are able to travel locally by car without experiencing difficulty due to their health condition. Still, close to one in five women with disabilities has at least some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition. In 2001, 17% of women aged 15 and over with disabilities experienced some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition when they did travel, while another 2% were prevented from travelling locally because of their disability. (Table 12.15)

Women with disabilities are also somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to experience some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition. In 2001, 17% of females aged 15 and over with a disability experienced some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition, while the figure for men with disabilities was 15%.

Among women with disabilities, those aged 35 to 54 are the most likely to experience some difficulty travelling locally by car due of their health condition. In 2001, 25% of women in this age range with disabilities experienced some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition, whereas the figure was under 20% in other age groups, including senior women. That year, only 13% of women aged 65 and over with disabilities reported such difficulties.

Senior women with disabilities, though, are more likely than their male counterparts to experience difficulty travelling locally because of their health condition. In 2001, 13% of women aged 65 and over with disabilities experienced some difficulty travelling locally because of their condition, compared with 9% of senior men with disabilities.

At the same time, relatively few women with disabilities experience difficulty using other methods of local transportation, such as specialized bus services and public transportation, including buses, subways and taxis, because of their health condition. In 2001, 5% of females with disabilities aged 15 and over were prevented from travelling locally on specialized transportation services, while another 6% experienced some difficulty using these services. (Table 12.16)

It should be noted, however, that people with disabilities generally travel much more often by car than by these other methods of transportation. In fact, in 2001, 62% of women aged 15 and over with disabilities did not use specialized or public transportation services for reasons other than the fact that were prevented from doing so because of their disability.

While fewer people with disabilities travel locally on specialized or public transportation services than travel by car, they are more likely to be prevented from travelling on specialized or public transportation services because of their health condition. Indeed, close to 5% of women aged 15 and over with disabilities were prevented from using these services because of their condition, whereas only 2% were prevented from travelling by car by their disabilities.

As well, women with disabilities are somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to experience difficulty travelling locally on specialized or public transportation services because of their health condition. In 2001, 11% of women with disabilities aged 15 and over, versus 8% of men, were either unable to use specialized or public transportation services to travel locally, or experienced at least some difficulty using these services, because of their condition.

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Notes

1. The data in this chapter are from the Participation and Activity Limitation Survey conducted by Statistics Canada in 2001. For more information on the concepts and definitions of this survey, consult the publication *Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS) 2001: User's Guide to the Public Use Microdata File*, Catalogue no. 82M0023GPE. The 2001 Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS), the main source of data for this chapter, follows up on the 1986 and 1991 Health and Activity Limitation Surveys (HALS). The data from the HALS and the PALS, however, cannot be compared because of significant differences in sampling methods, the operational definition of target population, and the content of the questionnaires. In part, because of these differences, there was a decline in the number of women identified as having disabilities from 2.2 million in the 1991 HALS survey to 2.0 million in the 2001 PALS survey.
2. Statistics Canada has developed a general severity indicator using all the questions on the different types of handicaps in the 2001 PALS questionnaire. Points were awarded on each question based on severity. Those suffering from a TOTAL handicap in all areas received the maximum number of points. Another two questions were asked about the intensity and frequency of each type of handicap. There were also questions on intensity in a number of contexts, and the average score was used to measure this intensity. The severity of each type of handicap was determined by multiplying the frequency by the intensity. For some types of handicaps, several questions were asked to determine the limitation measured. There were, for example, three questions on hearing difficulties in the questionnaire for adults. Since the number of questions varies based on the handicaps, the indexes were standardized for each type. As a result, any overrepresentation of handicaps for which many functional limitations were measured was avoided.
3. In this context, "family" means "census family".

Table 12.1

Population with disabilities, by age, 2001

People aged	Women		Men	
	Number	As a percent of age group in Canada	Number	As a percent of age group in Canada
Less than 5	10,180	1.3	16,030	1.9
5 to 9	25,320	2.7	45,050	4.6
10 to 14	32,220	3.3	52,130	5.1
Total less than 15	67,710	2.5	113,220	4.0
15 to 34	184,170	4.7	166,820	4.3
35 to 54	543,600	11.5	463,100	10.2
55 to 64	319,700	22.4	291,100	21.1
Total 15 to 64	1,047,470	10.4	921,020	9.4
65 to 74	352,860	32.0	296,310	30.2
75 to 84	357,160	49.5	243,330	48.8
85 and over	135,940	71.8	66,240	69.3
Total 65 and over	845,960	42.0	605,880	38.5
Total population	1,961,150	13.3	1,640,110	11.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.2

Population aged 15 and over with disabilities, by age and severity of disability, 2001

