

WOMEN'S EDUCATION DES FEMMES

DECADE OF PROMISE

AN ASSESSMENT OF CANADIAN
WOMEN'S STATUS IN EDUCATION,
TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT 1976 - 1985

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congrès canadien pour la promotion des études chez la femme

DECADE OF PROMISE

AN ASSESSMENT OF CANADIAN WOMEN'S
STATUS IN EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT
1976 - 1985



Prepared by Avebury Research & Consulting Limited

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

BACKGROUND

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

APPROACH AND METHOD

DEFINITIONS

DETAILED FINDINGS

1 - CANADIAN CONTEXT

2 - EDUCATION

- 2.1 Overview and Objectives
- 2.2 Educational Attainment 1976-1985
- 2.3 Women With Low Educational Attainment
- 2.4 Community College Course Enrollment
- 2.5 Undergraduate University Enrollment
- 2.6 Graduate University Enrollment
- 2.7 Women in Education Leadership

3 - TRAINING

- 3.1 Overview and Objectives.
- 3.2 Current Enrollment in Adult Education

4 - EMPLOYMENT

- 4.1 Overview and Objectives
- 4.2 Full and Part-Time Employment Unemployment
- 4.3 Occupational Distribution
- 4.4 Earnings and Income
- 4.5 Income and Poverty

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Education and Training
Employment and Income

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

EDUCATION

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATION

TRAINING

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TRAINING

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

REFERENCES

DECADE OF PROMISE
An Assessment of Canadian Women's
Status in Education, Training and Employment
1976 – 1985

A. LIST OF TABLES

- TABLE 1 CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF
EDUCATION OF WOMEN OF VARIOUS AGES 1976 - 1981
- TABLE 2 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND MEN WITH
TRADE CERTIFICATES 1981
- TABLE 3 EDUCATION OF FEMALE LONE PARENTS
COMPARED TO WOMEN IN GENERAL, BY
AGE GROUPS 1981
- TABLE 4 CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN
AGE 15+ IN EACH PROVINCE WITH LESS
THAN GRADE 9 EDUCATION 1971 - 1981
- TABLE 5 CHANGES IN THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THOSE WITH
LESS THAN GRADE 9 EDUCATION
1971 - 1981
- TABLE 6 CHANGES IN WOMEN'S COMMUNITY COLLEGE FULL-TIME
ENROLLMENT 1974/1975 - 1984/1984
- TABLE 7 CHANGES IN WOMEN'S PART-TIME
UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT AS A
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN
VARIOUS SUBJECT AREAS 1975/76 - 1983/1984
- TABLE 8 WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION AMONG
EDUCATORS 1975/76 - 1983/84 39
- TABLE 9 CHANGES IN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS
OF WOMEN TRAINEES UNDER THE
NATIONAL TRAINING ACT
1977/1978 - 1983/1984

- TABLE 10 CHANGES IN ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN IN
SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL AREAS IN GENERAL
INDUSTRIAL TRAINING
1980/1981 - 1983/1984
- TABLE 11 CHANGES IN ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN IN
SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL AREAS IN
INSTITUTIONAL SKILL TRAINING
1980/1981 - 1983/1984
- TABLE 12 CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF PREVIOUS
EDUCATION OF TRAINEES FUNDED UNDER
THE NATIONAL TRAINING ACT
1980/1981 - 1983/1984
- TABLE 13 TYPE OF ADULT EDUCATION COURSES TAKEN
BY WOMEN AND MEN 1985
- TABLE 14 PERCENTAGE OF ADULT EDUCATION COURSES
PAID BY EMPLOYERS 1985
- TABLE 15 LONG TERM TRENDS IN PARTICIPATION
IN THE LABOUR FORCE OF WOMEN AGE 15-64 1921 - 1985
- TABLE 16 RECENT LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF
WOMEN AGE 15-64 1965 - 1985
- TABLE 17 EFFECT OF CHILDREN AND PRESENCE OF
PARTNER ON LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION
OF WOMEN 1985
- TABLE 18 CHANGES IN RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
PART-TIME WORK AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE
OF THOSE 15+ 1971 - 1985
- TABLE 19 UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY AGE AND GENDER
1975 - 1985
- TABLE 20 CHANGES IN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AMONG
WOMEN 15+ ACROSS PROVINCES
1975 - 1985
- TABLE 21 CHANGES IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
AMONG WOMEN 15+ ACROSS PROVINCES
1975 - 1985

- TABLE 22 DEMOGRAPHICS OF LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN 15+ 1981
- TABLE 23 WHERE WOMEN AND MEN ARE FINDING WORK 1975 - 1985
- TABLE 24 RATE OF PART-TIME WORK FOR WOMEN AND MEN IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS 1975 - 1985
- TABLE 25 RATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN AND MEN IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS 1975 - 1985
- TABLE 26 CHANGES IN WOMEN'S SHARE OF FASTEST GROWING CLERICAL OCCUPATIONS 1971 - 1985
- TABLE 27 EFFECT OF AGE AND EDUCATION ON THE EARNING OF WOMEN AND MEN RELATIVE TO THE AVERAGE INCOME OF MEN (FULL-TIME, FULL-YEAR WORKERS IN 1980)
- TABLE 28 RELATIVE EARNING OF FULL-TIME WORKING WOMEN VS MEN IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS 1970-1980
- TABLE 29 CHANGES IN "VALUE" OF WOMEN'S WORK 1970 - 1980
- TABLE 30 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND INCIDENCE OF "LOW INCOME" IN PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS (1980 INCOME STATUS)
- TABLE 31 CHANGES IN DEMOGRAPHICS OF "LOW INCOME" AMONG ECONOMIC FAMILIES IN PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS (1977 - 1984 INCOME STATUS)

DECADE OF PROMISE
An Assessment of Canadian Women's
Status in Education, Training and Employment
1976 – 1985

B. LIST OF FIGURES

- FIGURE 1 CHANGES IN HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL
ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN AND MEN. AGE 15+
1971 - 1985
- FIGURE 2 CHANGES IN FULL-TIME COMMUNITY COLLEGE
ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN AND MEN
1970/1971 - 1983/1984
- FIGURE 3 CHANGES IN UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT
OF WOMEN AND MEN 1970/71 - 1983/84
- FIGURE 6 CHANGES IN GRADUATE ENROLLMENT OF
WOMEN AND MEN 1970/71 - 1983/84
- FIGURE 7 CHANGES IN ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN IN
SELECTED AREAS OF GRADUATE STUDY
1970/71, 1975/76 AND 1983/84
- FIGURE 8 CHANGE IN WOMEN'S SHARE OF NATIONAL
TRAINING SPACES 1977/78 - 1983/84 42
- FIGURE 9 CHANGES IN THE WOMEN'S SHARE OF SPACES
IN VARIOUS AREAS OF GENERAL INDUSTRIAL
TRAINING UNDER THE NATIONAL TRAINING
ACT 1977/78 AND 1983/84
- FIGURE 10 CHANGES IN WOMEN'S SHARE OF SPACES IN
VARIOUS AREAS OF INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING
UNDER THE NATIONAL TRAINING
ACT 1977/78 - 1983/84
- FIGURE 11 CHANGES IN AVAILABILITY OF PART-TIME
TRAINING UNDER THE NATIONAL TRAINING
ACT

- FIGURE 12 PRIOR EDUCATION OF MEN AND WOMEN ENROLLED IN ADULT EDUCATION, 1985
- FIGURE 13 CHANGES IN PERCENTAGE OF CANADIAN WOMEN AGE 15+ WHO ARE IN THE LABOUR FORCE 1901 - 1985
- FIGURE 14 CHANGES IN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN WITH CHILDREN VS. ALL WOMEN AGE 15-64, 1976 - 1985
- FIGURE 15 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND MEN 15+ IN THE LABOUR FORCE: ENGAGED IN FULL OR PART-TIME WORK OR UNEMPLOYED 1971 - 1985
- FIGURE 16 CHANGES IN REASONS GIVEN BY WOMEN FOR PART-TIME WORK 1979 - 1985
- FIGURE 17 REASONS FOR WOMEN IN DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS DOING PART-TIME WORK 1985
- FIGURE 18 CHANGES IN THE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE OF WOMEN WITH DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS 1965 - 1985
- FIGURE 19 CHANGES IN THE UNEMPLOYMENT RATE OF WOMEN WITH DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS 1965 - 1985
- FIGURE 20 CHANGES IN THE EMPLOYMENT/POPULATION RATE OF WOMEN WITH DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS 1965 - 1985
- FIGURE 21 PERCENTAGE OF CANADIAN WORKFORCE ENGAGED IN EACH AREA OF THE WORKFORCE, 1931 - 1985
- FIGURE 22 WOMEN AS A % OF EACH OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY 1971, 1975 & 1985
- FIGURE 23 GROWTH IN NUMBERS OF WOMEN AND MEN EMPLOYED IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, 1976 - 1985

- FIGURE 24 WHERE WOMEN HAVE BEEN FINDING JOBS:
WOMEN'S SHARE OF THE 1975 - 1985
INCREASE IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS
- FIGURE 25 CHANGES IN AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS OF
WOMEN FULL-TIME WORKERS AGE 15+ COMPARED
TO MEN FULL-TIME WORKERS 1970 - 1985
- FIGURE 26 RELATIVE AVERAGE EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME
WOMEN WORKERS WITH VARIOUS LEVELS OF
EDUCATION 1971 - 1982
- FIGURE 27 INCREASE IN FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME
INCOME 1967 - 1982
- FIGURE 28 CHANGE IN AVERAGE HOURLY RATES OF PAY
FOR PART-TIME AND FULL-TIME WORKERS,
WOMEN AND MEN AGE 15+ 1981 - 1984
- FIGURE 29 AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME FROM EARNINGS OF
WORKING WOMEN AGE 15+ COMPARED TO
WORKING MEN 15+ 1970 - 1984
- FIGURE 30 FEMALE/MALE COMPOSITION OF THE LOWEST
20% INCOME GROUPS OF UNATTACHED
INDIVIDUALS AND FAMILIES AGE 15 - 64,
1969 - 1984

BACKGROUND

The General Assembly of the United Nations designated 1975 as International Women's Year for the purpose of defining a society in which women would participate fully in economic and political life. To further this aim, an international conference was held in Mexico City in 1976 and a World Plan of Action was adopted for the ten-year period, 1976-1985, proclaimed by the General Assembly as the Decade for Women. The themes for the Decade were: Equality, Development and Peace.

A mid-Decade world conference was held in Copenhagen in 1980 to evaluate progress and adjust priorities. The End of Decade Conference and Forum '85 were held in Nairobi to assess the Decade and ratify the Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000.

