



**ROADBLOCKS TO
WOMEN'S LEARNING:**

**ISSUES FOR
ADVOCACY**



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TO WOMEN'S LEARNING:

Issues for Advocacy

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

[Summary and recommendations](#)

Unit I: INTRODUCTION

A-1	<u>Introduction</u>
A-3	<u>Specific processes</u>
A-6	<u>General comments and problems</u>
A-24	<u>Personal comments</u>
A-31	<u>General statistics</u>
A-43	<u>Bibliography</u>

Unit II: DAY CARE SERVICES

B-1	<u>Definition</u>
B-2	<u>General background</u>
B-4	<u>Statistical and research background</u>
B-24	<u>Governmental policy and practice</u>
B-36	<u>Educational institutions and day care policy</u>
B-40	<u>Alternative courses of action</u>
B-45	<u>Bibliography</u>

Unit III: EMPLOYMENT (Manpower) and IMMIGRATION

C-1	<u>General background</u>
C-2	<u>Statistical background</u>
	<u>Governmental policy and practice .</u>
C-43	<u>a. Immigration</u>
C-48	<u>b. Manpower and employment</u>
C-66	<u>c. Unemployment insurance</u>
C-69	<u>Summary</u>
C-72	<u>Alternative courses of action</u>
C-76	<u>Appendixes</u>
C-82	<u>Bibliography</u>

Preface

This report is very much the result of a one person investigation. The process I have used may not be to your liking but I find it works well for me, although not necessarily in every situation.

Throughout I have used the editorial "we", mostly I think in sheer embarrassment. Like many people I was trained to never focus on "I" in the matter of opinions or ability or knowledge. Therefore, I wrote the bulk of the report using "we". When I came to write the last part, which was Unit I, I realized how difficult I had made things for myself. So, for the last part of Unit I, I switched to the personal "I". Time prevented me from re-writing the remainder of the report to correspond. I learned something in the process and that is: if I can't write about my own opinions using the personal pronouns, then I shouldn't be writing at all.

A great number of people gave of their time, energy and opinions. My thanks go to:

Mary Corkery for her constant support and ability to clarify issues.

Renate Krakauer, Lisa Avedon, Diane Ironside, Janet Willis, and Peggy Simpson for their assistance in sorting out priorities and their patience in my slowness in writing.

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Olivia Jacobs of the Women's Employment Section of the Employment and Immigration Commission; Pay Sadavoy of the Metro Toronto YWCA; Doreen Morrison, of the Focus on Change program; and Sonja Davie OISE project for the Commission on Declining Enrolments (CODE). Each gave me time and the benefit of her expertise and helped me find information which was not readily available to the public.

My fellow summer students -- Dawn Sawford, Janet Kinach, Gwen Roe, and Lucy Borodkin, all of whom shared my doubts, anxiety and frustration.

My children -- Mary, David and Gordon -- who put up with getting their own supper for many evenings while I finished this report. And to the Steering Committee of CLOW who gave me great latitude in writing this report and who waited patiently for the results.

I must make one last comment. I wrote this report to be used as a consciousness- raising resource, not as a statement of truth. I hope it will encourage other women to develop similar reports on the obstacles to learning in their communities.

Dorothy MacKeracher

Toronto, November 1978.

SUMMARY

The following summary is provided to assist in future discussions about policy development within the CCLOW. The recommendations are to be considered as discussion starting points, not necessarily as the best method for dealing with the related problem or obstacle. Each problem is discussed in greater detail in the text of the report.

Summary----- Unit I

General

1. Policy development requires: (a) Empirical-rational-technical judgments based on descriptive information about past and current conditions, needs and obstacles, and about the changes required; (b) political judgments about what is possible in the political and social processes of our society; and (c) value judgments about priorities and preferences based on various criteria of worth. Each set of judgments requires its own special knowledge, skills, and a willingness to use the accompanying sources of power.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW encourage individual and group development of professional, interpersonal, and process management skills; skills related to finding, recording and interpreting information; and skills related to the collaborative processes of policy development and implementation.

2. Information about women and learning activities or opportunities is either inadequate or non-existent for the Canadian context.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW sponsor the development of various studies to collect and disseminate information about women as learners, their characteristics and needs; about the obstacles created by various programs and institutions; etc.

3. This report did not attempt to investigate the problems related to funding: the means by which funds are allocated by governments to institutions and agencies; the means by which those institutions and agencies can best obtain funding; the means by which funds are distributed among programs and individuals; and so on.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop workshops at the national and provincial levels to further investigate concerns related to funding.

4. The value orientation and attitudes of the CCLOW are not clearly defined, on an organizational basis. This needs to be done before effective policy can be developed.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW begin a process of value clarification among its individual and group members, such a process to be undertaken within the coming year.

5. Administrative and supervisory personnel, and elected officials, responsible for policy development and implementation need to be asked to clarify their positions on a number

of issues related to women and learning opportunities.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a series of questions to be addressed to administrative and supervisory personnel within various public agencies, and to candidates for elected office, to assist local groups in obtaining information about the values and attitudes by which such persons make decisions affecting learning opportunities for women.

6. The concepts by which learning activities opportunities, obstacles, and needs are defined need to be re-evaluated to determine if those in current use are male-defined and male-oriented. The definition and use of such concepts may be adversely affecting the ways in which women are treated in regard to learning activities.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW begin a process of re-examination and re-evaluation of all concepts used to define, limit, and control the development and implementation of learning opportunities for women.

7. There are several new concepts currently being discussed in related fields which may have a future bearing on how learning opportunities for women are developed and implemented. These include the concepts of: recurrent education; lifelong learning; paid educational leave; adult development; sex differences; entitlement to learning; women's studies; and so on.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a means for informing members about new concepts in education and related fields which may have a future effect on the development and implementation of learning opportunities for women.

8. The concept of educational need is one which is not well defined in the literature. Such a concept might assist us in developing the rationale for expanding learning services to women; and might provide a means for allocating financial support to individuals and priority of access to programs.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW investigate the concept of educational need.

Summary -- Unit II

Day Care Services

1. Educational institutions generally do not perceive day care services as their responsibility nor as a service they are capable of providing. They are generally responsive to requests to support the development and implementation of such services by interested groups from within the educational community. Such support generally takes the form of provision of space, developmental funds, and administrative representation on governing boards responsible for the development and implementation of the services.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW support and adopt the recommendations of the Committee on the Status of Women in Universities (Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada - AUCC) on the provision of day care services within educational institutions.

2. Day care services within educational institutions have generally become the responsibility of user groups -- parents who are staff members and/or who are registered students. Because of the fluctuating composition of the student body, the main responsibility for continuity and initiative must come from staff members. Otherwise very little will happen.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW encourage staff members of educational institutions to organize user groups within their own institutions, for the purpose of developing and implementing day care services. Such encouragement could take the form of dissemination of information about such a process.

3. Lack of subsidized day care spaces for the purpose of attending educational activities is a major obstacle for women with small children. Subsidization is generally available for employment, for sole-support mothers in occupational training programs, and for families whose children require special social, psychological, physical, or educational care; but not for women seeking access to learning opportunities generally.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a brief to the various levels of government which would request and justify the extension of day care subsidization for educational purposes.

4. Funding to day care service providers has been declining in recent years. This has resulted in a decline in the number of spaces available; an increase in the staff: child ratio; a decline in the resources available to operate these services; and increased competition for the limited funds available.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a brief for submission to the various levels of government regarding the essential nature of day care services to women learners.

5. Current regulations regarding the deduction of day care expenses for educational purposes are very limited.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a brief to the appropriate federal ministry requesting changes in the regulations governing the deduction of day care expenses for income tax purposes.

6. Full-time and part-time day care services are in short supply in some educational institutions. Drop-in and evening/night services are almost non-existent. Family care

services will need to be expanded in the near future.

Recommendation: That the CLOW sponsor a survey of day care services within all educational institutions and of current and future needs of learners of both sexes for these services.

7. The lack of training for sitters and other family care service providers is a concern because of the poor quality service often delivered by these services.

Recommendation: That the CLOW encourage educational institutions to develop learning activities and training programs to assist family care service providers in developing better skills.

8. There is often a lack of coordination and cooperation between day care service providers and educational service providers, in terms of types of services available, inflexibility in hours, difficulties in access and transportation, and so on. These could be avoided if each side was aware of the other, of the restraints on the quality of services provided, and of the general need for expanded services. Both sides must be willing to make concessions. At the same time, both sides need to increase their awareness of the difficulties experienced by the users around scheduling, location, etc.

Recommendation: That the CLOW encourage the development of coordinating activities between educational service providers and day care service providers.

9. There is a general lack of information within educational institutions about the current and potential need for expanded day care services; about the characteristics and needs of potential users; about how day care services enhance or detract from the major educational objectives of the institution; about how such services compare to other types of support services such as medical, counseling, housing, and recreational services. A general impression is that most educational institutions do not want to know this information.

Recommendation: That the CLOW sponsor and/or support the development of research projects to gather the necessary information about day care services in relation to learners and learning programs; and of data banks to house the demographic data.

10. Users and potential users lack information about what services are available, where and at what cost; about how to obtain subsidized funding; about the benefits or hazards of day care services; about how to manage time and energy conflicts and the responsibilities of family, learning and self-development.

Recommendation: That the CLOW encourage and support the development of community-based information, counseling and referral services which would provide information about day care services as one aspect of its work.

Summary -- Unit III Employment (Manpower) and Immigration

1. The participation of immigrant women in learning activities is affected by:

- the status of the woman at the time of entry to Canada;
- fluency in French or English and the accessibility, flexibility, availability and effectiveness of language classes in local communities;
- literacy levels in the mother tongue as well as in French or English, and the accessibility, flexibility, availability and effectiveness of literacy classes in local communities;
- the lack of unambiguous policies and affirmative action programs in relation to immigrant women within such governmental agencies as the Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC);
- the availability of learning opportunities in languages other than French or English in local communities;
- negative stereotyping of immigrant women as learners;
- difficulties related to obtaining equivalency credit for educational experiences obtained outside Canada the United States, or various British-style educational systems.
- difficulties related to the legal status of women who enter Canada as students or who become students after entry.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW establish a committee of women educators interested in the provision of learning opportunities for immigrant women, to further explore this area of concern and to recommend policy and action steps to the national and provincial groups.

2. Current policy of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission calls for;

(a) a shift of Manpower Training funds away from areas of high unemployment and towards areas of relatively high growth in employment and the economy. This will shift funds away from Quebec and the Atlantic provinces;

(b) a shift in job creation programs away from service-producing industries and towards goods-producing industries. Since the major growth in women's employment has been largely in the service-producing industries, women will be directly affected by this shift; and

(c) a shift in Manpower Training funds away from Basic Training for Skill Development (academic upgrading and job readiness) and Language programs, and towards Occupational skill, Apprenticeship, and Industrial programs. Since women are registered in high proportions in the former group of programs and in relatively low proportions in the latter group, the shift will affect women directly.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW establish a committee to monitor changes in the policies of the Commission, and to develop and implement the necessary steps required or

deemed useful to affect these policies.

3. The policy of the Women's Employment Section of the Commission appears to be positive in relation to the provision of training opportunities for women. However, more specific information is required about current plans for implementing this policy and the status of these plans. Recommendation: That the CCLOW prepare and publish a yearly summary of the policies and current plans of the Women's Employment Section of the Commission.

4. The Commission has developed programs to facilitate the career selection process (CHOICES) and the job search process (Creative Job Search Technique). We do not know how these programs are used by women, how effective they are, nor how women are affected by them. Recommendation: That the CCLOW sponsor a study to examine the effectiveness of various career selection and job search processes, recommended and used by the Commission.

5. Women with low levels of educational attainment and lacking in occupational skills are poorly served by both Manpower Training programs and Canada Employment Centres. The general result is to keep them out of academic upgrading programs because they lack the time required for completion; out of occupational training programs because they lack the time for completion and because of poor future employment prospects; and in unskilled, minimum-wage jobs with no opportunities for future improvement.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a means for exploring this concern further with a view to (a) encouraging the Commission to provide better services to disadvantaged women and/or (b) developing creative alternative solutions and learning opportunities.

6. The participation of women in unions and the attitudes of those unions towards women and training programs are two factors which directly affect the accessibility women have to apprenticeship and industrial training programs.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW work with and support women currently involved in the participation of women in unions. That the CCLOW develop a series of workshops on the topic of Womanpower and Training Programs, which would involve the participation of representatives of federal and provincial governments, employers and union personnel, trainees and trainers, plus other interested persons.

7. The methods by which the level and rate of unemployment are calculated; the definition of "unemployed" in the labour force survey; the interpretation of unemployment data; the treatment of unemployed women; and current methods for alleviating unemployment all require further study, to determine how they relate to training opportunities.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW develop a means for further studying concerns

related to unemployment and unemployed women.

8. The amount and regulations governing the allocation of Manpower Training Allowances was recently changed. This, in combination with various changes in unemployment insurance benefits, is having an adverse effect on women involved in training programs. Any shortfall in family income as a result of these changes must be made up through provincial and municipal social assistance funds. While the long-range effect of these changes is unknown, we can predict that women will need to deal with an increased number of social welfare officers, with increased difficulties in meeting regulations, and so on.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW take the initiative in developing activities which would allow all interested parties to discuss this and other concerns through a cooperative and collaborative process.

9. Canadian studies on the economic value of education are adverse to women. Recent studies based on both the economic and social value of women's education are inadequate for our purposes or non-existent.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW sponsor studies to examine the economic and social value of the education of women.

10. The Commission, as well as the general public, is inclined to base attitudes and policies on negative stereotypes, ignorance and out-dated criteria of worth about women as learners, as trainees, as employed persons, as unemployed persons, as immigrants, and so on. Much of this is indirect and covert and, as such, hard to change.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW begin a consciousness-raising program aimed at the general public and at those responsible for policy development and implementation within the Commission. That the CCLOW develop contacts at all levels of the Commission's activities at both the federal, regional and local levels.

11. Women are poorly represented at the supervisory and administrative levels and on policy making boards of the Commission.

Recommendation: That the CCLOW support and encourage its members to compete for and accept positions at the supervisory and administrative levels of the Commission and on the policy making boards of the Commission.

UNIT I: INTRODUCTION

This report was written for the Canadian Committee on Learning Opportunities for Women as part of a three month project to investigate policy development around the needs and problems facing women who are, or would like to be, involved in various learning activities, educational agencies, and/or training programs. The impetus for this project came from two sources:

- the summary of the perceptions of educators on learning opportunities for women in Canada, written by Janet Willis, on behalf of CCLOW during 1977; and
- the report on the educational needs and learning conditions of adult learners, written by members of the Department of Adult Education of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, on behalf of the Ontario Commission on Declining School Enrolments, during 1978.

Both of these reports indicated that adult educators in general, and particularly those working with women, lack specific background information about the needs and obstacles involved in women's participation in learning activities and about the characteristics of women learners, would-be-learners, and non-learners. The information which does exist on these topics is largely European or American. Very little of it deals with Canadian learners, and even less with Canadian women as learners.

Therefore, the national steering committee decided to begin this process of gathering background information by conducting a small investigation into the available material, information, policy statements, and practices related to the following:

A. the support services which are ancillary to the educational or training program and which appear to be essential to satisfactory participation and completion. We chose to focus on Day Care Services. Other topics might have included:

- information and counseling services at the community level for would-be-learners and as an internal service for registered learners
- transportation services
- financial assistance and counseling services
- administrative policies and procedures related to such activities as admissions, credentialing, grading, library services, audiovisual services, etc.
- attitudes and interpersonal skills of administrators, counsellors, teachers, trainers, and others in relationships with women students.
- affirmative action programs for staff and students.

B. the obstacles which accrue from the policies, practices and attitudes of one agency involved in providing educational and training programs for women. We chose to focus on the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission and its various divisions. Other agencies could have included:

- boards of education
- community colleges
- universities
- governmental ministries of education/further education/ etc.
- private schools
- community agencies

C. the accessibility a woman has to learning opportunities based on conditions and characteristics which exist within her life style, her life conditions, and/or her personality. We chose to focus on those conditions and characteristics which label a woman as "disadvantaged". Other topics could have included:

- responsibility conflicts
- time, money and energy available for distribution
- self-concept
- attitudes toward education and educational institutions
- motivation and reinforcement
- learning related to life stages and life crises

This section was eventually omitted through lack of time.

Time did not permit any further investigation. However, we have included in the bibliography accompanying this unit, a number of sources which could suggest starting points for future work.

One area which was not examined and which is of particular concern to CLOW members is that of funding: funding to individual participants, to individual programs, to agencies and institutions, within agencies and institutions, and so on. This proved to be beyond the scope of this report and beyond the resources of this writer. We would like to recommend that CLOW develop a workshop to focus on the many facets of this area of policy development. It seems clear that every educational/training/learning decision ultimately becomes a short-term budget decision; and every budget decision is in reality a long-term value statement about education/training/ learning and the policies which govern those activities.

The remainder of this unit focuses on the specific process used in developing the report; some general comments and problems; some personal comments from this writer; and a summary.

Specific process used in this report

The following is a series of statements about the activities used in developing this report. The activities are definable through a variety of labels. It is understood best by this writer as a gestalt process which starts with the whole problem, analyses the parts of that problem and their relationships within and to the whole, then returns to re-define the whole problem once more. Please note that this entire report was written, then re-written, and re-written again, by this process. The final product does not show the number of re-writes nor how the report changed along the way. It is time consuming, but yields a better quality product.

a.) Exploration of the whole (Problem assessment)

- discussions and interviews with knowledgeable persons.
- preliminary search of the literature, research and statistics currently available
- determine what others perceive as "the problem" and their solutions to those problems.
- record all information and opinions and file
- determine the various separate parts which are involved in the whole problem and which of these can usefully be focused on within the time available.

b.) Focus on the parts (Problem definition)

- this step involves a question-asking process rather than a question-answering one. It is the step most often omitted by groups and investigators impatient to get on with the tasks involved.
- determine what questions can/cannot be asked; what questions need/ need not be asked; and what questions will/will not be asked. The first set focuses on the realities of today and yesterday; the second on priorities based on need; and the third on priorities based on preference.
- determine what information will likely assist in answering these questions and what form the information should take.

The most useful questions begin with "Who, what, when, where, and how?" "Why?" is not a useful question to ask since it requires an opinion about the motives of others. The major issue involved here is to find out how we, as women, got to our present condition; to determine what happened to us on the way; and to describe what those present conditions are in specific terms. Once we have this information, we can determine what we want changed, what future conditions we want to attain, and how we think that change can be brought about.

"Why?" asks for information about individual value systems. Our current understanding of values and attitudes suggests that they can be changed more rapidly by changing the "How, what, when, where, and who" of things, rather than attempting to change the "Why". A change in the Why of things generally requires a confrontation with someone else's values and attitudes, which invariably leads to defensive positions, greater

resistance, and inflexibility on both sides.

Some useful questions are:

What are the stated goals? What are the stated values? How are these to be reached? What specific activities are planned? What actually happens? When and where? Do these five sets of facts seem consistent? Are there inconsistencies? Are there direct results? Indirect results? Unexpected results? Delayed results?

Who is involved at all stages of the various activities? Who plans? Who is on the receiving end? What are their defining characteristics? What resources are involved? How many? How much? Where do these come from? How are they obtained?

All the above questions can be asked and answered about the past and the present. Questions about the future can be formulated, but any answers obtained before the actual event are based on speculation.

It is useful to ask the negative form of all these questions as well as the affirmative form. "Who is not involved?" and "What did not happen?" may be just as useful for policy development and advocacy work as the affirmative questions. Any "Why not?" is just as not useful as "Why?".

c.) Gather the information (Preliminary action step)

- this is the question-answering step.
- utilize all resources available.
- repeat steps a, b, and c until all pertinent information has been collected. New questions may arise in this process and should be included. For this report we repeated this step at minimum of 3 times for each unit.

d.) Describe the parts (Problem description; analysis)

- collate all information and use this to describe the past and current state of the problem area through:
 - statistical tables
 - research summaries
 - policy statements
 - guidelines statements
 - specific instances of practices
 - other observations
- comments can be added at this time but this step is most useful when value judgments which focus on good/bad, right/wrong, best/worst, etc. are suspended.

Such judgments tend to close the investigation too soon, before all possible analyses can be contemplated. Positive judgments and agreement are just as likely to cause closure as negative judgments and disagreement. The major focus here should be on whether the descriptions are as true a set of statements as can be obtained and are reasonably consistent with a mutually acceptable "reality". Where there is no agreement about a mutual reality, this should be noted in the description.

e.) Search for patterns and relationships (Synthesis)

- look for specific patterns which tend to recur in the information and descriptions, among the various parts
- look for direct and indirect relationships among the parts.
- look for overall impressions between the parts and the whole. Look for hidden implications, underlying assumptions, points where a discussion or policy begins with already established conditions.
- look for what is not there (i.e. for the holes in the whole).
- test your ideas out on someone else for their reaction.
- look for any missing information, missing parts of the whole, missing value statements/goal statements, etc.
- look for consistencies and inconsistencies. If something is inconsistent, doesn't make sense or causes confusion, ask more questions. It is at this stage that women tend to become anxious about their ability to analyze and synthesize, and to back away from asking for answers to clarifying questions. For example, in Table I of Unit I, the drop in school attendance from 1971 to 1976 among 15 to 24 year old seems far too great. This requires further investigation.
- look for congruencies between values, attitudes, policies, and practices. Do they conflict? Do they nullify each other? Do the outcomes support this congruence?
- are the values, attitudes, policies and practices of one part support or conflict with those of another part? How?
- does this whole fit into a larger whole? How? What conflicts are involved in this fit? For example, does policy of the Manpower Division fit with the policy of the federal government and the Canadian society?

f.) Redefinition of the whole (Re-assessment)

- re-examine the parts and the whole to determine if all aspects as now described and understood are still part of the same overall concept. For example, in Unit III we tended to find the information focusing exclusively on employment rather than training for employment. Therefore, the entire unit had to be re-written.
- repeat stages (a) through (f) as seems necessary.

g.) Generalizations, predictions and specifications about next stages

- develop a series of generalizations and predictions which follow logically from the descriptions. Look for patterns which can be extended into the future.
- develop a series of questions which could be asked about these predictions and generalizations and decide what information will be required to answer these questions.
- determine any specific action steps which might intervene in these predicted patterns, and what effect such action steps might have on both the whole and the various parts.

h.) Implement action steps

- try it; then go back to step (a)
- collect any information required about the results of this step.

For this report, the implementation or action step was the writing, printing and distributing of the report. The turn-around time on this step is important. A report of this size takes considerable time. By the time it is distributed many of the statistics are already stale. A better solution would be to have small groups develop individual parts of such a report and distribute these as they become available.

Problems and comments

As we worked our way through this project, we encountered a number of problems which need to be mentioned. In addition we found a number of general comment which did not fit into any other part of the report. These are also included at this point.

1. There is a general shortage of information about women and learning activities. There is considerable information about women and work, women and the law, women and the family, women as mothers, and so on; but very little about learning activities or educational institutions or training programs and women. All the useful sources we encountered are included in the bibliographies accompanying each unit. The literature that is available tends to discuss program successes rather than failures; people as unisex learners rather than as males and females; those who are already involved rather than those who are not involved; those who succeed rather than those who drop-out or fail.

Other problems of this type are that:

- information is not readily available to the general public. We required inside contacts to obtain some information.
- if it is available, it is not in a form which is directly useful. We had to re-work some data. Other data were available only as raw totals and these needed to be

refined for our purposes.

- agencies do not keep or compile information because they have no resources to do this (money or people) and they do not know what is the most useful type of information to keep. The agencies we contacted would have been most willing to provide such information if they had known last year what was needed.
- the information kept is categorized by concepts which are not necessarily relevant to women. For example, "number of dependents" may be a useful way to categorize the primary wage earner; but "number of children at home" may be more useful for women as wage earners. In fact, "Women by age of children/women without children" might be a more relevant category for women than marital status. Our impression is that women are more likely to define themselves according to the presence/absence of children; whereas men are more likely to define women by the presence/absence of a man.

Many agencies would be willing and able to supply solid information about women as learners, if a group such as CLOW were to provide a set of workable categories, relevant to women's programs, to individual women learners, to the problems and solutions encountered by each, to specific encounters with the bureaucracy of educational agencies, etc. Working out these categories is the hard part of this process.

In the absence of information about women and learning activities which dealt with the specific areas involved in this report, we tended to rely on information about women and work. While all education is not directed toward employment preparation, a good proportion of it is. Almost universally, lack of appropriate employment opportunities for the educated or trained woman reduces participation in learning activities of all types when jobs are scarce, those that are available go to men first. Therefore, both families and governments prefer to spend their education and training funds on males first; then on females as conditions improve. There is a greater financial risk involved in educating women and girls and that risk is that women do not provide as great a financial return on the funds provided for their education as do men. This is not the fault of women, but is a condition of our present economic and social value system.

2. At the beginning of this project, CLOW did not or could not provide a set of specific policies or priorities which would guide and limit the investigation. Placing limits on the activities was the hardest part and each unit had a tendency to grow ever larger as it was assembled. Without limits we found it hard to reach closure on the topics suitable for discussion. This was especially true of Unit III on the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission.

The lack of priorities and the existence of only general policy statements, led to a number of concerns, which were simply avoided in the writing of this report, but which cannot be avoided in developing specific policies in the future. The five major concerns were:

i. The differences between policies and practices related to the personal and professional development of individual CLOW members on the one hand and the issue of advocating

change in public and private educational agencies on behalf of women learners on the other. For example, we were never clear whether this report was to be an example of the professional learning done by one or two people, or if it was to be used as a basis for future advocacy. This is not an either/or conflict, but a question of variation in emphasis, direction and process, each leading to slightly different products. We chose to focus on advocacy rather than individual development.

ii. Within the issue of professional and personal development for individual CLOW members lies another concern and difference in emphasis. Do we provide support through networks and through information dissemination; or do we develop and implement learning activities on behalf of members? This report does not focus on either side of this issue, although it represents information dissemination in one form.

iii. Within the issue of advocating change, is yet another concern. Is CLOW to be a passive change agent by providing information and suggestions which other groups can actively use in their own areas; or do we act as an active agent on behalf of both members and women learners? It was not clear how this report was to be used. It was written as an internal source of information (passive) to be used as background material only, and not as the basis of an active advocacy document.

iv. The fourth concern occurred because policy can focus on any or all of:

- the processes to be used in CLOW activities
- the major focus of these activities. ego schooling, training or individual activities; learning for basic literacy, for functional employment; for personal growth; for family maintenance; for the benefit of society or the benefit of the individual; etc
- priorities based on need
- priorities based on values, beliefs and attitudes
- the outcomes, products or changes sought

The decisions involved in this concern were clearly beyond the scope of this report and the entire problem was reduced to a series of alternative courses of action which might be considered for future policy development.

v. The fifth concern was the result of our values, attitudes, beliefs, needs and priorities imposing restrictions and direction on the material being assembled. In general, we tended to move in the direction of favouring the disadvantaged in the educational system, the "have-not's", who tend to have less and less as the system grows larger and provides greater access and flexibility. The educational system tends to operate on an illusion, referred to in various OECD documents as the "teaching illusion". This illusion expresses the hope that educational activities will be sufficient to change the social structures which cause disadvantages and to make the educational system, and hence the economic/employment system, universally accessible. Since the educational system is designed to support the social structures and to facilitate the economic/employment systems, it can do nothing of the sort. But we keep hoping.

3. We learned the value of having good contacts within agencies and institutions. These contact people were invariably women, who believe learning should be available to all women, but who are not yet in positions of power from which they can effect changes in the system. Such contact persons must be found in all regions, within all major institutions involved with women as learners. We also learned that:

- these contact persons are often attempting to effect changes from the inside. They are hampered in this activity by a lack of specific information about how their agency's practices affect individual learners. They need this information from us. In fact, they need our input and information as much as we need theirs.
- these contact persons need continuing support for themselves. Many of them act as "token" women in lonely positions within their agency.
- the ways in which we can be of assistance to them varies for each person, each agency and each region. We need to ask each of them how we can be the most useful; and we need to be very specific about how they can help us.

4. We learned that change, small to be sure but change none-the-less, occurs most frequently when several community groups mount advocacy campaigns about the same issue and at the same time. This works better if each group develops its own campaign, from its own perspective, rather than developing an amalgamated campaign through one large group.

In addition, we need to begin to find women who are willing to sit on policy making boards, to run for elected office, serve on monitoring committees, and so on. By combining pressures for change from inside staff persons, outside community groups, and members of influential committees, we will have the best chance to effect changes within the system.

5. There are lies, damned lies and statistics; just as there are policies, guidelines, and practices. The consistency within anyone set is totally within the eye of the beholder. We need to be able to comprehend both sets. This requires a sort of literacy which involves being able to read and understand policy and statistics. Women are sadly lacking in both skills. If we are to deal effectively with governments and agencies, we must begin to acquire these skills since statistics are often used to support and justify policies and policies determine how information will be gathered and statistics interpreted.

For example, the Women's Employment Branch states in its Plan of Action (see [Appendix A](#), Unit III), that the Commission will support and encourage women in, their search for economically viable and self-fulfilling employment. Statistics show that the numbers of women being served by the various activities of the Commission, such as employment referral, training activities and unemployment benefits, is proportional to the number of women in the labour force i.e. 38% of the labour force were women in 1977; and in the same year 35% of manpower trainees were women, 36% of regular job placements went to women; and 39% of unemployment benefits went to women). Who can argue with statistics like that. Therefore, the Commission has fulfilled its policy and the policy works. Breaking through such logic will require considerable skill. The

problem, of course, is that the information in each of these categories is gathered so as to not show the places where policy is not working.

6. Statistics can be interpreted in many different ways after the information has been gathered. When such interpretations produce policies which are disadvantageous to women, something must be done. We need to be able to interpret statistics from several different points of view, in particular we need to be able to do this from the point of view of women.

Statistical interpretations tend to use universal quantifiers such as some, most, the majority, the most frequent, the most likely, average, etc. "Some" can mean anywhere from 1% to 99%, but not 0% nor 100%. "Most" or the "majority" means any number over 50%. "Most likely", as in most likely choice or most frequent choice, means that this choice was chosen more often than any other choice. However, note that the "most likely" choice could be chosen by as few as (eg.) 25%, if the next most likely choice happens to be 24%.

An average is generally an arithmetic mean value, obtained by adding all the values provided by all respondents and then dividing the total by the number of respondents. That is, it is obtained by a mathematical procedure and is not necessarily a value reported by any respondent. The sum of the values above the mean is equal to the sum below, although the number of respondents above the mean is not necessarily the same the number below.. This mean can be badly skewed off centre. For example, when calculating the participation rate in the labour force of women 15 years and over, who are divorced, separated, or widowed, the group includes a disproportionately large number of widows over 65 years. These older women have very low participation rates and the bulk of their numbers tends to lower the average participation rate for the entire group.

The median is another measure of central tendency. It is the middlemost value of all those reported. For example, if there are 35 individual values, the median is the 18th when all the values are placed in order. The mean and the median are not necessarily the same. In the median, the number of respondents is equal above and below the median, but the actual sum of the values themselves may be quite different. For example, in 1975 the annual earnings for female heads of households showed the following values:

Annual earnings for families with female head of household

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Head in labour force</u>	<u>Head not in labour force</u>
Mean (average)	\$8,524	\$10,556	\$8,176
Median	7,236	9,815	5,75

In each case there are a much greater proportion of women earning small incomes (i.e. below the mean) than there are women earning large incomes. The median values indicate that the middlemost woman earns considerably less than the average value for all women.

This discrepancy is greatest for women not in the labour force and least for women in the labour force.

7. There are several ground rules involved in policy development and advocacy.

- be specific, be clear and precise. Describe rather than prescribe.
- know the policy, the legislation, the current guidelines for implementation, the priorities and values of the agency or institution being approached. Know your own and understand how yours and theirs are legislation likely to conflict or support each other.
- play by their rules and values but make them live up to those rules and values. Try to find ways to make those rules and values work for you rather than against you.
- provide choices, alternative solutions, pertinent information rather than issuing ultimatums. Make them an offer they can't refuse.
- know the background data and present situation, both supportive and non-supportive to your cause. Knowing both sides will keep you from being caught off balance, or trapped within your own alternative.

8. There are some very basic arguments which are currently operational in our society. The most important is the argument which suggests that limited resources must result in one group receiving those resources at the expense of another. For example, if we allow women to use training funds, there won't be enough for the unemployed men who need retraining.

This is an argument which tends to be accompanied by a message which suggests that women are very reasonable members of society who can see the problem involved and who will do the right/best/proper thing for their community/men/families/country. This concept of the essential competitive either/or quality of limited resources works against older age groups, women and those without dependents. In terms of learning opportunities it works against: the older person -- as in education/training is to prepare a person for life and educational/training funds should not be spent on those at the end of their life (however they can have medical or social funds if they would just ask)"; women -- as in education/training is to prepare a person for life and raising a family is either not "life" or does not require training (however, they can have medical or social funds for rehabilitation back into life or if they are incompetent about raising a family); and those who are lacking in basic literacy skills -- as in "they couldn't benefit from education/training the first time around, so how can they expect to now" (however, they are entitled to welfare funds).

The major problems involved in this issue of competition for funds are:

- it is not clear that if one group gets something, another is necessarily deprived. With some creativity we could probably all do with less.
- it seems more likely that as one group benefits, other groups also benefit. However, it should not automatically be the male group which receives the first

benefit. In fact, other arrangements might provide greater long-range benefits to all groups.

- the competition for funds within one agency or ministry is the direct outcome of competition between agencies and ministries. It is really hard to know where to intervene in such a system.
- this competition between ministries and agencies results in activities designed to stabilize, protect, maintain and hopefully, extend the life of each; and at the same time to extend, etc. the vested interests of those employed within each. The CEIC strikes this writer as an enormous and effective make-work project for several thousand civil servants throughout the country. Perhaps we need more of this type of job creation program rather than LIP projects or Summer Employment projects which are minuscule and ineffective by comparison.
- the competition for funds creates a demand for more funds and eventually we come to believe that we cannot survive without these funds.