People aged	Women			Men		
	Number	Percent	As a percent of age group in Canada	Number	Percent	As a percent of age group in Canada
15 to 34						
Mild	75,940	41.2	2.0	70,700	42.4	1.8
Moderate	48,260	26.2	1.2	44,960	27.0	1.2
Severe	44,800	24.3	1.2	32,460	19.5	0.8
Very severe	15,170	8.2	0.4	18,700	11.2	0.5
Total 15 to 34	184,170	100.0	4.7	166,820	100.0	4.3
35 to 54						
Mild	150,930	27.8	3.2	157,720	34.1	3.5
Moderate	143,900	26.5	3.0	114,420	24.7	2.5
Severe	163,490	30.1	3.5	124,100	26.8	2.7
Very severe	85,270	15.7	1.8	66,860	14.4	1.5
Total 35 to 54	543,600	100.0	11.5	463,100	100.0	10.2
55 to 64						
Mild	103,750	32.5	7.3	88,340	30.3	6.4
Moderate	73,620	23.0	5.2	69,430	23.9	5.0
Severe	94,730	29.6	6.6	88,470	30.4	6.4
Very severe	47,610	14.9	3.3	44,870	15.4	3.3
Total 55 to 64	319,700	100.0	22.4	291,100	100.0	21.1
65 and over						
Mild	279,740	33.1	13.9	238,350	39.3	15.1
Moderate	214,170	25.3	10.6	146,580	24.2	9.3
Severe	232,730	27.5	11.6	138,530	22.9	8.8
Very severe	119,340	14.1	5.9	82,410	13.6	5.2
Total 65 and over	845,970	100.0	42.0	605,880	100.0	38.5
Total 15 and over						
Mild	610,360	32.2	5.1	555,110	36.4	4.9
Moderate	479,950	25.3	4.0	375,380	24.6	3.3
Severe	535,740	28.3	4.4	383,570	25.1	3.4
Very severe	267,390	14.1	2.2	212,830	13.9	1.9
Total 15 and over	1,893,440	100.0	15.7	1,526,900	100.0	13.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.5

Educational attainment of people with and without disabilities, by age, 2001

People aged	Persons with disabilities		Persons without disabilities	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
			%	
15 to 34				
Less than high school	30.2	40.1	26.1	30.9
High school graduate	29.5	32.2	29.2	31.2
Trade school diploma	8.5	8.9	6.9	9.5
Community college diploma	19.0	11.4	17.8	13.1
University degree	12.6	7.0	20.0	15.2
Total 15 to 34¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
35 to 54				
Less than high school	29.2	32.8	18.7	20.9
High school graduate	24.5	23.0	28.1	22.6
Trade school diploma	9.4	17.0	9.4	17.2
Community college diploma	21.2	15.7	21.4	15.5
University degree	15.6	11.4	22.4	23.9
Total 35 to 54¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
55 to 64				
Less than high school	49.5	47.2	36.4	33.1
High school graduate	21.0	13.0	24.7	17.5
Trade school diploma	9.6	19.7	8.0	16.1
Community college diploma	12.1	10.4	15.0	10.9
University degree	7.7	9.3	15.9	22.4
Total 55 to 64¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
65 and over				
Less than high school	62.6	56.3	57.2	52.4
High school graduate	16.8	12.7	19.6	14.3
Trade school diploma	4.9	16.7	5.4	12.6
Community college diploma	9.2	4.8	9.0	6.2
University degree	6.3	9.4	8.8	14.4
Total 65 and over¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Includes not specified.

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.9

Occupational distribution of workers with and without disabilities, 2001

	Employed persons with disabilities		%	Employed persons without disabilities	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
Management	4.3	6.7		7.8	12.4
Business and financial administration	23.5	8.2		27.0	8.9
Natural and applied science	2.6	7.0		2.8	9.7
Health	9.8	1.6		8.8	2.1
Other professionals	15.2	7.2		14.3	7.2
Sales and service	25.3	20.0		28.3	18.2
Primary	1.9	5.5		2.2	6.4
Manufacturing	5.7	9.6		4.8	8.9
Trades	2.1	27.8		2.2	24.7
Other/not applicable	9.6	6.6		1.9	1.5
Total employed	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.10

Unemployment rates of people aged 15 to 64 with and without disabilities, 2001

People aged	Persons with disabilities		%	Persons without disabilities	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
15 to 34	12.5	18.0		6.7	8.0
35 to 54	10.2	10.6		4.3	5.2
55 to 64	6.8E	F		1.9	4.3
Total 15 to 64	10.2	11.2		5.0	6.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.11