The following broad recommendations summarize the goals articulated in the World Plan of Action:

- efforts should be made to promote functional literacy in order to eradicate illiteracy among women
- adult educational opportunities should be provided to all women, especially those who have had to interrupt their studies owing to family responsibilities or poverty
- extensive measures should be taken to diversify women's vocational education and training in order to extend their employment into occupations that are non-traditional
- a fully integrated system of training, having direct linkages with employment needs, should be created and implemented in order to avoid under-utilization of human resources
- educational programs to enable men as much as women to assume equal responsibility in the up-bringing of children and the maintenance of the household should be introduced at all levels of the educational system.

Canada endorsed the Decade goals and undertook to achieve them. For Canada, commitment to Decade goals represented a further development in women's recent struggle for equality. This earlier concerted effort by women had focused on implementation of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women. Established in 1967, the Commission reported to the Federal Government in 1970. The report's 167 recommendations were formulated to ensure equal opportunities for women in all aspects of Canadian society. Since that time, three important milestones occurred that undoubtedly have had an impact on women's progress through the Decade

for Women:

1. In response to one of the recommendations, the Federal Government established the Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women in 1973. This was followed by the establishment of provincial councils whose mandates were to raise issues of concern to women, to provide research and background material to clarify these issues, and to make recommendations to their respective governments.

Part of the function of the Canadian Advisory Council has been to monitor Federal Government action on the original Royal Commission recommendations and to adapt the United Nations World Plan of Action to the issues of specific concern to Canadian women.

2. In 1985, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms came into effect with the inclusion, after intensive lobbying by women's groups, of Section 28: "Notwithstanding anything in this Charter, the rights and freedoms referred to in it are guaranteed equally to male and female persons".
3. In addition numerous legal changes have occurred to reduce direct discrimination against women. For example:
 - In 1978, the federal Human Rights Act came into effect. The Act contains a provision for equal pay for work of equal value which applies to all federal public servants and employees of federal Crown federally regulated private sector companies.
 - In 1983, an Affirmative Action Program* was initiated for women in the federal Public Service and Crown Corporations.
 - In the summer of 1986, the Employment Equity Act (Bill C-62) came into effect. While not as strong as women's groups had hoped and the Abella Commission recommended, the Act does extend employment equity to federally regulated companies and contains "contract compliance" requirements for companies that contract with the government for more than \$200,000 annually and employ more than 100 people.

Now that the Decade for Women has ended and concomitant legislative changes for women have been made, it is appropriate to assess the extent to which Canada has met its commitment to improve the position of women in Canadian society.

Although some Canadian progress reports were prepared during the Decade, a requirement for signator countries, these reports do not provide longitudinal or statistical information for an in-depth assessment of changes in the status of Canadian women (e.g., As Things Stand: Ten Years of Recommendations, Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1983; Equality in Employment: A Royal Commission Report, 1984; Towards Equality for Women: A Progress Report 1979-1982, Status of Women Canada,

1984).

Others contain adequate statistical information but provide little insight into either its meaning or effect (e.g., Women in Canada, A Statistical Report, Statistics Canada, March, 1985). While each is valuable and was consulted for the present study, none completely fulfills the present research need.

* Prior to 1985, the term "Affirmative Action" was used to describe special measures programs initiated on behalf of women, ethnocultural minorities and people with disabilities. Following publication of the Abella Commission report, Equality in Employment, the term "employment equity" replaced Affirmative Action.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The Canadian Congress for Learning Opportunities for women has decided to compensate for this lack of evaluative information by compiling the appropriate documentation on the impact of the United Nations Decade for women on women in Canada. This research study serves to determine, from a statistical and analytical perspective, whether Canadian women have made any progress in three areas: Education, Training and Employment, between 1976 and 1985.

These three areas have been chosen as the focus of this study because they are critical to meaningful improvement' in women's economic status. That is, many of the inequities women face in society are accounted for by their lack of economic independence. In turn, women's economic status will not improve until they gain equal access to and opportunities in education, training and employment.

The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To determine the gains and losses for women since 1976 in the areas of education, training and employment.
2. To analyze whether any patterns or trends have emerged in these areas since 1976.
3. To analyze the implications of these changes and trends for women.
4. To determine priorities for the years ahead.

APPROACH AND METHOD

This study presents a secondary analysis of such existing data as Statistics Canada and the Censuses of Canada. A variety of analyses by other writers were taken into consideration. However, most data used in this study were derived from Statistics Canada because an analysis of trends from 1976 to 1985 necessitated the comparison of identical measures at these two points in time, a condition that is met by few data bases other than those of Statistics Canada.

Comparisons

Whenever possible, data comparisons were made between the position of women in 1975 and 1985. Where this was not possible, the nearest years were compared. For example, the most recent statistical tables available from Employment and Immigration Canada on the Programs funded under the National Training Act are for 1983/84, and the earliest complete records are for 1977 / 78.

In some cases, where very fine demographic detail is required, the only longitudinal data available are that of the Censuses of Canada. Thus, some comparisons are of 1971 and 1981, the Census years. When studying income, these Census data refer to the previous year, and thus are comparisons between 1970 and 1980. While not optimal, Census comparisons do give an indication of trends through at least part of the Decade for Women.

Where appropriate, the status of women is compared to that of men. This has been done in one of three ways:

1. Data for women and men are presented side by side for comparison. This is done in cases where the absolute level as well as the comparative level for each is of interest. An example would be the education levels in the population, where it is necessary to examine the level of education of women per se, as well as comparing it to that of men.
2. Data for women are presented as a percentage of the total data for women and men. This is done where the absolute rates are not of primary importance, and the main interest is in the proportion of women in the area. An example of this type of analysis is found in examining graduate enrollment in various subject areas. Here, the focus is not on the percentage of the population who obtain, for example, a graduate engineering degree, but on women's share of these graduate credentials.
3. Data for women are presented as a percentage of data for men. This analysis is confined to earnings and income. For example, the total amount earned by men and women together is not relevant, and in fact, fluctuates from year to year. However, unlike university spaces which can be thought of as being assigned to a man or a woman, it is possible for women's income to increase, but not necessarily at the expense of men's income. Thus, rather than examining the dollars earned, or

the percentage of all income that accrues to women, a more typical analysis is the one used here: assessment of women's earnings or income as a percentage of men's with the ideal point being 100% (i.e., the point at which women's earnings/income are the same as men's).

The status of women is not compared to that of men in all cases. In particular, when looking at the age, marital status, residence etc. of women who have low educational attainment or low income,* the analysis is not done as a comparative assessment of the Decade. Rather, the purpose of the analysis is to determine areas of greatest need in status in future years.

Finally, a few FIGURES and TABLES have unique formats benefit a particular analysis. These are noted individually as they occur.

* The "demographics" of disadvantage.

Limitations of the Information

In this section. the difficulty encountered in locating adequate and/or comparable data is outlined briefly. Since the study consists of a secondary analysis of existing data, it was not always possible, for example, to locate data which:

- gave direct comparison by the years required for the study
- were divided by gender
- were derived from the same question in two consecutive surveys (e.g., two Census years).

Education

Adequate documentation of gender segregation in the following areas is either spotty, inconsistent or non-existent across Canada and within provinces:

- high school course enrollment
- community college course and program enrollment
- apprenticeship enrollment
- part-time community college course/program/vocational training enrollment
- employer paid, in-house training enrollment
- employer paid, external training enrollment
- pre-employment/pre-apprenticeship training enrollment
- participation in Continuing Education.

Thus, it is not possible to determine the true extent of sex-segregation in education or to have adequately informed input into the development of local, provincial or federal public

policy on this issue.

One major reason that it is critical to obtain this information is that sex-segregation in education perpetuates sex-segregation in the workforce.

Further in-depth study of institutions and more qualitative studies of the processes by which career choice is made are essential to the future development of public and private policy concerning equal access to education. This has been recommended repeatedly by the Canadian Congress for Learning Opportunities for Women, the National Action Committee on the Status of Women, and in such papers as Jane Gaskell's, "Education and Career Choice".*

Training

Training data, except for programs funded under the National Training Act (Employment and Immigration Canada) are almost entirely absent. Information on the amount spent on training, what types of programs are being funded, the gender of those who are funded and who the funders are is likewise difficult to obtain.

Information on other types of adult education is also difficult to locate but one recent and comprehensive report** was found and used in this study. While this report is important, it provides data for only one point in time. In addition, the designation of courses as "personal interest" or "job-related" and the collapsing of course types as "personal development" and "hobby" are questionable.

For example, Devereaux reports that women (even when employed) do not take as many job-related courses as men. Yet, it is possible that Assertiveness Training (defined as a personal interest course in her study), may be viewed as an important part of job preparation by many women.

In other words, since Devereaux does not acknowledge women's present status and, therefore, their different training needs, her analysis is insufficient for the purposes of this study.

Surveys of education and training institutions are needed to determine if they meet the diverse needs of women students by providing such services as:

* Gaskell, J. Education and Career Choice, 1982.

** Devereaux, M.S. One in Every Five, 1985.

- on-site child care and financial child-care support
- transportation
- distance education
- training allowances
- curriculum which acknowledges the unique needs of women
- flexible scheduling

- specialized counseling.

Employment and Income

Census Canada and The Labor Force Survey provide invaluable longitudinal information on the employment of women and men. However, these data are not broken down for minority or disability status.

Income data, on the other hand, are very difficult to interpret since various studies keep the information in different ways, and not all information is kept by gender:

- industry wage rates are not kept by gender
- income is sometimes based on all workers, sometimes on only full-time, full-year workers
- at various times, income is calculated by "economic household", "census family", or "individuals", making comparisons from one study to another impossible.

A further problem with Census data is the tendency to ask important questions on the Census on a one-time basis. Thus, the Census may provide excellent information on a given topic but, because the question is not included in subsequent years, it is not possible to make longitudinal comparisons.

Question areas maintained over time, which would assist studies like this one, include education, training, employment and income and how each of these relates to particular disadvantaged groups.

Finally, it is difficult to find information on education, training, employment or income for the Northwest Territories or the Yukon.

DEFINITIONS

Since a number of technical terms are used frequently throughout this study, the following Statistics Canada definitions* are provided for the convenience of the reader.

- Education and Training

School Attendance - refers to either full-time or part-time (day or evening) attendance at a school, college, technical institute, vocational school, or university at any time between September of a given year and June of the following year.

Full-Time School Attendance - refers to taking 75% or more of the normal course load in the grade or year in which the person is registered (if both, then full-time is recorded). Attendance at courses that were taken for leisure or recreation is not included.

Illiteracy - refers, in this research, to less than a Grade 9 education, primarily because this is the "breakpoint" favored in Census data for a number of decades. However, there is considerable debate whether this definition remains meaningful in 1985. A number of scholars** suggest that assigning any grade level to literacy in the so-called Information Age is misleading and argue for a functional measure of illiteracy which is independent of the grade level completed.