The funds themselves carry their own conflict. If we are dependent on the government for funds, then we must also be accountable for how those funds are spent. The government may also be entitled to tell us how to spend our funds by controlling access to future funds. In this dilemma we have several choices:

- women's groups can request and accept public funds to provide services for women, and accept whatever public control may accompany these funds (eg. day care services);
- women's groups can ask the government and/or public institutions to provide the services directly to women and accept our basic lack of control over such funds (as in Manpower programs);
- women's groups can provide our own services without assistance from public funds, and retain control over those services within our own groups but operate at a lower funding level;
- we can develop systems which combine all three sources of funding and provide control through a representative committee. An example of this is provided by the Focus on Change Program, operated by the Metro Toronto YWCA for sole-support women. One component of this program provides group and individual counselling through YWCA funds (private) and Community and Social Service funds (provincial and municipal); a second component provides academic upgrading through Board of Education funds; and a third component provides a BJRT program leading to occupational training or BTSD programs through Manpower funds and Community College funds. The advisory committee includes representatives from all three levels of government, the Board of Education and Community College involved, YWCA administrative and program staff, and interested community people. The entire process is complex, frustrating, time-consuming, and often anxiety-producing; but it does work and the program is

effective.

9. Somewhere along the way to full accessibility to the educational system, the society must make some decisions about who is responsible for such functions as funding/controlling/developing/implementing each activity. This is not so much a problem of dividing limited resources, as one of dividing responsibility, accountability, and commitment into manageable portions.

For example, universal literacy is a relatively new concept in our society. About one hundred years ago, literacy was a family responsibility. When the society made the decisions which moved us from an agricultural to an industrial society, the move towards increased literacy became an essential pre-condition. Even today, the question of what constitutes literacy is unclear. Many provincial governments assume that basic literacy is reached at the Grade 5 level. Organizations such as the Canadian Association for Adult Education and the World Literacy of Canada believe that functional literacy requires completion of Grade 8. Most jobs, other than those which are unskilled, generally require Grade 10 with preference always going to those with Grade 12.

Therefore, we have three different definitions for basic literacy, functional literacy, and employment-required literacy. Governments are only prepared to accept responsibility within the limits of their own definition, and are often unwilling or unable to understand the problem from any other perspective. One only has to read the most recent catalogue of course offerings for adult learners from almost any educational agency, to understand that one must be able to read, to read English or French, and to follow the complexities of a catalogue (a functional skill) before one can find a functional literacy course. What is even more frightening is that some of our politicians take the view that "those people" should have these skills before they can benefit from learning the same skills, and certainly before they are entitled to any public money. This type of logic, taken to its logical end point, could lead to making illiteracy a crime against the state.

Beyond literacy levels, we then encounter the problem of responsibility for occupation-related training, including professional training; and liberal education, including all those learning opportunities for personal development. Arguments for or against public responsibility in these areas were traditionally made on the assumption that such education was for male learners. CLOW may need to review the arguments involved and to restate them from a female perspective, under present-day conditions.

10. Question-asking is an interesting problem. Most women appear to have been raised to answer questions or to wait for others to provide both questions and answers. If we cannot figure out what questions to ask, we will remain totally ignorant of the existence of problems in our lives; and if we are unwilling to pursue, with dogged determination, the answers which provide information about our problem, we will never change anything.

The hardest part of the process is the discovery of the best question to ask. Anyone can answer a question if he/she has the information; but discovering the question which best

elicits that information is a matter of skill and practice. If you don't get the answer which reduces your confusion or lack of knowledge (i.e. the theoretical definition of information), then either you have asked the wrong question or the answerer did not answer the question you asked.

There are several different kinds of questions, such as:

a.) The open-ended question which allows the respondent to answer over a wide range of possibilities, each presumably related in his/her mind to the question. This is useful as a discussion opener. An example might be -- "Tell me your opinion about women in Manpower training programs"

b.) The probe question which zeros in on specific areas of interest, which are introduced through open-ended discussion. The trick here is to probe as far as you can without arousing hostility, until you clearly understand what the other person knows or thinks. This is useful as a way to explore issues. It is not useful when the question-asker is perusing her own agenda or is looking for confirming answers to her own opinions. An example might be: "You talked about women being short-changed by the unemployment insurance scheme, could you tell me more about that?"

c.) The clarifying question which is used to get the same information in another form or by another method or in a different context. Questions of this sort are often redundant and can cause aggravation, but they are absolutely essential if you are attempting to reach consensus or just full understanding about the other person's position. An example might be: "When you talked about confusion about policy related to immigrant women, did you mean the Commission is confused, the counselors are confused, the women are confused or you are confused? What does confusion mean for you?"

d.) The closed question which is used to get a specific answer to a specific question, usually from someone who tries to avoid giving clear, specific answers, such as politicians. This type of question tends to be a conversation stopper, so it should be saved until the last possible minute. An example might be: Will you vote for increases in Manpower Training allowances, yes or no? In this type of questions the choices must be clearly defined and limited.

Some further observations about question-asking:

a.) Women tend to show considerable anxiety about asking questions and often apologize for what tends to be thought of as a personality problem or neurotic behaviour. For example:

Definition: people with a paranoid personality show hyper-sensitivity, rigidity, unwarranted

suspicion, jealousy, envy, excessive self-importance, and a tendency to blame others and to ascribe evil motives to them.¹

Opinion: women who ask questions are showing unwarranted suspicion about the other person; hyper-sensitivity about not receiving an adequate answer; are really blaming the person answering the question and are thinking of them as "the enemy".

Belief: women who ask questions are paranoid and should be humoured.

Corollary: those who don't know something which is essential to their own well-being tend to

use paranoid behaviours. The more they cannot find out what it is they don't know, the more they appear to be paranoid.

Definition: people with a passive-aggressive personality express their aggressiveness in passive ways such as obstructionism, pouting, intentional inefficiency, or stubbornness. Such behaviour reflects hostility which cannot be expressed openly because of an overly dependent relationship which provides little gratification.²

Opinion: women who ask questions are hostile. They are rejecting the person with the information even though they are dependent. If they would just trust that other person, they wouldn't need to know the answer and they wouldn't need to ask questions. They cannot appreciate the problems faced by the "independent" person in their dependent relationships.

Belief: women who ask questions are passive-aggressive and should learn to be passive-submissive. They would feel much better.

Corollary: in relationships in which one person is viewed as dependent, the other person is

always viewed as "independent". The reality is that both are dependent on each other.

b.) The group of people we should be questioning most extensively is those we elect to public office, at all levels of government; those who make policy; those who develop the guidelines for implementing policy; and those responsible for supervising the implementation. CLOW groups could develop a list of useful questions to be asked of candidates for public office. For example,

¹. C. J. Rowe, An outline of psychiatry (sixth edition), (Dubuque, Iowa:

Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1975), p.102.

². Ibid., p. 107

The Canadian Association for Adult Education recently asked the leaders of federal political parties to comment on their party's general position on the topic of learning opportunities for women. The leader of the Progressive Conservative Party, Joe Clark, sent the following answer:

"The continuing drop in enrollment in post-secondary institutions as a result of the low birth rate in the last decade and the lack of job opportunities after graduation will ease, to a certain extent, the problem of access for women to university for the next few years."^d

" This answer is none too clear and tends to cause confusion. The actual amount of information it contains is minimal at best. Further questioning and clarification is clearly in order.

11. We explored some of the more inappropriate concepts involved in the study of learning opportunities. There are clearly more to come. In general, the material is based on concepts relevant to the learning experiences of men. The major cause is that women have not yet begun to explore the meaning of their own learning. The inappropriateness of the concepts leads to an indirect form of sexual stereotyping. For example:

- women tend to define themselves (in a positive sense) on the basis of the presence or absence of children rather than the presence of absence of a man; and on the basis of general occupational area rather than the organization for which they work. Their identity, therefore, is different from that of a man in ways which could be a disadvantage They might demand fewer fringe benefits or training/advancement opportunities, from their employer if they feel less attached in some way. Women need to learn to define themselves in ways which do not depend on a relationship to another person.
- Leisure as a concept is basically irrelevant to many women, particularly those who have children at home. For working mothers, the concept is even more irrelevant. Such women engage in learning activities which fit into their discretionary time -- a pattern of short time periods in between family and work responsibilities. They tend to become involved in leisure activities which relate to their family or work responsibilities, rather than as pure leisure. For example, immigrant women might prefer to learn English or French as part of a learning activity related to home management, such as sewing or cooking, or related to employment skills.
- success and women's motives to avoid it are also concepts which may be irrelevant as they are currently used. While it may be true that women avoid male-type achievement, we know little about female-type achievement.
- productivity as measured by absenteeism, by income, by the number of hours worked, etc. may be totally irrelevant to women and work. Perhaps women work fewer hours because they are capable of completing the same volume of work in less time than it takes a man. We also need to find ways to measure a mother's productivity.

This type of sexual stereotyping is hard to combat. Women tend to have accepted male-defined concepts as being real. The American Psychological Association has a new

division, the Psychology of Women, which focuses not so much on comparisons between the sexes, as on the uniqueness of the female condition. The Maccoby-Jacklin book listed in the bibliography represents an initial attempt to summarize some of these problems.

¹ Letter to Allan Thomas, President of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, from Joe Clark, Leader of the Opposition and of the federal Progressive Conservative Party. Dated August 31th, 1978. Ottawa.

12. The nature of power and women's apparent lack of it, is a constant topic throughout the literature. There are several comments worth making:

a.) Power is definable in many ways, the simplest appear to be:

- power is the ability to accomplish work. This involves moving a load or payoff, through space and time, by the expenditure of energy.
- power is the ability to give (or not give) rewards and punishments as defined by the persons receiving them.¹

According to these definitions, the person who controls the most energy; moves the largest payoff the longest distance in the shortest time; and/or who controls what rewards or punishes us and thereby gets us to do the work. has the most power over us.

b.) Power is an abstract concept, even in physics. It is a concept used to explain something which doesn't actually exist in the work of concrete reality. In psychological terms, it is an intervening variable -- an assumption about what is going on inside a closed black box which cannot be examined directly. In this respect it is like learning. As an abstract concept, power tends to be illusory, to exist mainly in the eye of the beholder. Most of us rarely pause long enough to behold our own power, so we assume that we have none while others have it all. This is the illusion. As a person with power (and we all have it), I can make another person or object move by two methods:

- I can apply pressure to overcome resistance -- the push method
- I can create a vacuum which will move the person or object to fill that vacated space -- the pull or carrot-on-a-stick method.

If I pull while the other person is pushing, who is to judge which of us has the more power. Women have long assumed that we have no power. This is not true. We have power which we have not yet recognized, acknowledged, or exercised. While it is possible we will never have enough power to overcome all resistance to our progress, we do have some. Thinking powerless leads to powerless behaviour.

c.) There are at least five types of power in social situations some more basic than others.

If the leadership of any group has certain powers, then the subordinates or followers also have certain powers. In comparison these are:

¹ R. Beckhard, Organizational development: Strategies and models. (N.Y.: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

Leadership

Followership/subordinates

Legitimate or position power _____ Legal power

- this is potential power which is available for use at appropriate times. It is based on the entitlements and obligations of the law and of the various roles and statuses (both achieved and assigned) in our society. The entitlements and obligations are reciprocal -- the leader is obligated to meet the followers entitlements, and vice versa.

Coercive power. _____ Collective power

- this involves pressure on one side and resistance on the other. Fear of punishment is balanced by mutual self-protection.

Reward power _____ Affluence power

- this involves the expectations of rewards from one side to the other.

Expert power _____ Expert power

- this involves the knowledge and skills required to accomplish work and accumulated through experience and learning. It is often the same on both sides.

Referent or identity power _____ Referent or identity power

- this is influence exercised over others because they wish to be identified as part of a commonality or community. It always involves reciprocal dependency or interdependency.

Of these five types of power, only one, expert power, is attainable through access to learning opportunities. The others must be acquired by other means.

¹ J.R.P. French and B. Raven, "The bases of social power" in Cartwright and Zander (eds.) Group dynamics and theory (2nd edition). (N.Y.: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1953), pp. 607 - 623.

13. The nature of change is directly influenced by the nature of power and yields a different type of learning. Change can be thought of as the process of using power or as the outcome of that process. Similarly, learning can be thought of as the process or outcome of change in response to experience. Chin and Benne ¹ suggest three ways of instituting change:

i. through the empirical-rational approach in which the people to be changed are thought of as rational beings who will follow their own self-interests once this has been revealed to them. The rational approach attempts to appeal to this self-interest by defining, through empirical means, the most beneficial method to obtain these self-interests, (i.e. rewards). This approach combines reward power with expert power. Policy developed by this method focuses on the goals and on the rewards. The learning required involves an empirical investigation to obtain the facts, skills and resources necessary to the project.

ii. through the power-coercive approach which comes from applying pressure on those to be changed. This uses top-dog/under-dog strategies in which power can be applied in either direction (as in "up the organization" or "down with the masses"). This approach appeals to self-interest through fear of punishment. It combines legitimate/legal power with coercive power. Policy developed by this approach tends to focus on the political processes involved in developing and implementing policy. The learning required is management of processes, both political and social.

iii. through the normative-reductive approach which involves changing the norms, values, expectations, attitudes, habits, skills, relationships, stereotypes, etc. of the person to be changed. This approach appeals to the person's self-interests by supporting, accepting and acknowledging his/her current motivational system and by encouraging change through indirect methods such as modeling, suggestion, persuasion, and through more direct methods such as training and practicing. People change because they are led to believe it is good for them and because they like to be perceived as adaptable. This approach combines identity power with expert power. Policy developed by this approach focuses on the underlying value system which supports the policy decisions, on the collaborative process between the interested parties, and on problem-solving strategies.

CLOW needs to develop abilities to operate by all three approaches and to find ways to combine all three into one process.

¹ R. Chin and K. D. Benne, "General strategies for effecting changes in human systems" in W. G. Bennis, K. D. Benne, and R. Chin (eds.) The planning of change (3rd edition). Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976.

14. The nature of values is such that the more clear those values are, the easier it is to manage them in both policy development and implementation. But the value system must also be flexible enough to allow for change. Gardner says that "in the final stage of organizational senility, there is a rule or precedent for everything. Someone has said that the last act of a dying organization is to get out a new and enlarged edition of the rule book."⁴

15. The nature of policy decisions and policy development suggests some basic characteristics:²

i. It is based on technical judgments about what needs to be done derived from rational-empirical methods; on political judgments about what is possible derived from political and social methods; and value judgments about the allocation and distribution of resources based on some criterion on worth, such as money, power, need, respect, wisdom, trust, etc.

ii. It is distinguished from other types of decisions by the fact that policy decisions are always public. rather than private: are consequential to other people, rather than just the policy maker; and involve' uncertainty about the outcomes. The greater the uncertainty, the more divergent will be the views about how and what to decide.

iii. In its most practical, clear, unambiguous form, a complete policy statement includes:

- a statement about the goals to be reached, goals which provide general directions rather than specific outcomes;
- the strategies for planning the implementation of these goals; and
- the conditions to be met which will indicate achievement of these goals.

Policy guidelines, implementation plans, or action steps are part of the overall policy, but are generally written separately from the general and specific policy statements.

¹. J. W. Gardner, Self-renewal: The individual and the innovative society. (N.Y.: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964).

². T. C. Byrne, "Who gets what, when and how" in Education Canada, Fall, 1978, pp. 34 - 41.

³. In my Program Planning course in Adult Education, I learned these three as a verse, the last part of which is

"Where am I going?
How will I get there?
How will I know I've arrived?"

One example of a policy statement is provided in Appendix A of Unit III (page C-76). This is the policy statement of the Women's Employment Section of the Employment and Immigration Commission. In the general statement, the directions or goals appear to be:

- the development of the labour market
- a female labour force which has economic potential
- economically viable and self-fulfilling employment

The strategies for moving in that direction are: promoting and supporting. The conditions to be met which will indicate the goals have been met are omitted or ambiguous. Perhaps there are no specific end conditions and the activity of the Commission is only to move at an unspecified rate toward a general and distant goal. This tends to make the whole statement less effective and suggests that the goal is basically unattainable.

The sub-objectives are more specific and realistic, Each implies an end condition which could be observed and described. It seems possible to attain these goals. However, it is not at all clear how the sub-objectives support or grow out of the general objective.

iv. Meta-policy is policy about formulating policies. Some of the questions to be addressed by meta-policy making are:

- what are the most important policy areas, such as those having to do with resource allocation; with accessibility; with individual need; with expansion of services; with improvement of existing services, etc.
- what groups should be included in the policy-making process.
- do we work for equality of opportunity by competing or by co-operating.

16. Finally, the CCLOW needs to spell out exactly what is meant by a learning opportunity, what function they serve in the life of a woman; what the minimum and the optimum conditions would be for various types of learning opportunities; what responsibilities for those functions could and should be held by various agencies,

governments, and/or individuals?

Personal comments

As I wrote this paper I found myself exploring some ideas which did not fit into any unit but which I wanted to include at some point. I am therefore taking that liberty here.

1. Recurrent education and lifelong learning are two concepts currently enjoying attention in adult education. As I understand these terms, we all learn throughout our lifetime as a basic human response to experience. The more we are able to integrate this learning as we move from birth, through childhood, school, adolescence, occupational training, work, marriage, parenthood and retirement to death; the better able we are to adapt to these changes.

Recurrent education includes the formal and informal learning activities an individual might engage in as a response to these changes. While lifelong learning is the responsibility of the individual learner, recurrent education can become the responsibility of various educational institutions.

If we understood the basic patterns of change which occur throughout different life styles, we would know more about the types of learning opportunities required by different groups of learners. For example, the woman who works, never has children, and remains in the same occupation from 25 to 65 requires different learning opportunities than the woman who works five years, marries, leaves the labour force to bear and rear children, then returns ten years later as a sole-support mother.

We need to know more about these life patterns of women and about the recurrent educational experiences which would enhance them.

2. Another concept currently in vogue is paid educational leaves of absence. Most of the discussion focuses on male workers and the economic benefits or liabilities involved for employers, governments, and workers. Any potential differences in how such leaves would affect men and women has yet to be explored. The concept appears to be similar in some respects to maternity leave for women. It is not clear therefore, just how women would be dealt with around educational leaves since their treatment in regard to maternity leave is so inconsistent.

I have some wild scenarios about educational leave and women:

- women will be able to get educational leaves or maternity leaves but not both.
- women will be able to get maternity leave but must attend educational programs at the same time. Such programs will deal with parenting, household management and time management
- women will be rewarded for bearing and rearing children with free access to

educational programs (rather than family allowances) provided they are prepared to drop out of the labour force for the first ten years of a child's life. This would be a type of extended maternity leave.

3. The concept of educational need is not expressed in the literature. Since we have concepts of social need and financial need, perhaps we could develop a parallel concept of educational need. Such a concept would take into account: schooling or training already completed; economic potential of this training; level of schooling or training required for adequate employment; ability to complete schooling or training within a reasonable time limit (i.e. before the training becomes obsolete). Financial support would be allotted on the basis of financial and educational need for all levels and types of schooling and training. Priority of access would be determined on the basis of educational need.

4. Entitlement to education is rarely discussed in the literature. We don't really know just how much education an adult woman is legally entitled to. We do know that in Ontario, any resident is entitled to secondary education to Grade 12 or six years in secondary schooling, but not both. One major hurdle is that while a woman can claim these rights, she cannot claim the right to receive that education in an adult class. Provision for adult classes is at the discretion of the local board of education. However, she can claim the right to attend regular secondary school classes.

CLOW might give some thought to testing this and other entitlements in a court of law.

5. Research projects about women and learning are sadly lacking both in quality and quantity. Besides being able to determine the economic value of a woman's education, we should also explore the social value of that education. We need to know more about women who don't participate; about women who fail or drop-out; about how education fits into a woman's life in ways other than as employment preparation. We need a data bank which would contain information about women's participation; about their various learning activities; about their basic characteristics and their learning characteristics; about various predictors of success or failure, participation or non-participation; and so on. We need to do some studies on the meaning and value women attach to their own learning, and to stop using male-oriented concepts.

6. One topic, which is of particular interest to me, is the current wave of brain research and the nature of consciousness and cognitive abilities. I believe that, since the brain is affected by small changes in the chemical balance of the blood, women and men must develop and use slightly different brain structures and processes; and that these would make some very basic differences in the ways they learn and what they prefer to learn. These differences would then be profoundly affected by the differing ways in which male and female children are socialized. I am not suggesting that these differences make males better at learning, only that males and females learn differently and that we need to begin to equalize the value attached to those differences. However, before we can do any of that we need to become better acquainted with this field of investigation and with its

implications for women as learners.

For example, when all socializing effects are held constant, it is apparent that women, in general, show superior manual dexterity, superior fine motor coordination, and are better able to make rapid choices than men. This means that they will probably make faster and better typists since typing requires manual dexterity, fine motor coordination and rapid decision making. But then so does neuro-surgery.

On the other hand men show superior gross motor coordination and faster reaction times (as opposed to decision times). That means they are better at playing football or at construction work, and would probably do better at housekeeping.

Other differences which have been fairly well established as basic sexual differences not related to socialization are: ¹

- females have greater verbal abilities which increase beyond 11 years; males have greater spatial abilities which do not show up until the adolescent years. These are emphasized by socialization.
- women appear to show less specialization in the two sides of the brain. If they suffer local brain damage, the function of that area is not lost but is taken over by other areas. Men tend to show much greater specialization and when they suffer brain damage, the function of the damaged area tends to be lost. Women who suffer strokes, for example, can be rehabilitated more easily than men.
- women tend to have both verbal and spatial functions located on both sides of the brain, while men tend to show lateralization of these functions, that is the verbal function on one side and the spatial ability on the other. Women, therefore, may be superior in activities which require combined verbal and spatial activities as part of a single activity, such as understanding simultaneously both verbal and non-verbal parts of a communication for another person. Men may be superior in situations which call for different verbal and spatial functions, each used for a different activity, such as operating a drill press at the same time as carrying on a conversation.
- women's brains appear to be selectively and sequentially activated according to the mental tasks required in any activity. They can concentrate on that one task to the exclusion of others. Men, however, may be able to carry out more than one mental task at any time, but this ability also leads to distractibility and lack of concentration. This would also contribute to exploring behaviours which are partially a function of distractibility, as well as of spatial skills.
- in cultures where children of both sexes are permitted to roam freely, the sex differences in spatial ability are present but not as marked as those found in cultures in which female children are not encouraged to roam freely. This suggests that every mental ability must be exercised and allowed full access to learning experiences in order to develop to its full potential.
- women show a larger electoral response to stimuli such as light or sound. They

are more affected by novel situations. As women concentrate more on the novel stimuli, the electrical responses become greater. Therefore, women are described as augmenters. They tend to rate life changes such as marriage, changing residence, childbirth, etc. as far more stressful than men.

Note that females may differ from males in the number of individuals with superior skills in certain spheres of activity, not in the level of skill possible among women. Average differences and abilities should never be used to exclude women from any profession or occupation.

It is apparent that some of these sex-based differences could be used against women in their quest for equality in learning opportunities. CLOW may want to address these issues, as well as questions such as:

- does schooling/training aim at improving the skills of the average learner (eg. verbal skills for women, spatial skills for men); or at improving the skills of the individual?
- should schooling in the early years focus on the cognitive strengths of each sex, rather than on the weaknesses; on the weaknesses rather than the strengths; or on some combination of both?
- should schooling/training in the adult years assume that cognitive skills have already been established and cannot be altered; and, therefore, learning activities should focus on verbal skills and fine motor coordination for women, and spatial skills and gross motor coordination for men, as a general rule?

¹. D. Goleman, "Special abilities of the sexes: Do they begin in the Brain" and M. B. Parlee, "The sexes under scrutiny: From old biases to new theories", Psychology Today, November 1978, pp. 48-59 and 62-69.

Also E. Maccoby and C. Jacklin (eds.) The psychology of sex differences, (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1974).

7. My impression from all my reading in the area of women and learning, is that some of the obstacles and learner needs translate well into potential services provided by educational institutions or other agencies. These include day care services, counselling services, transportation services, flexibility in scheduling, a wider variety in course selection, and so on. Other obstacles and needs translate into problems the learner must work at solving for herself, possibly with support from educational agencies. These include low self-esteem, poor concept of self as learner, family-related obstacles, time conflicts, and so on. Still other obstacles and needs suggest the development of some normative-reeducative activities by groups such as CLOW, to be directed at staff personnel who work directly with women either in administration, counseling or teaching.

This would require a long-term program of modeling, consciousness-raising, and friendly persuasion.

8. I have been reading about educational opportunities, learner needs, obstacles to participation, learner characteristics and so on for close to 8 months now as part of two separate projects. I have come to realize that I still have some difficult questions for which there are no answers. Some of these questions are:

- what do women gain from an educational system which often gives us nothing much better than abuse, discounting, rejection, negative stereotyping, obstacles to admission and participation, and unwillingness or inability to provide for our most basic needs? We certainly are willing to put up with all these inadequacies just for the dubious privilege of being admitted. What makes us believe that admission to such a system is a privilege?
- what do all those women who do not participate know that we, as participants, don't know? Maybe they are trying to tell us something important about how our current system operates; not just the male-dominated part, but also the female-run part.
- I suppose our major aim is access to the male-dominated educational system which is the major portal for admission to the male-dominated employment/economic system. If we can prove ourselves worthy as students, and can prove we can survive in such a system, then perhaps we will be welcomed into the world of work. This is clearly an illusion but we keep trying. And for those of us with an essential need to achieve economic security and survival, this is the only game in town.
- What would happen if we set up our own female oriented educational system", based on our own needs and values? Would men want to join our "game"? Could the two systems coexist? One example is provided by the Simone de Beauvoir Institute for Women's Studies of Concordia University in Montreal. The primary purpose of this institute is to provide an environment which will encourage students to maximize their personal, social and intellectual potential. Women's studies are used to provide a cognitive framework for the affective support needs of students.¹
- one peculiarity of the educational system is that the more education a woman has, the more she wants and the more likely she is to participate. As a result, if a woman already has a good education, she is inclined to ask for more and, therefore, gets more because she has learned how to ask. On the other hand, the less education a woman has, the less she is inclined to want, the less she asks for, the less she participates, and the less she actually gets.

¹ Official submission to Concordia University Senate for the creation of "small units, such as colleges" from the Women's College Committee, December 20, 1977. The President of this Institute is Dr. Mair Verthuy.

At the same time, the more education a woman has, the less likely that she will be satisfied with her employment. This leads to the suspicion that the more we provide education and training to the already well-educated, the higher the level of dissatisfaction and the higher the demand for better jobs and more training. The same is true of men. But those who don't have a high level of education are more inclined to become unemployed through job loss, rather than through quitting; and once unemployed, they find it hard to get back into either the educational or the employment system.

This poses a dilemma. Less than Grade 8 education is too little and leads to unemployment through job loss, poverty, non-participation, and inadequate requests for more training. More than Grade 12 education leads to higher participation in both the labour force and learning activities, higher job dissatisfaction, greater likelihood of unemployment through job leaving, and greater demand for more training. Since the system has already stated that it prefers to re-train those who can benefit the most in the shortest period of time, the educated get more education and training and the under-educated get less.

This opens up a gap between the have's and the have-not's. If this gap widens to a point that it becomes unbridgeable, we will end up with a public education system which serves only the middle and upper income groups of adults. Such a system will probably be fully accessible, highly flexible and totally responsive to the learning needs of the educated woman.

But the women who most need education and training will be out of luck, and will be forced to fall back on the medical and social welfare systems for support and treatment.

Table 1.

Population, 15 years of age and over, by school attendance, age and sex. (Canada, 1971 and 1976)

	Total population		Population attending school full-time				Population out-of-school ¹			
	1971 (thousands)	1976 (thousands)	1971 (thousands)	% of group	1976 (thousands)	% of group	1971 (thousands)	% of group	1976 (thousands)	% of group
Age groups										
- 19 years										
Female	1,038	1,149	740	71.2%	574	50.0%	298	28.8%	575	50.0%
Male	1,075	1,196	793	73.8%	590	50.7%	282	26.2%	606	49.3%
- 24 years	943	1,068	124	13.2%	157	14.7%	819	86.8%	911	85.3%
Female	943	1,068	124	13.2%	157	14.7%	819	86.8%	911	85.3%
Male	943	1,065	217	23.0%	216	20.3%	726	77.0%	849	79.7%
25 years and over										
Female	5,668	6,450	60	1.1%	67	1.0%	5,608	98.9%	6,383	99.0%
Male	5,522	6,168	87	1.6%	90	1.5%	5,435	98.4%	6,078	98.5%
Totals										
Female	7,649	8,667	924	12.1%	798	9.2%	6,725	87.9%	7,869	90.8%
Male	7,540	8,429	1,097	14.6%	896	10.6%	6,443	85.4%	7,533	89.4%

Sources: Statistics Canada, 1971 Census, The out-of-school population, Catalogue 92-742
 ----- 1971 Census, The school population, Catalogue 92-743
 ----- 1976 Census, "Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling, by age and by sex," Microfiche File SDDEMB 12.
 ----- 1976 Census, Population: Demographic characteristics, level of schooling by age groups, Catalogue 92-827. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Services, 1978)

¹This includes persons who attend school part-time as well as those who do not attend school.

Comment:

Between 1971 and 1976, in the 15 - 19 year group, there was a considerable increase in the absolute numbers of persons, both male and female but a decline in the number attending school full-time. This decline could be the result of several factors, some of which are:

- more persons may be completing their secondary schooling at an earlier age and then not going on to post-secondary education.
- the drop-out rate may have increased.
- more may be attending school part-time and are, therefore, counted as being out-of-school.
- this survey was done on June 1st, 1976, at the end of the school year and some may have reported themselves as out-of-school, when in fact they were planning to return to school in the fall.
- some may have not been properly enumerated.

These figures do not agree with the data reported from other sources. For example, another Statistics Canada publication indicates the following comparisons: ¹

		Estimated enrolments in all types of educational institutions	
		1971	1976
15 - 19 years	F.	64.8%	63.5%
	M.	69.9	64.5%
20 - 24 "	F.	9.0	11.3
	M.	17.5	15.7
25 years and	F.	0.3	0.5
	M.	0.9	0.9

In this set of figures, the population data was estimated and does not agree with those provided by the 1976 Census figures. However, the changes are in the same directions: down for both sexes in the 15 - 19 year group; up for women 20 years and over; down for men 20 - 24 years.

¹. Z. Zsigmond and others, Out of school -- Into the labour force. Trends and projections for enrolment, school leavers, and the labour force in Canada- the 1960s through the 1980s. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada; Education, Science and Culture Division; Projections Section, 1978.) Catalogue 81-570E Occasional.

Table 2.

Population, 15 - 24 years, by school attendance and sex
Canada and provinces, 1976

		% in school	% out-of-school	
		<u>full-time</u>	<u>In school part-time</u>	<u>Not in school</u>
Canada	Female	33.0%	4.2%	62.8%
	Male	35.7	4.5	59.8
Newfoundland	F.	24.4	2.9	3.2
	M.	72.7	26.3	70.5
Prince Edward Island	F.	36.1	2.6	61.3
	M.	33.1	3.1	63.8
Nova Scotia	F.	31.8	2.5	65.7
	M.	32.7	3.7	63.6
New Brunswick	F.	28.6	2.1	69.3
	M.	29.6	2.8	67.6
Quebec	F.	34.5	4.0	61.5
	M.	37.5	4.2	58.3
Ontario	F.	35.5	4.7	59.8
	M.	39.1	4.7	56.2
Manitoba	F.	28.3	4.2	67.5
	M.	30.6	4.1	65.3
Saskatchewan	F.	28.7	3.1	68.2
	M.	27.9	3.7	68.4
Alberta	F.	30.2	4.5	65.3
	M.	32.5	5.8	61.7
British Columbia	F.	30.1	4.9	65.0
	M.	32.5	5.5	62.0
Yukon	F.	25.7	4.6	69.7
	M.	24.3	2.6	73.1
Northwest Territories	F.	17.8	2.0	80.2
	M.	21.2	2.5	76.3

For Canada only

Participation rates in labour force	F.	42.7%	80.2%	59.2%
for 15-24 years	M.	50.3%	86.5%	75.6%
Unemployment rates	F.	18.3%	9.1%	11.1%
	M.	15.1%	9.4%	11.6%

Source: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada. "Population 15 to 24 years by labour force activity, by school attendance, and by sex.'" Microfiche File SDECOB 43. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Services, 1978).

Comment:

[Table 2](#) shows a set of figures which were obtained in an attempt to discover if the drop in school attendance was consistent for all provinces. Unfortunately, the 1976 data are only available as a total group, from 15 to 24 years. The comparison was not possible. However, we included the data for your information.

A comparison of the provinces shows that:

- Ontario, Quebec, and P.E.I. are the only provinces in which the proportions of school attenders are above the national averages; while Newfoundland, the Yukon and the N.W.T. are well below .
- P.E.I., Saskatchewan, and the Yukon are the only provinces with more female at tenders than male.
- Alberta, B.C., and Ontario have the highest proportions of part-time attenders. Newfoundland, P. E. I., Nova scotia, New Brunswick, and the N.W.T. have the lowest proportions of part-time attenders, particularly female attenders

Table 3.

Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling attained, by age and by sex. (Canada, 1971 and 1976)

<u>Age groups</u>		Elementary School partial or complete		Secondary School partial or complete		Post-secondary (univ./non-univ.) partial or complete	
		<u>1971</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1976</u>
15 - 19 years	F.	10.5%	6.3%	76.1%	79.2%	13.4%	14.5%
	M.	13.9	9.0	74.5	78.7	11.6	12.3
20 - 24 years	F.	11.9	6.4	47.6	49.0	40.5	44.6
	M.	12.2	6.9	42.0	46.9	45.8	46.2
25 years and over	F.	37.9	32.1	38.4	39.4	23.7	28.5
	M.	38.2	33.0	30.5	33.6	31.3	33.4
Totals	F.	31.0	25.5	44.7	45.9	24.3	28.6
	M.	31.5	26.3	38.2	41.7	30.3	32.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, "Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling, by age, and by sex." Microfiche File SDDEMB 12.