Average income of people aged 15 and over with and without disabilities, 2000

People aged	Persons with disabilities		\$	Persons without disabilities	
	Women	Men		Women	Men
15 to 34	13,720	15,870		15,680	21,480
35 to 54	18,740	29,580		28,580	48,020
55 to 64	13,760	29,190		21,340	46,860
Total 15 to 64	16,340	26,970		22,380	36,800
65 and over	18,350	26,770		19,350	32,270
Total 15 and over	17,230	26,890		22,030	36,360

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.12

**Average income of employed people aged 15 and over with disabilities,
by severity of disability, 2000**

	Severity of disability			
	Mild	Moderate	Severe	Very severe
	\$			
Women aged				
15 to 34	14,460	15,590	12,360	8,080E
35 to 54	24,970	19,460	15,550	12,610
55 to 64	14,930	14,660	12,140	13,030
Total 15 to 64	19,400	17,430	14,020	12,280
65 and over	18,820	17,940	18,070	18,530
Total 15 and over	19,130	17,660	15,770	15,070
Men aged				
15 to 34	18,170	17,120	12,510	9,980
35 to 54	36,910	31,730	24,680	17,690
55 to 64	42,430	25,920	24,800	16,630
Total 15 to 64	34,270	27,090	23,110	16,220
65 and over	28,210	27,950	24,100	24,990
Total 15 and over	31,670	27,430	23,470	19,620

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.13

**Distribution of sources of income of persons with and without disabilities,
by age, 2000**

People aged	Earnings		Government transfers		Other	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%					
15 to 34						
With disabilities	56.2	58.2	40.3	37.5	3.4	4.2
Without disabilities	75.9	85.2	20.0	11.8	4.1	3.0
35 to 54						
With disabilities	50.7	58.4	42.0	37.6	7.2	3.9
Without disabilities	77.1	88.2	17.8	9.4	5.1	2.4
55 to 64						
With disabilities	34.4	48.0	52.0	46.0	13.6	6.1
Without disabilities	60.6	77.7	26.6	16.2	12.6	6.1
Total 15 to 64						
With disabilities	46.7	55.0	44.8	40.3	8.5	4.6
Without disabilities	74.6	85.7	19.7	11.2	5.6	3.1
65 and over						
With disabilities	12.2	33.6E	76.8	60.0	10.9	6.4E
Without disabilities	16.4	38.4	72.0	53.1	11.4	8.4
Total 15 and over						
With disabilities	30.7	46.4	59.6	48.2	9.6	5.4
Without disabilities	67.4	80.9	26.1	15.5	6.4	3.6

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.14

Percentage of people with and without disabilities with low income, 2000

People aged	Persons with disabilities		Persons without disabilities	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
			%	
15 to 34	30.4	27.6	18.9	15.4
35 to 54	29.1	25.6	12.3	10.4
55 to 64	23.5	24.2	13.7	11.1
65 and over	23.6	11.0	18.6	9.3
Total 15 and over	25.8	19.8	15.6	12.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.15

Indicators of local transportation by car of people with disabilities aged 15 and over, by age, 2001

	Prevented from travelling locally by car	Travelled, but had difficulty	Travelled and had no difficulty	Other ¹
			%	
Women aged				
15 to 34	1.7 E	16.1	68.1	12.4
35 to 54	1.5 E	24.6	60.7	13.3
55 to 64	1.2 E	16.4	69.9	12.5
65 and over	2.0 E	12.9	69.8	15.3
Total 15 and over	1.7	17.2	67.0	14.2
Men aged				
15 to 34	1.9 E	14.5	69.4	14.1
35 to 54	2.1 E	19.7	63.3	14.8
55 to 64	F	20.3	64.2	14.5
65 and over	1.9 E	9.1	74.5	14.5
Total 15 and over	1.8	15.1	68.6	14.6

1. Includes those who did not travel locally by car without being prevented from doing so, as well as those who did travel locally but who used a different mode of transportation.

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey.

Table 12.16

**Local transportation¹ indicators of people aged 15 and over with disabilities,
by age, 2001**

	Prevented from travelling locally	Travelled, but had difficulty	Travelled and had no difficulty	Other ²
			%	
Women aged				
15 to 34	3.9 E	8.1	37.0	51.0
35 to 54	4.1	6.7	24.2	64.9
55 to 64	5.1 E	6.3 E	25.0	63.7
65 and over	4.6	5.1	27.6	62.7
Total 15 and over	4.5	6.4	27.1	62.4
Men aged				
15 to 34	3.1 E	7.3	37.5	52.1
35 to 54	3.4	4.9	24.4	67.3
55 to 64	3.3 E	2.7 E	14.2	76.9
65 and over	3.2	3.7 E	21.7	71.5
Total 15 and over	3.3	4.2	23.4	69.1

1. Refers to specialized bus services or local public transportation, including buses, subway and taxis.

2. Includes those who did not travel locally using public or specialized transit without being prevented from doing so because of their disability.

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