* The only exceptions to this are the definitions for illiteracy and for differentiating between "education" and "training." These are noted in this section of the study.

** Thomas, A.M. Adult Illiteracy in Canada. A Challenge; 1983.

DeCoito, P.A. Women and Adult Basic Education in Canada: An Exploratory Study, CCLOW, 1984.

Although some of these researchers would include a larger proportion of the population among people considered illiterate (e.g., those who have less than a Grade 11 education or are otherwise functionally illiterate), few would place the criterion for illiteracy at less than Grade 9. Thus, Grade 9 education as a minimum rate of literacy has been used in this study.

Education - refers, in this research, to study within recognized institutions including elementary and secondary school, community college, CEGEP, trade schools and universities.

Training - refers, in this research, to two distinct processes. One type of training is that funded by Employment and Immigration Canada, whether institutional or not. The second process documented as training is "adult education", as defined by Devereaux in her study, "One In Every Five". However, the authors of the present study recognize that the distinction here and elsewhere between education and training is largely arbitrary. In the current report, the distinction is constrained by the categories established in the reference data.

- Employment

Labor Force - the labor force is composed of that portion of the civilian non-institutional population 15 years of age and over who, during the one week in the month examined, were employed or were receiving unemployment benefits and thus considered to be "looking for work". Therefore, this does not include the (large) group who may want to work but who no longer receive unemployment benefits.

Employed - employed persons are those who, during the reference week:

- a. did any work at all (i.e., paid work in the context of employer-employee relationship)

- b. had a job but were not at work due to: illness, disability, etc.

Unemployed - are those persons who:

- a. were without work, had actively looked for work in the past 4 weeks (ending with reference week) and were available for work
- b. had not actively looked for work in the past 4 weeks but had been on layoff and were available for work
- c. had not actively looked for work in the past 4 weeks but had a new job to start in 4 weeks or less from reference week, and were available for work.

Unemployment Rate - represents the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labor force. The unemployment rate for a particular group (age, sex, marital status, etc.) is the number unemployed in that group expressed as a percentage of the labor force for that group.

Participation Rate - represents the labor force expressed as a percentage of the population 15 years and over. The participation rate for a particular group (age, sex, marital status, etc.) is the labor force in the group expressed as a percentage of the population for that group.

Full-time - full-time workers normally work 30 or more hours per week. Prior to 1975, the definition of full-time work was 35 or more hours per week.

Blue Collar Jobs - are made up of Primary and Secondary Industries.

Primary Industries - are those which directly involve natural resources. These include agriculture, forestry, fishing and mining.

Secondary Industries - include all other manufacturing, fabricating, repairing and constructing.

Tertiary Industries - include administration and management, clerical jobs, service and sales jobs.

Administrative and Management Jobs - include both government and private sector administrators and managers, accountants, auditors, personnel officers, purchasing officers, inspectors and regulatory officers. It does not include supervisors within other areas.

Professional Jobs - include natural sciences, engineering, mathematics, social sciences, religion, teaching, medicine and health.

Clerical Jobs - include secretaries, typists, bookkeepers, office machine and electronic data-processing equipment operators, library, mail and file clerks.

Sales Jobs - include both retail and wholesale sale of goods.

Service Jobs- include fire-fighters, police, Armed Forces, food and beverage preparation, jobs in lodging and accommodation, personal services (e.g., hairdressers, hostesses, babysitters, laundry, dry-cleaning, janitors and cleaners).

- Wages

Employment Income - total income received by persons 15 years or over during a given year as wages and salaries, net income from non-farm self-employment and/or net farm income.

Low Income - identifies the lowest income group in Canada, taking into consideration family size and cost-of-living differences across regions. The group is defined in terms of the percentage of family income which is spent on necessities (i.e., food, shelter and clothing). Specifically, low income families are defined as those who spend more than 20 percentage points above the amount spent on necessities by the average family.

The low income cut-off was calculated in 1968, based on the 1961 Census, to be families spending 62% or more of their income on food, shelter and clothing. In 1978, the cut-off point was recalculated as 58.5%.

Because the cut-off point was changed in 1978, data before and after 1978 cannot be compared. However, this analysis is useful to compare across regions and among various demographic groups (e.g., female-headed vs. male-headed families) within a single year.

Note that low income should not be taken to mean poverty line. It does not take into account wealth (e.g., home ownership) or future earning potential.

- Sample Sizes

Except where noted, Census Canada figures refer to the entire population (not a sample).

The Labor Force Survey - is based on a sample survey of 52,800 representative households including 112,000 respondents across Canada. Any figures that are not based on sufficient sample to be reliable, are reported in the Labor Force Survey.

DETAILED FINDINGS

The four chapters of the Detailed Findings Section present all data extracted and derived from the secondary data sources used in this study.

1. Canadian Context 1976 - 1985

This chapter provides a context for the study by summarizing some of the basic demographic changes among Canadians, particularly women, and outlining briefly the major changes in the economy and in industry that might affect interpretation of the more specific data which follow.

2. Education

This chapter presents data relevant to changes in women's status in institutions of learning (e.g., elementary and secondary school, community college and universities).

3. Training

The chapter on Training presents data on changes in women's status in nationally funded training programs (i.e., funded by Employment and Immigration Canada). It also includes one recently completed study on both academic and non-academic adult education.

4. Employment

The final chapter in the Detailed Findings presents data relevant to changes in women's status in employment. It includes changes in both the amount and type of paid work in which women are employed.

The chapter also presents data relevant to changes in women's economic status, including changes in earnings from employment and in the overall family incomes of women over the Decade for Women.

1 - CANADIAN CONTEXT 1976-1985

During the 1976-1985 timeframe as new legislation of benefit to women was being implemented, the Canadian economic and social context was itself in transition:

- The recession of the late 1970's was followed by a slow economic recovery which was, in turn, marked by unprecedented levels of inflation and unemployment.
- Women made up an increasing proportion of the population, mainly because of their longer life expectancy (women comprised 50.2% of the population in 1975; 50.5% in 1984).*
- The average age of the population continued to rise, with the largest ten-year age cohort being in the 25-34 year old group in 1984. Thus, there is now a significant

decline in the number of workers who are between 18-24 years old.*

- An increasing number of women now live alone:

Between 1971 and 1981, the number of women aged 15-34 who lived alone more than tripled.

In 1981, 32% of women age 65+ lived alone.

Between 1971 and 1981, female-headed lone-parent families increased by 59% to comprise one out of every ten families in Canada.*

- Jobs in Canada began to undergo a change as dramatic as that which occurred during the Industrial Revolution:

Automation has altered the nature of work itself, with the result that the Canadian workforce must be trained or retrained in a number of different skills.

* Statistics Canada, Women in Canada, 1984.

Since business is now conducted on a global basis, some companies that previously employed Canadian workers have re-located in Third World countries where labor costs are much lower. This has resulted in a decline in some Canadian industrial sectors.

- Government concern about the deficit has resulted in a serious erosion of budgets for social programs. Since women comprise the largest group needing social assistance, not only is the gap between women and men maintained, but the gap between women with lower and higher income is also broadened. Sole support mothers comprise the largest number of this low income group.

2 - EDUCATION

2.1 - Overview and Objectives

Since education is a key determinant of both workforce participation and income level, the report deals with this topic first. Specifically, this section of the report explores in depth the trends that have developed over the 1976-1985 timeframe in education generally, and in the areas of educational attainment and course choice in particular. In addition, the current levels of education among specific sub-groups of women are examined.

The World Plan of Action called for significant improvements for women in the area of education. These have been translated into the following research objectives:

1. To determine whether women's participation in formal education* increased

- between 1976-1985.
2. To determine whether women's participation in part-time education increased between 1976- 1985.
 3. To determine whether women's participation in all fields of study increased between 1976- 1985.
 4. To assess the level of educational attainment of women in various age groups.
 5. To assess the current "demographics" (age, income, location, etc.) of women who are illiterate (i.e., have less than a Grade 9 education) in order to determine areas of special need for the next decade.

* Community college attendance is sometimes characterized as education, sometimes as training and, sometimes, as a combination of both. For the sake of clarity in presenting data, this report deals with community college enrollment figures in the Education section, while women's share of spaces paid for under the National Training Act is discussed in the Training section. This decision is based on the divisions found in the source data and does not represent any philosophical distinction between the two.

2.2 - Educational Attainment 1976-1985

FIGURE 1 shows the educational attainment of Canadian women from 1971 to 1985.

- As might be expected from past trends, enrollment statistics indicate that Canadian women are becoming better educated.
- However, the majority of Canadian women (currently 71%) have no more than a high school education and approximately one woman out of five has less than a Grade 9 education.
- About the same percentage of women and men have less than a Grade 9 education. Slightly fewer women than men have university degrees, although the gap has narrowed (i.e., in 1971, 3% of women and 6% of men had university degrees; in 1985, 8% of women and 12% of men had attained this education level).

TABLES 1 and 2 illustrate the educational attainment of women and men in various age groups or "cohorts" in 1981 and show the differences between women's current (1981) education level and their attainment in 1976. Note that:

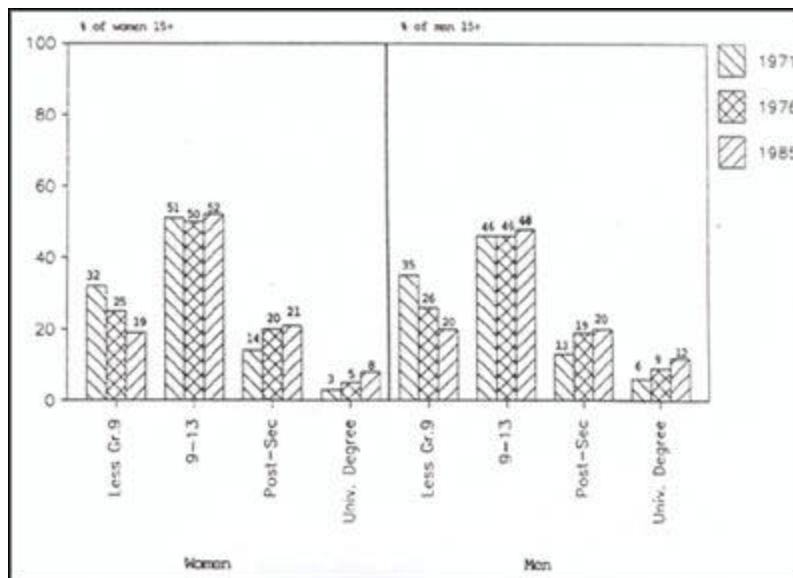
- In each age cohort, the percentage of women with less than a Grade 9 education, used in this report as a definition of illiteracy, decreases (e.g., in 1981, 50% of women in the 65+ age group compared to 8% of women age 25-34, had less than a Grade 9 education).
- Each subsequent age cohort is more likely to have attended university (in 1981, 6% of women in the 65+ age group, 23% of those age 25-34 years old), and is more likely as well to have acquired other post-secondary education (in 1981, 17%

of women 65+ years old as compared to 28% of women 25-34 years old).