Statistics Canada, 1971 Census of Canada, The out-of-school population, Catalogue 92-742; and The school population, Catalogue 92-743. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Services, 1971)

Comment:

Between 1971 and 1976, in all age groups, there has been a decrease in the number of persons with only elementary school education. The World Literacy of Canada has established a minimum of Grade 8 as the level at which functional literacy is reached. Therefore, the percentage of persons with less than Grade 8 is an indication of the level of illiteracy in Canada. In 1976, one person in four could be defined as functionally illiterate. The rate is higher for men than for women. However, this rate is decreasing rapidly in the

younger age groups.

There has been an increase in the numbers of persons who have partial or complete secondary schooling. This increase is greatest for men in all groups.

There has been an increase in the numbers of persons who go on to post-secondary education. This increase has been greatest for women 20 years and over.

Table 4.

Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling attained and by sex.
Canada and provinces, 1976.

		Elementary School (partial/ complete)	Secondary School (partial/ complete)	Post-secondary education		Total
				Non-univ. (partial/ complete)	University (partial/ complete)	
Canada	F.	25.5%	45.9%	15.2%	13.4%	28.6%
	M.	26.3	41.7	13.1	18.9	32.0
Newfoundland	F.	35.0	42.4	13.1	9.5	22.6
	M.	39.3	35.9	13.2	11.6	24.8
Prince Edward Island	F.	23.4	43.7	17.2	15.7	32.9
	M.	36.4	37.4	11.4	14.8	26.2
Nova Scotia	F.	22.1	47.7	17.9	12.3	30.2
	M.	28.5	42.2	14.3	15.0	29.8
New Brunswick	F.	30.8	43.4	14.8	11.0	25.8
	M.	37.1	37.7	11.7	13.5	25.2
Quebec	F.	34.0	39.8	13.4	12.8	26.4
	M.	32.0	36.6	12.2	19.2	31.4
Ontario	F.	22.6	48.6	15.4	13.4	28.8
	M.	22.9	44.5	12.7	19.9	32.6
Manitoba	F.	25.9	45.8	14.7	13.6	28.3
	M.	27.9	42.3	11.6	18.2	29.8
Saskatchewan	F.	26.9	44.6	15.9	12.6	28.5
	M.	32.5	42.9	10.0	14.6	24.6

Alberta	F.	17.0	49.4	18.4	15.2	33.6
	M.	19.5	44.0	17.2	19.3	36.5
British Columbia	F.	16.8	50.9	16.6	15.7	32.3
	M.	18.5	45.3	15.9	20.3	36.2
Yukon	F.	15.0	44.3	23.0	17.7	40.7
	M.	18.1	42.7	20.8	18.4	39.3
Northwest Territories	F.	41.3	30.7	15.2	12.8	28.6
	M.	37.9	29.5	16.8	15.8	32.6

Source: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, "Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling by age and by sex". Microfiche File, SDDEMB 12.

Comments:

[Table 4](#) was included to provide a comparison of literacy and post-secondary levels of schooling among the provinces.

- the most predominant patterns are that men have a higher rate of illiteracy in all provinces except Quebec and the N.W.T. British Columbia, Alberta, and the Yukon have the lowest rates of functional illiteracy in Canada.
- in all provinces women are more likely to have complete or partial secondary schooling than men.
- women are less likely to go on to post-secondary education except in P.E.I., Nova Scotia, Saskatchewan and the Yukon.
- women are more likely to go into post-secondary non-university programs, while men are more likely to go into university programs.

Table 5.

Population, 15 years and over, by school attendance and sex,
showing level of schooling attained. (Canada, 1976)

School attendance		level of schooling attained				
		Elementary School (partial/ complete)	Secondary School (partial/ complete)	Post-secondary Non-univ. (partial/ complete)	Post-secondary University (partial/ complete)	
Total attending school full-time	F.	2.4%	57.8%	12.1%	27.7%	100.0%
	M.	3.2	54.3	10.4	32.1	100.0
- at elementary or secondary school	F.	3.8	91.9	2.8	1.5	100.0
	M.	5.3	90.6	2.7	1.4	100.0
- at post-secondary non-university	F.	1.0	11.1	54.1	33.8	100.0
	M.	0.6	11.8	50.5	37.1	100.0
- at post-secondary university	F.	0.3	2.0	2.0	95.7	100.0
	M.	0.3	1.9	1.7	96.1	100.0
Total not attending school full-time (includes those attending part-time)	F.	27.8	44.6	15.5	12.1	100.0
	M.	29.1	40.2	13.5	17.2	100.0
Total population attenders and out-of-school	F.	25.5	45.8	15.2	13.5	100.0
	M.	26.3	41.7	13.2	18.8	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, Population: Demographic characteristics, school attendance and level of schooling. Catalogue (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Services, 1978).

Comment:

Over 95% of those attending elementary or secondary schools have no post-secondary education. Fewer than 10% of those attending post-secondary institutions have any previous experience at this level of schooling. This includes those first year students who are graduates of secondary schools. Therefore, the number of adults with less than

complete secondary schooling who attend post- secondary institutions is extremely small.

One-third of those attending post-secondary non-university schools already have some university education. Non-university institutions have the widest variety of educational attainment levels among the characteristics of learners.

A comparison of the total attending full-time, the total not attending, and the total population indicates that those with only elementary or secondary schooling are less likely to be at tenders than those with at least some post-secondary schooling.

Table 6.

Population, 15 years and over, by level of schooling attained and sex, showing types of schools attended and proportion of population attending each (Canada, 1976).

		Level of schooling attained				TOTAL adult pop.
		Elementary School (partial/complete)	Secondary School (partial/complete)	Post-secondary Non-univ. (partial/complete)	Post-secondary University (partial/complete)	
Attending Elementary or secondary school	F.	0.8%	11.1%	0.6%	0.6%	5.5%
	M.	1.2	13.2	1.2	0.5	6.1
Attending Post-secondary non-university	F.	*	0.4	3.3	4.3	1.7
	M.	0.1	0.5	6.8	3.4	1.7
Attending Post-secondary university	F.	*	0.1	0.1	14.0	2.0
	M.	*	0.1	0.4	14.2	2.8
Not attending (includes those attending part-time)	F.	99.1	88.4	96.0	81.1	90.8
	M.	98.7	86.2	91.6	81.9	89.4
	F.	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	M.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, Population: Demographic characteristics, school attendance and level of schooling. Catalogue 92-826 (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Services, 1978).

Comment:

For all levels of schooling attained and for all three groups of schools attended, a higher proportion of adult males are full-time attenders than females, except for those with a university education who are attending a non-university, post-secondary institution. In this group a higher proportion of women attend than men.

Men are more likely to be full-time attenders than women.

In general, the proportions of non-attenders are higher among those with only elementary or secondary education when compared to those with post-secondary education. Among those with post-secondary education, those with only non-university education are more likely to be non-attenders than those with university education. Those with the most education are the most likely to attend schools full-time.

Table 7.

Graduates by level and type of educational program (Canada, 1974-75)

	<u>Female</u> (thousands)	<u>Male</u>
Graduated from:		
Secondary schools:	137.0 (53.9%)	117.4
Post-secondary institutions:		
Non-university diploma or certificate	29.7 (55.8%)	23.5
University diploma or certificate undergraduate level	4.0 (50.0%)	4.0
graduate level	0.4 (30.8%)	0.9

Degree		
Bachelor's	35.7 (44.3%)	44.9
Master's	3.1 (28.4%)	7.8
Doctorate	0.3 (16.7%)	1.5
Total all post-secondary	73.2 (47.0%)	82.6

Source: Zsigmond, Z. and others, Out of school - into the labour force. Trends and prospects for enrolment, school learners and the labour force in Canada -- the 1960s through the 1980s. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Education, Science and Culrutre Division, 1978) Catalogue 81-570E

Comments:

While women leave secondary school as 54% of the total graduates and complete various post-secondary diplomas and certificates in approximately the same proportions; their share of various post-secondary degrees rapidly declines as the level of degree increases.

Table 8.

Various enrolment figures (Canada, 1974-75)

	Female		Male	
	(thousands)	%	(thousands)	%
<u>Full-time</u>				
Non-university:				
Career programs	73.3	53.0%	65.1	47.0%
University transfer programs	31.3	43.2	41.1	56.8
Total non-university	104.6	49.6	106.2	50.4

University:				
Undergraduate				
degree programs	126.5	41.2%	180.7	58.8%
non-degree programs	0.8	33.3	2.4	66.7
Graduate	10.3	27.3%	27.5	72.7%
Total university	137.6	39.6%	209.8	60.4%
Total full-time post-secondary	242.2	43.4%	316.0	56.6%
<u>Part-time¹</u>				
University				
Undergraduate	79.8	54.7%	66.0	45.3%
Graduate	7.0	28.7	17.4	71.3
Total part-time University	86.8	51.0	83.4	49.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Science and Culture Division, Education in Canada: A statistical review from 1974-75 and 1975-76. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1977). Catalogue 81-229 Annual.

¹ Figures for enrolments in part-time programs at boards of education, community colleges, and in correspondence courses, as well as in both credit non-credit in a variety of courses provided by other agencies are available not showing a breakdown by sex.

Table 9.

Full-time/part-time, graduate/undergraduate, enrolment by broad field of specialization, showing women as percentage of total enrolment (Canada, 1974-75)

Field of specialization	Undergraduate ¹		Graduate ²	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Arts and related studies	48.6%	61.4%	---	---
Law	23.8	*	---	---
Religion & theology	31.8	62.5	---	---
Humanities & related	---	---	40.3	40.5
Social sciences & related	---	---	27.2	24.3
Sciences	32.2	35.2		
Mathematics & pure sciences	---	---	13.2	16.7
Agriculture & related sciences	23.3	*	27.3	33.3
Veterinary medicine	22.2	*	---	---
Household sciences	97.8	99.0	---	---
Commerce & business administration	19.9	19.6	---	---
Education	60.8	64.4	41.4	34.3
Engineering & applied sciences	4.6	5.3	6.1	*
Fine & applied arts	59.1	63.6	60.0	66.7
Health-related studies	---	---	22.8	50.0
Dentistry	10.5	*	---	---
Medicine	26.2	*	---	---
Nursing	98.3	94.4	---	---
Pharmacy	57.7	*	---	---
Other	84.6	99.0	---	---
Unclassified	44.6	50.0	30.8	33.3
Totals	41.1	54.7	27.3	28.7

Source: Statistics Canada; Education, Science and Cultural Division, Education in Canada: A statistical review from 1974-75 and 1975-76. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1977). Catalogue 81-229 Annual.

¹ Includes first professional degrees.

² Classification of specializations are slightly different for graduate level studies. We have arranged them in groupings for this table.

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UNIT II: DAY CARE SERVICES

Definition

According to current federal government literature, day care services are provided...

"... as one of the necessary support services to promote and strengthen family well-being. Modern technology and urbanization have introduced many dislocations in family life and have mandated changing family life styles .¹

The literature goes on to say that ...

"... we now expect a family to achieve what no other society has ever expected an individual family to accomplish unaided. In effect we call upon the individual family to do what a whole clan used to do."

Day care services are defined as services to the family to assist and support the child-rearing function and to allow the mother to work to support the family financially; and as services to children to protect them from abuse, neglect and the ignorance of parents.

Day care services are generally described as (a) group care services, or those provided to groups of children, in similar age groupings and specially equipped facilities; and (b) family care services, or those provided within a family home to no more than 5 unrelated children of varying ages.

In terms of costs to the service provider, group care services are more expensive than family care services; and public group services are more expensive than private group services. In terms of costs to the family, family care services provided within the mother's home are the most expensive; family care services provided within the home of the sitter are the least expensive; and group care services occupy a middle range. The cost to families of group services varies according to family income and expenses, and the availability of full or partial subsidies. or subsidized spaces in various facilities.

¹. Health and Welfare Canada, National Day Care Information Centre, Status of day care in Canada: 1973, (Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada, 1973), p.2

². Quote by Margaret Mead, cited in R. Burshtyn (ed.), Day care: A resource for the contemporary family, (Ottawa: the Vanier Institute of the Family, 1969), p. 2.

General background

Day care services in Canada appear to have evolved out of three streams of thought and change: social welfare services for needy children; pre-school education; and the women's liberation movement.

The existence of social welfare services for abused, disturbed, retarded, sick, orphaned, disabled, and otherwise needy children has been provided for many years through government funds. The demand for more and better services in these areas has increased in recent years. This demand has shifted from large scale custodial services (eg. orphanages) to small scale family-type services (eg. foster parents, group homes) and to specific programs which meet specific needs (eg. hot lunches at inner city schools). Such services are traditionally funded as social welfare or health services. The various arguments for or against funding are based on the moral obligations of the society, and hence the government, to protect and maintain the well-being of its youngest members. The shift from large scale to small scale services is characterized in day care by an increasing demand for family care services. It is possible that group care services still bear the stigma of the workhouse image of rows of cots on which sleep needy children with runny noses and pale eyes.

Pre-school or pre-elementary education services were conceived as educational-developmental services and were based on the concepts of such educators as Montessori and Piaget. These concepts hold that any child can benefit from increased social, mental and physical stimulation; and that children who receive such services are better off when they reach regular school age. Its original form, this need was based on the right of every child to the best possible conditions available for encouraging growth and learning, and was met through private group services. However, as time progressed, we developed a disadvantaged class (If children whose parents could not afford the costs. Therefore, we developed remedial programs, such as "Headstart", which combined social welfare with educational services. To justify pre-school education beyond this remedial level, to a universal level, we run the risk of falling into an unacceptable assumption ... that such services are essential to the eventual well-being of the total society through the development of the "best" or "approved" type of citizen and that the average parent is not capable of rearing children to be this type of citizen. Under such an assumption, while the government would have a clear obligation to provide funds it would also have the right to control both the administrative and programming aspects of the services. Thus far, the public education systems in most provinces have extended public funding only as far as half-day junior kindergarten programs for four-year old. These are often universal but not compulsory, and are normally extended first to disadvantaged or disabled groups.

The women's liberation movement has resulted in increased participation by women in the labour force and increased demands for services which allow a woman to achieve her full potential as a contributing and equal member of society. One of the major conditions which would allow a woman to do this is the provision of those support services necessary to enable a freely-determined choice of how she will divide up the use of her time, energy, skills and resources between her home, her family, and her outside interests and/or employment. A major assumption is that women have a right to some of the rewards which a society has to offer its contributing members. One of the services deemed necessary for making such a free choice is the provision of substitute care for young children. While there appear to be a number of means for meeting this condition the one most espoused by women's groups is the provision of more, better and cheaper day care services which are both flexible and accessible. Justification for the funding to support such services is usually based on a complex argument derived from statistical data about working mothers; one-parent families; low-income families; the rate of family dissolution and reformation of families; comparisons between welfare costs and day care costs; current day care arrangements; current and future demands for day care services; and so on. The arguments generally conclude:

- that it is economically cheaper to provide full day care subsidies to working mothers in financial need and to obtain income tax revenue from their earned income than to provide welfare assistance to non-working mothers in financial need; and
- that the lack of day care space and the costs do not appear to stop women who really want to work or who must work. They will make whatever day care arrangements they can manage within their resources. However the quality of such arrangements is questionable and may frequently be damaging to the child.

Note that this particular trend of thinking makes the assumption that the day care services provide for the needs of the mother rather than for those of the family or the child. It is at this point that demands for increased day care services run into conflict with the value orientations of the general society. These values suggest that the needs of the family and the child are more important in societal terms than the needs of the mother. Therefore, in those cases where a woman must work to enhance the family, her need for day care services will be accepted as valid. The value orientation underpinning all of this is that the family is the societal unit which can most economically facilitate the production and training of future societal members and for meeting the survival, security and belongingness needs of the vast majority of societal members of all ages.

Statistical and research background

This section consists of a brief review of the more important trends in day care services through an examination of pertinent statistics and research documents. Each statistical table or research report is by a brief comment when appropriate and the source from which the data were taken. Figures are for Canada as a whole, except where specifically. Information on day care services in educational institutions is very sparse. We have

considerable information about the need for such services but very few statistics or descriptive data on existing services. One study was reviewed which surveyed day care services at Canadian universities. None could be found which examined such services at community colleges, public school facilities, occupational facilities, recreational or leisure programs, etc.

The writer of this report considers the information contained in this section to be of considerable importance in developing policy statements relating to day care services provided by educational facilities. We would encourage you to read each table carefully to digest its main points and to then consider all the potential implications which flow from such. Where possible we have suggested some possibilities.

TABLE 1.

Characteristics of families by family type (1966, 1971, and 1976)

Year	Total number of families	Two-parent families	One-parent families	
			Male-headed	Female-headed
1966	4,526,266 100%	4,154,381 91.8%	71,502 1.6%	300,383 6.6%
1971	5,076,085 100%	4,605,485 90.7%	99,780 2.0%	370,820 7.3%
1976	5,727,895 100%	5,168,560 90.2%	94,990 1.7%	464,345 8.1%
Rate of change from 1966 to 1976	+27%	+24%	+33%	+55%

Sources: Statistics Canada, Family characteristics by marital status, age, and sex of head, 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-718, (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1975).

Statistics Canada, Families by family structure and family type, 1976 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-822, (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1978).

Comment:

Table 1 indicates that while there has been a steady increase in the number of families in Canada, the percentage of two-parent families is decreasing and that of one-parent families is increasing. By 1976, nearly one family in ten was headed by a single parent. The rate of increase for female-headed one-parent families is double the rate of increase for two-parent families and considerably greater than the rate for male-headed one-parent families.

Low remarriage rates for the female heads of one-parent families and a continuing increase in divorce rates will result in continuing increases in this type of family.

For most female heads of one-parent families there are only two basic alternatives possible: to go out to work or to accept financial assistance from the government. The first option may require initial assistance from governmental agencies in the form of child care subsidies and occupational training allowances. The second option requires continuing financial assistance from various governmental agencies through social assistance payments and benefits.

TABLE 2.

Children under 15 years at home, by age and family type (1966 and 1971)

Age of children	Total number of children in all types of families	Total number of children in two-parent families	Total number of children in one-parent families	
			Male-headed	Female-headed,
<u>1966</u>				
Pre-school children under 6 years	2,622,477 100%	2,528,005 96.4%	14,086 0.5%	80,386 3.1%
School-age children 6 - 14 years	3,862,597 100%	3,624,814 93.8%	42,727 1.1%	195,056 5.1%
<u>1971</u>				
Pre-school children under 6 years	2,196,780 100%	2,051,205 93.4%	35,035 1.6%	110,540 5.0%
School-age children 6 - 14 years	4,087,275 100%	3,717,565 91.0%	81,985 2.0%	287,725 7.0%

Rate of change

(1966 to 1971)

Pre-school children	-16%	-19%	+149%	+38%
School-age children	+6%	+3%	+92%	+48%

Sources: Statistics Canada, Family characteristics by marital status, age, and sex of head, 1966 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-612, (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1969).

Statistics Canada, Family characteristics by marital status, age, and sex of head, 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-718, (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1975).

Comment:

Table 2 indicates that from 1966 to 1971 the numbers of pre-school children in Canada decreased in total, while the numbers of school-age children increased. This decrease in pre-school children also occurs in two-parent families but not in one-parent families. In both male-headed and female-headed one-parent families, the numbers of both pre-school and school-age children increased by a large margin. It seems apparent that the number of children who do not have a parent at home as a full-time care-giver is increasing at a phenomenal rate.

TABLE 3.

Labour force participation rates¹ for mothers with children under 15 years, by ages of the children (1967, 1971 and 1973)

<u>Age group of children</u>	Percentage of mothers in the labour force ² .		
	<u>1967</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1973</u>
Mothers with pre-school children only (under 6)	19%	30%	29%
Mothers with school-age children only ³	28	42	42
Mothers with both pre-school and school-age children	15	25	26
Combined rates	21	34	35

Sources: Statistics Canada, Manpower Research and Development Section, "Preliminary report on working mothers and their child-care arrangements in 1973", Table 5, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975).

Statistics Canada, Families by labour force activity of family members, 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-723 (revised edition). (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1975).

Comment:

Table 3 indicates that labour force participation rates for mothers have increased for all groups of mothers since 1967. The general pattern for each year shows that mothers with school-age children only are most likely to participate and those with both pre-school and school-age children are least likely to participate. This suggests that the higher the level of responsibility within the home, the lower the level of participation outside the home.

The changes from 1971 to 1973 are deceptive since they suggest a levelling off of increases in participation. Note that the data for these two years were gathered by different methods and that the major growth in day care services did not occur until after 1973. The 1976 figures (not available at this time) will likely show another large increase in participation rates for all groups of mothers.

¹. Participation rate is defined as the percentage of a particular group that either holds a job or is actively seeking one. In 1973, 35% of all mothers were labour force participants. The corollary is that 65% were not.

². To be "in the labour force" one must be 15 years of age or older and be classed as employed or unemployed. To be employed means to hold a job for pay or profit. To be unemployed means to not hold a job, to be available for work, and to have actively sought a job in the previous four weeks. To be "not in the labour force" one must be 15 years of age or older and a non-institutionalized civilian who is classed as neither employed nor unemployed. Mostly these are students, housewives, and retirees.

³. School-age children were defined as being under 14 years of age in 1967 and under 15 years of age in following years.

TABLE 4.

Labour force participation rates for women with children still at home (under 25 years of age), by family type and age of children (1971).

Age group of children	Percentage of women in the labour force	
	Wives in two-parent families	Female-heads of one-parent families
Women with pre-school children only (under 6 years)	29%	47%
Women with school-age children only (6-14 years)	40	53
Women with both pre-school and school-age children	25	33
Women with older children only at home (15-24 years)	41	54
Combined rates	34	50

Source: Statistics Canada, Families by labour force activity of family members. 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-723 (revised edition), (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1975).

Comment:

Table 4 indicates that more women participate in the labour force when they do not have pre-school children in the home and that the greater the level of responsibility the woman carries in the home, the lower her level of participation outside the home.

Participation rates are consistently higher for those women who are the female-heads of one-parent families than for wives in two-parent families; . Note that the differences between the two groups of women (wives and female-heads) are greatest for those with pre-school children only and least for those with both pre-school and school-age children. Some possible interpretations are:

- female-heads of one-parent families, while carrying a greater responsibility than wives in two-parent families, are still capable of managing both sets of responsibilities inside and outside the home. They do this out of necessity, not

necessarily out of choice.

- the presence of pre-school children makes managing both sets of responsibilities more difficult. This is especially true when both pre-school and school-age children are in the home.
- given a free choice and the same set of alternative conditions as are available to wives in two-parent families, the participation rates for female-heads of one-parent families might drop as more took advantage of staying home with young children.
- it is also possible that, given better day care services and more support services in general, the participation rates for wives in two-parent families might increase.

TABLE 5.

Labour force participation rates for women with children at home
(under 25 years of age), by family type and age of mother (1971)

Percentage of women in the labour force

Age of women	Wives in two-parent families	Female-heads of one-parent families
under 25 years	29%	42%
25 - 34 "	32	52
35 - 44 "	38	56
over 44 "	35	47
Combined rates	34	50

Source: Statistics Canada, Families by labour force activity of family members, 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-723 (revised edition), (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Centre, 1975).

Comment:

Table 5 indicates that age is also a factor which affects participation rates among women. Those under 25 years are affected by the same employment difficulties as are faced by all younger workers. These are compounded by the presence of young children in the home.

The decline in participation rates for women over 44 years of age raises some questions. If female-heads of one-parent families in this age group are less likely to participate in the labour force, then are correspondingly more of them on welfare assistance payments of some sort? Or does it mean that younger women (under 45 years of age) who are female-heads of one-parent families are less inclined to choose welfare as an acceptable financial alternative and life style?

If we assume that low participation rates are indicative of some sort of obstacle which must be overcome by the woman, then do the lower rates for older women in both groups indicate a set of obstacles not related to child care problems? These obstacles might, for example, relate to length of time out of the labour force, obsolete work skills, low self-esteem, etc.

TABLE 6a.

Mothers (with children under 15 years of age) in the labour force and non-working mothers who would prefer to work, by age of mother (1973)

Age of mother	Total number of mothers	Mothers in the labour force	Mothers not in the labour force Who would prefer to work	Who would prefer not work
20 - 24 years	323,000	32%	17%	51%
25 - 34 "	1,184,000	35	13	52
35 - 44 "	979,000	39	11	50
45 - 54 "	495,000	34	9	57
Combined totals	2,981,000	36	12	52

TABLE 6b.

Reasons for not working given by mothers preferring to work but not in the labour force, by age of mothers (1973) (Note: this question was asked of those mothers shown in Table 6a who were not in the labour force but who indicated a preference for working)

Age of mother	No satisfactory day care	No suitable job available	Other	Totals
20 - 24 years	50%	25%	25%	100%
25 - 34 "	47	20	33	100
35 - 44 "	31	23	46	100
45 - 54 "	22	36	40	100

Source: Statistics Canada, Manpower Research and Development Section, "Preliminary report on working mothers and their day-care arrangements in 1973", Tables 3 and 3b, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975).

Comment:

Table 6a does not indicate how many working mothers are doing so as a preference or as a necessity. However, it is clear that in each age group almost half of the mothers interviewed either work or would prefer to work. Those who prefer to not work increase over 45 years of age. Note also that the youngest age groups show the highest proportion of those who would prefer to work but who don't.

Table 6b indicates that inadequate day care arrangements are the greatest obstacle for the two youngest age groups. For the two older age groupings, the major obstacle is listed only as other; and the oldest group reports "no suitable job" as a major obstacle. This suggests child care problems are the major obstacle for those under 35 years and obsolete work skills, lack of recent experience, etc. are the major obstacles for those over 35 years.

TABLE 7.

Distribution of day-care arrangements for children under 15 years of age as reported by working mothers from January to October (1973) (Note: Figures in brackets represent roughly corresponding data from 1967.)

Day care arrangements	Children under 6 years		Children 6-14 years
	In school ¹ part-time	Not in school	Attending school full-time
<u>Paid care arrangements</u>	3	7 (2)	--}
Day care centre/nursery	14	20 }	--} (13)
Care in mother's home	16	30} (28)	--}
Care in sitter's home	--	--	17 (5)
Unspecified			
Total paid care	33	57 (41)	17 (18)
<u>Unpaid arrangements</u>			
Care by person over 15 years living in home (eg. father)	16	10 (41)	16 (55)
Care by sibling under 16 years	9	2 (2)	6 (6)
Care by relative, neighbour or friend	19	18 (8)	16 (2)
Total unpaid care	44	30 (51)	38 (63)
<u>Work oriented arrangements</u>			
Mother works only when child in school	14	n/a	--
Mother takes child to work	3	5 (4)	-- (5)
Total work-oriented care	17	5 (4)	-- (5)
<u>Children care for themselves</u>			
Take/buy/obtain lunch at school	--	--	19
No lunch at school	--	--	19
Total child self-care	--	--	38
<u>Other arrangements</u>	6	8 (4)	8 (14)
<u>Total all arrangements</u>	100%	100% (100%)	100% (100%)

Sources: Statistics Canada, Manpower Research and Development Section, "Preliminary report on working mothers and their child-care arrangements in 1973", Table 9, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975)

Department of Labour, Women's Bureau, Working mothers and their child-care arrangements, Table 23, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1970)

¹. "In school" refers to those children in attendance at a regular public school or its equivalent.

Comment:

[Table 7](#) indicates that the numbers of children receiving paid care services such as those offered by day care centres is relatively small when compared to those for whom unpaid arrangements have been made; and that those actually in day care centres is extremely small when compared to the total numbers of children of working mothers. This supports the idea that women make do with the best day care arrangements they can find and afford. It should also be noted that as the availability of day care centres improves, the percentage of children cared for in this way also increases. The yearly report from the National Day Care Information Centre of Health and Welfare Canada indicates that since 1973, the percentage of children of working mothers, who are in the 3-5 age group and who are cared for in day care centres or registered family care services, has increased from 5% to 16%. The corresponding increase for children under 3 years has been from 2% in 1973 to about 5% in 1977.

When examining [Table 7](#), the data suggest some interesting corollaries:

- as more and more women go out to work, there will be fewer and fewer women still at home who can provide the unpaid care arrangements given by "relatives, neighbours and friends". What does the working mother do when all her relatives, neighbours and friends go out to work and she has no day care services?
- the numbers of children who care for themselves is truly remarkable. These figures suggest that at least one in three children of working mothers are on their own at lunch time and after school. As the numbers of working mothers increase, the numbers of these "latch-key" children will also increase. And so does the potential for community conflict.
- the numbers of children who are cared for by brothers and sisters under 16 years of age suggests that these older siblings may not be attending school full or even part-time so that they can care for the youngest children while mother works. What percentage of older

brothers and sisters are not in attendance at school for these reasons?

- the figures under work-oriented arrangements suggest that these mothers all have part-time jobs since the children would only be in school, at the most, for 7 hours per day. What do these women do on school holidays, or on Professional Development Days?

- the most intriguing decline occurs in the percentage of children cared for by a person over 15 years of age living in the child's home. Since this person is most often the father, the figures suggest that the father's involvement in providing day care for his children has decreased recently, i.e. from 41% to 10% for pre-school children and from 55% to 16% for school-age children. This decline is no doubt assisted by the increasing rate of family break-ups.

TABLE 8.

Suggested methods for improving child care arrangements in Canada (1973)

Suggested improvement	Percentage of mothers making suggestion		
	All working mothers	Mothers with pre-school children	Mothers with school-age children
<u>Changes in work patterns</u>			
Flexible work hours	25%	11%	34%
More part-time work	19	13	11
Total changes in work patterns	<u>44</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>57</u>
<u>Changes in child care services</u>			
More day care centres	15	24	9
Approved register of sitters	14	20	10
Cheaper day care centres	11	20	5
Better location of centres	6	9	4
Total changes in day care services	<u>46</u>	<u>73</u>	<u>28</u>
<u>Other suggestions</u>	10	3	15
<u>Total all suggestions</u>	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics Canada, Manpower Research and Development Section, "Preliminary report on working mothers and their child-care arrangements in 1973", Table 10, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975)

Comment:

Table 8 indicates that the mothers of pre-school children tend to think in terms of improvements to the day care services, while mothers of school-age children think more in terms of improvements to work patterns.

Some interesting corollaries to these data are:

- more flexible working hours would demand more flexible day care hours. It is not possible, for example, for a mother to start work at 7:30 a.m. if the day care service does not open until 7:30 a.m. and she must travel at least one hour to get to her place of employment.
- more part-time work would demand more part-time day care services.
- demands might increase for evening or night time child care services.
- reduction in the costs of day care centres (i.e. reduced income to the care-giver) is likely to be accompanied by a reduction in the quality of the service, most often by an increase in the staff: child ratio.

At some point in the development of day care services, those who employ women and those who provide care for the children must coordinate their arrangements.

TABLE 9

Average cost per child for day care arrangements made by parents for children not attending school (Canada, 1973 and 1977; Toronto, 1976)

Type of arrangements	Average cost per week		per child	Rate of increase
	Canada 1973	Toronto 1976	Canada 1977	73 to 77
Care in parent's home	\$21.95	\$37.64	\$38.40	75%
Care in home of sitter (public or private)	17.59	23.58	24.78	41
Care in day care centre (public or private)	19.21	25.54	26.63	39
Other arrangements (relative/neighbour)	13.50	21.77	25.25	87
Average cost per week (all arrangements)	19.01	26.19	27.40	44
Average cost per year (for 50 weeks)	950.50	1309.50	1370.00	44

Sources: M. Krashinsky, Day care and public policy in Ontario, Table 20, (Toronto: Ontario Economic Council, 1977).

L. C. Johnson, Who cares? A report of the Project Child Care survey of parents and their child care arrangements. (Toronto: Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, 1977).

-----"Chatelaine day-care survey results", Chatelain 1977, August, p. 14

Comment:

Table 9 indicates that services provided in the home of the sitter are generally less expensive than those provided in the home of the parent; and that the costs to the parents for services provided in day care centres is close to the overall average.

The rates of increase tell a different story. It is apparent that the costs for day care services provided in day care centres are increasing less rapidly than for any other type of service. It is also apparent that costs for day care services provided outside the parent's home are becoming more equal, while services provided within the parent's home are moving ahead

very rapidly.

TABLE 10.

Estimated numbers of children under 6 years of age receiving day care services in Canada and the provinces (for 1973-74).

	Estimated number of children under 6 years ¹	Estimated percentage receiving day care	Estimated percentage receiving pre- elementary education in public schools
Canada	2,228,000	4.1%	15.7%
Newfoundland	75,000	0.1	16.0
Prince Edward Island	12,000	5.8	--
Nova Scotia	85,000	4.0	17.6
New Brunswick	71,000	0.6	--
Quebec	596,000	1.2	15.9
Ontario	781,000	5.4	21.2
Manitoba	104,000	1.2	16.3
Saskatchewan	97,000	1.0	7.2
Alberta	184,000	5.7	0.5
British Columbia	213,000	11.7	16.4
Yukon	3,000	13.1	--
Northwest Territories	7,000	--	18.6

Source: Canadian Council on Social Development, Women in need: A sourcebook, Tables 18 and 19, (Ottawa: Canadian Council on Social Development, 1976).

Comment:

Table 10 indicates that the level to which each province supports day care and pre-elementary education services varies considerably across the country. .

¹. These figures were calculated from 1971 census data.

TABLE 11.

Number of day care spaces in group care and family care services (various years).

	Group care services spaces available		Family care services spaces available	
	Number	Rate of change from previous year	Number	Rate of change from previous year
	_____	_____	_____	_____
1973	25,249		1,562	
1974	50,996	+102%	4,185	+168%
1975	65,281	+28%	4,671	+12%
1976	78,153	+20%	5,367	+ 15%
1977	76,117	- 3%	5,534	+ 3%

Source: Health and Welfare Canada, National Day Care Information Centre, Status of day care in Canada, yearly reports from 1973, (Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada, 1973 - 1977).

Comment:

Table 11 indicates that there has been an overall increase in day care spaces since 1973, but that there was a decline in spaces from 1976 to 1977. This may partly reflect an increased demand for family care services and a decline in the demand for group care services, but is more likely caused by a decline in the levels of government funding from 1976.