- These figures are similar to the figures on the changing educational attainment and current levels of education of men. However in one important way, women's education among all age cohorts still differs from that of men: within each age cohort, about twice as many men as women have trade certificates and diplomas (see TABLE 2). This is a key indicator that the historical segregation of women into traditionally female occupations continues into the present.

FIGURE 1

Changes in Highest Educational Attainment of Women and Men, age 15+ 1971 - 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Women in Canada, 1985 and Statistics Canada, The Labor Force, Monthly Cat. # 71-001

TABLE 1

CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF WOMEN OF VARIOUS AGES
1976 - 1981

% with each education level among each age cohort

	Less than Grade 9		Grade 9 - 13		Post Secondary* or Diploma		University degree	
	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981
Women, Age:								
25 - 34	14	8	44	43	33	36	9	13
35 - 44	26	18	44	41	25	33	5	8
45 - 54	35	30	41	41	20	25	3	4
55 - 64	42	37	37	40	18	20	2	3
65+	56	49	27	32	15	16	2	2
Men, Age:								
25 - 34	13	7	37	38	34	38	16	17
35 - 44	27	17	36	35	25	32	11	16
45 - 54	38	30	34	37	20	24	8	9
55 - 64	46	37	32	36	16	20	6	7
65+	62	52	24	30	11	13	4	5

Note: This TABLE does not include people under 25. Since they often have not completed their education, they distort the data for that age cohort.

* Includes Trades certificate or diploma.

Source: Census of Canada, 1976 and 1981.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND MEN WITH TRADE CERTIFICATES
1981

% with Trade certificate among each age cohort

<u>Age</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Total 15+	7	13
25 - 34	9	16
35 - 44	7	18
45 - 54	7	17
55 - 64	6	14
65+	4	9

Source: Census of Canada, 1981.

TABLE 3 indicates the education level of women who are single heads of families and who, therefore, solely support themselves and their children. This group merits particular examination because these women are over- represented among low- income families.

It could be speculated that these women are poor because they have a low level of education and, therefore, earn a lower wage. However, as TABLE 3 shows, the largest group of these sole support mothers (age 35-54 and comprising 43% of the total group) are about as well educated as other women in this age group (i.e., single women with no children or married women). Thus, it appears that these women are poor because they earn "women's" wages and support themselves and their children on this inadequate income.

Since the education level of female heads of families is not substantially lower than that of other women in an equivalent age group, the wages they receive for performing "women's work" is clearly the cause of their low- income status. Thus, pay equity and job desegregation remain key issues to address in the years ahead in order to improve the status of these women.

Older and younger female heads of families are more likely to have an educational attainment of Grade 9 or less than their comparable age groups in the general population. Since more than half of older female single parents have less than a Grade 9 education, there is a great need to provide educational up-grading for this group.

In the case of young women who are considered illiterate, it is likely that they left school

to marry and have children. Thus, it is essential to make the educational upgrading of these women a governmental priority so that they become better able to support themselves and their families.

TABLE 3

EDUCATION OF FEMALE LONE PARENTS COMPARED TO WOMEN IN GENERAL, BY AGE GROUPS

1981

% of each group of women who have attained various Levels of Education

	All Women 18+		Age 18-35		Age-35-54		Age 55+	
	Total	Lone Parent	Total	Lone Parent	Total	Lone Parent	Total	Lone Parent
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Less than Grade 9	21	27	6	21	24	25	44	52
Grade 9 - 13	45	39	51	49	39	36	34	28
Non-university, post-secondary	23	22	26	27	23	25	15	10
University courses or degree	11	12	17	12	14	14	7	10

Based on 20% sample.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1984.

2.3 - Women With Low Educational Attainment

As noted earlier, FIGURE 1 and TABLES 1 and 2 indicate the overall change in the number of Canadian women and men who have less than a Grade 9 education:

- Among women, illiteracy declined from 25% in 1976 to 19% in 1985, and among men, from 26% to 20% over the same time period (FIGURE 1).
- This general decline is more pronounced among younger women (age 25-34) where the rate of illiteracy had declined from 14% in 1976 to 8% by 1981 (TABLE 1).

TABLE 4 outlines changes in the percentage of women who have less than a Grade 9 education in Canada as a whole and by province. TABLE 5 shows changes in the

racial/ethnic distribution of illiteracy in this same group.

Together, TABLES 4 and 5 indicate:

- While the percentage of women with less than Grade 9 education has declined in all provinces, Newfoundland, Quebec and New Brunswick still record the highest proportion of women in this category.
- The rate of illiteracy has declined more rapidly in rural than in urban areas. Thus, among women, the disparity in illiteracy between urban and rural areas has virtually disappeared.
- However, illiteracy remains high among Native Canadians and among many groups whose mother tongue is neither English nor French.

TABLE 4

**CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AGE 15+ IN EACH PROVINCE
WITH LESS THAN GRADE 9 EDUCATION***
1971 - 1981

% of Women in each Province with less than Grade 9 education

	<u>1971</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1981</u>
	%	%	%
Canada	32	25	19
Newfoundland	42	35	29
Prince Edward Island	30	23	19
Nova Scotia	28	22	18
New Brunswick	38	31	26
Quebec	43	35	28
Ontario	29	22	18
Manitoba	31	26	21
Saskatchewan	33	27	21
Alberta	23	17	12
British Columbia	22	17	13

* Includes both those attending school and those not attending school.

Based on 20% sample.

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981

TABLE 5

**CHANGES IN THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THOSE
WITH LESS THAN GRADE 9 EDUCATION**

1971 - 1981

% of each subgroup with less than Grade 9 education

	<u>1971</u> %	<u>1976</u> %	<u>1981</u> %
Women			
Total	32	25	19
Urban	28	24	19
Rural	40	31	24
Men			
Total	35	26	20
Urban	28	23	17
Rural	48	37	28
(Women and Men Combined)			
Ethnic Origin			
British	24	N/A	22
French	43	N/A	28
Other European	26	N/A	24
Native	64	N/A	60
Mother Tongue			
English	35	N/A	13
French	44	N/A	27
Other European/Slavic	53	N/A	42
Chinese	N/A	N/A	25
Amerindian Languages	75	N/A	59

Based on 20% sample.

Source: Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada, 1971, 1976, 1981.

2.4 - Community College Course Enrollment

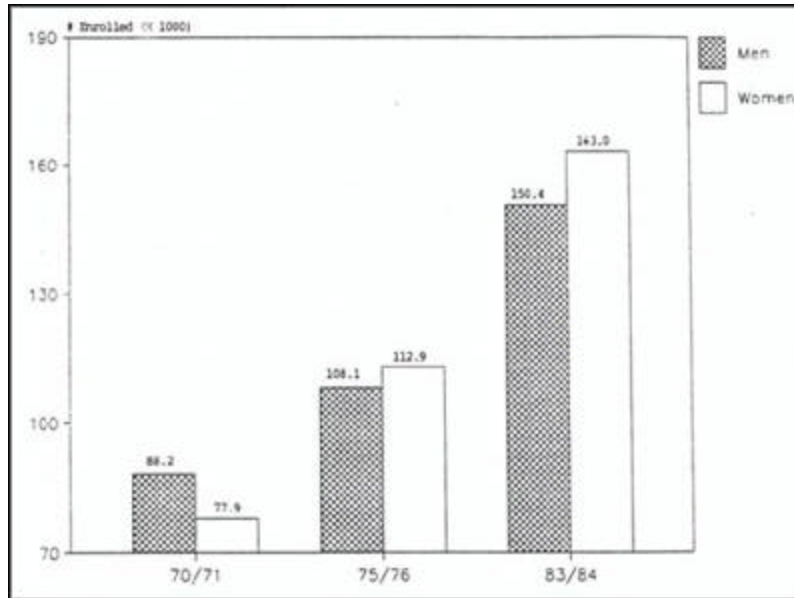
FIGURE 2 indicates changes in the number of women enrolled in community colleges, while TABLE 6 shows changes in the type of courses taken by women.

Together, they show:

- Overall enrollment in community colleges has continued to increase from 1970/1971 to 1983/1984.
- From 1975/1976 to 1983/1984, women have marginally been in the majority (51% of total enrolled in 1975/1976, 52% in 1983/1984).
- Substantial increases occurred in the Business area of Management and Administration (from 44% in 1977/1978 to 50% in 1983/1984) and in Natural Sciences (from 16% in 1974/1975 to 27% in 1983/1984).
- In spite of these gains, women in 1983/1984 continued to enroll in typically "women's" areas (for example, 100% of Secretarial courses, 88% of Health Sciences, 74% of Education) and to be under represented in non-traditional areas (e.g., women comprise 10% of Engineering students, 9% of Electronics, 27% of Natural Science students).

FIGURE 2

**Changes in Full - Time Community College Enrollment of Women and Men
1970/1971 - 1983/1984**



Source: Statistics Canada, Education in Canada (Annual) # 81 - 229

TABLE 6

**CHANGES IN WOMEN'S COMMUNITY COLLEGE FULL-TIME ENROLLMENT
1974 / 1975 - 1983 / 1984**

Female enrollment as a % of Total Enrollment (Full-time)

	<u>1974 /75</u> %	<u>1977 /78</u> %	<u>1983 / 84</u> %
Total	50	51	52
Business (Total)	50	58	60
Secretary	NA	99	100

Management/Administration	NA	44	50
Data Processing	NA	44	46
Financial Management	NA	47	56
Other	NA	48	55
Engineering (Total)	8	9	10
Natural Sciences	16	24	27
Applied Science:			
Chemistry/Biology	37	44	41
Electronics	NA	9	9
Transportation	NA	3	6
Community and Social Services	66	70	72
Education	80	77	74
Health Sciences	91	90	88

NA: data not available in comparable form.

Source: Statistics Canada, Education Statistics (Annual) #81-002.

2.5 Undergraduate University Enrollment

FIGURE 3 indicates the overall increase in women's enrollment in university during the 1970-1984 timeframe. FIGURES 4 and 5 elaborate on the general enrollment data by exploring the increase in particular subject areas.

These FIGURES show that:

- Women's overall university enrollment has increased substantially from 1970/1971 and again during the years of the Decade for Women, with the most dramatic increase occurring in part-time enrollment.

It is possible that special efforts during the Decade may have encouraged more young women to enter university. It is also likely that the poor state of the economy during this timeframe contributed to the increase in university enrollment, since out-of-work students may have returned to or continued their education. However, the fact that women's enrollment rate grew faster than men's is likewise noteworthy.

- Increases in the percentage of women in the traditionally female disciplines (Education, Arts, Fine Arts) were modest but women continue to be represented

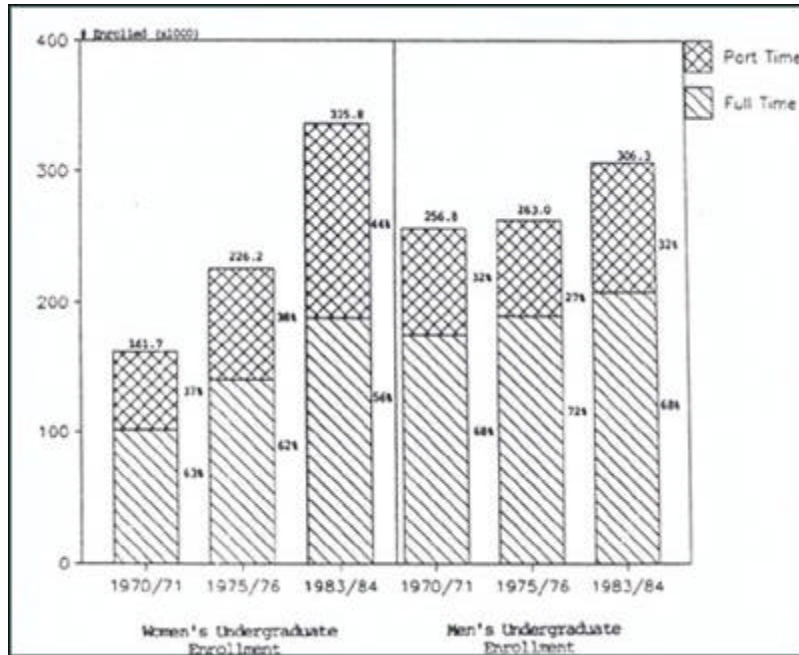
disproportionately in them.

- The large increases in women's enrollment occurred in the less traditional disciplines, a trend that appears to have begun prior to the Decade and continued through it:
 - women's share of enrollment in Medicine increased by 51%, from 27% in 1975/1976 to 41% in 1983/1984
 - women's share of enrollment in Law increased by 73%, from 26% in 1975/1976 to 45% in 1983/1984
 - women's share of enrollment in Commerce increased by 109%, from 21% in 1975/1976 to 44% in 1983/1984
 - women's share of enrollment in Engineering increased by 120%, from 5% in 1975/1976 to 11% in 1983/1984, but remains well below their total share of undergraduate enrollment in this field.

It may be speculated that increasing university enrollment is closely related to and interactive with the increase in women's workforce participation. That is, as women now expect to remain in the workforce for most of their adult lives, they tend to seek a higher level of education. In turn, as women obtain a better education, they are more likely to put it to use in the workforce.

FIGURE 3

**Changes in Undergraduate Enrollment of Women and Men
1970/71 to 1983/84**



Source: Statistics Canada: Education in Canada (Annual) Cat. #81 - 229

A clear commitment on the part of educational institutions to create policy on part-time study which is of benefit to women (i.e., which takes into account women's other responsibilities) would likely result in further increases in the participation of women in the fields where they are presently under represented.

TABLE 7

**CHANGES IN WOMEN'S PART-TIME UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT AS A PERCENTAGE
OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN VARIOUS SUBJECT AREAS**

1975/76 - 1983/84

Part-Time Enrollment of Women as a % of Total Enrollment of Women

	<u>1975 / 76</u>	<u>1983 / 84</u>
	%	%
Total	38	44
Arts	42	39
Arts or sciences*	39	33
Education	40	43
Fine and applied arts	19	32
Nursing	27	42
Household science	9	14
Pharmacy	1	5
Other health professions	10	18
Law	2	12
Commerce	40	44
Sciences	15	25
Engineering and applied sciences	4	8
Dentistry	4	1
Medicine	1	1
Veterinary Medicine	3	3

* This refers to a term used in the source document to describe students who have not yet chosen between an arts or science major.

Source: Statistics Canada, Education in Canada, (Annual) #81-229

2.6 - Graduate University Enrollment

FIGURES 6 and 7 display trends in the enrollment of women in graduate school from 1970 to 1984. FIGURE 6 shows overall trends while FIGURE 7 shows the increase in women's share of graduate enrollment in various fields of study.

As with undergraduate enrollment, during this time period there has been:

- An increase in the number of women enrolled in graduate school, particularly on a part-time basis. However, their overall share of graduate enrollment (40%) should still be higher, especially in non-traditional disciplines where it remains unacceptably low.

Over the Decade, the increase in women's graduate enrollment has been larger than men's, but the rate of growth accelerated only slightly after 1975.

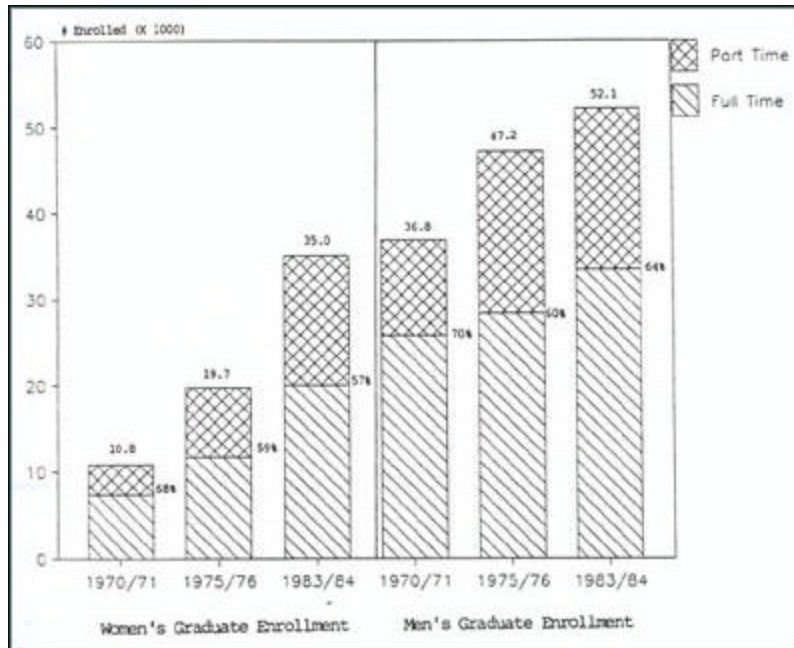
- An increase in women's share of enrollment in both traditional and non-traditional disciplines.

Any growth in women's participation in non-traditional areas of study is especially important because women have accounted for such a small proportion of students in these disciplines in the past. In addition, degrees in these non-traditional fields open the way to future jobs in growth sectors of the economy.

Continuing support and encouragement of women is needed to further increase their enrollment in all areas and particularly in Maths, Physical Sciences, Engineering and Applied Sciences.

FIGURE 6

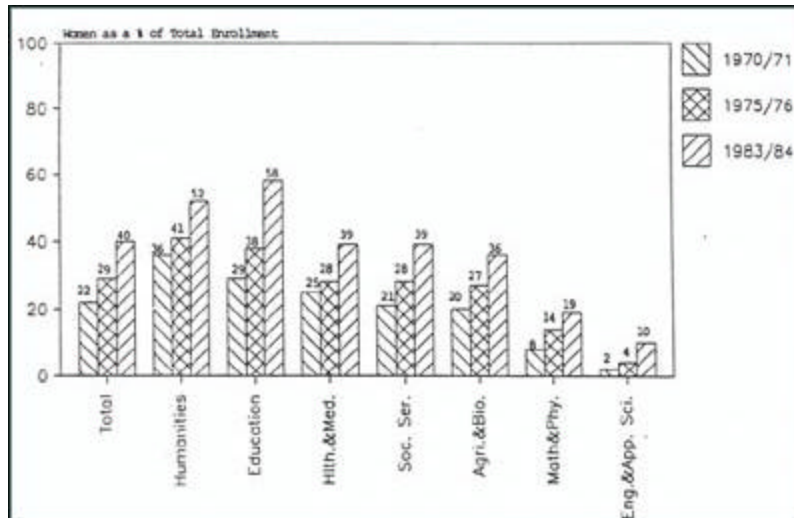
**Changes in Graduate Enrollment of Women and Men
1970/71 to 1983/84**



Source: Statistics Canada, Education in Canada (Annual) #81-229

FIGURE 7

Changes in Enrollment of Women in Selected Areas of Graduate Study
1970/71, 1975/76 and 1983/84



Source: Statistics Canada, Education Statistics (Annual) #81-002

2.7 - Women In Education Leadership

TABLE 8 illustrates a disturbing trend concerning the role models presented to female students. This TABLE shows the participation of Canadian women in education leadership between 1975/1976 and 1983/1984. Despite small gains in some areas, there has been very little real gain for women overall.

For example:

- the percentage of women Vice-Principals and Principals at the secondary level increased from 20% to 21% and from 7% to 9% respectively during this time
- the percentage of women Vice-Principals at the elementary level increased from 22% to 24% while the percentage of women elementary Principals did not increase at all
- the percentage of women Community College senior administrators rose from 18% to 24%

- the percentage of women senior administrators in universities increased from 7% to 9%.

Thus, female students continue to be as likely to have male administrators from elementary school through university as they were in the past. They are also likely to have exclusively male educators in university and community college Maths, Physical Sciences, Engineering and Applied Sciences courses.

TABLE 8

WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION AMONG EDUCATORS		
1975/76 - 1983/84		
	<u>Female Educators as a % of Total</u>	
	<u>1975/76</u>	<u>1983/84</u>
	%	%
<u>Elementary</u>		
Teachers	74	72
Vice Principals	22	24
Principals	16	16
<u>Secondary</u>		
Teachers	35	34
Vice Principals	20	21
Principals	7	9
<u>Community College</u>		
Educators (Total)	31	30
Educators with Senior Administrative Responsibility	18	24
<u>University</u>		
Educators (Total)	14	16
Educators with Senior Administrative Responsibility	7	9
Engineering and Applied Sciences Educators	1	2
Maths and Physical Sciences Educators	4	6

Source: Statistics Canada, Education Statistics (Annual) # 81-002.

3 - TRAINING

3.1 - Overview and Objectives

The World Plan of Action clearly delineated a number of strategies for improving women's access to diverse training opportunities because of the recognition that training for a broad range of occupations has the potential for significantly improving the earning power of large numbers of women. In this section of the Detailed Findings, trends in women's access to training during the Decade for Women are analyzed.