This decline in funding affected the level to which governments were prepared to fund the setting up and maintenance of centres. Fewer new centres opened and in some centres there was a reduction in the number of spaces made available.

The decline also affected the level to which families were subsidized for day care services. As subsidies decreased and as inflation caused middle income families to remove their children from centres, the number of children declined. This reinforced the reduction in available spaces.

The changes in spaces available varies also by the type of sponsoring agency involved.

There was a general decline in group care spaces available through government and public agencies, through community agencies and through private commercial agencies. However, there was a large increase (35%,) in the number of spaces available through parent cooperatives.

TABLE 12.

Characteristics of child care services offered at Canadian universities (1975)

Characteristics	Percentage of services with described characteristics		Percentage of children using direct services
	Direct services ¹	Indirect services ²	
	31%	29%	18%
Available only for under 2 year-olds	66	53	79
Available only for 2 - 5 year-olds	3	18	36
Available only for 12 year-olds	100%	100%	100%
Group care services	96%	--	98%
Family care services	4	--	2
	00%		100%

Source: E. M. McLeod, A study of child care services at Canadian universities, (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975.)

Comment:

Table 12 indicates that there are some incongruencies in day care services available at Canadian universities. For example, 31% of the services are provided for children under 2 years of age, but only 18% of the children cared for are in these services. This may be the result of lower staff: child ratios required for this age group, or simply the result of poor planning. Only two universities provide drop-in day care services. The vast majority of all group services are developed and run as parent cooperatives. A recent (1977) update in

this information shows that 72% of the reporting universities have waiting lists which vary in number from a low of 15 to a high of 200. The average waiting list is for 70 spaces and this number is approximately 80% of the number actually accommodated in existing facilities. The waiting period varies from 3 months to 24 months, with the average being 12 months.

¹. Direct services are defined as including day care centres, nurseries, family care services, etc. which go directly to the child involved.

². Indirect services are defined as including toy-book lending libraries, health services, recreational services, adult resource centres, counseling services, etc., which may benefit the child but only indirectly.

TABLE 13.

Needs expressed by users of day care services at Canadian universities (1975)

Expressed needs	Immediate needs (would like now)	Long-range needs (would like in future)
Full-day services	47%	22%
Part-day services	21	25
Casual/drop-in services	16	21
Evening services	13	10
Night services	3	22
	100%	100%
Group care services	71%	46%
Family care services	29	54
	100%	100%

Source: E. M. McLeod, A study of child care services at Canadian universities, (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975).

Comment:

Table 13 suggests some ideas which could be incorporated into day care planning in educational institutions. While the continuing need for group care services is well documented and well discussed, we have little information about how many children would require evening or night care services. The numbers indicating a need for these services as both immediate and long-range services is significant enough to warrant further consideration.

When comparing this table to the previous one (Table 12), we discover some in congruencies. For example, 29% of the respondents indicated an immediate need for family care services; but the available services show that only 4% are of the family type.

TABLE 14.

The cost of welfare versus the cost of day care.

The following table was developed from a set of options and basic assumptions about day care and welfare costs. The following facts should be kept in mind when reading this table:

1. All dollar amounts are based on costs and wages in Metro Toronto and all estimates are made in 1975 dollars.
2. It is assumed that family benefit allowances (FBA), costs, and incomes will remain constant at 1975 levels throughout the time frame used.
3. Each option assumes that each child will receive 5 years of full-day day care services and 5 years of lunch and after-school services.
4. Each option assumes that the mother will receive a wage of \$2.80 per hour for a 40-hour week and that she will remain employed throughout.
5. Each option assumes that Family Benefit Allowances would have been paid to the mother until each child reached the age of 18 years, that she would remain unmarried, unemployed, and in financial need.
6. Two options described are: Option I is for a single mother with one child, aged 2 years in 1976 Option II is for a single mother with two children, aged 1 and 2 years in 1976.

	Total FBA costs 1976-1992 (1)	Total gross day care costs 1976-1992 (2)	Total income tax if mother works (3)	Government net savings (1+3 - 2)	Mother's income after taxes 1976-92	% return to government on day care investment
Option I	\$64,476	\$20,626	\$8,004	\$51,854	\$100,386	251%
Option II	76,368	43,935	6,600	39,033	101,790	89%

Source: Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, "Is there an economic case for public investment in high subsidy day care as an alternative to welfare?" Research Bulletin #2. (Toronto: Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, 1976).

Comment:

A number of research papers develop the same argument using different approaches. This was the explanation we found most understandable. The figures are obtained by adding up the potential FBA costs for each option; the potential day care costs; the potential income for the mother; and the potential income tax revenue for the government. These amounts are used to calculate how much it would have cost to keep the mother on FBA or to provide her with full day care subsidies so that she could work. These data suggest that the government would save 251% and 89% if it chose to provide day care subsidies rather than welfare payments. The argument is largely hypothetical but the point is valid -- day care subsidies are less expensive in the long-run than welfare payments to low income families.

Chatelaine Day-care survey

This survey was conducted as a poll of the readers of the magazine Chatelaine. Over half of all respondents were in the high and middle socio-economic groups with annual incomes of over \$15,000 per family.

In general, the results of the survey support the data shown in the proceeding tables. The survey also indicates that among families reporting an annual income of less than \$10,000, day care means (a) that mother can work to supplement the family income (25%) and (b) that mother can return to school or keep up with studies already in progress (19%). Among families reporting an annual income of over \$15,000, only a small fraction use day care to return to school.

Source: "Chatelaine day-care survey results", Chatelaine, 1977, August, p. 14

Comment:

These results suggest that low income mothers are more in need of educational programs than middle and high income mothers. This is supported by general census data which suggest that women in low income families have a higher proportion of under-educated women in their ranks.

One outcome might be that criteria for day care subsidies need to be amended to include a factor which combines need for educational programs with present financial need criteria. For example, the turning points on the scale determining level of subsidization might be lower for a woman with low educational attainment than for women with higher levels of educational attainment. These educational criteria could include both grade level completion and occupational training.

Metro Toronto Child-care Survey of Parents and Their Child-care Arrangements

This survey was conducted through interviews with a sample of families from all socio-economic levels. The average educational attainment was partial completion of secondary school. The respondents were roughly divided between those of English origin and those of other ethnic groups; and between those who were foreign-born and those who were Canadian-born.

In general, the data support the information presented in the proceeding tables. In addition the survey found that:

1. Parents travel four (4) times further to reach day care centres than to reach a sitter caregiver.
2. Most parents do not know what activities their children are involved in while they are in the care of a sitter. Many children in private sitter arrangements (i.e. unsupervised by any government agency) received little or no program enrichment. Many watched an average of 2 hours of television per day. This amount of television viewing is double the maximum recommended by the Ministry of Community and Social Services.
3. Children cared for in high rise apartments in private sitter arrangements, are less likely to go outdoors on a regular basis than those cared for in smaller housing units.
4. In the absence of external constraints such as finances or work schedules, most parents would prefer to have their children cared for in day care centres.

5. Most parents believe the optimum day care arrangement for children aged 2 to 5 years is in a group day care centre. Most believe the optimum day care arrangement for an infant under 2 years is by a sitter in a household setting.

6. Distinctions are made between group care and family care services on the basis of factors relating to convenience to parents and factors relating to quality of care provided. Factors of convenience (eg. distance to travel, flexibility of hours) were viewed as good features (advantages) for family care services but bad features (disadvantages) of group care services. Factors of quality of care provided to the child (eg. enriched program, trained personnel, provision for social growth) were viewed as disadvantages of family care services but advantages of group care services.

7. Day care centres are most likely to be used by Canadian-born and/or English-speaking families; by those in the upper and lower socio-economic groups; by those families with a single child over 2 years of age. Family care arrangements are most likely to be used by parents born outside Canada; by those with resident relatives from the extended family; and by those in the middle socio-economic group.

Single parents are most likely to use day care centres and sitters; and rarely use relative-sitters.

8. As family income rises, the proportion of the total income spent on day care services drops substantially. High income families spend an insignificant proportion of their annual income in this way.

9. Replies to the question "What kinds of things do you think the government or the community as a whole should do to help parents get better day care or baby sitting?" were as follows:

More centres in convenient location, and more centres for specific groups (i.e. infants); financial assistance to go to the service-provider.	41%
Financial assistance to working parents	28%
Provision of supports specifically dealing with day care centres including referral and information services and transportation.	19%
Longer hours of operation at day care centres	4%

Provision of supports for family care services including referral and information services	3%
Provision of licensing, standards of operation and supervision for family care services	3%
Training programs for family care providers	2%

10. Most of the sitter caregivers studied (including relatives) have had no formal training or professional experience other than that which they obtained through raising their own children.

Source: L. C. Johnson, Who cares? A report of the Project Child Care Survey of parents and their child care arrangements, (Toronto: Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto, 1977).

Comment:

The increased demand and use of family care services suggests that we are moving toward day care services provided for the convenience of the parents at the expense of quality of care provided to the children. This is largely caused by the neglect in training or supervising sitter, caregivers. However, if government agencies institute such training requirements, the cost of sitter services will increase considerably.

Fowler Report on Day-care and Its Effects on Early Development

This study was conducted as a five-year study of child development in social, emotional, cognitive, and personality factors. The design of the study allowed the research team to compare a matched group of children cared for in day care centres over the five year period and a group of home-reared children. The children came from low-income families of several ethnic groups in the Metro Toronto region.

The study reports the following:

1. Infants generally adapt with little stress to day care. Infants reared in day care centres show a short-term gain over home-reared children in cognitive development; and their socio-emotional development is at least as good as that of home-reared children.
2. The development of 3 to 5 year olds in pre-school environments have generally shown positive developmental outcomes on both cognitive and personality factors. This is

particularly true for centres which elect an educational focus for the children and whose personnel is well-trained in pre-school education concepts and activities. Day care children generally adapt better to strangers than home-reared children, play more readily with toys, and adapt to peers more actively.

3. However, over the long-term, there is a gradual decline in the initial differences between day care children and home-reared children. By age 10 years, they are more or less equal. The greatest differences (gains) are found mainly in children from greatly disadvantaged environments. These gains tend to remain with the child as long as the environment continues to be enriched.

4. One of the major factors contributing to gains made by day care children is the level and quality of training of the staff. One major weakness in this training is in the area of educational and developmental activities for children in the 3 to 5 year groups.

5. Continuity in staffing and program is also important. In those centres where the staff holds a satisfying level of autonomy in program development and control in operating procedures, staff satisfaction and motivation is high and staff turn-over reduced.

6. There appears to be a general decline in the quality of the parenting provided by the parents of day care children over the five year period. This is particularly true as the child reaches pre-school levels. This is in sharp contrast to the parenting provided to home-reared children. It seems that the parents of home-reared children learn enough from watching Sesame Street or being with their children to be able to apply some of the creative and enriching principles as part of their own parenting. This decline is true only for white parents. Non-white parents appear to maintain a consistent level and quality of parenting as their children grow older.

Source: W. Fowler, Day care and its effects on early development, Research Education Series/8. (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978).

Government policy and practice

Government policy is a statement of the ideology currently approved by the society, or at least by the dominant segment. It is a statement which is implicit about what is valued and what end goals are sought, and explicit about the means to be used to achieve those values and goals. In some cases the means may be debated, but the values and goals are generally assumed to be held by all citizens and are, therefore, rarely discussed. And agreement on both the means and the ends is assumed to exist precisely, because debate and discussion do not occur.

Policy related to day care reflects current ideology concerning the value and function of families and the attendant roles, about the value of children and women, and about economics. The following assumptions: and beliefs appear to be operational within this ideology:

1. The family is a basic economic unit of the society. It is both producer and consumer. As producer, it is responsible for the bearing and rearing of new citizens and for all the activities related to that function. As consumer, it purchases and uses commodities and services to maintain, protect and enhance the survival, security and belongingness needs of its various members; and in so doing maintains, protects, and enhances the larger society.

In its producer function, the family is expected to educate the child to be a "good" contributing member of the family and a "good" citizen. The family is expected to carry out this function as an independent, competent, financially self-supporting unit. If it cannot do this on its own, the family may obtain assistance from the state, and may even get assistance that is not wanted. Those who request assistance run the risk of being stereotyped and thought of as a "problem".

In return for performing this essential service to society (i.e. child-bearing and child-rearing), families may be rewarded by governments through: (a) state-supported educational services designed to help each child become less of a burden on the state; (b) inexpensive, state-supported medical and social services; (c) transfer of government funds directly to the family through various allowances, tax deductions, tax credits, etc.; and (d) various services which maintain and protect the "quality of life" of the society.

In terms of family roles, it is apparent that women must be responsible for the child-bearing function (although even this may soon be challenged). The remaining activities fall into three groups: those related to child-rearing; those related to family/home maintenance; and those related to achieving financial independence within the larger society. Traditionally, these are divided so that the woman/mother performs the first two sets and the man/father performs the third. However, only the third set of activities are rewarded directly through monetary means. Society tends to reward child-rearing and family maintenance activities through such things as "protective" policies which are rarely viewed by women as rewards for their labour.

Furthermore, in times of national crisis, the government can call upon the women to make additional contributions through the performance of economic activities outside the home. At the end of such crises, women are expected to resume their former activities, having received the heartfelt gratitude of society and a heartfelt cheer of relief from their families.

The outcome of such policies is that women/mothers are valued largely for their contribution to the family unit, a contribution which tends to be measured emotionally rather than economically. The men/fathers, however, are valued in terms of their contribution to the larger society, a contribution which is measured economically. For women, then, an economic issue has an emotional reward. The resulting incongruence is hard to accept. A second incongruence is that, in a society which espouses the value of the family, the contributions made by women to those families are valued less than the contributions made by the men.

2. There appear to be no explicit policy statements about what type of family is most valued. In the near past we could more or less agree that a family consisted of one father who earned wages to support his family, one mother who stayed home to maintain the house and children; and 2.4 children. In the more distant past, this nuclear family was very often enlarged by the presence of resident relatives.

In 1971, census figures indicated that among two-parent families (i.e. those with one mother and one father) with children under 15 years of age, one mother in three did not stay home but went out to work. Among female-headed one-parent families with children under 15 years of age, one mother in two did not stay home but went out to work.¹

¹ Statistics Canada, Families by labour force activity of family members, 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue 93-723 (revised ed.)

By 1978, labour force statistics show that among two-parent families, close to one wife in two worked outside the home; while among female-headed one-parent families, almost two mothers in three worked outside the home.¹

When we add to this the fact that female-headed one-parent families have increased at a faster rate than two-parent families, we find that we can no longer predict what an average family will be like. Nor can we agree on which type of family... one-parent or two-parent; working mother or non-working mother, etc.... should be most highly valued, if indeed one should be valued over any other.

3. There is a general value which stresses the "goodness" and "rightness" of the rituals of family life, parental love and motherhood. This value is clearly emotional rather than economic. All humans start out with a mother and current psychological theory suggests that we all derive our basic sense of emotional security in this relationship. Since most of us have never experienced any other situation, we cannot imagine any other arrangement being as beneficial to the child. This concept of the value of parental love and its resulting protective qualities is a relatively modern idea, which appears historically at the end of the 17th century.

When examined more closely we find that parental love as a value is a belief held by the child-in-us, rather than a set of actions actually performed by the parent². This belief grows out of our own emotionally reconstructed experiences. It may be based on reality but is more likely based on what we wish had been reality.

This belief in the power of parental love holds further that it is the mother who has the ability to provide it. Thus we believe that a set of ritual actions performed by the mother will give the child emotional security and inoculate him or her against future threat and possible failure as a person. The current ritual actions (at least according to television) relate to using the "best" nursing method, the "most absorbent" diaper, the most "nutritious" food, the "softest" fabric softener and so on. Other societies hang an amulet around the child's neck. Still others invest this power in the ancestral home.

¹. Statistics Canada, The labour force: December 1977 (including 1977, annual averages), Catalogue 71-001. 2. J. Kagan, "The parental love trap", Psychology Today, 1978, August_ p. 54

The more mobile the child becomes, the more imperative that he or she carry this protective force within, and the greater the pressure on the family and the mother to do the job right in the years before full mobility occurs. This means that, unless we give up our belief in the protective power of parental love, as our society becomes more transient we will expect our mothers to perform more and more effectively. In general, we believe that no mother substitute, no matter how excellent or well-trained, can perform this ritual task as well as a mother. Therefore, "mother" will continue to hold an idealized value which rises above the rational and beyond the realistic.

4. There appears to be a set of basic values which focus on two related, but independent issues, each with a different impact on the family and the society. One relates to a mother doing things (i.e. work, study) inside or outside the family as a system. The other relates to her doing things inside or outside the family home as a structural space. We can develop various combinations of these two issues to obtain slightly different value orientations. For example, a mother who undertakes studies at home may be encouraged more than a woman who wishes to go away for an educational program. A woman who works both outside the family and outside the home may be actively discouraged and her actions disapproved.

If we add to these combinations such factors as doing paid or unpaid work; full-time or part-time work or study; and so on, we find a still wider range of potential value orientations. There is a value discrepancy between mothers of low income families who work to get/keep their family off welfare and mothers of middle income families who work for personal satisfaction or to improve the family's finances. The first is actively encouraged (to reduce the welfare rolls); the second may be admired but is generally not actively encouraged. Mothers of high income families are generally exempted from this conflict since they can afford to purchase the best substitute mothering services.

There is a value discrepancy between reducing the welfare rolls and keeping mothers at home with their young children. In an economic pinch, the conflict becomes reducing the welfare rolls and discouraging women from taking jobs which men could (and should) hold.

5. Finally there is a value orientation which holds that women who defy their "traditional", "normal", "biological", "proper" place in society, get what they deserve, including poor day care services, even if this results in delinquency, disturbed children, broken families and so on

With this set of values as background, we can assume that governmental policy will have the following characteristics (at the very least):

1. The employment, education and occupational training of men will be encouraged and supported as a priority over the employment, education, and occupational training of women, particularly those women who are mothers or potential mothers (i.e. between 20 and 35 years of age).

2. Men will be trained to be self-supporting and independent; women will be trained to be other-supported and dependent and will be actively discouraged from acquiring those skills which would help them become self-supporting and independent, particularly if they are mothers or potential mothers.

3. Women will be used as an economic/employment cushion to be drawn on in times of need such as wars and other national emergencies, and to be discouraged at times of high unemployment and economic recession. They will be used to do those jobs which men prefer to not do, or cannot do.

4. Just enough women will be educated, trained and employed so as to make it difficult to argue that women as a group are being mistreated. If women use an economic argument, society will counter with an emotional one; if women address the emotional issues, society will insist that the issues are economic.

5. The value of the mother will relate directly to the number of children she bears and raises. This value will decline as over-population becomes a "problem"; and as the birth and infant mortality rates decline and life expectancy increases. Women no longer spend half their lifetime bearing and raising children, and the majority of those they do bear reach adulthood without major difficulty. Women may spend 10 years engaged in the formative stages of child-rearing but, for most women, this valued stage is over by age 40, the mid-point of life.

6. Those families who are not competent at child-bearing or child-rearing or who are not financially-independent will need to be supported through a variety of government services. These include:

- special social and financial services for families in which one or both parents are incompetent, ignorant, physically or emotionally unwell, negligent, deviant, or just plain unlucky; and
- special educational and financial services for families which need assistance to become self-supporting. i.e. female-headed one-parent families; and two-parent families in which the male parent is under-employed, unemployed, unemployable, or institutionalized.

Such dependency will not be actively encouraged.

7. A conflict will exist between the need to help low-income female-headed one-parent families to become self-supporting and the societal preference that children should have a full-time mother in attendance. This conflict will result in conflicting statements from administrators and legislators about day care subsidies and welfare benefits and forced employment of able bodied welfare recipients. At the operational level, agency personnel who function at the interface between agency and clients will be confused

8. A conflict will exist between providing day care as a subsidized, essential service to low-income mothers and a convenience service to middle and upper-income mothers. This conflict will show up as inconsistent policy regarding funding to the service provider for capital and operating expenses.

9. Discussions about governmental policy will avoid the underlying emotional issues if at all possible, through a series of defensive mechanisms which include: denial (eg. most mothers want to be at home anyway); suppression (eg. talking about it makes mothers upset and confused); rationalization (eg. mothers are performing an essential service which cannot be replaced).

10. The mother will be considered the primary agent involved in rearing the children to become competent adults and the primary scapegoat when something goes wrong. Teachers and the educational system run a close second. This will never be stated as direct policy but will be implied in the wording of the policy and in the statements of the policy makers.

11. The needs of women will have a low priority when compared to those of children and families. The needs of women as compared to those of men will be viewed as irrelevant.

12. In times of economic growth or national emergency, day care services and government funding will expand. In times of economic restraint and high unemployment, day care services and government funding will decline.

13. As day care services expand, there will be more work available for women, as day care service providers.

14. Women will continue to make do with whatever day care arrangements they can obtain with the resources at their disposal.

We now move on to consider specific governmental policy which has a bearing on day care services. There are many such policies, all of which cannot be presented here. We have selected a sample for your consideration.

1. Income tax deductions can be made for day care expenses up to a maximum of \$1000 per year per child, with a family maximum of \$4000. When we consider the average costs for day care shown in Table 9, we must conclude that this deduction in no way covers the full cost of day care services. The deduction is made from earned income before the tax rate is applied. Therefore, it provides the greatest benefits for those in the highest income ranges. According to the 1975 tables, an extra \$1000 deduction was worth \$274 to a person with a taxable income of \$5000, and \$429 to a person with a taxable income of \$20,000. The Royal Commission on the Status of Women recommends that this policy be changed so that day care expenses be dealt with as tax credits rather than tax deductions. Tax credits are deductible from the amount of tax to be paid.

¹. L. Dulude, "Background study on women and the personal income tax system", Paper prepared for the Advisory Council on the Status of Women, Ottawa, 1976, p. 5.

Since low-income families are generally eligible for day care subsidies and high-income families benefit most from the tax deductions, middle-income families receive the least benefit and are the most likely to carry the full burden of day care expenses.

2. Income tax subsidies for day care expenses can be made by the following:

- the mother may make the deduction for services used to allow her to be employed, carry on a business, or take up an office; undertake an occupational training course for which an Adult Training Allowance is received under the Adult Occupational Training Act; or engage in research or similar work in respect to which she receives a grant. If the money she receives from scholarships, fellowships, bursaries, or prizes is her only income, she may not claim day care expenses.
- the father may claim day care expenses if he is a single-parent under the same conditions as above; or if he is the male-head of a two-parent family in which the mother is incapacitated or cannot fulfill her normal functions as a mother.

The deduction is not transferable to the father unless he meets the above criteria. Therefore, it is not possible to deduct day care expenses from the higher income in the family, unless it happens to be the mother's. No deductions are allowed for attendance at other educational programs. This policy has several outcomes. For example:

- during the stage when a mother is in attendance in an educational program which is to prepare her for entry to the labour force, she is not earning; yet she must wait until she does have money before she can claim for day care expenses. This would actively discourage her from engaging in such educational programs while her children are still pre-schoolers.
- it follows that the mother will not be encouraged to keep herself current in her occupational field nor to prepare herself for future employment by participating in

part-time educational activities at this stage. Therefore, when she does return to the labour force she will require more extensive upgrading and retraining than if she had been encouraged to do this over several years.

- the policy does not indicate how much money a woman must earn if she is a student on a scholarship, to be eligible for day care deductions. This particular clause was designed to encourage students to work part-time, at least during the summer months, in order to pay for some of her own educational expenses. In Ontario, for example, students applying for assistance had to show proof that they had at least looked for work. The 1978-79 policy guidelines for those funds have since changed. Mothers of young children are now defined as "full-time workers" if they have been at home caring for these children. This does two things: it makes obtaining funds easier for mothers with young children but does not solve the problem of claiming for day care expenses; and it requires that the mother stay home for at least three years full-time with her children before engaging in educational activities.
- finally, if the mother cannot claim day care expenses how come her education grants are taxable?

3. The Canada Assistance Plan (federal) shares in the day care expenses for families which meet two sets of criteria.¹ The first set are social criteria and describe those families which can be considered to require financial assistance with their day care expenses. These social need criteria apply to all families whose income is obtained through employment or through public assistance. A family is eligible for assistance when it is:

- a single parent family where the parent is working, attending an educational institution, undertaking medical treatment, or undergoing a rehabilitation program;

- a two-parent family where both parents are working, or where one parent is working and the spouse is incapacitated, attending an educational institution, undertaking medical treatment, or undergoing a rehabilitation program; or

- any family for which

... day care is arranged or recommended by a social welfare agency as part of a child protection service;

... day care is arranged or recommended by a social welfare agency on the basis of individual assessment of special needs of the family or the child, including physical, emotional, mental, developmental, language, or other identifiable and recognized handicap;

... day care is arranged or recommended by a social welfare agency in situations where it is possible to document aspects of the physical, social or cultural environment which are

seriously detrimental to the development of the child and to his equality of opportunity when he enters the educational system;

... emergency day care service is required to meet short-term family crises.

The second set of criteria are financial and are used to determine the level and amount of subsidy which will be made available to the family. Each province which administers this scheme must apply either a needs test (income compared to needs) or a means test (income assessment). If a family is assessed below the "turning point" (or minimum level), they are granted a full subsidy and the federal plan pays 50% of the costs. If the family is assessed above the turning point but below the maximum level for which a subsidy may be paid, they are expected to contribute 50% of their income above the turning point toward their day care costs. The balance is divided between provincial and federal funds.

1. Health and Welfare Canada, "Policy guidelines relating to the provision of day care services for children under the Canada Assistance Plan" as quoted in H. P. Hepworth, Day care services for children, (Ottawa: Canadian Council on Social Development, 1975), Appendix A, pp. 135 - 139.

This plan does not transfer funds directly to the family but is rather a transfer of service. The funds go to the service provider on behalf of the family. Krashinsky¹ argues that this is an uneconomical use of day care funds and that the equivalent amount of cash should be transferred to the family to be used as the family wishes. The family would then purchase whatever service it feels most in need of rather than being assigned to a day care service at the discretion of the social agency.

There are several outcomes from this policy. For example:

- if the social agency has the discretionary power to decide who shall go where, they also have the power to decide what services will be made available and will plan accordingly. This may not be the same set of services which the family would select if it had the power to make the decisions. In Metro Toronto, local agencies are phasing out nursery services (for children under 2 years). Therefore, families requiring services for this age group will be required to use a family care service or to make private arrangements without subsidy.
- the governments involved appear to not trust the family to make wise decisions about using and conserving their resources. It does not quite descend to the level of mistrust involved in doling out two bus tickets each day to women involved in training programs (one to go home and one to return for the next ticket), but it has a similar feel. If, for example, the mother decided she wanted to use her day care subsidy to buy a used car for the purpose of transporting her children to her

mother's house (not possible by public transportation), who is to say her decision is unwise.

4. Support for early childhood education services (pre-elementary) varies from province to province. These services are provided by educational authorities (as opposed to social agencies) to children of approximately 4 and 5 years.

For example, in Alberta, publicly-supported services in this area were phased-in beginning in 1973. Direct services were made available first to children with handicaps such as the hard-of-hearing, the deaf, the blind; to those showing aberrant, psychotic, or autistic behaviour; to the mentally retarded; to those with physical and perceptual disabilities; and so on. Next, the services were extended to those children from certain geographical areas which were considered to not provide equal opportunities in terms of needs related to nutrition, physiology, education, development, etc. Third priority was given to the provision of educational consultants for day care centres which serve the children of single parents or from homes in which both parents work.

One sentence from a planning paper by the Alberta government is worthy of note: ¹

"From infancy to school entrance age, the growing number of families where employment deprives the child of regular care, day care services must provide a substitute Quality of care for all children of working married mothers and working single mothers (unwed, widowed, divorced) is a concern of all levels of government --- federal, provincial and municipal."

Such a statement is common in the policy guidelines available from various governments in Canada. The unspoken implication is that mothers who go out to work are somehow depriving their children of "regular" care (whatever that is). Further this policy makes no mention of the children of working single fathers. It seems reasonable to assume that such children run as much risk of being deprived as those of working single mothers.

¹. M. Krashinsky, Day care and public policy in Ontario, (Toronto: Ontario Economic Council, 1977), pp. 68 - 69

5. Policy related to student assistance plans offers another interesting source of comment on day care. In some cases the comment is through specific inclusion in the plan; in most cases it is more noteworthy by its exclusion. For example, the Canada Student Loan Plan does not provide for day care as an allowable expense. The newest version of the Ontario Student Assistance Plan (OSAP)² allows for the inclusion of day care expenses. Under OSAP, grants and loans are available to both full- and part-time learners attending colleges and universities in Ontario. Each student is expected to contribute to her own educational expenses out of her family's income (including her spouse). The amount of the non-repayable grant is determined by a needs assessment test. Expenses over and above the amount of the grant may be covered by a repayable loan. Allowable educational expenses for single-parent/students include: tuition, books and equipment, personal living expenses, travel, and day care expense.

¹. Province of Alberta, "Operational plan for early childhood services quoted in H. P. Hepworth, Day care services for children, (op. cit.), Appendix E, pp. 155 - 160.

². Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities, "Financial assistance for students", Guidelines for the Ontario Student Assistance Program, 1978-79, (Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities, 1978).

Married parent/students may not claim day care as a direct educational expense but may include it as part of personal living expenses. Another feature of the plan is that a single mother/student is no longer required to prove she looked for and accepted employment during the summer months. She remains eligible for her education grant if she stays home with her children for this period.

These changes in the OSAP grants are made possible by changes in the method used to calculate the grant. The new plan allows grants to be calculated on a term basis for full-time students and on an equivalency- to-term basis for part-time students. Each student is eligible to receive grants for up to eight terms.

While these provisions are as yet untested, the outcomes appear to be:

- a single mother/student is now defined as a "full-time worker" and has the same rights as others under this plan. She no longer needs to struggle to find employment to satisfy requirements for eligibility. Out of this employment she was expected to contribute a prohibitive amount to her own education.
- while the claim for day care expenses is very low (\$200 per term), the fact that it has been acknowledged as an educational expense for single-parent/students is an encouraging precedent.
- married women students must still contribute to their own education out of their family's income, including that of their spouse. If the spouse is unwilling to

contribute, the woman is out of luck. and is still not eligible for a grant, although she can probably obtain a loan.

6. Welfare lists tend to be the responsibility of municipal governments. Therefore, we need to consider at least one policy which is administered at this level and which relates to day care. One such example is provided by the newest policy directive from the Metro Toronto Social Services which administers day care funding and subsidies. The general policy states that day care subsidies will be available for low-income mothers who are single parents and who either work a minimum of 25 hours per week or who attend an educational program for 25 hours per week. These 25 hours may appear to be prohibitive but, in fact, have been defined in the policy directive as including two hours of study time for every hour spent in class.¹

¹L. Brown, "Welfare mothers organize to demand more cash", Toronto Star, 1978, August 11, p. C1.

Therefore, a woman could attend class for 9 hours per week and receive credit for 18 hours of study time. With this amount of time she would be eligible for a day care subsidy.

This change in the method for calculating eligibility came about because the administrator holds a certain amount of discretionary power to interpret policy statements in a broad and flexible manner. As with the Canada Assistance Plan, this involves an indirect transfer of services rather than a direct transfer of cash.

The outcome of this policy is:

- low-income mothers are able to attend educational programs part-time without loss of family benefits such as living allowances, medical and dental coverage, etc. These women can use this educational time to acquire or upgrade academic or occupational skills. It is particularly valuable for those women whose educational attainment level falls well below the minimum required for entry into Manpower programs, since Manpower is not able to fund preliminary upgrading or basic literacy programs.

Educational institutions and day care policy

Policy related to day care services at educational institutions is noteworthy by its absence. In a study on day care services for the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), it was evident that direct intervention in the daily program of children's services is not considered a viable role for the academic community. The report suggests that there

are two central unresolved issues:¹

- a. there is a lack of short and long-range planning activity by universities around day care services; and
- b. there is a general absence of any policy guidelines regarding the setting-up, operation, funding and control of such services

The report found that the most common characteristics of child care services at universities were: ²

- that financial responsibility for operating expenses rests with parents and provincial subsidy systems. The average fee paid in 1974 was \$150 per month for children under 2 years and \$125 per month for children between 2 and 5 years. This is slightly higher than fees reported in Table 9. University constituent groups tend to provide funds to support only specific aspects of initial and ongoing costs. Any increases in operating costs must be borne by the users.

¹ E. M. McLeod, A study of child care services at Canadian universities (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975), p. 41.

² Ibid. Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

- that initial organization and development of child care programs is the responsibility of the users. Approximately 94% of all day care services are under the guidance of either a parent co-operative group or a board of community members. Nearly 77% of all services are open only to members of the university community and, of these, almost half require parental involvement in the operation and administration of the program.
- that child care issues are not widely recognized by any university constituent group nor are they accepted as suitable activities for the attention and resources of those groups. Of the 47 programs reported, one was administered by the university administration; one by a student organization; and one by a faculty group.
- that there is strong preference to have programs continue under parental control, to have continuing access to provincial subsidies, and to have licensing and regulating activities remain under the control of the various provinces. The question as to who funds what and the quality and level of control which accrues to the funding agency, is one which needs to be resolved without jeopardizing these preferences. The report recommends that this be done by setting up advisory committees which would include representatives from all constituent and interest groups and which would have the task of developing policy and long-range plans. Such plans would assist parent or community boards with daily administration and would provide guidance to university administrations for planning of physical

facilities and developing funding policies

- that child care is generally dealt with on an ad hoc, crisis-oriented basis rather than as a growth and stability-oriented concern. This results in a general lack of long-range planning by the university administration.
- that the continuing success of university-related child care programs comes down to the personalities in the centre and to the energy and determination of the current users. This group tends to change from year to year resulting in discontinuity in the leadership and lack of long-range planning by the user group.
- that lab schools present a unique problem in that such child care services are generally controlled by the faculty rather than the parents, and they are eligible for research and development funds which are not available to regular child care services.
- that most universities have no idea of the need for day care services because they do not bother to collect demographic data for either short or long-range purposes. Such data can be collected at registration. Further data are currently stored as unrelated bits of information in the computers of Statistics Canada. Collecting and collating these data requires computer and manpower time as well as specific policies to give impetus to the inquiry.

The report concludes:

"Given current trends in university student populations and the increasing numbers of two-parent working families, the need for stable, long-term university based child care is evident. Given accumulating evidence regarding preventive health programs and the overall importance of the preschool years, comprehensive child care programs involving both direct and indirect services will become increasingly important to Canadian society."¹

As a result of this study, the Committee on the Status of Women in Universities, reporting on the progress made by AUCC member institutions regarding the status of day care services, recommended and approved the following in November, 1976:²

"That, in accordance with the practice in a number of Canadian universities, all universities become directly involved in the planning and initial development of child care programs, taking into account the following guidelines:

"(a) demographic data be coherently and consistently collected to allow for long-term planning and identification of need for child care services;

"(b) child care programs be administered and operated by legally incorporated non-profit community boards or parent cooperatives, within the licensing authority and funding guidelines of provincial child care programs;

"(c) persons involved with child care programs and the academic community-cooperate to develop adult support systems, child care resource materials and viable program options including both group and family-based services; and

"(d) universities consider in the planning of capital facilities, the need for child care space in university building programs."

In broad terms, educational institutions need to be encouraged to examine child care services as a potential component of their overall services to students and other constituent groups for many reasons. Some of these reasons are:

1. The population of students is changing as more older adults return to education. Older married students will require services related to family needs and management if they are to make full and effective use of their time in an educational program. Such services may need to be extended to dependent family members at various times. In addition to child care, such services might include: financial assistance and management; health services; personal counseling; housing, etc. Many educational institutions already offer these other services on some basis.
2. Child care services, both direct and indirect, make an important contribution to the growth and development of a parent in terms of both personal well-being and occupational/professional competence. The correlation is indirect, but very real, nevertheless.
3. Married women who have young children and who are not working represent a large untapped source of potential students. In these days of declining enrolments, most educational institutions will need to make any support services, offered to such potential student groups, as attractive as possible.
4. Drop-in or casual child care services are not all that difficult to operate. The greatest hurdle is setting up the service and developing administrative procedures which will allow students to use the services at any time of the day or evening, for weekend conferences, and so on. More and more examples of such creative administrative leadership are appearing in course catalogues. For example, the 1978 Fall catalogue for Humber College (Rexdale, Ontario) indicates that a "Children's Activity Centre" will be available on a fee-for-service basis to parents with young children who wish to leave them in a supervised area for a few hours during the day.

¹. E. M. McLeod, *op. cit.*, p. 41

². Second report of the committee of the Status of Women in Universities on the progress made by AUCC member institutions regarding the status of women. (Ottawa: AUCC, 1977), p. 11 - 12.

Alternative courses of action

The Canadian Committee on Learning Opportunities for Women will need to discuss all the implications and ramifications involved in supporting or not supporting various day care issues and in developing a plan for committee action and/or policy. In particular, the following issues seem most contentious:

- day care as a convenience service to parents and/or as a quality of care service to children.
- day care as a service to low-income or single mothers and/or as a service to middle or upper-income or married mothers.
- training and supervision of day care personnel for both group and family care services.
- issues related to control, liability, legal responsibility, etc. which accrue to the service provider and to the service user.
- issues related to who funds what, for what purposes, and with what potential outcomes.
- administrative concerns such as flexibility in hours, location, transportation, costs, parental involvement, control of programs, etc.
- need for coordination of effort among day care service providers, education service providers, work providers, and user groups.

CLOW might then want to prepare a series of policy statements which deal with either or all of:

- a. general statements related to the process by which day care issues are resolved in local educational institutions and agencies.
- b. general statements related to the process by which local groups could affect the development and implementation of day care policy.
- c. general statements related to the function CLOW could serve in the process of resolving day care issues in relation to both governmental agencies and educational agencies.
- d. specific statements related to specific issues involved.

An example of (a) might be: CLOW could recommend that local educational institutions set up a coordinating committee which would include representatives of all constituent and interest groups and community agencies and which would serve as a planning and advisory committee to the governing board of the educational institution.

An example of (b) might be: CLOW could recommend that local groups develop a familiarity with the policies and implementation guidelines of the educational institutions and governmental agencies involved with day care issues; with the supporting statistical data; with a wide variety of specific examples of how these policies and guidelines affect individual mothers; and with the implications of all this for the future.

An example of (c) might be: CCLOW could be prepared to serve as an information clearinghouse with regard to day care issues related to educational programs.

An example of (d) might be: Fees for day care services, provided in relation to educational programs, could be based on educational need as well as on economic need.

To assist in such a discussion, we have outlined below, several issues which might be considered for future policy development:

1. CCLOW could encourage the development of advocacy activities which would approach educational institutions and governmental agencies from both within and without. If we believe that the major burden for developing and maintaining day care services in educational institutions and agencies rests with the parent/user group and with the day care staff; then both parents and staff must be part of the educational institution before they can begin to affect policy or take on this responsibility. Where no such services now exist, no students will register who are in immediate need of the services and no day care staff will be hired; therefore, the administration can say, with some justification, that the need for day care services does not exist. The argument is cyclical. Initiation of the service tends to increase the demand for and use of such services. The argument can be broken most effectively if current general staff members lobby from inside the institution for day care services. This, in combination with pressure from outside interest groups and prospective students, will facilitate changes in policy.
2. CCLOW could adopt the general recommendations on day care services as suggested by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, to serve as guidelines for all types of educational institutions and agencies.
3. CCLOW could request some basic statistical studies related to the day care needs of students; the changing parental and marital characteristics of students; the current day care services provided by educational agencies of all types to determine the nature and extent of such services. Such studies could be carried out by local educational agencies, by CCLOW staff, or by governmental agencies such as Statistics Canada.
4. CCLOW could develop a model for the setting up of a coordinating committee within an educational agency and for the process such a committee might use in planning and advising about day care issues.
5. CCLOW could develop a model for the development and administration of drop-in child care services for day or night care. Such a model might include information about the characteristics, training and supervision of staff; the control and type of programming; administrative procedures; fee schedules; lunch and after-school programming; evening and night programming; resources required, etc.
6. CCLOW could propose changes or additions to policy or policy guidelines related to day care issues, such as

- changes in the process and conditions for claiming day care expenses including the right of mothers to claim for service required to permit attendance at any educational program both full and part-time; tax credits rather than tax deductions; increases in the maximum allowable deduction.
- changes in the criteria used to determine day care subsidies to include educational expenses as a valid family expense; to include the educational need of the mother as well as the economic and social needs of the family.
- changes in the condition that a woman must include her spouse's income when assessing her need for day care subsidy, particularly in situations where the spouse refuses to pay for day care services
- changes in the long-range planning for day-care service so as to include preventive and developmental services for both mother and children, in addition to the short-term services for remedial, rehabilitative and problem-solving purposes we now have. Preventive and developmental services could focus on the prevention of decline in self-esteem experienced by mothers of young children trapped at home and on the educational development of the mother for future contributions to her family, to herself and to society in general. Such changes would necessitate fundamental changes in funding and staffing policies.

7. Local CCLOW networks could take part in the development of local services to provide information, referrals, and counseling related to day care issues. Such services could include assistance with subsidy applications, information about local services, transportation, a register of sitters and emergency sitters, etc. Such a group could also act as a clearinghouse for information about day care concerns from other women's groups and social agencies; as gatherer of pertinent information on need for services; as a coordinating service for all interest groups.

8. CCLOW could encourage educational institutions and agencies to develop educational programs to assist caregivers in improving the quality of care they provide and parents in improving the quality of parenting they provide.

9. CCLOW could encourage and support activities which would help raise the status and self-esteem of Early Childhood and Day Care workers.

10. CCLOW could encourage and join with other women's groups in advocacy activities and in carrying out research (i.e. data gathering) related to such issues as:

- the benefit of day care services to student/mothers. eg. Does she do better as a student? Does her knowledge and skill related to parenting increase? Does her self-esteem increase?
- the benefit of day care services to educational institutions. eg. Does the drop-out rate decrease? Does the participation of mothers with young children increase?
- the benefit of day care services to the child. eg. Do children receive better parenting?

- the benefit of day care to the community. eg. Does the rate of child abuse decrease? Does the misuse of drugs or alcohol by the mother decrease? - the benefit of day care services to the family? eg. Does the long- term cost of day care services and educational programs provide an economic benefit to the family at a later time? Can we measure the emotional and economic benefit together?)

11. CCLOW could commission or conduct a study to compare the provision of day care services by educational institutions with the provision of health services, counseling services, housing services, etc., provided by the same institutions.

12. CCLOW could continue to develop a roster of speakers who can address this and other women's issues as one means of combating negative stereotyping of women and of increasing community awareness of women's problems.

13. CCLOW could develop contacts and good working relationships with local, national and provincial women's groups currently examining and developing advocacy positions in this area.

14. CCLOW could develop contacts and good working relationships both locally, provincially and federally with government personnel responsible for the development and implementation of policy.

15. CCLOW could encourage all its members to develop the skills and knowledge necessary for active involvement in policy development and for reactive responses to policy implementation. There are many more possibilities. We would encourage you to put your own creativity to work to add to this list.

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UNIT III: EMPLOYMENT (Manpower) and IMMIGRATION

The Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) is the federal ministry responsible for three major policy areas related to learning opportunities, needs, and obstacles. These are:

- i. immigration policy which determines the selection, admission, and settlement of foreign-born persons wishing to take up residence in Canada. Such persons come under these policies prior to entrance and for the first two years after arrival in Canada. After that, policies related to ethnic, racial or linguistic groups become the concern of the Secretary of State and the individual provinces. Immigrants may continue to come under the policies of CEIC, but only as any Canadian resident would, for the same reasons and under the same conditions.
- ii. manpower policy related to job creation; training in occupational skills, basic skills and/or job readiness skills; and counseling information, advice, assistance, and/or referral for those seeking employees and those seeking employment. These are all considered to be economic policies and not social service policies. The Commission normally refers any persons with social problems to other agencies.
- iii. unemployment policies related to financial benefits for those who lose their employment and for those who could find employment if relocated to another geographic area. These are considered primarily as short-term, economic crisis policies, and only secondarily as social service policies.

These three sets of policies have an interdependent relationship. For example, the primary objective of immigration policy is "to support demographic goals as may be established by the Government of Canada ... with respect to the size, rate of growth, structure, and geographic distribution of the Canadian population". Subsidiary to this objective is policy aimed at "the establishment of an equitable system of selecting and admitting immigrants ... based on non-discrimination, humanitarian concerns, and meeting the needs of Canada's labour market". Humanitarian concerns include reuniting families and assisting refugees.

To support these objectives, immigration policy outlines ten selection criteria which are used to determine the admissibility of independent immigrants, nine of which are assessed on a point scale. Prospective immigrants must earn 50 assessment points to be considered for admission. The criteria include: age; knowledge of French and/or English; presence of relatives in Canada; financial ability to maintain self and family until established; two educational factors -- (a) education and training level attained and (b) occupational skill level attained; personal qualities, as assessed at the discretion of the selection officer; and three factors determined by conditions in the area of Canada selected as a destination -- (a) pre-arranged employment or occupational shortages, (b) general occupational shortages, and (c) general employment levels. These last three criteria are determined by Commission officers on the basis of monthly statistics about job vacancies and

employment/unemployment rates. The assessed values for each occupation and geographic area are published monthly. Each immigrant must receive at least one assessment point on these factors to be considered eligible for admission. The immigrant is dependent on manpower and unemployment conditions at the time of application for admission.

Manpower policy is aimed at preparing and providing the skilled labour necessary to maintain a stable economy. The major programs are in three areas: job creation programs such as Canada Works, Local Initiative Projects, Young Canada Works, etc.; job counseling and referral through local Manpower offices (CMC's and CEC's); and occupational skill training through the Adult Occupational Training Act (AOT). This act states that a client is to be prepared with "training ... that will, in the opinion of the manpower officer, ... increase his earning capacity or his opportunity for employment. The Act has since been modified to include female pronouns (his/her), but entry to a training program is still at the discretion of the manpower officer. In the case of admission to Apprenticeship programs the union also holds consider power to accept or reject a potential candidate, by providing or not providing employment.

Manpower policy is currently under revision so that all policies will conform to, and support, two major objectives: (a) to get the client into a job or improve his/her earning potential and (b) to maximize and stabilize the Canadian employment situation. There are two sides to objectives. One is related to improving and stabilizing the demand side, the need for skilled labour by the economy; the other is related to the supply side, the provision of skilled labourers. Immigration serves to control the supply side of this equation. One policy requires that persons currently resident in Canada must have the first opportunity to fill any job vacancy for which they are trained, ahead of non-residents.

Other policies establish quotas for training in certain occupational skill areas, including male-female quotas. These quotas are established on the basis of the number of trainees who can reasonably be expected to be hired. Other policies support the (eventual) elimination of any discriminatory practices in the labour market that are based on sex. These are practices in the areas of job descriptions, advertisement, and referral; but not necessarily in the area of hiring since this not considered to be the direct concern of the Commission.

Statistical background

The following pages include a summary of some recent data related to manpower programs, labour force activities and immigration. A comment follows each table and the source of the data is listed whenever possible. Some of this material is unpublished in that it is not available through regular government publications. Also some of the 1976 census data is still in preliminary form and available only in microfiche. In most cases, publication of this data is expected within the next year.

Data which distinguishes between male and female participants in manpower programs and between male and female immigrants are not available through regular publications. Both are available to those who persevere in their search. This appears to be part of the "non-sexist" policy of the CEIC. If they never mention women or men as separate categories then they can never be perceived as making distinctions between them.

Table 1

Labour force statistics by industry, employment/unemployment, and sex of paid workers (Canada, 1977)

Industrial group	Employed women			Unemployed (adjusted)	
	Numbers of women (thousands)	Dist. %	As % of all employed persons	Men (rate) (numbers)	Women (rate) (in thousands)
<u>Goods-producing industries</u>					
agriculture	40	1.2%	28%	10 (9.0%)	6 (13.1%)
other primary industries (forestry, mines, fisheries, quarries, etc.)	18	0.5%	8%	27(12.0%)	*
Manufacturing	470	14.1%	25%	101(6.7%)	69 (12.8%)
construction	42	1.3%	8%	99(16.7%)	5 (11.1%)
Sub-total: all goods-producing industries	570	17.1%	20%	(9.6%)	(12.9%)
<u>Service-producing industries</u>					
transportation & communication	140	4.2%	15%	33(5.6%)	11 (7.2%)
utilities	16	0.5%	15%	4 (3.7%)	*
trade	614	18.4%	40%	66(6.8%)	64 (9.5%)
finance, insurance, real estate	303	9.1%	58%	7 (3.1%)	17 (5.4%)

community, business, & personal service	1,457	43.8%	60%	72 (6.8%)	132 (8.3%)
Public administration	<u>229</u>	<u>6.9%</u>	<u>32%</u>	<u>24 (4.8%)</u>	<u>18 (71.3%)</u>
Sub-total: .all. service-producing industries	2,759	82.9%	46%	(6.0%)	(8.1%)

* values too small to be of statistical significance

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1977 annual averages (December 1977). (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1977).

Comment:

[Table 1](#) indicates that the vast majority of women are employed in service- producing industries (82.9%) as opposed to goods-producing industries (17.1%). The distribution for men is much more even, with 59.1% of males in service-producing industries and 40.9% in goods-producing industries.

Note that the unemployment rate is generally higher for both sexes in the goods-producing industries; and that the unemployment rates for women are higher than those for men in all but three industries - construction, utilities, and other primary industries. However, the concentration of women in high unemployment industries is not as great as it is for men.

Only in two industries do women outnumber men -- community, business and personal services; and finance, insurance and real estate. In all industries women account for 38% of paid workers while men account for 62%.

The data do not indicate what range or type of occupations women hold in each industrial group. The demand for Manpower will continue to shift towards the white-collar and related service industries. Their command of total employment is predicted to increase to 68% by 1982, with a proportional decline in all the goods-producing industries.¹

¹ Economic Council of Canada, People and Jobs; A study of the Canadian labour market. (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1976), p. 26.

Table 2.

Labour force statistics by occupation, employment/unemployment, and sex of paid workers (Canada, 1977)

Occupational group	Employed women			Unemployed (adjusted)	
	Numbers of women (thousands)	Dist. ¹ %	As % of all employed persons	Men (rate) (numbers)	Women (rate) (in thousands)
	144	4%	22%	12 (2.3%)	5 (3.6%)
Managerial					
Professional & technical					
natural sciences	34	1%	11%	9 (3.2%)	*
social sciences	65	2%	53%	*	6 (7.8%)
religion	5	*	18%	*	*
teaching	242	7%	56%	5(2.4%)	13 (5.1%)
medicine & health sciences	321	10%	82%	*	15 (4.4%)
artistic, literary & recreational	37	1%	38%	6(9.8%)	4 (10.6%)
Clerical	1,265	38%	76%	20(5.8%)	105 (1.1%)
Sales	327	10%	37%	29(4. 7%)	33 (9.2%)
Service	502	15%	48%	54(8.8%)	72 (12.5%)
Primary occupations					
agriculture	39	1%	23%	17(11.3%)	6 (14.2%)
other primary occupations (fishing, mining, hunting, forestry, quarrying, etc.)	*	*	*	21(16.3%)	*
Processing occupations					
machining, fabricating, assembling, repairing, etc.	264	8%	20%	97(7.5%)	45(14.5%)
Construction trades	6	*	1%	99(14.7%)	*

Transport equipment operation	13	*	4%	31(8.4%)	*
Crafts persons, material handling, equipment operation	61	2%	18%	30(8.8%)	8(16.9%)

* values too small to be of statistical significance.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1977 annual averages (December 1977). (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1977).

¹. The distribution percentages indicate what proportion of women are in each occupational group.

Comment:

[Table 2](#) indicates that the majority of women hold jobs in the clerical, and service occupational groups; that women are poorly represented in processing, construction and other labouring occupational groups; and that among the professional occupations, women are over-represented in the health science and teaching.

The unemployment rates for women are generally higher than those for men except in the areas of the construction trades and other primary occupations for which no value can be calculated for women. It seems reasonable to assume that, for those women employed in these occupations, the unemployment rate is likely to be as high for them as it is for men.

Note the extent to which unemployment rates for women exceed those for men in the sales and services, the social and health sciences, and the processing and operative occupations.

The data do not discriminate within any occupational group between various areas or levels of skill required by employees. For example, Sales includes both low-skill positions such as department store clerk and high-skill positions as computer salesperson

Service occupations refer to such positions as washroom attendants, housekeepers, waitresses, hairdressers, cooks, cleaners, etc. These occupations can be found in all industrial sectors and should not be confused with service-producing industries.

Table 3.

Labour force statistics by occupation for women (various years)

Occupational groups	Percentage of occupation which is female			Distribution of women among groups			Rate of change from 1961 to 1977	
	1961	1973	1977	1961	1973	1977	%change in total workers	% Change in women workers
Manerial	11%	15%	22%	4%	4%	4%	+18%	+116%
Professional & technical	42	41	50	15	17	21	+135	+ 180
Clerical	62	73	76	30	34	38	+109	+154
Sales	36	40	37	9	8	10	+107	+104
Services	58	58	48	23	21	15	+61	+31
Primary occupations								
agriculture	8	13	23	3	2	1	-75	-30
other	*	*	*	*	*	*	17	*
Processing occupations								
crafts persons and operatives	15	15	19	13	11	10	+25	+48
Construction trades	*	*	1	*	*	*	(data not provided)	
Transport equipment operation	9	10	4	2	2	*	-13	-65
				100%	100%	100%		

* values too small to be of statistical significance.

Source: Economic Council of Canada, People and jobs: A study of the Canadian labour market. (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1976), Table 4-2.

Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1977 annual averages (December 1977), (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1977).

Comment:

The distribution of women among the various occupational groups has shifted slightly over the past sixteen years away from the service occupations and toward the clerical, professional, and technical occupations. This reflects an increase in occupational skill levels from semi and unskilled labour to skilled labour.

In general women have increased their representation in the occupational groups with the higher occupational skill requirements. Furthermore, the growth rate for women in these groups is higher than those for men. Women are, however, losing ground (if they ever had much) in the blue-collar high-skill occupations.

Table 4.

Proportion of women in different occupational categories from six countries, including Canada. Percentages represent women as a percent of all workers in that occupational category.

Occupational group	Canada (1972)	United States (1970)	Australia (1971)	France (1968)	Japan (1972)	Sweden (1973)
Managerial	14.2	16.6	12.0	12.8	5.2	10.0
Professional & technical	41.2	39.9	42.3	20.1	41.8	45.9
Clerical	72.0	73.6	63.8	60.8	46.8	78.8
Sales	38.8	38.6	48.3	57.8	31.7	47.5
Services	59.1	60.0	62.7	79.1	53.1	79.1
Primary occupations agriculture	14.1	9.5	15.5	37.8	20.0	22.2
Processing occupations manual workers	8.8	8.4	13.1	20.4	31.9	15.2
Transport equipment operators	15.3	31.5	13.7	12.0	12.4	---
Crafts persons, artisans	14.9	5.0	---	14.0	---	---

Women as % of all workers in all occupations	33.6	38.0	31.6	34.9	32.4	40.9
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Source: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) , The role of women in the economy. (Paris: OECD,1975).

Comment:

[Table 5](#) indicates that Canada's record in the area of employment for women is neither the best nor the worst when compared to other countries. Women occur in large numbers in clerical and service occupations in all countries. Canada does not have as many women in clerical occupations as Sweden; nor as many women in service occupations as France or Sweden. However, our record for employing women in the primary and processing occupations is well behind that of France, Finland, and Japan; and in the transport equipment operations, we are well behind the United States.

It seems reasonable to assume that what we in Canada define as "traditional/ non-traditional" occupations for women are defined quite differently in other countries.

Table 5.

Distribution of labour force by occupation, sex and level of schooling. (Canada, 1971). Percentages for male distribution are given in brackets.

Occupational group	Less than Grade 9	Grades 9 & 10	Grades 11,12 & 13	Completed vocational course	Some and/or complete university
Managerial	0.5 (1.1)	1.2 (2.6)	2.4 (6.9)	2.7 (6.1)	4.4 (15.4)
Professional and technical					
- natural sciences	0.1 (0.5)	0.2 (1.2)	0.4 (4.2)	0.8 (6.0)	2.5 (12.7)
- social sciences	0.2 (0.1)	0.3 (0.2)	0.6 (0.5)	1.1 (0.5)	5.1 (4.2)
- religion	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.2)	0.2 (0.3)	0.4 (1.7)
- teaching	0.4 (0.1)	0.9 (0.3)	5.4 (1.0)	6.5 (2.1)	33.5 (12.9)

- medicine & health	3.2 (0.4)	5.4 (0.7)	<u>10.1</u> (1.0)	<u>20.1</u> (1.6)	12.5 (5.8)
- artistic & recreation	0.2 (0.4)	0.5 (0.7)	0.7 (1.4)	1.0 (1.4)	2.0 (2.1)
Clerical	9.0 (3.6)	<u>28.6</u> (7.2)	<u>46.1</u> (11.6)	<u>37.8</u> (6.1)	<u>21.4</u> (8.4)
Sales	8.0 (5.7)	11.6(10.3)	8.4 (14.1)	5.7 (8.8)	4.5 (10.0)
Services	<u>27.9</u> (10.4)	<u>20.9</u> (10.5)	9.8 (9.6)	<u>12.3</u> (9.5)	5.3 (4.8)
Primary occupations					
- agriculture	7.8 (11.2)	4.2 (7.9)	2.2 (5.1)	1.5 (2.8)	1.0 (2.6)
Processing occupations					
manual workers	<u>19.7</u> (21.8)	9.7 (21.5)	3.0 (16.2)	3.3 (26.5)	1.2 (5.8)
Construction trades	0.3 (14.5)	0.2 (10.8)	0.1 (8.0)	0.2 (13.8)	0.1 (3.5)
Transport equipment					
operators	0.4 (8.4)	0.4 (7.5)	0.2 (4.2)	0.2 (3.5)	0.2 (1.8)
Craftspersons, material	3.5 (5.2)	2.7 (5.6)	1.0 (4.7)	0.9 (4.7)	0.5 (2.0)
handlers, operatives					

Source: Labour Canada, Rights in Employment, Women in the labour force: Facts and figures (1976 edition). (Ottawa: Supply & Services Canada, 1976).

Note: Columns do not add to 100% because of rounding and the omission of some occupations and occupational groups.

Comment:

Those values which exceed 10% and, therefore, represent more than 10% of the population of women workers have been underlined. Note that under-educated women (less than grade 9) are mainly in services and the processing occupations; that women with some high school education are in clerical, sales and service occupations; that women with more complete secondary educations are in clerical and the health related occupations; that the same is true of women with vocational course completion; and that university women are in clerical, health related and teaching occupations.

Note particularly that an advanced education does not necessarily get a woman out of a clerical occupation. Note that the distribution of men is less concentrated in one or two major occupational groupings; and that the higher levels of schooling appear to allow a man more access to the skilled occupations in processing and construction. The opposite is true for a woman.

If we compare this table to [table 2](#), which indicates unemployment levels in each occupational group, we find that the most likely group of women to be unemployed are those with low educational levels in service and processing occupations and that the most likely men to be unemployed are those with varying educational levels in the construction trades.

Note that the data do not distinguish between skill levels or categories within an occupational group. For example, under educated men and women employed in processing occupations probably hold such positions as assembly-line worker; while the educated men in the same occupational group probably hold such high-skill positions as computer repairman.

Table 6.

Labour force statistics by highest level of schooling attained and by sex.
(Canada, 1976 - figures for 1977 are shown in brackets¹).

<u>Educational level</u>	<u>Total population (thousands)</u>	<u>In the Employed (thousands)</u>	<u>Labour Force² Unemployed</u>	<u>Participation</u>		<u>Unemployment</u>	
				<u>rate³ %</u>	<u>rate %</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1977</u>
WOMEN				1976	1977	1976	1977
0 - 8 years	2,142	492	49	25.2%	(25.0)	9.1%	(11.)
9 - 13 years	4,317	1,871	195	47.9	(48.3)	9.4	(10.6)
Some post-secondary ⁴	706	351	30	53.9	(56.7)	7.8	(9.0)
Post-secondary diploma (non-university)	977	549	35	59.8	(60.6)	6.0	(6.4)
University degree	428	271	16	67.0	(68.1)	5.4	(5.1)

Total all women	8,570	3,534	325	45.0 (45.9)	8.4 (9.5)
MEN					
0 - 8 years	2,174	1,310	105	65.1% (64.0)	6.4% (8.8)
9 - 13 years	3,792	2,804	223	79.8 (80.0)	7.4 (8.4)
Some post-secondary ⁴	835	618	36	78.5 (79.6)	7.4 (6.7)
Post-secondary diploma (non-university)	737	628	30	89.3 (89.3)	5.6 (4.3)
University degree.	766	677	16	90.6 (91.0)	4.6 (2.7)
Total all men	8,303	6,038	411	77.7 (77.7)	6.4 (7.3)

Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1976 annual averages (December 1976) and 1977 annual averages December 1977 (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1976 and 1977).

¹. Figures for 1976 were obtained from 1976 census figures and for 1977 from labour force statistics. These two groups of statistics are gathered by slightly different techniques and care should be exercised in comparing them.

². To be "In the labour force" is to be classifiable as either employed or unemployed. This definition excludes those who are institutionalized, who are full-time students, who are in the armed forces and/or who did not actively seek or hold a job.

³. The participation rate for each educational group is calculated as $\frac{\text{total in the labour force} \times 100}{\text{total in the educational group}}$

⁴. This includes both partial university and partial non-university post-secondary, but excludes those who have obtained degrees, diplomas, or certificates.

Comment:

[Table 6](#) indicates that the participation rate increases as the educational attainment level increases for both men and women; and that the unemployment rates decline. A university education has a larger effect on the unemployment rates for men than it has for women. Note that the unemployment rates for women are greater than those for men in all educational groups.

Up to the end of 1975, subjects in the worthy labour force survey were asked:

"What did (this' person) do mostly last week?" and "Did (this person) do anything else last week?"

Many women chose to give a socially-acceptable answer -- "keeping house" -- rather than a more realistic answer -- "unemployed and looking for work"

After 1976 subjects were asked:

"Did (this person) do any work at all last week (not counting work around the house) ?" and

"In the past 4 weeks has (this person) looked for another job?"

These questions appear to provide more realistic data about unemployed women. The unemployment rate for women in 1975 was 6.4%. The rate for 1976 was 8.4%. At the same time the unemployment rate for men increased from 6.2% in 1975 to 6.4% in 1976.

The data gathered on participation rates and unemployment rates through the labour force survey is different from the data gathered by the census. (Please refer to tables 7 and 8 for the 1976 Census data). Since the Census is taken on June 1st, 1976, the labour force survey data which is most likely to be comparable would be for May 1976. In these statistics, the participation rate for women was calculated as 44.9% for women (as compared to 45.0% from the Census) and 8.1% unemployed (as compared to 8.4% from the Census). Other discrepancies are:

-the census calculates lower participation rates for most educational groups except the university level group for whom the rate is much higher.

- the census calculates higher participation rates for women over 45 years

- the census calculates lower unemployment rates for all educational groups except the university group for whom the rate is much higher.

- the census calculates unemployment rates for age groups which are different from those of the labour force survey but in no specific pattern, some are higher, some are lower.

Table 7.

Labour force statistics (participation rates and unemployment rates) for women, 15 years and over, by age groups and level of schooling (Canada 1976)

Women by age groups	Less than Grade 9		Grades 9- 13		Post-secondary non-university ¹		Post-secondary university		Totals by age groups	
	Part. rate	Unempl rate	Part. rate	Unempl rate	Part. rate	Unempl. rate	Part. rate	Unempl. rate	Part. rate	Unempl. rate
15 - 24 years	30.8	15.2	48.5	11.5	70.6	12.3	76.1	16.4	54.7	12.9
25 - 44 "	38.4	7.8	51.3	6.6	60.5	6.4	69.1	6.3	53.8	6.6
45 - 54 "	38.0	5.7	51.1	4.9	60.5	4.8	66.2	4.0	49.3	5.0
55 - 64 "	24.3	5.5	36.3	5.0	46.9	4.5	52.4	3.7	33.9	4.9
65 years and over	4.9	1.5	7.7	1.9	10.8	1.7	16.1	2.0	6.9	1.7
Totals by level of schooling	25.5	7.0	45.5	8.1	56.9	7.6	66.7	9.3	45.0	8.4

Sources: Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, "Population, 15 years and over, by labour force activity, by age and by level of schooling." Microfiche file SDECOB 21. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1978)

¹. Includes both partial and completed schooling at this level.

Table 8.

Labour force statistics (participation and unemployment rates) for women, 15 years and over, by age groups and marital status (Canada, 1976).

Women by age groups	Married wives		Single (never married)		Widowed, divorced separated	
	Part. rate	Unempl. rate	Part. rate	Unempl. rate	Part. rate	Unempl. rate
15 - 24 years	56.9	12.0	54.9	13.2	60.2	14.0
25 - 34 "	48.6	7.8	80.7	5.5	65.1	8.7
35 - 44 "	50.9	5.5	75.4	3.3	63.7	7.2
45 - 54 "	46.1	4.9	70.7	2.9	58.4	6.4
55 - 64 "	29.4	5.0	56.2	2.8	39.9	5.7
65 years and over	6.0	2.2	18.7	0.9	5.3	1.8
Totals by marital status	43.7	7.0	56.3	10.4	31.2	6.9

Source Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada, Labour Force: Labour force activity by marital status, age and sex Catalogue 94-805. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Service, 1978).

Comment (on tables [7](#) and [8](#)):

The total figures on these two tables vary slightly from those shown in Table [6](#) because the data were collected by two different methods. The figures shown in table [6](#) were obtained from the yearly averages produced by a monthly labour force survey. This survey is made on a sample of the population and the totals are estimated from this sample. The figures shown in tables [7](#) and [8](#) were obtained from the 1976 census of Canada figures. The census tabulates all persons (or as many as possible) and calculates participation and unemployment rates from these totals. The unemployment rates are not adjusted in the census figures. The largest discrepancy occurs between the rates for secondary school and post-secondary (non-university) attainers.

Tables [7](#) and [8](#)

While keeping these discrepancies in mind, note that ...

- for each educational level, the participation rates decline beyond age 45; are highest for those between 25 and 45 years; and are highest for single women.

- unemployment rates are highest for the 15-19 year group; high for those whose marital status is described as "other"; and low for younger women with post-secondary non-university education and for older women with post-secondary university education.

- participation rates increase and unemployment rates decrease as the educational level increases to the post-secondary level.

- the corresponding 1971 data shows that participation rates have increased most for married wives labour 25%), and for all age groups up to 54 years. Participation rates for the two oldest age groups are down slightly from 1971.

- single women have a greater attachment to the labour force, over a longer period. The group with the lowest aggregate participation rate are those whose marital status is "other" (divorced, separated, widowed). This remains the same as was found in 1971. Note, however, that if we eliminate the two oldest age groups from this comparison, married wives have the lower rate of participation.

- the 1971 data indicates that for all marital statuses and all educational groups of women under 45 years, the presence, in the home, of children under 25 years significantly reduces the participation rate. The greatest reduction is in the rate of married wives and the least reduction is in the rates of single mothers (divorced, separated and widowed).

- however, the presence, in the home, of children under 25 years has a different effect on women over 45 years. In this age group, it is the women without children who have the lowest participation rates. The general effect of children appears to be to keep women participating at the same levels as younger women, while the absence of children is accompanied by a reduction in participation. The 1971 data, in summary, is as follows:

	Children under 25 years at home	No children ¹
Women under 45 years	35%	75%
Women over 45 years	37%	23%

While the 1976 data which corresponds to this summary are not yet available, it appears that the age which marks a distinguishing point has risen to 50 years. (i.e. women over 50 years with children at home participate more than those without children at home).

¹The data do not distinguish between ever-married women who never had children and those whose children are over 25 years.