The research objectives for this section are to determine:

1. whether women's share of full-time training increased during the 1976-1985 time period
2. the range of training programs women entered during the 1976-1985 time period
3. whether women's opportunities for part-time training increased during the Decade
4. whether the participation of women in training increased across all age groups during the Decade
5. women's share of training spaces under the National Training Act and whether that share was equal to women's representation in the population, the workforce or unemployment.

FIGURE 8 indicates in absolute numbers and as a percent of spaces, women's representation in Institutional and Industrial Training programs funded under the National Training Act. Note that:

- Since women's labor force participation increased during the Decade at a rate higher than men's*, it would not have been surprising to find that women's participation in government and/or employer-subsidized training had increased as well. In addition, a major goal of the World Plan of Action was just such an increase. However, as this section of the report documents, women's participation in government funded training actually declined during the ten-year timeframe.

For example, women's share of places in General Industrial Training declined from 28% in 1977/1978 to 24% in 1983/1984, while their share of spaces in full-time Institutional Training dropped from 32% in 1977/1978 to 27% in 1983/1984*. This low representation does not match women's share of the population (51%), women's national rate of participation in the labor force (42%), or women's rate of unemployment (45%) in 1985.

- Since the total number of women and men trainees has declined, the number of women trained under these programs has declined even more sharply than their percentage share of total places (e.g., in Industrial Training, from approximately 19,600 places in 1977/1978 to approximately 8,200 in 1983/1984; in Institutional

Training, from approximately 57,300 in 1977/1978 to approximately 44,000 in 1983/1984).

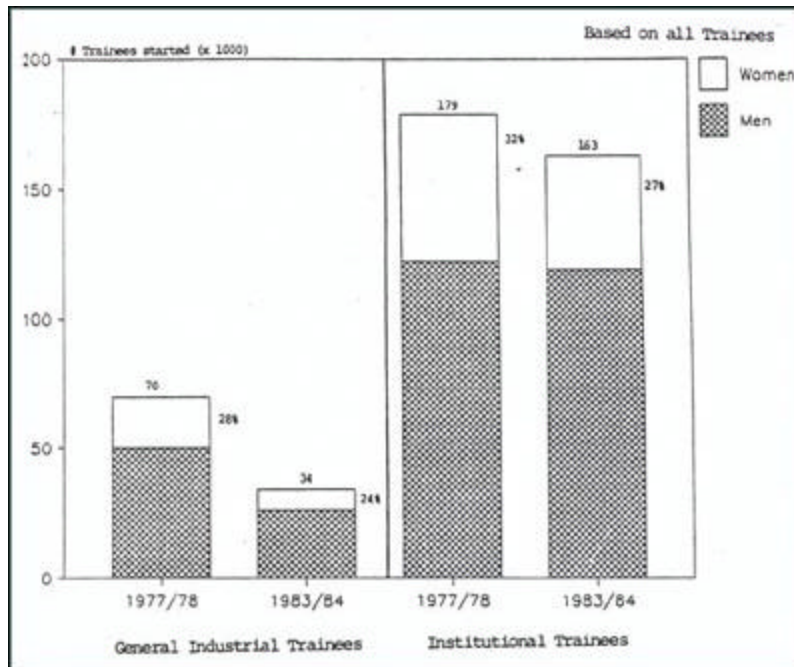
* Comparisons cannot be made with 1984/1985 figures the Employment and Immigration Commission Annual Statistical Bulletin for 1984/1985 has not yet been published. However, from the 1984/1985 EIC Annual Report, the following comparisons can be made:

	<u>Total Trainees</u>	<u>Women as a % of Total Trainees</u>
1977/1978	76,972	31
1983/1984	52,175	19
1984/1985	55,634	21

* Statistics Canada, Women in Canada, 1985.

FIGURE 8

Change in Women's Share of National Training Spaces
1977/78 - 1983/84



Source: Employment and Immigration Annual Statistical Bulletin, 1977/78 and 1983/84

FIGURES 9 and 10 document women's share of the various trainee categories funded under the National Training Act (Employment and Immigration Canada).*

Together, the FIGURES illustrate:

- The decline in General Industrial Training (GIT) has been more rapid for women who are employed than for those who are unemployed.
- Very little training is provided for either women or men who are employed in threatened sectors of the workforce.
- About two thirds of Institutional Training falls into two categories: Skills Training and Apprenticeships, categories of training which lead most directly to Jobs. Women's share of these categories (30% and 4% respectively in 1983/84), is lower than their share of other training areas (ranging from 42% to 81% share of other types of training in 1983/84).

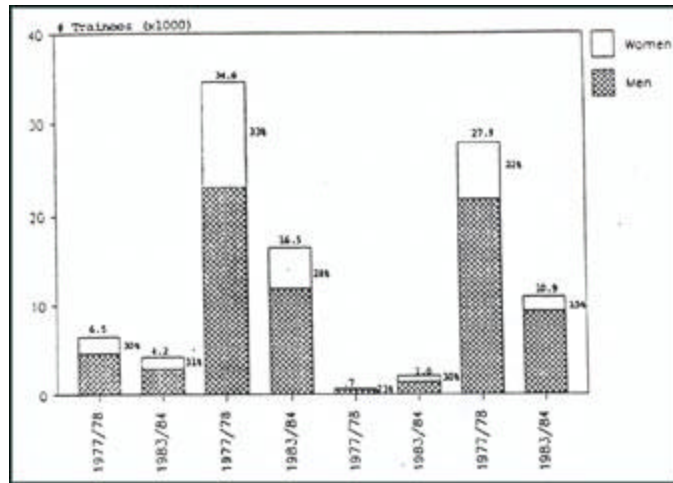
The number of Skills Training spaces has declined and women's share of these spaces has also been reduced. Moreover, women still have virtually no share in Apprenticeship training.

- Funding for spaces in Basic Training Skill Development (BTSD), a training area with high female enrollment in 1977/1978, had been reduced by half as of 1983/1984. Since female enrollment had also declined, women received a lesser share of fewer spaces.
- Two other training areas funded by Employment and Immigration Canada, each with a very small number of trainees, underwent changes from 1977/1978 to 1983/1984:
 - Job Readiness Training grew slightly but women's share of spaces within this program declined; work Adjustment Training (WAT) declined, as has women's share in it; enrollment in Language training has increased, so that although women's share is slightly down, the absolute numbers of women in this area has grown.
 - Occupational Orientation courses had an 81% female enrollment in 1983/1984.

* Employment and Immigration Canada Annual Statistical Bulletins, 1977/78 and 1983/84.

FIGURE 9

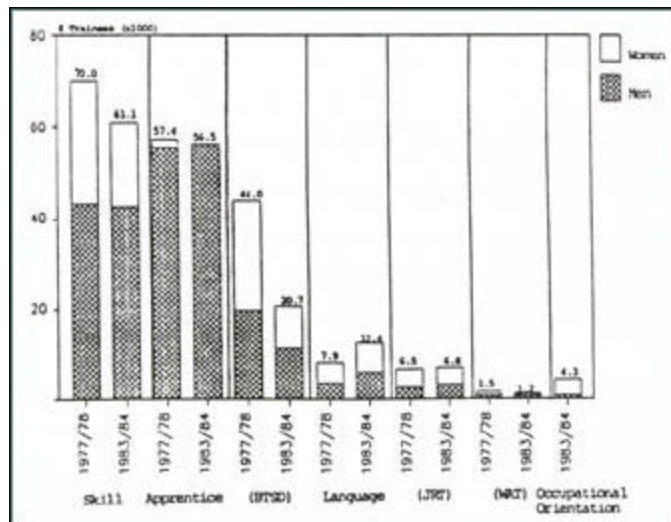
Changes in Women's Share of Spaces in Various Areas of General Industrial Training Under the National Training Act 1977/78 and 1983/84



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Annual Statistical Bulletins, 1977/78, 1983/84

FIGURE 10

Changes in Women's Share of Spaces in Various Areas of Institutional Training Under the National Training Act 1977/78 - 1983/84



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Annual Statistical Bulletins, 1977/78, 1983/84

FIGURE 11 shows changes in the amount of part-time training paid for under the National Training Act. Since women are most often responsible for household and child-care tasks, access to part-time training (as to part-time study) is an important option for them.

Although records do not reveal how many men or women are part-time trainees, it is possible to establish the proportion who train part-time and, from this, to assess the availability of this option.

From FIGURE 11, note:

- Part-time training in the Institutional Training programs increased by a modest amount (from 22% of all Institutional trainees in 1977/1978 to 29% in 1983/1984).
- However, this level is still much lower than part-time enrollment among university under-graduates (38% of all under-graduates).
- Most of the increase occurred in the Skill Training area, where only 30% of the trainees were women.
- Occupational Orientation Training, with 81% women trainees in 1983/1984, had no part-time trainees.

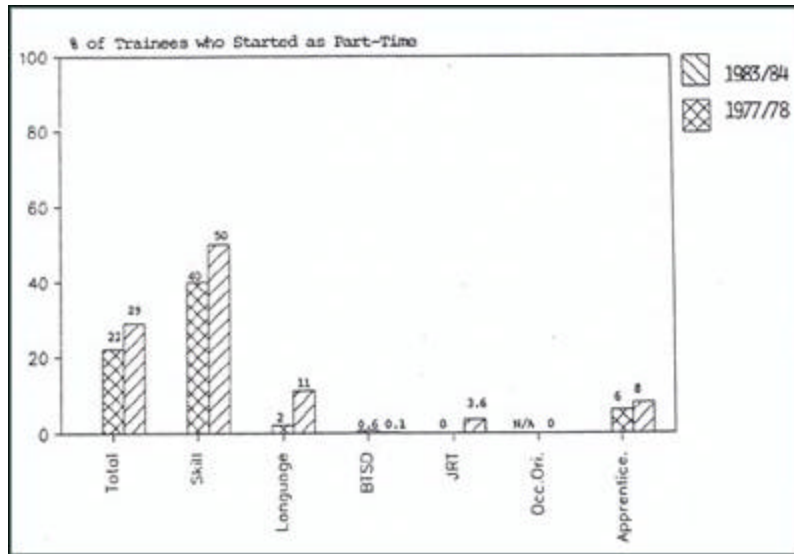
While these findings may reflect the choices of trainees, it appears that no specific attempt has been made to accommodate women's special needs and, thereby, to attract more women into training programs.

This lack of accommodation of women's situation is echoed by Boothby* who, for the same reason, criticizes the lack of dependent allowances which reflect actual child-care costs.

* Boothby, D. Women Re-Entering the Labor Force and Training Programs, 1986.

FIGURE 11

**Changes in Availability of Part-Time Training
Under the National Training Act**



Note: No records are available on part-time vs. full-time Industrial Training.