Table 9.

Immigration statistics for women, 15 years and over. (various years).

	<u>1972</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1976</u>
All women 15 years and over	48,373 100%	81,202 100%	58,383 100%
Single	34%	34%	26%
Married	56	58	63
Widowed	7	6	9
Divorced	2	2	2
Separated	1	1	*
Females as % of all immigrants (* less than 1%)	51.2%	49.4%	52.5%
Working status of married women			
Total number of married women	27,005	47,095	36,566
Not destined for labour force (dependent spouses)	21,749	32,470	25,330
Non-workers as % of married wives (approximation)	81%	69%	70%

Source: Canada Manpower and Immigration, Immigration Division, Immigration statistics (various years). (Ottawa: Supply & Services Canada)

Comment: .

Table 9 indicates a considerable variation in the number of women admitted as immigrants in any given year. There has been a consistent increase in the number of married women and of widows. The latter group are probably admitted to facilitate family reunion. There has been a decline in single women and a very slight decline in divorced and separated women.

Immigration statistics give little indication of how many women are actually destined for the labour force, since such persons are not tabulated separately from the men. However, we have approximated a percentage of non-working wives on the basis that those categorized as "spouses" are in fact dependent wives. On this basis the percent of non-working wives appears to be too low when compared to the participation rates for women in the general population. In 1976, for example, only 30% of immigrant wives were destined for the labour force; while the participation rate for wives in the general population in the same year was just over 43%.

The reasons for this are not clear. It is possible that wives request admission as non-working dependents to avoid difficulties at the time of application for admission. They then seek work as soon as they are settled in Canada.

Table 10.

Occupational distributions for native-born (to Canada) and foreign-born women resident in Canada (for Canada, 1971)

<u>Occupational group</u>	<u>Native-born women</u>	<u>Foreign-born women</u>	<u>All women</u>
Managerial	2.3%	1.9%	2%
Professional & technical			
natural sciences	0.5	1.1	1
social sciences	1.1	1.1	1
religion	0.2	0.1	*
teaching	8.6	5.4	7
medicine & health	9.4	8.5	9
artistic, literature & recreation	0.8	1.0	1
Clerical	37.1	29.8	34
Sales	9.6	8.7	9
Services	16.3	19.6	18
Primary occupations agriculture and others	4.3	3.4	4
Processing occupations machining, fabricating, assembling, repairing	6.7	15.0	11
Construction trades	0.2	0.3	*
Transport equipment operation	0.3	0.2	*
Craftsperson, material handling, operatives	1.9	2.8	2

Source: M. Boyd, "The status of immigrant women in Canada" in M. Stephenson (ed.), Women in Canada (revised ed.). (Don Mills, Ont.: General Publishing Co. Ltd., 1977), p. 241, Table 5.

Comment:

When comparing this table to other tables in this series, we find that immigrant women tend to turn up in the same occupational groups as women with less than Grade 10 education and in roughly the same proportions. This may reflect an actual difference in the educational levels between Canadian-born women and some groups of foreign-born women; but it more likely reflects a form of stereotyping which assumes that immigrant women are basically under-educated. In some cases this stereotype operates on the assumption that an educated person will speak English (or French) and was educated in English (or French). Another assumption may be that education obtained in foreign countries (and in a language other than English or French) is basically inferior to that obtained in Canada. We have very little data on the equivalence of Canadian and foreign educational experiences nor on the equivalence of training and work experiences.

What is not clear from this data is whether the majority of foreign-born women obtain their education and training in Canada or in their country of origin. For example, many "foreign-born" women could have arrived here at the age of five years and obtained all their education and training in the Canadian school systems.

Table 11.

Canada Manpower Training Programs
Institutional and Industrial Trainees
(various years - female)

	1971	1973	1975	1977
<u>Institutional Trainees</u>				
Total full-time enrolment (% female)	226,753 25.6%	193,144 35.9%	175,596 32.7%	179,241 31.9%
Skill training (% female)	25.4	34.3	37.8	38.4
Language training (% female)	46.0	51.0	52.3	55.5

BTSD (% female)	34.6	51.4	53.8	55.2
Apprenticeship (% female)	3.8	3.1	2.2	2.8
<u>Industrial Trainees</u>				
Total	75,500	43,104	61,386	69,698
% female	28.8%	28.8%	26.4%	28.3%
<u>Labour force statistics</u>				
Participation rates (female)	36.5%	38.7%	40.9%	45.9%
Unemployment rates (female)	5.1	5.1	6.4	9.5
% of labour force which is female	32.8	34.0	36.7	37.8
% of unemployed which are female	26.1	30.8	31.8	44.1
<u>Immigration statistics</u>				
% of immigrants who were female (15 years and over)	51.1%	48.6%	51.4%	53.2%

Sources: Manpower and Immigration, Annual Report 75-76 (Ottawa: Supply and Services Canada, 1977)

CEIC, Program Analysis Division, Employment Training Branch,
Unpublished statistics, PAD 78-135 and 78-144.

Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, Labour force statistics,
various years. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada)

A.L. Robb & B. G. Spencer, "Education: Enrolment and attainment" in G.
C. A. Cook (Ed.), Opportunity for choice (Ottawa: Information Canada,
1976).

Comment:

Table [11](#) indicates that the gains made by women in terms of their relative numbers in various Manpower programs over the past few years have been inconsistent but mainly in the upward direction. These gains are offset by the decline in the total number of trainees of both sexes. Although the numbers are up again for 1977, current government cutbacks are likely to result in future declines in the total numbers of trainees.

Moreover, the relative percentage of women in skill training programs appears to be consistent with the increase in participation rates for women, although not with unemployment rates. The relative number of immigrant women in language training programs appears to have kept pace with their increasing proportions in the immigrant population. This may be deceptive and the entire language training program may be seriously under-serving both male and female trainees.

It should be noted that the increase in total numbers of trainees from 1975 to 1977 was accomplished largely through an increase in numbers of apprenticeship trainees. All other types of institutional trainees declined. This increase for apprenticeship programs was approximately 16%. Of the spaces added to the program, women received about 7% of the additional numbers; an improvement over 2% but not by much.

What is not clear is why we have so many women in BTSD programs. These are mainly academic upgrading programs. The statistics on the relative educational attainment levels for men and women (refer to Unit IV of this report) indicate that women are more likely to have completed Grade 10, more likely to have at least partial grade 11-13, and less likely to have gone on to post-secondary education. Since Grade 10 represents the upper limit for BTSD programs and since most occupational/vocational training takes place at the post-secondary level, we would expect to find women in smaller proportions in the BTSD or academic programs and in greater proportions in the skill training or occupational programs. Since this is not so, other factors must be involved which supercede levels of schooling already attained. Some might be:

- the occupational programs women traditionally enter require higher academic levels than those men traditionally enter.
- men may have easier access to those occupational programs which require little academic background (eg. apprenticeship).
- men may be hired directly into a job without the prerequisite educational background required for either the occupational training program or for the position itself. Then they would receive training through the Industrial programs of Manpower.
- women are more likely than men to have been out of the labour force and not using their "academic" skills. When they try to re-enter they must first pass a Grade 10 entrance level exam (which few employed persons could pass). If they cannot pass this test, they must make up the academic work even if it has little bearing on the occupational training. Men may have indirect means for by-passing this entrance requirement which are not obvious at this time.

- women's lack of self-confidence and inexperience about learning-on-the-job (rather than knowing everything in advance) may mean that they prefer to "play it safe" by starting in an academic program first to "get used to being out of the house and back at school". Men may be more willing to plunge straight into occupational training or employment.

Table 12a.

Canada Manpower Training Programs
Institutional and Industrial trainees (female) by province (1975 and 1977).

	Institutional Trainees											
	Total		Skill		Language		BTSD		Apprenticeship		Industrial	
	Institutional	trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees	Trainees
	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)	(female)
	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977
CANADA	35.5%	31.9%	37.8%	38.4%	52.3%	55.5%	53.8%	55.2%	2.2%	2.8%	26.4%	29.2%
Newfoundland	28.8	29.3	16.4	27.0	--	--	43.9	52.8	3.5	6.4	32.1	43.2
Nova Scotia	36.6	27.0	28.8	33.2	--	--	47.9	49.3	1.5	1.4	29.3	37.7
Prince Edward Is.	41.2	37.5	39.9	36.3	--	--	56.8	58.5	--	0.4	35.3	37.0
New Brunswick	37.2	22.0	31.0	33.9	18.8	--	44.4	44.1	0.2	0.4	26.1	33.7
Quebec	39.6	39.3	29.5	29.6	55.1	58.8	59.3	54.7	4.0	6.2	26.4	24.4
Ontario	41.2	35.7	51.5	47.6	52.0	55.1	51.1	52.9	5.5	4.3	26.3	24.3
Manitoba	31.7	30.5	29.5	33.0	41.3	43.8	54.9	59.5	0.3	0.3	27.5	35.7
Saskatchewan	35.8	25.3	26.6	29.4	58.1	45.1	60.0	61.3	0.4	0.5	24.5	31.5
Alberta	34.4	17.1	53.4	55.3	42.5	48.8	57.8	65.1	0.7	0.8	25.0	27.0
British Columbia	39.0	31.4	41.1	45.6	46.9	54.3	50.8	59.1	0.8	4.2	21.0	23.5

Sources: Manpower and Immigration, Annual Report 75 - 76, (Ottawa: Supply & Services Canada, 1977)

CEIC, Program Analysis Division, Employment Training Branch, Unpublished statistics, 1977-78
PAD 78-135 and 78-144.

Table I2b.

Canada Manpower Training Programs Labour force statistics (female)
by province for 1975 and 1977

	Participation rates		Unemployment rates		Women as % of labour force		Women as % of unemployed	
	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977	1975	1977
CANADA	40.9%	45.9%	8.1%	9.5%	36.7%	37.8%	31.8%	44.1%
Newfoundland	31.3	34.4	*	15.4	31.5	33.3		33.3
Nova Scotia	39.1	40.1	8.7	11.6	36.4	37.5		38.8
Prince Edward Island	41.6	43.3	*	*	38.4	40.0	23.3}	*
New Brunswick	38.2	38.7	11.5	14.9	36.2	36.2		41.7
Quebec	38.0	42.1	9.1	11.5	37.4	36.5	31.0	41.0
Ontario	44.4	49.7	7.8	8.6	38.4	39.0	36.8	48.6
Manitoba	43.3	46.6	*	6.7	36.2	38.5		44.4
Saskatchewan	40.3	44.1	*	5.7	34.1	35.8	29.6	47.4
Alberta	49.2	50.7	5.2	5.2	37.3	38.0		46.1
British Columbia	42.8	45.9	9.4	10.4	37.1	37.6	33.0	46.5

Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, Labour force statistics, annual averages (December 1975 and December 1977). (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1975 and 1977).

* number too few to provide reliable statistics

Comment:

Tables [12a](#) and [12b](#) provide a comparison between two years for various Manpower programs and labour force statistics for each province. This material is included here for the benefit of local groups of CLOW (other data are also available for the provinces).

Note that, in general, those provinces with either low unemployment rates and/or high participation rates have higher percentages of women in training programs.

The extremely low value for Alberta for 1977 (17.1%) is the result of an extremely large apprenticeship program operating in that province in which the numbers of women are extremely low. In fact, the entire apprenticeship program is very unevenly distributed across Canada. Approximately 15,000 apprenticeship trainees are in Alberta; 16,000 in Ontario, 10,000 in British Columbia and the remaining 16,000 spread through the other seven provinces. That means that women are short-changed not only in their relative numbers as compared to men but also in terms of the total numbers of spaces available to any trainees.

Table 13.

Canada Manpower Training Programs Female trainees by age, marital status, number of dependents, level of schooling, and prior labour force status (Canada, 1977)

	Institutional Trainees					Industrial Trainees
	Total ¹	Skill Trainees	Language Trainees	BTSD Trainees	Apprentice - ship	
AGE						
under 20 years	14.7%	9.5%	4.5%	21.7%	24.3%	17.5%
20 - 24 "	30.4	31.3	22.5	29.8	44.4	30.5
25 - 29 "	17.6	18.4	27.8	15.1	14.5	16.5
30 - 34 "	12.3	12.5	17.7	11.3	7.7	10.5
35 - "	25.0	28.3	27.5	22.1	9.1	25.0
MARITAL STATUS						
Single (never married)	40.3	37.7	21.7	46.7	not	42.4

Married	40.3	42.3	71.4	32.3	available	46.8
Other	19.4	20.0	6.9	21.0		10.8
NUMBER of DEPENDENTS						
None	79.8	80.9	90.9	76.6	90.4	84.5
One	10.3	10.0	4.8	11.6	5.0	7.7
Two or more.	9.9	9.1	4.3	11.8	4.6	7.8
LEVEL of SCHOOLING						
0 - 8 years	24.2	10.8	22.0	39.4		15.1
9 - 11 "	50.3	50.9	24.9	54.3	not available	40.0
12 - 13 "	20.0	31.9	28.9	5.1		35.6
14 - "	5.5	6.4	24.2	1.2		9.3
PRIOR LABOUR FORCE STATUS						
Employed	11.0	13.7	9.6	8.2		
Unemployed	65.2	63.3	74.4	65.7	not available	not available
Not in labour force	23.8	23.0	16.0	26.1		

Source: CEIC, Program Analysis Division, Employment Training Branch, Unpublished statistics, PAD 78-135, 78-144, 78-224,78-256. (1977-78)

¹. Totals are for General Purchase Trainees which include Skill, Language and BTSD Trainees but not Apprenticeship Trainees.

Comment:

Table [13](#) indicates that:

- nearly 10 out of every 20 female trainees are in their 20's; 3 are under 20 years; and 7 are 30 years or older.
- eight out of 20 female trainees are married; an equal number are single (never married); and 4 are divorced, separated or widowed.
- if we combine age and marital status and compare these to the participation and unemployment rates shown in table 8, we would expect to find more divorced, separated and widowed females and fewer married females in the younger age groups.
- the number of dependents indicates that 16 out of 20 female trainees have no dependents and 4 have one or more dependents. This does not fit with our data on participation rates for mothers which suggests that we should find more women with dependents in training programs. The problem may be the result of women not knowing how to register dependents. If a woman is married to a man earning less than she earns, does she list their children as dependents or does he?
- the data on schooling levels completed prior to entry to the training program again raises the question of why so many women who already have some secondary schooling are in BTSD programs.
- the spread for women in language programs with regard to schooling suggests that immigrant women may have much higher levels of education than the stereotypes imply. If they are better educated than the general population of female trainees, why do they end up in occupations which require low educational levels.
- data on the labour force status of female trainees prior to entry into the program suggest that most women are already in the labour force. This indicates that women who are entering programs from a non-working status are clearly a minority and, therefore, we cannot accept that "many trainees simply return to housekeeping at the end of their course - an opinion held by the CEIC.

The overall picture provided by these data suggests that CMTP programs are serving young (under 30 years), single women with no dependents; who have at least some secondary school education; and who were in the labour force by unemployed prior to entry into the training program. The type of woman least likely to be in a CMTP program is older (over 30 years); divorced, separated or widowed; has one or more dependents; and has little education. That is, disadvantaged, sole-support mothers.

Table 14.

Canada Manpower Training Programs

Female trainees by usual occupation and by occupation being trained for.
Canada, 1977-78 (% distributions)

Occupational group	Usual occupation			Occupation being trained for			Industrial Trainees
	Institutional trainees			Institutional trainees			
	Total	Skill trainees	Language trainees	BTSD trainees	Skill trainees	Apprentice- ship	
Managerial/administrative	0.3%	0.3%	0.8%	0.1%	0.7%	--	2.0%
Professional/technical - science, religion, teaching	2.7	2.6	11.3	1.3	2.6	--	4.9
-health, art, recreation	5.9	6.9	13.0	3.6	9.2	3.4	9.4
Clerical	20.0	25.1	21.4	14.1	58.8	0.1	22.0
Sales	8.5	9.4	5.0	8.0	1.3	3.5	8.1
Service	33.5	29.3	13.9	41.7	12.3	79.9	12.4
Primary occupations	1.7	2.4	1.1	1.0	5.3	0.9	1.1
Processing occupations	10.7	9.5	17.0	10.9	8.7	10.4	34.4
Transport operators, material handlers, crafts persons	4.3	3.9	4.7	4.7	0.8	0.7	4.4
Not elsewhere classified	12.4	10.6	11.8	14.6	0.3	1.1	1.3

Source: CEIC Program Analysis Division, Employment Training Branch, Unpublished statistics, 1977-78, PAD 78-137, 78-194, 78-256.

Comment:

Table [14](#) indicates the types of occupations for which women are being trained and the occupations which they held before entering training. The overall picture suggests that women are being moved into clerical occupations at an alarming rate.

The 79.9% of women in apprenticeship programs are almost all hairdressing trainees, a service occupation.

The women already employed in processing occupations are those most likely to receive industrial training (i.e. training related to a job). These women are relatively well unionized and occur in large enough numbers in this occupational group to create pressure for this type of training.

If we compare these percentages with those shown in the second column of Table [2](#), we find that female trainees come from the service occupations in larger numbers than they occur in the labour force (33.5% compared to 15%) and in much smaller proportions from clerical occupations (20% compared to 38%)

Moreover, the percentages being trained for clerical skills (58.8%) far exceeds the percentage of women who are actually employed in these occupations (38%).

The overall picture suggests that women are attempting to get out of the low-wage, low-skill service occupations and into more highly-skilled, better-paying occupations; but more are being trained for clerical occupations than are likely to find adequate employment.

Table 15.

Union membership in selected industries by sex (Canada, 1976)

<u>Industry</u>	<u>Men</u>			<u>Women</u>		
	<u>Total employed (thousands)</u>	<u>Union members</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Total employed (thousands)</u>	<u>Union members</u>	<u>%</u>
Manufacturing	1,542	705	46%	556	161	29%
Construction	685	301	44	47	4	9
Trade/commerce	1,053	88	8	716	44	6
Transportation, communications, utilities	709	365	51	173	45	43
Services	1,123	337	30	1,655	417	25
Public administration	486	307	63	235	130	55
All industries ¹	6,449	2,202	34	3,859	840	22

Sources: Labour Canada, Rights in Employment, Women in the labour force: Facts and figures, 1976 edition. (Ottawa: Supply & Services Canada, 1976).

Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1976 annual averages (December 1976). (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1976).

Comment: .

The proportion of women workers who are members of unions is lower than for men in every industry. Since 1972, the percentage of unionized women has decreased in manufacturing, transportation and public administration industries. This means that newly hired workers in these industries are not unionized. The percentage has increased in construction and service industries.

¹. Including categories not shown separately in the table.

Table 16.

Annual average earnings for full-time workers, by sex and occupation.
(Canada, 1971, 1974 and 1976).

Occupational group	Male earnings			Female earnings		
	1971	1974	1976	1971	1974	1976
Managerial	\$11,566	\$16,809	\$18,747	\$ 6,492	\$ 9,015	\$10,805
Clerical	7,139	9,661	11,045	4,801	6,253	7,157
Sales	8,377	12,063	13,758	4,059	5,638	5,545
Service	6,802	8,923	10,136	3,389	4,182	4,711
Rate of change from 1971 to 1976						
		for men	for women			
Managerial		62.1%	66.4%			
Clerical		54.7	49.1			
Sales		64.2	37.1			
Service		49.0	39.0			

Source: Labour Canada, Rights in Employment, Women in the labour force: Facts and figures, 1976 edition. (Ottawa: Supply & Services Canada, 1976).

Comment: .

Table 16 indicates that women are paid lower wages than men in all occupational categories. The rates of increase for men are generally higher for men than for women. This perpetuates the discrepancies in wages.

Note that these annual averages do not include the earnings of part-time workers. The fact that more women work part-time than men is often used as an explanation for why women's wages are lower. This may explain part of the difference but certainly not all of it.

Table 17

Adjusted lifetime earnings by sex and education (Canada, 1967).
(for full-time and part-time workers; and excluding those not in
the labour force)

<u>Education level</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Women's earnings as % of men's</u>
No education	\$106,664	\$ 36,469	34%
Some elementary	122,348	45,092	37
Elementary (complete)	157,597	52,450	33
Some high school	173,464	66,873	39
High school (complete)	212,545	96,759	46
Some university	234,524	120,357	51
University (completed 1 or more degrees)	351,635	169,327	48

Source: R. A. Holmes and Statistics Canada, Current Economic Analysis Division
Economic returns to education in Canada. Catalogue 13-556. -- (Ottawa:
Information Canada, 1974). Table 10.

Comment:

These estimates are the result of an extensive analysis of annual earnings reported by men and women in the 1967 census of Canada. The analysis yielded average lifetime earnings for men and women who work and took account of such things as: number of years worked, occupation, geographic region, etc. The report states:

"These estimates are imperfect indicators of the social value of additional education. The problems are particularly serious with females since many fall into the "did not work" or "worked part-time" groups... The estimates take no account of the social value of housewives services which, if known, would tend to offset the lower average earnings of females due to the temporary attachment of so many to the labour force. In addition, the salary structures of both males and females may be determined by influence, ignorance, or tradition as well as by the social value of the individual's work." (p. 27-28).

The report goes on to calculate that the annual rate of return on the costs of education was just over 8% for high school education and just under 8% for university education. This rate was calculated for males only. The author's conclusion was that this rate of return

justifies the public expenditure of educational costs for the education of males beyond the elementary school level.

No such conclusion is made for females.

Table 18.

Miscellaneous labour force statistics (Canada, 1977)
(Annual averages except where noted)

<u>A. Full-time/Part-time¹ employment:</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
as % of total full-time labour force:	33%	67%
as % of total part-time labour force:	71%	29%
% of sex group in full-time labour force:	78%	94%
% of sex group in part-time labour force:	22%	6%
 <u>B. Hours worked:</u>		
Full-time workers (average reported):	37.4 hours	42.8 hours
Part-time workers (average reported):	15.4 "	14.6 "
 <u>C. Time lost:</u>		
% of total workers who worked less than normal number of hours per week:	5.4%	3.7%
% of total workers not at work during average week:	7.4%	6.6%
 <u>D. Multiple job holders:</u>		
% of total workers holding more than one job:	1.8%	2.8%

E. Duration of unemployment:

Average number of weeks between jobs:	14.4 weeks	14.6 weeks
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F. Unemployment Insurance Statistics:

(December 1977 only)

Total number of beneficiaries:	341,142	482,905
Total benefits paid:	\$261,839	\$407,466
Average weekly benefits:	\$138	\$180
% of unemployment insurance beneficiaries who are minor (marginal) attachment workers (i.e. have 8 - 11 insured weeks)	33%	38%

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: 1977 annual averages. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, December 1977)

Statistics Canada, Preliminary unemployment insurance statistics: December, 1977. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, March 1978).

1. Part-time work is defined as less than 30 hours per week; full-time work as 30 or more hours per week plus those who work less than 30 hours but consider themselves to be full-time workers.

Comment:

Table 18 indicates that:

- 78% of women workers are employed full-time; 33% part-time
- 71% of all part-time workers are female.
- Full-time women workers work fewer hours per week than full-time male workers. Part-time women work more hours per week than part-time males.
- Women have higher absentee rates than men Slightly more women than men report working fewer hours per week rather than being totally absent.

- Men and women are unemployed about the same length of time.
- 41% of unemployment beneficiaries are women 39% of total unemployment benefits are paid to women 44% of the officially unemployed are women
- the weekly unemployment benefit paid to women is 77% of the male benefit.

Refer to table 20 for a further discussion of the hidden unemployed.

Table 19 a.

Leading occupations of the female labour force (Canada, 1971).

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Occupational group</u>	<u>% of female labour force in this occ.</u>	<u>Schooling required/source of training/duration/ other information (as provided by Ontario information sources)</u>
1. Secretary/ stenographer	clerical	8.1%	Grade 12 Community College 2-3 years
2. Sales clerk	sales	5.4	open ² training provided by employer
3. Bookkeeper/ accounting clerk	clerical	4.6	Grade 10 CMTP Skill Program 40 weeks
4. Elementary school teacher	teaching	4.1	Bachelor's degree plus teacher training
5. Waitress	service	3.6	open CMTP Skill Program 10 weeks
6. Teller/cashier	clerical	3.5	Grade 10 training provided by employer must be bondable
7. Farm worker	primary occ.	3.2	open
8. Nurse (graduate)	health sciences	3.1	Grade 12 or 13 Community College 2 years
9. Typist/clerk typist	clerical	2.9	Grade 10 CMTP Skill Program 40 weeks
10. General office clerk	clerical	2.7	Grade 10 training provided by employer

11. Sewing machine operator	processing/ assembler	1.9	open	CMTP Skill Program 8 weeks
12. Personal service n.e.c. ³	service	1.9	open	(eg. maid, companion, etc.)
13. Janitor/cleaner	service	1.9	open	
14. Nursing aide/orderly	health sciences	1.8	open	CMITP Skill Program 36 weeks
15. Secondary	teaching	1.7		Bachelor's degree plus teacher training school teacher

Table 19b.

Leading occupations of the male labour force (Canada. 1971).

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Occupational group</u>	<u>% of male labour force in this occ.</u>	<u>Schooling required/source of training/duration other information¹ (as provided by Ontario information sources)</u>	
1. Farmer	primary.occ	4.0%	open ²	
2. Sales supervisor	sales	3.7	open	training provided by employer
3. Truck driver	transport. equip. op	3.5	open	CMTP Skill Program 3 weeks must pass age, licence, experience criteria
4. Janitor/cleaner	service	2.0	open	
5. Motor vehicle mechanic	processing/ repairing	2.0	Grade 10	CMTP Apprenticeship regulated compulsory trade ⁴
6. Farm worker	primary occ.	1.9	open	
7. Carpenter	construction trade	1.8	Grade 8	CMTP Apprenticeship regulated voluntary trade ⁴

8. Accountant/ auditor	managerial	1.5	Bachelor's degree plus 3 years in-service training can be taken as 52 week accelerated CMTP Skill Programs ⁵
9. Sales clerk	sales	1.5	open training provided by employer
10. Armed Forces/ranks other than commissioned officer	service	1.2	Grade 10 training provided by employer
11. Bookkeeper/	clerical	1.2	Grade 10 CMTP Skill Program 40 weeks accounting clerk
12. Labourer/trades	construction	1.1	Grade 8 CMTP Skill Program 16 weeks helper trade
13. Secondary	teaching	1.1	Bachelor's degree plus teacher training school teacher
14. Salesperson n.e.c. ³	sales	1.1	open training provided by employer
15. Shipping/ receiving clerk	clerical	1.0	Grade 10 CMTP Skill Program 40 weeks

Footnotes for Tables [19a](#) and [19b](#).

1. Other information includes licensing and hiring criteria. Note that these all apply to Ontario.
2. "Open" schooling requirement indicates that no formal educational requirements are involved, but an acceptable knowledge of the language of instruction is required in all cases.
3. The designation "n.e.c." stands for "not elsewhere classified" and includes a miscellaneous assortment of jobs in that category.
4. In the regulated trades, the trainee must pass a license examination at the completion of training. In these trades, a Skill Program is generally considered to be preliminary to Apprenticeship registration. The prerequisites to any Apprenticeship program are stated in the pertinent regulations.
5. An accelerated program requires the submission of a resume on related work experience, a personal interview, and functional and aptitude tests for the program involved.

Sources: Approved list of programs (IT-78-1 Revised) as published by the Ontario Industrial Training Branch, Canada Employment and Immigration Commission.

Ontario Ministry of Labour, Women's Bureau, Career Selector (revised March 1978), (Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Labour, 1978).

Statistics Canada, 1971 Census of Canada, Occupations: Occupations by sex, Catalogue 94-717. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, Census Information Service, 1974). .

Comment:

Table [19a](#). shows the occupations of 50% of the female labour force of 2,961,210 in 1971. Note that the top 15 occupations include:

- (a) 5 clerical occupations
 - 3 service "
 - 2 teaching "
 - 2 health sciences occupations
 - 1 sales occupation
 - 1 primary "
 - 1 processing "

- (b) 7 occupations with open educational requirements
 - 4 occupations requiring Grade 10 education
 - 2 " " Grade 12 "
 - 2 " " University "

- (c) 5 occupations for which training can be obtained through CMTP/CMITP (none are in apprenticeship programs)
 - 3 occupations for which training is provided by the employer
 - 2 occupations which require community college training
 - 2 " " " teacher training

Table 19b. shows the occupations of 29% of the male labour force of 5,665,720 in 1971. Note that the top 15 occupations include:

- (a) 3 sales occupations
 - 2 service "
 - 2 clerical "

- 2 primary "
- 2 construction trades
- 1 managerial occupation
- 1 teaching "
- 1 processing "
- 1 transport equipment occupation

- (b) 7 occupations with open educational requirements.
- 2 occupations requiring Grade 8 education.
- 4 " " Grade 10 "
- 2 " " University "

- (c) 7 occupations for which training can be obtained through CMTP/CMITP
(2 of these are Apprenticeship programs)
- 4 occupations for which training is provided by the employer
- 1 occupation which requires teacher training.

The major comparisons between the two tables are:

-males have a wider choice of occupational groups than females. More females are concentrated in the top 15 occupations than males in terms of percentages.

- there are an equal number of occupations with open educational requirements suggesting that there are a number of unskilled and semi-skilled occupations for both sexes. However, note that one such occupation, Sales supervisor, appears only on the male list and this occupation represents a higher level within the occupational group than Sales clerk which appears on both lists. Note that of the 5 occupations which are common to both lists - Janitor, Sales clerk, secondary school teacher, farm worker, bookkeeper - 3 are in the low skill category.

- the educational requirements for the remaining occupations average out to a lower level on the male list than on the female list. For example, 17% of the female workers shown must have post-secondary education, while only 3% of the male workers shown must have the same level of education. Also, 1.5% of these males can take the same occupational training through a special accelerated CMTP Program without the necessary educational prerequisites.

- in training programs, the main difference is in the number of Apprenticeship programs available -- none for females; two for males.

While this is an abbreviated list and the comparisons are inconclusive, it is apparent that male occupations require slightly lower educational requirements or can be entered without the necessary educational prerequisites; that there are more training programs available for males than for females; and that there are just as many dead-end jobs for both sexes.

Table 20.

Number of unemployed and unemployment rates in 1977

	Number of unemployed		Unemployment rates		
	<u>Official</u>	<u>Hidden</u>	<u>Official</u>	<u>Hidden</u>	<u>% increase</u>
<u>Women</u>					
Total	380,000	295,000	9.4	15.6	65%
15-24 years	178,000	95,000	13.8	19.8	43%
over 24 "	202,000	200,000	7.4	13.7	85%
<u>Men</u>					
Total	482,000	192,000	7.3	9.9	36%
15-24 years	236,000	89,000	15.0	19.5	30%
over 24 "	246,000	103,000	4.9	6.8	39%

Source: R. H. Robinson, "A secondary majority: The hidden unemployed", Canadian Forum, October, 1977, pp. 15 - 18.

New Democratic Party, Jobs and women. An N.D.P. discussion paper.
Available from: Women and the New Democratic Party, 301 Metcalfe Ave.,
Ottawa, K2P 1R9. 1978.

Comment:

The following are taken directly from the article by Robinson (see above)

"As with the acknowledged unemployed, the hidden unemployed consist predominantly of young people and adult women. These two groups account for 52% of the labour force, but for 72% of the acknowledged unemployed and 79% of the hidden unemployed. To describe the attachment of these people to the labour force as marginal, because they are often not the only family income earners and because their unemployment does not lead to poverty and deprivation, is to talk in terms of the past, not the present. When 20% of young people cannot find jobs, their attachment to the labour force is marginal because they are kept out..."

"These hidden unemployed are "hidden" because they do not conform to the statistical

definition of unemployment used in the monthly labour force survey... Statistics Canada's definition leaves out the many thousands who are without work, who want to work, but who had not looked for work during the four weeks before the survey. In 1976, there were on the average 455,000 people who had lost or been laid off from their previous job. They had not quit voluntarily. But neither had they looked for work during the previous four weeks. Most of them had, however, looked for work in the previous six months, and the figures make it clear that many of them gave up because they came to the conclusion that there was no work to be found. These 455,000 people were the hidden unemployed in 1976."

Table 20 indicates that:

- the unemployment rate, official plus hidden, shows a greater increase for women than for men when compared to the official rates. The increase is greatest for adult women and least for young men.
- when the two rates are combined, the unemployment rate for young women is higher than that for young men.
- when the two rates are combined, the unemployment rate for women is almost 60% greater for women when compared to that for men.
- the official rates show that women's unemployment is only 10% greater than that for men.

When studying the figures showing seasonal unemployment, almost all the seasonal variation in the hidden unemployed is among men. This suggests that men give up looking for work for the same reasons that women do all year round -- they know there are no jobs to be found. Although they disappear from the official unemployment figures because of seasonal adjustments, they are nonetheless unemployed.

There is a constant emphasis, in discussions of unemployment, on heads of families, as if all of them were men; and a put-down to "spouses, single sons and daughters, and other relatives living in the family unit".

"... the Globe and Mail commented editorially a few months ago: 'Only two fifths of the record 889,000 unemployed in January were heads of families or single people living alone. The rest were secondary earners living at home. We are giving far too much of the unemployment insurance pool to casual workers (meaning young people and women) who do not intend to hold steady jobs. And in doing so, we jeopardize the security of genuine workers'"

The 1977 budget of the Province of Ontario contained a paper on the "Changing character of unemployment in Ontario". Among its suggestions was one to divide the labour force into primary workers -- men between 25 and 54 years of age; and secondary workers -- everyone else. Since the "secondary" labour force has increased much faster than the number of "prime-aged males", the paper contended that it was "essential to re-define the

high employment norm, that is, the level of unemployment which would exist even if the economy were operating at full capacity". What the paper says in effect is that the economy can operate at full capacity without finding a job for everyone who wants one. The paper also proposes that full employment be re-defined as occurring when there is 5.3% unemployment -- not including the hidden unemployment rate. By this method, the Ontario government proposes to deal with the problem of unemployment by defining it out of existence and then turning its attention to the problem of the unemployed demanding more than they deserve or need.

"In June 1977, only 34% of the 814,000 unemployed were heads of families or single people living alone. Also 40,000 of the 188,000 families whose heads were unemployed had at least one other so-called secondary income earner working."

Table 21.

Unemployed by reason for unemployment, by sex and educational level:

<u>Education</u>	<u>Job losers</u> ¹		<u>Job leavers</u> ²		<u>New entrants</u> ³		<u>Re-entrants</u> ⁴	
	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
0 - 8 years	45.6%	70.8%	19.3%	17.5%	7.0%	*	28.0%	10.0%
Some high school	35.1	58.1	23.8	21.5	9.1	5.6	32.1	14.8
Some post-secondary	24.3	50.0	29.7	25.0	*	*	40.5	18.2
Post-secondary certificate	31.6	53.6	28.9	25.0	*	*	36.8	*
University degree	31.3	40.0	31.3	35.0	*	*	*	*
Totals	35.0	59.7	24.5	21.6	7.6	4.0	32.7	15.0

* values too small to be of statistical significance.

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey Division, The labour force: May, 1978. Special feature: Fbws into unemployment. (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 1978).

<u>Supplementary:</u>	<u>Job losers</u>	<u>Job leavers</u>	<u>Entrants</u>	<u>Re-entrants</u>
Unemployed women by				
- prior time status				
Full-time	36%	31%	--	33%
Part-time	28%	26%	--	46%
- duration of unemployment				
less than 14 weeks	35%	20%	7%	38%
14 weeks or more	37%	31%	3%	29%
- by work being sought				
Full-time	35%	26%	7%	32%
Part-time	14%	16%	16%	54%

Reasons for leaving last job:	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Own illness	12%	12%
Personal/family responsibility	17%	5%
Going to school	4%	7%
No particular reason	4%	6%
Changed residence	15%	7%
Dissatisfied	26%	31%
Retired	--	3%
Other	21%	28%

Comment:

Table 21 suggests that unemployed women are much more likely than men to be re-entrants to the labour force; slightly more likely to be new entrants or job-leavers; and less likely to be job-losers, However, another analysis of the same figures shows that women represent:

- 32% of all job losers
- 47% of all job leavers
- 60% of all new entrants
- 63% of all re-entrants
- and 44% of all unemployed persons,

It is apparent that both men and women in the lower educational groups are more likely to lose their jobs and that the tendency to leave a job increases with increases in education.

Unemployed part-time women workers are likely to be re-entrants to the labour force. Unemployed full-time women are evenly divided.

Women who lose their job tend to be unemployed longer than other groups

The reasons for leaving a job are interesting: Women leave more often than men because of personal or family responsibilities and as a result of changing residence, Presumably this last reason is the result of having to quit a job to move with a husband who is transferred, More men than women are dissatisfied and more men quit for no particular reason.

¹. A job loser is anyone who was fired or laid-off from their former job and who began looking for work immediately and was still looking at the time of the survey.

². A job leaver is anyone who voluntarily left their former job and who started looking for work immediately and was still looking at the time of the survey.

³. A new entrant is anyone who has never been in the labour force at any previous time.

⁴. A re-entrant is anyone who has previously been a member of the labour force and who is returning after a period of absence.

Government policy and practice

A. Immigration

There are a number of concerns related to women and immigration policy. For the point of view of obstacles to learning opportunities, the most serious are the admission status under which women generally enter and the education, occupational training/skills/experience, and the language skills of individual women Briefly these concerns are as follows:

Approximately one-half of adult women immigrants are admitted to Canada under a non-working and/or dependent status. Most often they accompany their husband (often an independent immigrant) and are classed as dependent, "non-working spouses". They may also accompany other family members as a dependent, "non-working other". Or they may enter as sponsored or nominated immigrants destined to join some family member already

well-established here, again as a dependent person. The general category for all such persons in immigration statistics is "not destined for the labour force".

Immigrants who are destined for the labour force have two advantages: (a) their education, occupational training/skills/experience, and language skills are assessed at the time of application. This assessment then becomes a matter of record and can be drawn on as a credential of sorts; and (b) the independent immigrant is eligible for assistance from the CEIC for finding and securing a job; defraying the costs of settlement; occupational training to bring him/her up to Canadian standards and requirements in the assessed occupation; and language training to bring his/her fluency in French or English up to the level necessary in his/her job.

Immigrants who are not destined for the labour force are not assessed and are classed as unskilled labour. The CEIC considers that unskilled labourers does not require further training unless there are no jobs to be found. In terms of language training the following passage from a policy review document sets out the position taken by the CEIC:

"Language training for immigrants ... is intended to help persons who cannot obtain work in their normal occupation because they lack fluency in the relevant official language. Recent studies, however, show that in many cases it is not being provided to the right people. A significant proportion of trainees withdraw from the labour force after training, many of them "to keep house". The great majority of persons in this group are dependents. The intention, therefore, is to provide language courses with training allowances primarily to immigrants, who made independent applications, since these are the ones who have been selected for their ability to contribute skills to Canada's economy. Language training without allowances may be offered in some cases to immigrants in other categories, although there are many low-cost courses available to them through both public and private agencies in Canada."^l (underlining ours)

The dependent status has other ramifications such as:

i.) the contributions of such women to the economic and social aspects of Canadian life are underestimated in research, planning and policy development and implementation. They are assumed to make no contribution, therefore, no one bothers to look closely at what they in fact are contributing to both the economy and the society. Since they are rarely included in social or economic studies, they are assumed to have no needs which are the responsibility of the government; and therefore, no social services are planned. This type of argument which is based on a false assumption becomes a vicious circle. Interested groups cannot obtain the money to conduct the research on their own because the target population has no needs, because the government says so.

ii.) an immigrant woman who is well-educated and highly trained for some occupation may have difficulty finding employment through lack of Canadian experience or training or through poor fluency in French or English. If she is an independent immigrant she can receive help on the same basis as is provide to all independent immigrants. However, if she is a dependent, she becomes dependent still further on the discretion of the manpower officer who handles her case. She may be dealt with as an unskilled labourer and told Manpower cannot help her. She may receive some refusal on the basis of some rule about two members of one family not both receiving manpower assistance. She may be referred to a social agency, She may be granted admission to the course best suited to her needs. The most consistent element in all this is of consistency in the way immigrant women in particular are dealt with by CMC counselors. This is the direct result of a lack of an affirmative policy on the eligibility of women for training programs, at least none which have reached the implementation stage. However, the policy does not deal in any affirmative way with immigrant women.

iii.) although some women who immigrate are well-educated and trained, the greater number are untrained in any occupation and functionally illiterate by Canadian standards (i.e. less than grade 9 education). Further, they may be as illiterate in their own language as they are in French or English. Some immigrants may have schooling only up to grade 5, the limit of compulsory education in some countries. Those who immigrate from countries with a "British" system of education are generally better educated and have fewer problems adjusting to the Canadian system of education. To begin to train such women for any occupation might require extensive English/French as a Second Language classes or basic education classes. The CEIC will not fund any classes below the Grade 7 level. Persons with educational needs below that level must obtain their education from other agencies.

iv.) the dependent status has an overall diffuse negative effect on the immigrant woman. This is particularly true if she comes from a culture which places a high value on the contributions a woman makes both within the family and within the larger society. Such women have always held a status that is derived from being an interdependent and equal (albeit different) partner in the family and the social structure. To reduce them to the level of an unequal and dependent person may be a severe blow to their self-esteem, which then compounds the problems related to education, training and language.

¹. "The Canada Manpower Training Program. A policy review: September, 1977" Employment and Immigration Canada, Manpower Training Branch, 1977. pp. 15-16.

Another concern related to women and immigration policy which has an indirect influence on learning opportunities, is that the CEIC holds formidable enforcement powers in relation to all immigrants. The dependent immigrant is more likely to run afoul of those powers than the independent one. The Commission has the right to enforce its own laws; and its officials serve as accuser, judge, jury and executioner on appeals made against their own decisions. This power is particularly offensive to immigrant women who are brought here under contract to provide cheap household services. If they should attempt to change their status, or if they should be accused of the crime of prostitution, they are immediately liable to be deported. This is true if they attempt to change their status from worker to student, or from student to worker, or even just their marital status.

One further policy which is very difficult to avoid is the policy of the CEIC to not provide any statistics which indicate the breakdown of men and women participating in various activities. This is true for occupational training statistics as well as for deportation statistics. The Commission holds to a policy that there shall be no sexual discrimination and that, therefore, statistics should not reflect any sexual differences. This means we cannot easily obtain a picture of how women are being treated by the various branches of the Commission. For example, we do not know the major reasons for deporting women nor how these might relate to learning opportunities. The only statistics on immigration which are readily available are those on the total numbers of women who enter as immigrants, their ages and marital status. Statistics of other types must come from census figures and labour force data.

Finally, we would like to bring to your attention two situations in which groups of women have developed learning programs for immigrant women which appear to be successful and creative. These two programs are as follows:

a.) The Manpower Industrial Training Program (CMITP) can be used to provide language courses for immigrant workers who are already employed and who would benefit from increased fluency in the relevant official language. For example, in Vancouver a combined effort among several community agencies resulted in English language programs for workers at Jantzen of Canada Limited. The teacher and learning resources were provided by the Vancouver Community College, and the workers wages for the time spent in class by Jantzen and CMITP. The course evaluation shows that trainees developed a better understanding of their work situation and procedures, improved their comprehension of workrelated vocabulary, and reduced their absenteeism and their need for interpreters. The trainees had never been able to take language classes outside work hours, even though many wanted to. Their response to the course and the instructors was positive. Their only negative response was that the course was too short. Most wanted to continue to receive this type of instruction at their place of work. The courses were held at 7:45 a.m. for one hour, five days per week, for six weeks. The costs were shared three ways and amounted to \$7.48 per student hour. Of this total, \$2.22 was paid by the Vancouver Community College; \$2.70 by Jantzen of Canada Ltd.; and \$2.56 by CMITP. This was a pilot project developed through the efforts of the Immigrant Women's

Advocate Committee of Vancouver.¹

¹. B. Lund, "Evaluation of the English language training program for immigrant women workers at Jantzen of Canada Limited: Final Report". (Vancouver: City of Vancouver, Department of Social Planning, 1976).

b.) As with many other educational resources, those developed for ESL, literacy and basic upgrading programs are inclined to present a stereotyped view of woman as a dependent and depressed person; in child-rearing and home-making roles or subservient occupational roles; as lacking in creativity and so on. These resources are developed largely in the United States and therefore, compound the problem by presenting the typical "American" woman rather than the typical Canadian woman. This tends to make ESL classes more difficult to conduct without relevant material on the Canadian way of life. A team of teachers working out of St. Christopher House in Toronto have done a content analysis of such material and found it sadly lacking. They are presently developing their own material by using Freire methodology. They have found that such material not only provides the necessary resources for language learning, but also facilitates changes in self-perceptions and self-esteem.¹

¹. "Literacy: Charitable enterprise or political right?" Prepared by the Literacy Working Group, the St. Christopher House, 84 Augusta Avenue, Toronto, Ontario, M5T 2L1. (October, 1977).

B. Manpower and Employment

These two policy areas are administered under the single concept of employment and provide two directions: to increase the demand for workers and to supply the workers necessary to meet this demand. On the demand side policies relate to job creation schemes. On the supply side policies relate to the provision of information on labour market conditions to both employers and employees; to the availability of skilled workers in the occupations, industries and geographic areas where they are needed; and to the training, counseling, referral and hiring of workers.

These policies are complex and require a more extensive treatment than is possible in this report. Those selected for discussion appear to have some significance for CLOW.

1. There are several shifts taking place in CEIC policy which, in combination with shifts in the labour market, may work against women. These shifts are:

- CEIC plans to shift its emphasis away from alleviating unemployment through training programs and moving toward providing training in areas of economic and employment growth. The recent review of Manpower programs states that:

"... funds are disproportionately allocated to Provinces having high unemployment rates and relatively few job opportunities. This effort to utilize training as a means of alleviating unemployment has not produced the desired results. The time has now come to orient training program expenditures more firmly towards those occupations and regions where the majority of job opportunities exist or are likely to emerge in the near future..."¹

The net result is a shifting of training expenditures so that, while no region will actually decline in CMTP funds (unless there are further cutbacks), the five western regions from Ontario to British Columbia will expand in training services. The eastern regions, from Newfoundland to Quebec, which tend to have high unemployment rates, will have no further increases in training expenditures. This will result in increased competition for training places, a competition in which women will be at a disadvantage.

¹ CEIC, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review" (Ottawa: CEIC, Manpower Training Branch, 1977), pp. 11 - 12.

- CEIC plans to shift away from job creation programs which tend to provide jobs in the service-producing industries (as typified by L.I.P. and O.F.Y.) and towards job creation programs in the goods-producing industries (as typified by the Canada Works program and the Department of Regional Economic Expansion). The goods-producing industries are those in which women tend to be under-represented (20% in goods-producing vs. 46% in service-producing). These industries also tend to provide low-wage, low-skill jobs for women or to require training in occupations which are non-traditional for women. Such occupations also tend to be controlled, in both training and hiring, by male-dominated unions. Further these job creation schemes are likely to provide more funds, and hence more training opportunities, in those regions where there is economic growth (i.e. Ontario to B.C.).

- the area of the labour force which is expanding most rapidly for women is in the skilled non-unionized clerical, technical and managerial occupations in the service-producing sector. These require both high schooling levels and high skill levels. The woman who benefits most from this expansion has probably already completed secondary school and has at least some occupational training, the more recent the better since technical skills change rapidly in today's market.

- a fourth shift is designed to ensure that all components of the Training Program serve the central purposes of the legislation (the Adult Occupational Training Act):

- to get the trainee into a job or improve his/her earning potential; and
- to fill the national skill requirements and priorities of industry, particularly in areas of employment growth.

To this end, training funds will be reduced for BTSD and Language programs¹, and expanded for Occupational, Apprenticeship, and Industrial programs. The following 1977-78 data suggest how this shift will affect women:²

<u>Training Program</u>	<u>Distribution of female trainees</u>		<u>Distribution of male trainees</u>		<u>Distribution of total trainees</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
Institutional:						
Occupational skill	26,869	35.0%	43,083	25.0%	69,952	28.1%
Language	4,401	5.7	3,535	2.1	7,936	3.2
BTSD	24,270	31.6	19,690	11.4	43,960	17.7
Apprenticeship	1,580	2.1	55,813	32.4	57,393	23.0

Industrial:

Special Needs	1,899	2.4	4,593	2.7	6,492	2.6
Unemployed	11,421	14.9	23,154	13.5	34,575	13.9
Employment threatened	156	0.2	541	0.3	697	0.3
Employed	6,220	8.1	21,714	12.6	27,934	11.2
Total	76,816	100.0%	172,123	100.0%	248,939	100.0%

¹. CEIC, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review", p. 23

². CEIC, Program Analysis Division, Employment Training Branch, unpublished statistics.

Our conclusions about this shift in training funds is that:

- the shift of funds away from BTSD and Language programs will adversely affect 37.3% of female trainees and 20.9% of male trainees.
- the shift of funds towards Occupational, Apprenticeship and Industrial programs will positively affect 62.7% of female trainees and 79.1% of male trainees.
- of the total trainees involved in BTSD and Language programs, 55.2% are female.
- of the total trainees involved in Occupational, Apprenticeship, and Industrial programs, 24.4% are female.

Our general conclusions about all these shifts in funding, job creation programs and labour force expansion, would be:

- women will be more adversely affected by men.
- unless more women are admitted to Occupational, Apprenticeship, and Industrial programs, the proportion of women in the total of all training programs will decrease
- women in Ontario, British Columbia, and the Prairie regions will theoretically have access to more training funds but in practice may only hold the proportion they now have.
- women in Quebec and the Atlantic regions will have access to fewer funds in both theory and practice.

The net result of these shifts is to produce more obstacles for the under-educated, untrained, older woman and increasing benefits to the educated, recently-trained, younger woman. The obstacles and benefits will tend to perpetuate themselves as the market becomes more selective in hiring practices and recent training becomes more vital. In fact, it seems possible that the more the system educates and trains women who already have

some education and training, the greater the obstacles will become for those with little or none. The education/training system tends to reward those who have already entered or who have never left, and to hinder those who are not now in it by reason of having left at an early age or of having never entered.

2. The CEIC has established a strict non-sexist policy which is outlined in the Women's Employment Section Plan of Action (see [Appendix A](#)). The major objectives of this policy are described as:

"to actively promote the development of labour market conditions in which the economic potential of the female labour market is fully tapped and to support women workers in their pursuit of economically viable and self-fulfilling employment."

Each year the Plan of Action is updated to include specific plans which are designed to meet specific objectives. The 1975 report of the Advisory Council on the Status of Women outlines a number of these plans which have already been implemented. For example: ¹

- the program called "Employment Orientation for Women" is designed to upgrade the basic skills of those women who require such skills to be assured a better position in the labour market.
- the Creative Job Search Technique trains women in methods of identifying suitable job openings and familiarizing them with application forms, resumes, and other techniques.
- the filmstrip "Women in business: A management view", encourages employers to promote and hire women in professional and technical positions.
- the Special Needs Branch of Manpower develops special Outreach Programs which are designed to extend services to women whose special needs are not being met by CMCs and for experimenting with new types of services. These programs are normally contracted out to community agencies which are better suited to this type of service delivery.

The effectiveness and extent of any of these plans of action has yet to be determined. The Outreach programs, in particular, are currently under review and women have been eliminated as a special target group. Women will still be served but only as members of other target groups, such as native people, disabled, handicapped, etc. Implementation of other plans is currently underway. Such activities take time and are greatly hampered by government cutbacks and uncertainties in budgeting. The Women's Employment Section was reluctant to allow publication of the more specific plans of action, since these are subject to change.

¹ The Hon. Marc Lalonde, Minister of Health and Welfare, "Report of the Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1975" (Ottawa: Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1975).

There is one aspect of the general policy statement which needs to be considered. It is readily apparent that violations of sex discrimination prohibitions can only be dealt with by the Commission through "recommendations" to the employer. Refusing to fill or consider any future job orders from such employers appears to be self-defeating. Only the federal government and its various agencies are required by law to comply with this policy. Other than that it is up to the individual woman to file a complaint with the human rights commission.

3. Successful job search techniques are a critical issue for women seeking employment. The Economic Council of Canada, in its 1976 study on the Canadian labour market, makes the following point:

"The most successful search method was to go directly to employers. Canada Manpower Centres (CMCs) are used extensively, but with only limited success. Fewer than one in six job-searchers (17%) find employment through CMCs, although three out of four (75%) contact the Centres."

"Conversely, CMCs fill between two-thirds and three-quarters of the 1 to 1.5 million jobs registered with them by employers."

"In Canada, as in most other countries, neither employers nor employment agencies are obliged to register their vacancies with CMCs. The CMC counselors thus handle only an estimated 25 to 30 percent of total hirings. Moreover, the jobs registered with CMCs tend to include a disproportionate number with low wages and low-skill requirements, or they are in the high-turnover primary sectors. These conditions obviously have an adverse effect on the public image and effectiveness of CMCs."

"And, since most UIC and employable welfare claimants are referred to CMCs, in anyone month, there is likely to be six times as many clients seeking jobs as there are jobs registered by employers two out of three CMC referrals to employers are turned away."¹

The outcome of this peculiar set of conditions is that the women most in need of assistance and least likely to use private employment agencies (eg Welfare mothers, immigrant women, under-educated women, etc.) are the ones who most often request assistance from CMCs, and receive referrals to unskilled and semi-skilled jobs which pay poorly and offer little hope of self-fulfillment, advancement, or self-improvement. At the same time, CMCs are likely to receive a distorted picture of women seeking employment

in that the greater proportion of their clients are likely to be untrained and under-educated.

¹ Economic Council of Canada, People and jobs: A study of the Canadian labour market. (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1976), p. 16.

The patterns by which women are hired and/or referred to jobs or to CMTP programs tend to become self-perpetuating through a cyclical process which is hard to alter:

- women who go to CMCs are most often untrained, under-educated, and/or require language skills;
- CMCs offer jobs, many of which are low-skill and low-wage;
- women continue to be referred to these low-skill, low-wage jobs;
- women tend to be employed in low-wage and often low-skilled jobs in the clerical and service occupations (i.e. traditional occupations)
- target quotas in CMTP programs which are non-traditional for women are based on statistical data about employment patterns, client characteristics, predicted labour market conditions, "reasonable expectations" for employment; and a factor which could be called a "goodness-of-heart" target for encouraging women's participation in non-traditional occupations. When the target quotas are reached no more women are referred to that program.
- getting into a non-traditional CMTP program is one thing, getting hired is another. At present only those women who finish at the top of their class are hired and these women are likely to have been partially trained and relatively well-educated to start with.

The point at which one would intervene in this system is not clear. We could push for affirmative action programs in the CEIC and/or in the hiring industries; we could encourage good women to enter non-traditional occupations and become pioneering "token" women; we could provide support for those women who are already in these pioneering positions; we could find ways to ensure that young women do not drop out of secondary school before completion.

4. Unskilled women of low educational attainment are the most poorly served by CMTP programs. This problem is the result of restrictive rules and lack of clarity in the policies involved.

The AOT Act states that an adult can be enrolled in a CMTP program is, in the opinion of the CMC counselor, the course will provide that adult with "the necessary skills to increase his/her earning capacity, or his/her opportunities for employment". The underlying assumptions suggest that:

- the applicant should be already in the labour force and earning money (i.e. be classifiable as employed or unemployed and seeking work).
- there should be positions available now or in the near future for the occupational skill involved.
- the applicant's skill area should have a higher level of skill for which one can be trained in a training program.
- increasing one's skills will increase "reasonable prospects" for employment and increased earning capacity.

Further, the AOT Act includes a "one-year rule" which states (in varying forms from various sources) that:

"... trainees must have spent one year in the work force before becoming eligible for a federally-sponsored training course" ¹

"... adults must have been out of school for any twelve consecutive months preceding registration in a training program." ²

"... (the rule) serves to make a useful distinction between the clients of provincial education systems and the adult workers for whom the AOT Act was introduced." ^b

The underlying assumptions appear to suggest that women should have previously been in the labour force. Note that housekeeping and parenting are not considered as activities which put a woman in the labour force, unless she does it for a wage for an unrelated family. Therefore, the woman who has never worked but who has raised several children may, or then again may not, be eligible for a training program. Such a decision is at the discretion of individual CMC counselors.

The AOT Act also specifies two "52-week rules". The first limits a trainee to 52 weeks of academic upgrading and/or language training; the second to 52 weeks of occupational training. The limit on academic upgrading is particularly hard for women since the occupations which are traditional for them often require relatively higher academic attainment levels and lead to relatively well-paid jobs, or require no particular academic level and lead to minimum wage, unskilled jobs. Occupations which are traditional for men can often be entered with a minimum of education through the apprenticeship system. These occupations provide wages above minimum levels and may even involve further training through CMITP programs.

¹ The Hon. D. D. Everett (Chair.), "Report of the Standing Senate Committee of National Finance on Canada Manpower: 1975". (Ottawa: Government of Canada, 1976), p. 80

² The Hon. Marc Lalonde, Minister of Health and Welfare, "Report of the Advisory Council on the Status of Women: 1975" (Ottawa: Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1975), p. 37

³ CEIC, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review, 1977" (Ottawa: CEIC, 1977), pp. 8 - 9.

Each potential trainee must pass a functional level (academic) test for the level established as a prerequisite for the skill program involved. Simple completion of that grade level in a provincial educational system will not suffice. If the trainee requires upgrading she is referred to a BTSD (Basic Training for Skills Development) program. These are of varying duration. BTSD II covers Grades 7 and 8 and is planned to take 36 weeks. BTSD III covers Grades 9 and 10 and is planned to take 32 weeks.¹ As indicated in the 1977 policy review, Manpower plans to phase out BTSD programs above and below these levels.² Since women's training programs often require fairly high educational levels and since women who have been out of school or the labour force for progressively longer periods of time tend to test out at progressively lower functional levels, the end result is that women may find they require more than 52 weeks of academic upgrading to reach the functional level required.

The same difficulty relates to the 52 week limit for occupational training. While regular programs are normally no longer than 52 weeks, there are several occupations which are traditional for women and which require 2 or 3 years of training, but are not covered by CMTP programs. For example, Early Childhood Education worker requires 1 year beyond a university degree; Child Care worker requires 2 to 3 years beyond Grade 12; Registered Nurse requires 2 years beyond Grade 12, and so on.³

In the traditional male occupations (i.e. non-traditional for women), there is a wider variety of CMTP programs which can be completed within the 52 week limit. But since women are not normally hired in these areas, they are not often referred for these training programs.

The end result of all these rules is that a woman who applies for occupational assistance with a CMC and who might benefit from occupational training may not receive much support, either financial, emotional or social, if:

- she doesn't already have some recognizable skill;
- she cannot prove through a functional level test that she is capable of performing academically at an acceptable level;
- she doesn't have some experience as a previous member of the labour force;
- she wants training in an occupational area requiring more than 52 weeks of course work.

¹. Approved list of programs (IT-78-1 Revised) as published by the Ontario Industrial Training Branch, CEIC.

². CEIC, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review, 1977" (Ottawa: CEIC, 1977), p. 15

³. Ontario Ministry of Labour, Women's Bureau, Career Selector (Revised March, 1978). (Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Labour, 1978).

5. There appears to be a set of rising expectations related to the educational requirements used to determine admission to occupational training programs and to the jobs available in those occupations. The National Council of Welfare, in a report on Canada's working poor, states that:

"Educational requirements often bear little or no sensible relation to the skills and aptitudes actually needed for a job. When these requirements are boosted unnecessarily, a double form of under-employment results. More educated workers are forced to accept jobs: that previously called for lower qualifications, while less educated workers are squeezed into worse jobs or out of the market altogether." ¹

This may work a particular hardship for women. They tend to be under-employed now (i.e. not employed at the level for which they were educated and trained). This is partly the result of current employment conditions; partly the result of the necessity of accepting any job for economic reasons; and partly the result of women often being overlycautious in taking risks and reluctant to learn on-the-job or to apply for positions until they are thoroughly trained (and often over-trained).

This problem increases as the employment and economic conditions worsen. Those who already have jobs begin to demand protection, often through raising the education/training required as hiring criteria.

As the supply of well-educated workers increases, the educational screening also increases. This in turn raises the educational prerequisites for occupational training and increases the need for academic upgrading. The more upgrading a trainee requires, the less likely that she will be accepted.

When the educational requirement for any occupation reaches the post-secondary level, women are at a distinct disadvantage. Fewer than 15% of young women go on to attend post-secondary institutions, while more than 20% of young men attend. Since the occupations requiring the highest educational and training levels also carry the largest wages, women lose out in both jobs and wages.

The general outcome of these rising expectations with respect to CMTP programs is that, in the future, they will likely cater more and more to those who already have some secondary education (and possibly some occupational training), and less and less to those without.

¹ National Council of Welfare, Jobs and poverty: A report on Canada's working poor. (Ottawa: National Council of Welfare, 1977), p. 24.

6. The CEIC takes a dim view of providing academic upgrading to adult trainees. The recent review of Manpower programs has identified BTSD programs (Basic Training for Skill Development) as a major soft-spot in terms of its effectiveness (read cost-benefit) in either getting trainees into jobs or into skill training courses. BTSD was originally seen as compensating for past inadequacies in educational opportunities, mainly by giving a second chance to older workers. However, over one-third of BTSD trainees are now under 20 years of age. Moreover, a significant number of trainees have already completed Grade 10 at secondary school. The report goes on to say that:

"(BTSD programs) do not accord with the primary aim of Manpower Training, to recycle workers for the labour force rather than to substitute for the provincial education system. Accordingly, it is intended to limit ... the application of the BTSD component, so that training is provided to those adults for whom it was originally intended and whose needs are for employment."¹

While the report indicates that the new guidelines are intended to limit the number of trainees under 20 years of age, we also read the report as planning to limit the enrolment of women in BTSD programs. Note from Tables 12 and 13 that BTSD women trainees are more likely to be over 20 years of age. Only one-fifth are under 20 years. If over one-third of all BTSD trainees are under 20 years, as the report states, then most of these must be men.

The Minister responsible for the CEIC, states in one report that BTSD trainees can be interpreted as a failure on the part of the provincial educational systems. He goes on to say that:

"What happened to them in the past or, whether it is their fault or the fault of the educational system, does not enter into it. They are now on our doorstep ... requiring employment ... and their skills are such, by virtue of having dropped out, or whatever the reasons, that they cannot get a job unless they have this training."²

BTSD programs, therefore, represent a conflict in the constitutional jurisdiction between the federal and provincial systems, and women tend to fall into the empty space between the two. The CEIC views women as secondary earners with only marginal (or minor) attachments to the labour force or as housekeepers who are not part of the labour force; and, therefore, not as a major priority within their jurisdiction. The provincial educational systems view drop-outs as individual failures, rather than as failures of the system; and, therefore, not as a priority within their jurisdiction. As economic resources become more limited, the under-educated female learner becomes a lower and lower priority. The less able she is to pay her own way, the lower she goes on the priority list.

What we really need is no-fault education in which neither the system nor the individual is viewed as a failure and in which the problem is to be fixed rather than the blame. Interestingly, it appears that women are more often viewed as individual failures (she didn't try hard enough the first time' around), while men are more likely to be viewed as failures of the system ! (what can a boy expect from a female-dominated profession).

The issue of constitutional rights and the provision of education and/or training is a major problem area which has the potential for being used both as a way to divert our attention from our primary concerns about women's access to CMTP programs and as a way to reduce the CEIC budget. For example, one recent decision was that CMCs and CECs will no longer participate in local Career Days at secondary schools. The conflict is both a budgetary cutback and a constitutional problem. The result is that young women will have even less information about occupations and training than they have now.

¹. CEIC, Manpower Training Branch, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review". (Ottawa: CEIC, Manpower Training Branch, 1977), p. 14.

². Standing Senate Committee on National Finance (Hon. D.D. Everett, Chairman), Report of the Standing Senate Committee on National Finance on Canada Manpower. An examination of the Manpower Division, Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1975. (Ottawa: Government of Canada, 1976), p. 81

7. The unionization of women, while not a responsibility of the CEIC, has a direct bearing on CMTP programs, particularly on Industrial and Apprenticeship programs. To become a registered apprentice, a woman must have a job in the field and this often involves requiring permission to join the appropriate union. In an economic recession, unions may attempt to protect the positions of their current members by refusing new admissions. Some unions use these and other policies, such as the absence of washroom facilities, to exclude women from membership; and also from the apprenticeship program. If women are to gain greater access to these training programs, the CEIC will need to work directly with both the provincial educational institutions and the unions to facilitate both training and future employment. CCLOW could assist in this process by supporting current female union members in their efforts to improve conditions for unionized women workers.

8. The methods by which the level of unemployment is calculated have an effect on the admission of women to training programs. The labour force survey defines the labour force as those who are working or who have a job ("employed") and those who are looking for work ("unemployed"). Those who do not fall into either of these two categories are considered to be "not in the labour force". Therefore, a woman who does not have a job is not unemployed unless she is actively seeking work. Since CMTP programs are designed to "recycle the labour force", we can assume that those who are not in it receive the lowest priority in terms of training places.

To be classed as unemployed a woman must fill several very specific criteria and must maintain these activities, often over many weeks. These are:

- if she has no job, she must have actively looked for work in the past four weeks. This means she must conduct a job search by answering ads, contacting a CMC or private employment agency, go for interviews, etc. The labour force survey only asks if she has looked. The Unemployment Insurance, Commission (U.I.C.) requires proof of a job search; and in some cases, requires more, more extensive, and more intensive searches of women than it does of men. If a woman cannot satisfy the U.I. officer, she will be disentitled from her U.I. benefits.

- in addition, she must be "available for work" at all times. To be "available for work" means to be a full-time student seeking part-time work; to have no reason why she cannot take a job; or, if she cannot take a job, it is because of 'own illness or disability', 'personal or family responsibility', or already have a job which begins within 4 weeks or from which she has been laid-off for 26 weeks or less.

- if she is the mother of small children she is expected to have a baby sitter or day care services "on call".

Many women would be hard pressed to fulfill these criteria and to keep it up for 20, 30 or 40 weeks. The result is that women frequently withdraw voluntarily from the labour force (or are involuntarily defined out of it), and "simply return to housekeeping". More often they withdraw from becoming discouraged, from not being able to keep a baby sitter on call, from not being able to meet the job search requirements, from not being able or

willing to move and so on. There is no data on how many women withdraw voluntarily because of sexual harassment or sexual discrimination which makes finding a suitable job very difficult.

Therefore, the data on unemployment may not be totally accurate. If such data are used to assist in the determination of target quotas or to decide on a woman's admission to a training program, errors could be made. The CEIC appears to believe that women are quitters, although this writer could obtain no data to support this "fact".

A distinction is made between structural unemployment or the mismatching of supply and demand through (eg.) lack of training, inflated educational/training requirements, geographic immobility; cyclical unemployment or an insufficient aggregate demand in the economy through (eg.) recession; frictional unemployment or variations as job seekers are being matched with available jobs through (eg.) seasonal unemployment, student summer unemployment; and insurance-induced unemployment or the result of legislation affecting the status of the unemployed through (eg.) sick leave, maternity leave, strikes, etc. Women are viewed as less susceptible than men to cyclical and frictional unemployment (although this will change as participation rates increase); as more susceptible to structural unemployment; and as equally but differentially affected by insurance-induced unemployment:¹ Since the Manpower Division has decided to divert training funds away from solving unemployment of any kind and to direct funds toward employment growth in favourable regions, it seems likely that the structural unemployment women experience will remain unalleviated and will grow steadily worse.

9. The manner in which Manpower Training allowances are paid and the amount of these allowances are currently undergoing change. These changes involve:

(a) the rates which govern training allowances have been changed effective October 2nd, 1978. These changes are as follows (see Appendix B, p. C-78):

- dependent trainees is irrelevant)	living with spouse or parent (number of dependents : was \$45; is now \$10 per week
- independent trainees	living alone with no dependents: was \$79; is now \$60 per week
- independent trainees	living with one dependent: was \$90; is now \$80 per week
- independent trainee	living with two dependents: was \$97 ; is now \$95 per week
- independent trainee	living with three dependents: was \$103; is now \$110 per week

- independent trainee

living with four or more dependents: was \$109; is now \$125 per week

¹ M. Gunderson, "Work patterns" in G.C.A. Cook (ed.) Opportunity for choice. (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1976), p. 107.