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Annual Statistics Bulletins, 1977/78 and 1983/84

TABLE 9 shows the change in the age groupings of women trainees funded under the National Training Act from 1977/1978 to 1983/1984, and the marital status of these women in 1983/1984 (marital status was not recorded for 1977/1978).

Note that:

- There were more women in the 25-44 year old category and fewer women under 20 in training programs in 1983/1984 than in 1977/1978.

This may indicate a shift in focus from training younger women (who may be continuing their "formal" education) toward training "re-entry" women (women who are returning to the workforce after being absent for a number of years).

- Although married women comprise 61% of the population age 15-64, they represent only 41% of trainees.

Since all women experience discrimination in the workforce and typically need more education and training to compete for jobs with men, it follows that all women need access to training. Thus, it is unfortunate that sub-groups of women (i.e., single, married, re-entry, etc.) are put in the position of competing with each other for an already inadequate share of available training.

TABLE 9

**CHANGES IN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS OF WOMEN
TRAINEES UNDER THE NATIONAL TRAINING ACT
1977/1978 - 1983/1984**

% of Women Trainees in each demographic sub-group

	General Industrial Training		Institutional Training	
	<u>1977/1978</u> %	<u>1983/1984</u> %	<u>1977/1978</u> %	<u>1983/1984</u> %
<u>Age</u>				
19 or less	18	8	15	8
20 - 24	30	30	30	30
25 - 44	41	53	45	54
45+	11	8	9	8
<u>Marital Status</u>				
Single	N/A	46	N/A	42
Married	N/A	41	N/A	38
Other	N/A	13	N/A	20

N/A: Data not available.

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Annual Statistical Bulletin, 1977/1978, 1983/1984.

TABLES 10 and 11 indicate changes in the number and percentage of women enrolled in training for specific occupations under the General Industrial Training or Institutional Skill Training Programs in 1980/1981 (the first year that this information was available) and in 1983/1984. TABLE 12 also shows the previous education level of trainees in 1976/1977 and in 1983/1984.

The TABLES show:

- From 1980/1981 to 1983/1984, women's share of training spaces had declined from 27% to 24% in General Industrial Training and from 41% to 30% in Institutional Skills Training.
- In both Programs, women's share of managerial/ administrative training has increased although the number of women in General Industrial Training dropped substantially (from 414 in 1980/1981 to 147 in 1983/1984).
- The number of women trainees in Primary and Secondary industry areas was cut by more than half (under the GIT Program, from 349 to 96 in Primary industries and from 7741 to 3281 in Secondary industries; under the Institutional Skills Training Program, from 556 to 381 in Primary industries and from 3469 to 3002 in Secondary industries).

In most cases, this also constituted a decrease in women's share of training spaces.

- The education level of trainees prior to entering these Programs became somewhat higher. While women with higher educational attainment may have been more successful in Industrial Training programs, this change served to exclude poorly educated women. These women require up-grading before they can access the type of training that leads to well-paying jobs. Thus, it is still the case that these women, who most need up-grading and training in order to earn a livable wage, were being largely ignored in this major government initiative.
- As in all other areas of education and training, women continued to be disproportionately represented in traditionally women's occupations.

Boothby, in his analysis of Employment and Immigration training programs, agrees that these programs have "done little to diversify the occupational distribution of women beyond stereotypical female occupations. At best, (EIC) training programs have simply reflected the occupational segregation by sex in the labor market".*

TABLE 10

**CHANGES IN ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL
AREAS IN GENERAL INDUSTRIAL TRAINING
1980/1981 - 1983/1984**

	Number of Women Trainees		Women as a % of Total Trainees	
	<u>1980/1981*</u>	<u>1983/1984</u>	<u>1980/1981*</u>	<u>1983/1984</u>
	#	#	%	%
Managerial /Administrative	414	147	23	42
Natural Sciences/ Engineering/ Math	402	508	16	14
Social Sciences/Teaching	424	495	44	49
Medicine and Health	1553	662	84	84
Clerical	4976	1446	71	70
Service	2837	560	57	47
Primary Industry+	349	96	9	6
Secondary Industry+	7741	3281	17	16
Total	18,696	7195	27	24

**Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Statistical Bulletin,
1980/81 and 1983/84.**

* 1980/81 earliest records available.

+ **Note: Primary industry refers to agriculture and other natural resources;
Secondary industry refers to processing, machining, fabricating and
repairing goods, construction, transportation.**

* Boothby, D. Women Re-Entering the Labor Force and Training Programs, 1986.

TABLE 11

**CHANGES IN ENROLLMENT OF WOMEN IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL
AREAS IN INSTITUTIONAL SKILL TRAINING**
1980/1981 - 1983/1984

	Number of Women Trainees		Women as a % of Total Trainees	
	<u>1980/1981*</u>	<u>1983/1984</u>	<u>1980/1981*</u>	<u>1983/1984</u>
	#	#	%	%
Managerial /Administrative	512	540	52	55
Natural Sciences/ Engineering/ Math	485	1516	21	22
Social Sciences/Teaching	530	507	67	60
Medicine and Health	2436	2021	88	82
Clerical	13,415	7780	94	93
Service	3970	2306	61	49
Primary Industry+	556	381	12	9
Secondary Industry+	3469	3002	12	8
Total	25,373	18,053	41	30

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada Statistical Bulletin, 1980/81 and 1983/84.

* 1980/81 earliest records available.

+ Note: Primary industry refers to agriculture and other natural resources; Secondary industry refers to processing, machining, fabricating and repairing goods, construction and transportation.

TABLE 12

**CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF PREVIOUS EDUCATION OF
TRAINEES FUNDED UNDER THE NATIONAL TRAINING ACT
1976/77 - 1983/84**

	<u>1976/77</u> %	<u>1983/84</u> %
<u>Previous Education of Institutional Trainees</u>		
Less than Grade 9	24	15
Grade 9-13	10	14
Post-Secondary	5	11
<u>Previous Education of Industrial Trainees</u>		
Less than Grade 9	14	9
Grades 9-13	77	68
Post-Secondary	9	24

Source: Employment and Immigration Statistical Bulletin, 1976/77 and 1983/84.

3.2 - Current Enrollment in Adult Education

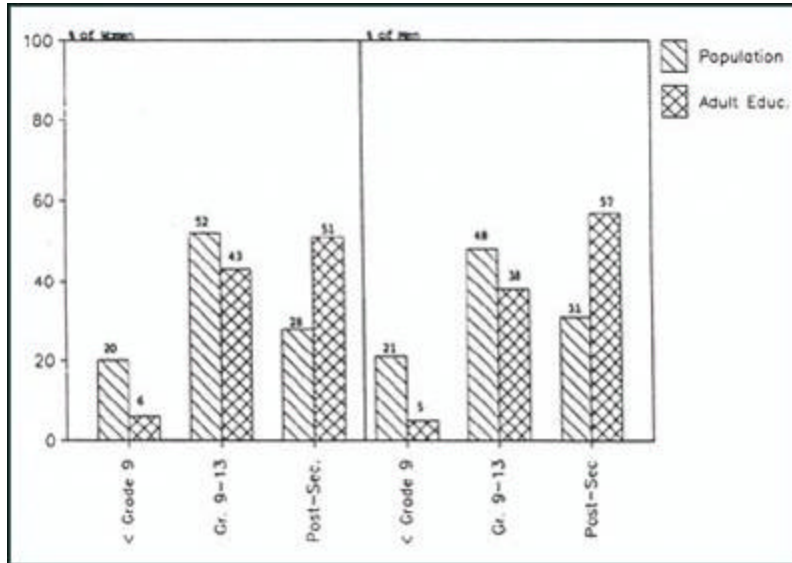
FIGURE 12 and TABLES 13 and 14 present data from a study of adult education in Canada, One in Every Five*. This study provides an overview of the adult education undertaken by women and men in 1985.

FIGURE 12 indicates that:

- Women (21%) are a little more likely than men (17%) to take adult education classes.
- Both women and men who have little education are much less likely to enroll in adult education classes than those who are already well educated (FIGURE 12).

FIGURE 12

Prior Education of Men and Women Enrolled in Adult Education, 1985



	Women	Men
Total Adult Education Participants	(1,786, 000)	(1,385,000)
	21% of population	17% of population

Source: Calculated from Devereaux, One in Every Five Statistics Canada, 1985

TABLES 13 and 14 also differentiate between job-related courses and courses in academic or personal interest areas. Together, the TABLES show:

- Women, particularly those in the labor force, enroll in fewer job-related courses than do men. This may be explained, in part, by the finding that **56% of men's job-related courses, but only 44% of women's, were paid for by employers.**

This disparity is smaller among white collar workers and largest among blue collar workers where employers paid for 59% of men's job-related courses but for only 36% of women's.

- However, women who are not in the labor force take more job-related courses than do men who are not in the labor force.

- Regardless of whether they are in the labor force, women take more academic and personal interest courses than do their male counterparts. This may indicate a willingness on the part of women who are not employed, to prepare for future re-entry.

Unfortunately, no comparable data exists by which to determine trends in adult education over the Decade for Women.

* Devereaux, M.S. One In Every Five, 1985.

TABLE 13

**TYPE OF ADULT EDUCATION COURSES TAKEN BY WOMEN AND MEN
1985**

Number Of Courses Taken By Each Group (X1000)

	<u>Total</u>		<u>In Labour Force</u>		<u>Not in Labor Force</u>	
	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
	#	#	#	#	#	#
Total Participants	1786	1385	1306	1316	418	69
<u>Type of Course</u>						
Job Related	500	789	470	776	34	21
Academic	214	116	183	158	43	10
Personal Development/ Hobby/Other	1072	430	653	382	404	38
	<u>In Labor Force</u>		<u>White Collar Jobs</u>		<u>Blue Collar Jobs</u>	
	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
	#	#	#	#	#	#
Total Courses	1306	1316	1014	703	177	503

<u>Type of Course</u>						
Job Related	470	776	385	401	53	317
Academic	183	158	142	98	21	45
Personal Development/ Hobby/Other	653	382	487	204	103	141

Source: Devereaux, M.S. One in Every Five. 1985.

TABLE 14

**PERCENTAGE OF ADULT EDUCATION COURSES PAID BY EMPLOYERS
1985**

% Paid by Employer

	Women %	Men %
Job Related		
- Total	44	56
- White Collar	51	60
- Blue Collar	36	59
Academic	10	13

Source: Devereaux, M.S. One in Every Five, 1985.
Labor Force Survey Supplement, January, 1984.

4 - EMPLOYMENT

4.1 - Overview and Objectives

A major goal of education and, especially, of training is to prepare people for employment so that they can earn an adequate enough income to enable them to participate fully in all aspects of Canadian life.