Any shortfall in income, as compared to expenses, must be covered by provincial and municipal welfare assistance. Since 80% of female trainees are classed as having no dependents and 40% are married, we can assume that the majority will receive either \$10 or \$60 per week. For a 30-hour training week, this amounts to 33¢ and \$2.00 per hour. This is hardly in keeping with the position expressed by Jean Marchand in the House of Commons on March 3, 1967, when he stated that:

"Manpower training is work and should be rewarded accordingly." The CEIC defines the head of the household as automatically being the husband in a husband-wife family. In such families the wife is always a dependent even if she supports her own children or if her husband is unemployed and she is the primary earner. Women who live with a man, even though not married, run the risk of being classed as dependent trainees, in the same manner as a wife. This is a major inconsistency when compared with the definition used by the Census of Canada (1976). This survey defined the head of the household as being either a man or a woman, in all types of family units, and the decision about who is assigned the status of head is made by the family members themselves. The only qualification is that the person designated must be 15 years of age or older.

(b) Manpower allowances were integrated with U.I. benefits at the same time. Now, a trainee who is eligible for both training allowance and U.I. benefits is entitled to the higher of these two amounts. Since Manpower pays both sexes at the same rate and since the average U.I. benefit paid to women in 1977 was \$138 and to men was \$180, women will be short-changed on this arrangement.

(c) The third change is still in the planning stage and involves integrating manpower allowances and U.I. benefits into the federal-provincial Social Security plan and providing support incomes to family units rather than to individuals. The 1977 Manpower review states:

"Income maintenance schemes should seek to cover those in need without undermining the basic incentive to work or distorting programs, such as training, which have other primary objectives. It is our intention that trainees will receive from the training program such reimbursements for expenses and incentives as may be necessary but will no longer receive income maintenance payments as such from this source."¹

How women will be affected by such changes is not predictable but it seems imperative that CLOW have some input to the discussions involved.

¹ CEIC, "The Canada Manpower Training Program: A policy review, 1977" (Ottawa: CEIC, 1977), p. 22.

10. A recent study on the "Economic returns to education in Canada"(Table 17) calculated the yearly rate of return on the cost of educating men as 8% ¹ No rate was calculated for women. The authors concluded that expenditures on the education of men were justified but made no such claim for women. This raises some serious questions about the economic justification of educational expenditures for women which should be addressed through an intensive study. We should be concerned that education is being defined in this case solely in economic terms, with no evaluation of the social benefits such as health, well-being, quality of life and so on.

If women are to counter this type of thinking we need to find ways of analyzing education according to value indicators which are relevant to women's concerns. We do not know, for example, how much it costs to maintain a woman at her various ages and stages of life in our society. We do not know how this compares to the costs of maintaining a man; nor do we know how these costs are affected by education. Other social indicators might be:

- how do educational levels relate to the frequency of child abuse, alcoholism, stress-related medical problems, etc. All of these can be translated into economic terms.

- how many families would require welfare assistance if the mother did not work? Does the level of education of the woman in such families relate to the frequency and amount of assistance required?

- does the frequency and level of involvement in educational activities over a lifetime relate to longevity and/or to the individual's need for medical or financial assistance in the senior years?

It seems imperative that such a study should examine education using social indicators defined in terms relevant to a woman's life rather than to a man's life. The study mentioned above is based on total earnings over a lifetime. Perhaps this is irrelevant to a woman's life or at least, not the most important indicator of the value of education.

11. In a study on the authority, responsibility and control women have within their white-collar occupations, it was found that: ²

- women work with machines more often than men (67% compared to 35%)
- women do not deal with complex procedures as often as men (52% vs. 79%).
- women hold jobs which are not integrated into the main production process of the firm more often than men (54% vs. 21%)

¹. R. A. Holmes in cooperation with Statistics Canada, Current Economic Analysis Division, Economic returns to education in Canada, Catalogue 13-556, (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1974), p. 28.

². M. P. Marchak, "The Canadian Labour force: Jobs for women" in M. Stephenson (ed.) Women in Canada (revised ed.), (Don Mills, Ont.: General Publishing Co. Limited, 1977).pp. 149 - 151.

The reasons given by employers for this unequal representation of women in positions of control and responsibility were: ¹

- women are less well educated than men and so cannot perform creative and complex tasks;
- women are not committed to their jobs and tend to leave the labour force to have families;
- women have higher absentee rates than men because they are less able to keep up the pace of daily work, or because they are inclined to stay home when the children are ill; and
- women do not wish to take on more responsible jobs.

When the researchers investigated these opinions and compared them to reality, they found that: ²

- even within the same educational level and the same occupations, men take top jobs.
- women are less well represented in the labour force during the childbearing years but many return at a later time. These years are not defined as economically productive nor are mothers defined as being "in the labour force", because they do "work around the house". However, 52% of the mothers who had returned to the labour force had been participating 10 years or more; 33% had been participating between 5 and 10 years. Such lengths of time are not "temporary".
- absentee rates are slightly higher for women than for men. However, the rates for total absence from work are nearly equal, while women are more likely than men to work fewer hours than normal in a week. (refer to table 18).
- of the women interviewed, 55% wanted management jobs with more responsibility; but only 28% thought it possible they might be offered such a job, 34% expected no further promotions (compared to 17% of the men), and 34%

thought they were at the top of their present skill area (compared to 29% of the men). Only 22% of the women held a realistic expectation for a supervisory or management level position as compared to 37% of the men. When the employers were asked about these expectations, far fewer than 22% agreed with the women about their opportunities for promotion.

The researchers proposed several alternative explanations for the fact that women hold less responsible and less authoritative jobs than men. These are: ³

- more women take part-time jobs that do not lead to promotions (22% of women compared to only 6% of male workers - refer to table 18).
- married women are less geographically mobile than men and will not move to other areas for promotion. We could find no current figures in this area.
- women are discriminated against by employers who hold negative stereotypes. In some cases this leads to discouragement and voluntary quitting by women. In other cases, employers use sexual harassment, and again women quit voluntarily rather than trying to change the employers behaviour.
- women are easily replaced. There is a link between easy irreplaceability and low resistance to exploitation particularly at the unskilled and semi-skilled levels or when the supply of unemployed workers is large. The more women we train in skills where there are already many women workers (such as in clerical occupations), the more likely that employed workers will be threatened with potential unemployment and required to submit to exploitation.

1. M. P. Marchak, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 149 - 153.

3. *Ibid* p. 153.

None of these alternative explanations are new. The Fédération des Femmes du Québec, at its convention in 1977 voted against a recommendation to restrict the extension of part-time jobs even though all agreed that part-time jobs require few qualifications, offer low salaries and provide inferior working conditions.¹ The delegates to the meeting felt that the availability of part-time jobs provides a short-term solution to the problems facing many women with immediate needs. For such women, part-time provide for family responsibilities and financial necessities, as well as providing an avenue back into the labour force. The convention, therefore, agreed to accept short-term inconveniences while at the same time pressing for long-term solutions to the shortage of essential support services such as day care, maternity leave, unsteretyped training for women and so on. It appears that women workers, particularly those who are members of unions, are caught between the disadvantages and disapproval involved in part-time work and current

demands for reduction in the work week. All of us may soon be working fewer than 30 hours per week, the current definition of part-time work.

12. In a recent article by Ian Morrison, Executive Director of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, he states that:

"In its desire to obtain maximum dollar effectiveness for training funds the Commission appears to wish to recruit those persons whose needs for training are lesser, and who would probably fend best if left to their own devices, and to turn its back on those in greatest need. This is one way to assure a better return on investment, but only in a perverse sense. By reducing its risks and catering to those 'clients' whose training problems are least challenging, the Commission may respond to its limited objective within the federal program planning system. But somewhere the dissonance between the narrow objective of the present program and the government's own overall objectives must be recognized and met."²

¹ L. Aubert, "Part-time work", in the Status of Women News, September, 1978, p.19.

² I. Morrison, "Manpower policy stumbles into the 1980s", in Perception, March, 1978, pp. 21 - 23.

This article drew the following response from the Deputy Minister and Chairman of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission:

"... I take issue with Mr. Morrison's basic argument. He suggests that the new training policies represent the Commission's 'turning its back on those in greatest need'. On the contrary, their aim is simply to ensure that Employment Training serves those who can benefit from it in terms specified by the Adult Occupational Training Act: through improved employability or earning potential. At the same time, the program must meet its responsibility for providing skills needed in the economy. Far from turning our backs on persons in need, we are continuing to give priority to training various special needs clients wherever such training can lead to jobs. What we are not prepared to do is to use the program for purposes that are outside its objectives or that it cannot serve effectively."

Because we feel unqualified to offer any opinion on this matter one way or the other, we will let the "facts" speak for themselves:

- a. In the Senate Report on Canada Manpower, the Minister reported that in 1974-75, the Commission spent 51% of its training division funds (both institutional and industrial) on "disadvantaged" clients, who were defined as those with incomes at or below the poverty level.² By 1976-77, this proportion was down to 13.1% In that same year, only 9.2% of all trainees were in this category and this number was

- down from previous years.
- b. Special needs clients are defined as those who find it especially difficult to obtain and hold permanent employment. They are trained through Industrial programs and training funds. In 1977-78, women in special needs training programs accounted for 9.3% of all industrial trainees; 2.4% of all female trainees; and less than 1% of all trainees of both sexes.
 - c. Outreach programs seek to "extend services into areas where they would not otherwise be provided to assist those who if left unassisted would constitute an economic and social waste ... The target groups are identified ... to be: women, unemployed, urban poor, welfare recipients, native peoples, the handicapped, youth, inmates and ex-inmates, and persons living in isolated communities... The program uses the competencies of external groups and agencies to deliver services and to maintain close contact and identification with the various client groups ..,"⁴

A recent announcement by the Minister responsible for the Commission, the Hon. Bud Cullen, states:

"Women will no longer be singled out in the Outreach program although women with special problems such as alcoholism, physical handicaps, or learning disabilities can still benefit from the program."⁵

¹. J. L. Manion, Letter to the Editor, Perception, July, 1978.

². Senate Committee on National Finance, op. cit p.

³. Manpower and Immigration, Annual Report: 1976-77, p. 2,

⁴. Senate Committee on National Finance, op. cit., p. 46

⁵. "Cullen cuts job help for women", article in Toronto Star, Oct. 18, 1978

C. Unemployment Insurance

Unemployment Insurance (U.I.) is the third major division of the CEIC. It is responsible for implementing the scheme which insures employment income against the occurrence of a contingency such as unemployment or illness. As such, it is thought of, not as a welfare benefit or transfer payment, but as a scheme financed through the statutory participation of both the private sector and the government, thereby allowing all contributors to pool their risk. This concept of social insurance is currently undergoing change and U.I. benefits will eventually become part of the federal-provincial Social Security scheme which delivers financial assistance to families and unattached individuals in need.

Considering the new policy which integrates Manpower allowances with U.I. benefits, this general policy area is of some concern to CLOW. The most important concern is the manner in which women are treated, a manner which may reflect the entire Commission.

In 1977 the Commission produced a review entitled, "Comprehensive review of the Unemployment Insurance Program in Canada"¹, which called for a tightening of the program to reduce "rip-offs" and which proposed several changes to facilitate this process. The prevalent view of the Commission is "that claimants are ripping-off the U.I. scheme by working the minimum number of weeks required and then drawing U.I. benefits, or by taking long periods of time in between jobs, relying on U.I. benefits for support".²

It is clear from the statistics provided in the Review that the abusers are those in the upper age groups, females, and claimants reporting no dependents. Some of the opinions expressed are supported by statistical evidence but many are supported by nothing or by statistics which could be interpreted in different ways. For example:

- the average duration of benefits is consistently higher for females. In 1973 females drew U.I. benefits for 20.7 weeks as opposed to 16.5 weeks for males. However, by 1977, the duration of unemployment was shorter for females than males (refer to Table 18).

¹. We were unable to obtain a copy of this Review and relied instead on a report written by Elsie Rosen, entitled "A Report on the "Comprehensive Review of the Unemployment Insurance Program in Canada", on behalf of the Advisory Council on the Status of Women, Ottawa, 1977.

². E. Rosen, op cit, p. 5

³. All facts and statistics reported here are taken from E. Rosen op cit.

- the Review claims that females, in total, represent a higher financial risk than do males although no explanation of how this conclusion was reached is indicated. In 1977, the average weekly U.I. benefit paid to females was \$138 and to males was \$180.
- the disentanglement rate for females is more than twice that for males. There are several grounds for disentanglement: (i) a worker who quits voluntarily is disentitled for 6 weeks. Women have a slightly higher disentanglement rate for voluntary quitting than men. In 1977 this was 24.5% compared to 21.6%.

(ii) a worker who is not available for work, refuses a job and/or conducts an inadequate job search is disentitled. Women tend to have a higher rate of disentanglement for this reason than men.

- over 95% of female claimants do not report dependents... "although no information is given on how claimants are asked to determine if they have dependents. The inference clearly is that females are not reported as having dependents unless they are the sole support of their families, whereas males would be considered to have dependents even if some other family members are in the labour force." ¹
- the rate of drop-out is higher for women than men. In 1973 these rates were 20.1% and 9.4%. According to the Review "males were more successful/keener in finding jobs" while "females may have had more trouble finding jobs" because they "might not have actively sought jobs and/or might have dropped out of the labour market". No statistical data support this opinion.
- the Review examines the role of secondary earners in abusing the U.I. program. According to their definition, a primary earner is the one on whom the family depends for a living; a secondary earner is anyone else in the family receiving an income. This definition is most applicable to working wives. The Review goes on to state:

"The continued growth of secondary income earners with unstable employment patterns is likely to generate increases in U.I. benefit expenditures" ²

"To the extent that secondary earners, with their lower incomes, are more likely to be exposed to the risk of unemployment and/or more prone to misuse of the program, it is not surprising that a substantial proportion (28%) of the benefits are paid to these families (i.e. with two or more earners and incomes over \$10,000)."³

The Review does not provide data supporting the description, "unstable employment patterns", nor does it specify whether the U.I. benefits paid to "these families" go to male or female claimants.

¹. E. Rosen, *op cit.*, p. 8

². Ibid., p. 11 .

³. Ibid., p. 12

- the Review states that the increased acceptability and availability of part-time employment is a disincentive to full-time work. Part-time work is less than 30 hours of employment. Two-thirds of all part-time workers are female. It is clear from other sources that the part-time employment of women is a response to the conflict between family and work responsibilities. However, the Commission suspects that many persons abuse the U.I. scheme by claiming a percentage of U.I. benefits while working part-time. No data supports this opinion.

The method proposed for resolving all these abuses is to increase the entrance requirements (i.e. to more than the present minimum of 8 insured weeks); and to develop a 3-phase benefit structure that will provide income protection based on long labour force attachment and/or high regional unemployment, while limiting the duration of benefit entitlement in low unemployment regions and for short-term labour force attachments. The Review states that:

"... increased entrance requirements will affect low wage earners although some of these may be expected to be secondary earners."

"... increased entrance requirements will affect males and females equally... males and females will be almost equally affected by the 3-phase benefit structure." (underlining ours).

The Commission clearly considers secondary earners as unimportant contributors to family income and women as less important than men in their priority system.

Although the Review does not explicitly label women as the major abusers of the U.I. program, the text clearly implies that they are and that this should not be allowed to continue. What appears to be ignored is that female workers contribute to the plan and are thereby entitled to benefits under the operative rules; that the labour market itself determines the employment patterns which are described as unstable; that society requires certain standards of parenting and family maintenance behaviour in addition to certain work behaviour; that balancing the responsibilities of labour force and family is difficult without support and acceptance of the problem; that the economic system involves both the labour force and families; and that governmental agencies would do well to support both rather than supporting one at the expense of the other. The trade-off which has been devised as a way to solve the Commission's dilemma of balancing adequate income protection against work disincentives, is going to hurt women in their quest for equality of opportunity in the labour market and in training programs.

^{1.} E. Rosen, op. cit., p.12

^{2.} Ibid., p. 15 .

Summary

An overall assessment of CEIC policy raises several issues. First, the Commission appears to be caught with two conflicting sets of values related to women: one attached to the condition "employed" and the other to the condition "unemployed". The Women's Employment Section clearly supports equality of opportunity in employment. Other literature takes a dim view of providing equality of opportunity in unemployment. As long as a woman is employed, or if unemployed does not require training or financial support, she will receive the blessing and assistance of the various divisions of the Commission. An unemployed woman requiring training or financial assistance is another matter. Ignoring the hard data, we can speculate that the reasoning involved in the Commission's policies and treatment related to women may be arrived at this way...

Employed women...

... are secondary earners

... have only a marginal (minor) attachment to the labour force

... are job-leavers

Therefore, unemployed women ...

... do not require U.I. benefits or Manpower allowances to support a family and any training costs can be borne by the primary earner

... if they really want to work, should not ask a hard-pressed public taxpayer to support them in training or unemployment.

... tend to work 11 weeks, then quit and collect U.I. benefits.

... will stay in a training program less than 12 weeks

. ... are of minor importance in the system both for U.I. benefits and training.

... have "unstable work patterns" and are unstable employee trainees

...are under-educated and/or under-trained and/or educated/trained in the wrong way

. ... are quitters who won't finish training programs anyway, or if they do, they will then quit and go back to housekeeping.

... cannot be trusted.

... will require too much time to become functional academically and complete their training program which will increase costs.

... should be happy with unskilled work or with jobs requiring little responsibility and few advancement possibilities.

... are the responsibility of the provincial educational systems.

Employed women...

Therefore, unemployed women ...

... have no dependents

... do not require much in the way of financial support.

... should not be absent from work or training programs for "family responsibilities" .

... are less productive because they work fewer hours, earn less, have a higher absentee rate, take part-time jobs, etc

... are less likely to be productive as learners in training programs and will not work hard enough to succeed.

... deserve lower training allowances

... will not conduct adequate job searches and will need to be pushed.

... are part-time workers and not prepared to take on full-time responsibilities (prefer to opt out with a work disincentive)

... will not be able to manage a full-time training program.

...will not be responsible students

... will use the U.I. scheme irresponsibly.

... deserve only partial U.I. assistance (can

get the' rest from the provinces), and only partial Manpower allowances.

This kind of reasoning leaves us with the impression that female workers and female trainees are non-responsible quitters, who prefer to stay at home or to be involved only part-time, and whose contributions to both the family and the economy are of minor importance. CCLOW needs to help change this impression through re-educating those involved in the policy development process.

Second, both the CEIC and industry appear to use faulty reasoning based on deleted or distorted material. Deleted material involves missing information, particularly where opinions are being stated. For example:

"Women do not wish to be responsible."..... for what?

"secondary earners with unstable employment patterns" which look like what and as compared to what?

We need to recognize this style of statement and request the complete set of information involved.

Distorted material generally involves faulty cause-and-effect statements or generalizations which are not backed up by concrete facts. For example:

(a) reversible cause-and-effect statements:

"Women are not promoted because they quit" ... may be true; but it is also true that "Women quit because they are not promoted". In the first statement women are implied to be the cause of their own problem; whereas, in the second the cause appears to lie elsewhere.

(b) labels which become descriptions of behaviour:

"Women are dependent because they are married" ... tends to sound like "Dependent women are married". If this were true, then it would also be true that "Not dependent (independent?) women are not married". A more true statement is probably... "Women are thought of as dependent persons (i.e. those who do not support themselves) because the Commission has labeled them dependent for the convenience of reporting immigration statistics or dispensing Manpower allowances."

(c) implied equality:

"Secondary earners with unstable employment patterns" ... tends to sound the same as and become equated with ... "Secondary earners are unstable employees/trainees".

(d) implied causation:

"... the trade-off between adequate income protection and work disincentives" ... tends to sound as if one always accompanies the other and is, in fact, the cause of the other, as in ... "adequate income protection is the cause of work disincentives". Perhaps the causes of work disincentives have more to do with unfulfilling, unrewarding work which leaves the worker with a sense of not being able to make a useful contribution to society; lack of job opportunities; unreasonable demands from employers; unacceptable working conditions; and so on.

(e) implied choice:

"Income maintenance schemes should seek to cover those in need without undermining the basic incentive to work or distorting programs ..." The kinds of alternative choices offered here are both complex and depressing. Those that are omitted seem to be of vital importance.

It is up to organizations such as CLOW to monitor this type of reasoning and question the inconsistencies which arise.

Alternative courses of action

The Canadian Committee on Learning Opportunities for Women will need to discuss the information, policies and practices involved in the work of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission further, in order to fully understand the implications involved in the various changes already implemented or proposed for the future. The solutions to the problems which will arise are not readily apparent. Some of the more contentious issues which need to be discussed further are:

- shifts in the allocation of training funds and the differential effect these will have on women in the various regions across Canada.
- changes in the rules and underlying philosophy involved in income maintenance plans, in particular how these affect Manpower allowances.
- the negative stereotyping of women evident in the literature of the Commission
- the role and worth of women in family units, in the labour force, and in the economic system as a whole.
- the problem of non-specificity in policy related to women, and how these are implemented at the discretion of local CMC counsellors.
- the need to provide financial, social, and emotional support services to women

- attempting to be the sole support of their family.
- the treatment of immigrant women by the Commission both before and after arrival in Canada, and the general lack of clear and specific guidelines for Commission personnel.
- the prevalent view that education and training have a solely economic/employment value within the economic system and the ignoring of the essential social value of education in the entire society.
- the need for cooperative action between the federal, provincial and municipal governments on the issue of income maintenance schemes; between the federal and provincial governments and the unions and employers on the issue of equality of access to employment opportunities and to training programs in apprenticeships and industry; and between the federal and provincial governments on the issue of basic education and the constitutional conflicts involved in the field of education and training.
- the attitude that schooling and training are to prepare people for their rightful place in society -- the man's place being in the economic and employment system, and the woman's place being in the home, family and social system.
- the negative stereotypes held by educators, training instructors, counselors, and employers about "women" as a generalized category; and how these can easily be turned into sexual harassment or sexual discrimination.

To assist in further discussions we have outlined below several issues ~which might be considered for future policy development:

1. CLOW could work in cooperation with women's groups which focus on immigrant women, to develop a better understanding of the educational needs and problems of such women; with a view to submitting briefs and recommendation to the appropriate governmental and educational agencies and to developing creative solutions to those needs and problems. The issues involved should include:

- the conditions of entry and immigration status of women,
- accessibility of women to language and literacy programs,
- clear and specific policies related to the employment and occupational training of immigrant women,
- legal protection for immigrant women, particularly those admitted as students or those who become students after arrival.
- the development of language and literacy material appropriate to the needs of Canadian women,
- the development of learning opportunities in the native languages of immigrant women
- the stereotyping done in governmental and educational agencies which tends to reduce immigrant women to a generalized and negative concept.

2. CCLOW could develop a liaison with industry and trade union groups which focus on the needs and problems of women in the labour market, to gain a better understanding of how industrial and apprenticeship training is controlled and developed; with a view to supporting greater accessibility to these programs for women. Since this area of training will likely expand in the near future, it seems imperative that we learn more about these types of training programs, in addition to supporting women in the trade union movement.

3. CCLOW should find ways to become involved in discussions with representatives from the federal and provincial governments about continuing disputes over jurisdiction in the field of education; particularly in relation to occupational training, language classes, basic literacy and academic upgrading programs for women.

4. CCLOW could develop a series of research studies to gather and disseminate data on such topics as:

- realistic level and type of education and training required for employment in various specific occupations, and how these relate specifically to the performance of occupational functions
- the economic and social value of women's education and occupational training, in terms of both short- and long-range benefits and liabilities.
- specific instances of sexual discrimination or harassment in educational and occupational training programs, in the admissions procedures, etc.

5. CCLOW should become involved in the work of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission at the policy development level, at the program evaluation level, and at the level where the individual trainee interacts with the system. There are several ways to do this, three of which are:

- develop a CCLOW committee to monitor the policies and practices of the Commission both federally and locally. This committee might gather data related to the implementation of policies; to the ways in which hard data is being interpreted in regard to women; to the nature and potential implication of policies; to administrative and funding activities; to the ways in which policies are put into practice at the local level. Gathering this data should be an ongoing process and the results should be collated and published regularly.
- become involved directly in the work of the Commission through its various consultative committees. These include:

(i) at the national level, the Canada Manpower and Immigration Council has as its general objective the duty of advising the Minister on all matters pertaining to the effective utilization and development of Manpower resources in Canada.

(ii) at the provincial level, the Manpower Needs Committees are required to coordinate federal and provincial programs related to Manpower training and to assess manpower needs, recommend training plans and priorities, assess training results, and recommend improvements. Through sub-committees it is possible to involve employers, industry and union representatives in establishing priorities in course development. These committees tend to involve one set of civil servants talking to another set. This representation could and should be opened up to representatives from other interested groups.

(iii) at the local level, there is provision in the Act of 1967-68 for local committees to advise the local CMCs on community needs and problems. There are none operating at this time in urban areas. CCLOW could press for the development of such committees in areas of high need.

- develop workshops which would involve the participation of CMC counsellors and supervisors, teacher and trainers, students, Women's Employment Branch and Employment Training Branch personnel, adult educators, and interested others. These would focus on Woman power Training Programs and policies.

6. CCLOW could become involved in programs to re-educate the general public about the role of women in the economic and social systems and the function which education and training play in this: about women as learners, as occupational trainees, and as employers: and about the problems involved when women try to manage a family, learning activities and work all at the same time.

APPENDIX A.

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT PLAN OF ACTION 1978-79

Introduction

The following three factors have necessitated the development of a dynamic employment strategy:

1. the greatly increased participation of women in the labour market;
2. the concentration of women generally into low paying jobs and into only a few occupational areas;
3. the increase in unemployment rates for young and prime age women.

These factors call upon the Committee's Labour Market programs to meet the employment related needs of women. In response, the Commission has developed the

following objective and sub-objectives:

Objective

To actively promote the development of labour market conditions in which the economic potential of the female labour force is fully tapped and to support women workers in their pursuit of economically viable and self-fulfilling employment.

Sub-objective

1. to assist women in acquiring the skills and experience that will facilitate their entry and re-entry into the labour market;
2. to assist women in finding employment consistent with their qualifications and skills;
3. to assist individual women in making employment choices from the full range of occupations in demand on the Canadian labour market;
4. to assist employers in the identification and elimination of barriers to the recruitment and promotion of women;
5. to promote the employment of women in those better-paying industries and occupations in which they have traditionally been under-represented.

In line with these objectives, the Commission is pursuing the elimination of any discriminatory practice in the labour market that is based on sex and taking positive measures to redress the effects of past and present discriminatory conditions that have resulted in economic disadvantages for women.

Policy

As presently required by MA 8(19), the Commission requires its officers to refuse to fill discriminatory job orders. Requests are considered to be discriminatory when they deprive or tend to deprive a woman or group of women of any employment opportunity on the basis of sex.

Clients must be informed of their right under relevant federal and provincial legislation to be considered for employment without regard to sex, and of the correct procedures for presenting their complaints to the appropriate authorities.

Employers' specifications or preferences with regard to the sex of the persons to be referred, that are not based on a bona fide occupational requirement, will be brought to the attention of the employer with a recommendation that the discriminatory conditions be removed.

Where the employer does not respond positively to this recommendation, Commission officials will refuse to assist the employer to find workers for the position or positions involved.

As employer's request will not be considered discriminatory if it is made in order to adopt or carry out a special program, plan or arrangement designed to prevent disadvantages that are likely to be suffered by, or to eliminate or reduce disadvantages that are suffered by any woman or group of women when these disadvantages are based on or related to their sex.

Appendix B

DRAFT/

EMPLOYMENT TRAINING

MA29 Circular #5

September 1978 115

MEASURES TO REDUCE ALLOWANCE EXPENDITURES

1. General

The Government's announcement of Federal expenditure reductions will affect the Canada Manpower Training Program as follows. The policies will come into effect for trainees commencing training October 2, 1978, or thereafter. Trainees in training prior to this date will continue to receive allowances to the end of their course at the rates and under the policies in effect at the time of their commencement of training.

2. Allowance Rates

	<u>Old</u>	<u>Revised</u>
Basic rate	\$45	\$10
Regular with no dependents	79	60
one "	90	80
two "	97	95
three "	103	110
four or more	109	125

3. The \$10 basic rate will be considered as a course related expense and will, therefore, not be subject to deductions for absences. If such trainees are present at least one full day in a week and are in good standing on the course, they are entitled to the full \$10.

4. Short courses

Trainees referred to courses which are of 10 training days duration or less are not entitled to income support.

5. Apprentices

It has been the practice to allow apprentices to receive allowances in lieu of UI benefits in cases where there are top-ups to normal wage levels by employers. Due to the fiscal restraints, however, apprentices will no longer be entitled to allowances except in the following situations:

1. the initial 2 weeks for potential claimants,
2. claimants disqualified and/or disentitled, and
3. those who do not qualify for UI benefits because of insufficient weeks of employment during the qualifying period.

This means that employers have two choices, either they continue to pay their apprentices whatever they wish during periods of formal apprenticeship training, or they issue a Record of Employment to permit the apprentice to draw UI benefits under Section 39 of the UI Act.

6. Immigrants

Assisted and family class immigrants on language training are not entitled to allowances. Only independent immigrants, refugees and Canadian migrants may receive allowances for this type of training. (For a breakdown of immigrant classifications see MA25 Circular #1 "Special Codes for Immigrants Attending Language Training").

7. Self-Employed

Allowances will no longer be provided to self-employed persons upgrading or adding to the skills they require for their normal self-employment occupation. Allowances will continue to be available, where applicable, to self-employed persons whose training involves the development of skills to be used in employment that is outside their primary occupation. This policy will apply equally to both husband and wife in cases where an under-taking is operated jointly. Many fishermen are eligible for UI benefits during winter months and may at that time be trained under Section 39 of the UI Act but are not eligible for allowances at any other time unless they meet the above criteria.

U.I. Act and A.O.T. Act Training Allowance ChangesBackground:

Amendments to the Unemployment Insurance (UI) Act, passed in 1977, introduced the concept of developmental use of UI funds by permitting benefit recipients to attend an occupational training course upon authorized referral and without having to prove availability for work. Thus UI benefits became an alternative form of income support for adult trainees. This had the effect of freeing-up training allowance funds to be used, among other things, to augment the funds available for the purchase of training as, in fact, was done for the current fiscal year.

As a transitional measure it was decided that, under the provisions of the amended UI Act, trainees entitled to UI benefits would receive the higher of their benefits or the applicable allowance rate. Of course, supplementary allowances would continue to be available to all trainees. This arrangement took effect in September 1977, except in the case of apprentices for whom it commenced in January 1978. The effect of the transitional measure severely strained financial resources inasmuch as expenditures on allowances are much higher than forecast and, if continued, will substantially exceed the available budget. At this time of fiscal restraint no additional funds can be made available and therefore ways must be found to contain expenditures.

To this end it was decided to take certain measures, the most important one of which is to discontinue the practice of allowing trainees entitled to UI benefits the higher of these benefits or the applicable training allowance. This will put in place the scheme envisioned from the beginning, namely that trainees entitled to UI benefits will receive these as their income support while only trainees without such entitlement will be eligible for training allowances.

These measures came into effect for trainees commencing training October 2, 1978, or thereafter.

Impact on Women:

If main concern is to ensure income support while in training, low wage earners and particularly women may no longer be financially able to attend CMTP Training.

There are many women employed part-time or full-time in low paying occupations. Their UI benefit will be much lower than the AOT allowance. Those clients not living with an employed spouse such as single parent mothers and young women with minimal work experience who no longer live with their parents, may face reductions of up to \$93.00 per week in their income if they are no longer eligible for AOT allowances. (\$93.00 is the difference between the minimum UI benefits of \$32.00 and a Training allowance of \$125.00 with 4 dependents) This loss of income in many cases, particularly where

dependent support is involved, will reduce their ability to consider CMTP training as a means of increasing their employability.

Using the situation of an Albertan client working a 40-hour week at minimum wage (3.00 per hour in Alberta):

- person with no dependents would benefit (by \$51.60) as UI rate is greater than Manpower Allowances;
- single parents with dependents are adversely affected as in all cases their UI benefits are lower than Manpower allowances. This economic disadvantage increases proportionately with number of dependents as UI benefits are based solely on wage rates

DEPENDENTS

	None	One	Two	Three	Four	
UI rate	309.60	309.60	309.60	309.60	309.60	per month
Manpower	258.00	344.00	408.50	473.00	537.50	per month

The removal of the choice of the higher of the UI benefits and AOT Allowances will severely hamper the efforts being made to encourage women to consider CMTP as a means of increasing their employability or of entering non-traditional fields of employment.

For those clients who were able to supplement their income through part-time employment while on training, further penalties are being imposed if one is on UI benefits rather than AOT allowances. Single parent mothers in particular will face severe restraint as they may not be able to take advantage of part-time employment because of child care arrangements or the desire to maintain the family relationship during evening hours and on weekends. Furthermore, part-time employment may have no significant effect on increasing the income of low benefit UI recipients as the 25% rule will apply. In many cases single parent mothers will be forced to seek social assistance if they wish to pursue CMTP training. This will add to the cost of provincial social assistance payments.

Although in intent these regulations were not likely meant to discriminate against any target group, in practice they very definitely adversely affect persons with dependents who were in a minimum wage earning bracket prior to commencing training. According to 1977 figures, over 2/3 of all working women were in clerical, service or sales occupations. These occupations are all traditionally low paying and offer little job satisfaction. It would therefore be reasonable to assume that women as a group will very definitely suffer if these new allowance regulations are not amended.

It should also be pointed out that, in 1977-78, 20.2% of all female CMTP trainees had one or more dependents and thus may have been adversely affected by such a change in the regulations.

Conclusion:

This system will deter many of those clients most in need of CMTP training from requesting CMTP courses.

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