Thus, employment can be considered a key outcome of the education and training process. This section of the report explores this area in detail from the following perspectives:

- which women are employed, the occupations in which they are employed and why they are employed in those occupations
- which women are underemployed and what factors account for their underemployment
- which women are unemployed and what factors account for their unemployment.

Future trends in employment are also discussed. As for the areas of Education and Training, the following research objectives were derived from World Plan of Action goals:

1. To determine what, if any, changes occurred for women, both in their rate of labor force participation and unemployment during the 1976- 1985 time period.
2. To identify whether there are particular groups of women who experience high rates of unemployment.
3. To identify changes in access to and compensation for part-time work.
4. To determine whether women gained access to a broader range of occupations, especially management.
5. To determine whether the increased use of technology has had a positive or negative impact on clerical jobs.
6. To determine whether changes have occurred in the relative pay of women as compared to men across all occupations and within occupations that are described the same way (i.e., within the same occupational categories).
7. To describe the demographic characteristics of women who have the lowest incomes.
8. To determine whether women's participation in trade unions has increased.
9. To determine whether there was an increase in the availability of child-care.

4.2 - Full- and Part-Time Employment, Unemployment

FIGURE 13, which presents an historical overview of the percentage of Canadian women in the labor force shows the relatively steady increase in female workforce participation since 1941 (i.e., during and after World War II) .

TABLE 15 shows the same measure by various age groups and indicates the growing workforce participation of women by each successive age level. This analysis provides an interesting perspective of participation trends over time. Note that the diagonals drawn on the TABLE allow the reader to follow the same group of women (age cohorts) throughout their working lives.

TABLE 16 supplements the information in FIGURE 13 and TABLE 15. It shows the trends in women's labor force participation up to the present time by examining the percentage of Canadian women in the workforce and among various age groups in 1965, 1975 and 1985.

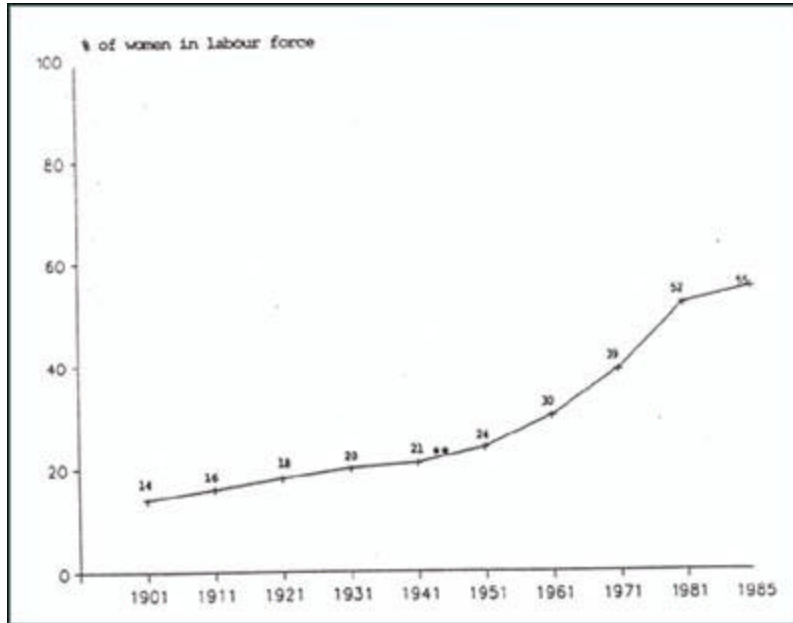
The age cohort analysis reveals that:

- In 1921, about one third of all young women (age 15-24) entered the workforce. However, by the time these women (who were age 25-34 in 1931 and age 35-44 in 1941) reached the age for marriage and childbearing, their participation dropped to about one in four or one in five. Few of these women appear to have re-entered the labor force.
- Women who entered the labor force in 1931 (33% of women ages 15-24) also appeared to leave during their childbearing years (ages 25-34 and 35-44). However, some of these women apparently returned to the labor force. so that 33% of them, now ages 45-54 were in the labor force in 1961.
- Each successive decade up to 1971 saw women return to work at a somewhat earlier age. Women who entered the labor force in 1971 (49% of women ages 15-24) do not appear to have left at all a decade later since even more of these women (66%), now ages 25-34, were in the labor force in 1981.

In fact, since 1971 and up to 1985, women are More likely to be in the workforce when they are 25-34 years old than when they are 15-24. This undoubtedly occurs because they are remaining in school longer to prepare more adequately for a lifetime spent in the workforce.

FIGURE 13

**Changes in Percentage of Canadian Women Age 15+
who are in the Labor Force 1901 - 1985**



* Note that in 1901 and 1911, the age limit was 10+, in 1921, the age was 14+.

Labor force participation includes both employed women and those actively seeking work.

** Does not adequately represent women's labor force participation during World War II.

Source: Statistics Canada: Census of Canada, 1981

TABLE 15

LONG TERM TRENDS IN PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR FORCE OF WOMEN AGE 15-64 1921 - 1985								
Year:	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1985
Total %	18	20	21	24	30	39	52	55
<u>Age Category</u>								
15-24 %	29	33	41	42	41	49	61	71
25-34 %	17	24	25	24	30	44	66	69
35-44 %	11	13	16	22	31	44	64	69
45-54 %	11	13	13	20	33	44	56	60
55-64 %	10	13	10	14	24	34	42	34

* Census of Canada for each year specified.

TABLE 16 shows that:

- In 1985, women no longer appear to leave paid employment to attend exclusively to their household and family responsibilities, but are working continuously through their childbearing years.

TABLE 16

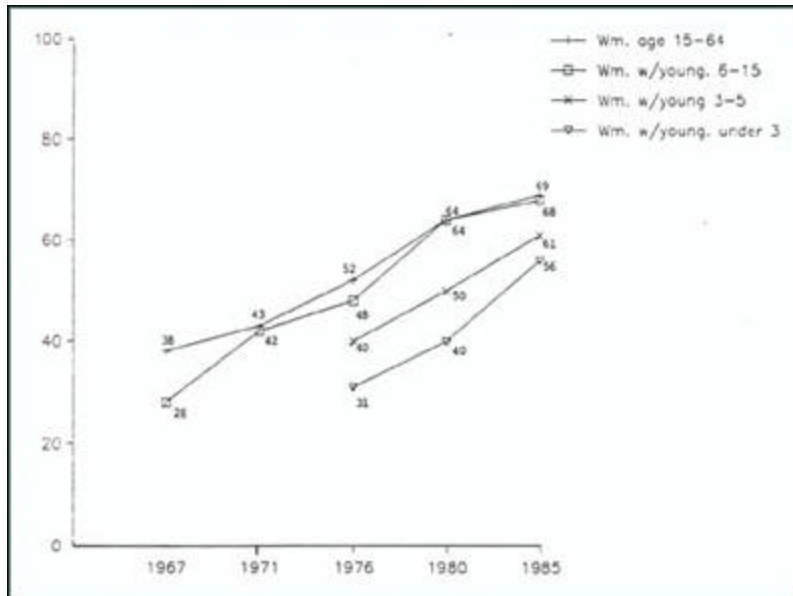
RECENT LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION* OF WOMEN AGE 15-64 1965-1985			
Year:	1965	1975	1985
Total %	31	44	55
<u>Age Category</u>			
20-24 %	53	67	75
25-34 %	31	53	69
35-44 %	34	52	69
45-54 %	37	46	60
55-64 %	27	31	34

Source: Statistics Canada. The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) #71-001.

FIGURE 14 shows increases in the labor force participation of women who have children under 3 years old, children who are between 3-5 years old and children of school age only. It confirms the recent acceleration of labor force participation among women with young children.

FIGURE 14

Changes in Labor Force Participation of Women With Children vs, All Women age 15-64, 1967 - 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Characteristics of Women in the Labor Force, 1984

The Labor Force, #71-001

There are a number of possible reasons to explain this phenomenon:

- Necessity - In recent years, women have become less able to count on financial support from men.* For example, there has been a 59% increase in female-headed households from 1971- 1981. The number of women living alone has more than doubled in the same ten years. There has also been a decrease in the earning power of the male partner in a marriage (wives contributed 25% of the family income in 1971; by 1981, this had risen to 28%). However, TABLE 17 indicates that in 1985, those women who had young children were no less likely to work than other women, even if their husbands were employed.
- Women's Attitudes - It is probable that, as women's ability to support themselves has increased, they have begun to place more value on the role of paid work in their lives. The ability to be self-supporting has also likely increased women's confidence in themselves. In addition, many more of today's working women find it acceptable to be employed and to use childcare while their children are young, rather than being the exclusive caregivers themselves.
- Reduced Systemic Discrimination - Married or pregnant women are no longer required to leave the workforce. Improved maternity leave policies protect women's jobs during temporary absences. More stringent Human Rights legislation increasingly prevents discrimination and makes job opportunities more readily accessible.
- Reproductive Choice - With improved family planning methods at their disposal, women may choose whether to have any children, to delay having children and/or to have fewer children.
- Difficulties Faced By Women - Women are increasingly aware of the poverty faced by many widowed or divorced women who had previously been supported by their husbands ("displaced homemakers"). They prefer to be able to contribute to family income or to be able to provide adequately for themselves.

The increase in the participation rate of women with young children has been dramatic over the 1976-1985 timeframe:

- **The participation rate of women with children 0-3 years of age has increased by 81%. from 31% in 1976 to 56% in 1985.**
- The participation rate of women with 3-5 year old children has increased by 50%, from 40% in 1976 to 61% in 1985.
- The participation rate of women with school-age children has increased by 42%, from 48% in 1976 to 68% in 1985.

This rapid growth in workforce participation, especially among women with young

children, poses difficulties for working women since neither their partners nor society assumes a fair share of the responsibility for household or family-related tasks. For example:

- In 1981, men in the labor force spent about half as much time on childcare and other domestic responsibilities as did women in the labor force.*
- In 1975, there were daycare spaces for 13% of the children under 6 whose mothers were in the labor force. By 1982, this had only increased to 16% of working mothers with children under 6.*

TABLE 17 shows the impact of having a husband and children in the home on women's workforce participation in 1985. Note that:

- As FIGURE 14 showed, the older her children, the more likely the mother is to work.
- This TABLE also indicates that, whatever the age of their children, the women who are least likely to work are those who are married but whose husband is unemployed. It can be speculated that the social "norm" that a woman should not be supporting her husband works, to some extent, against even the economic necessity of supporting a family. Thus, women free from this norm (either those who have employed husbands, or who have no husband) are more likely to work than women whose husbands are unemployed.

TABLE 17

EFFECT OF CHILDREN AND PRESENCE OF PARTNER ON LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN
1985

% of women who are in labor force

<u>Youngest Child's Age</u>	<u>Husband Employed</u>	<u>Husband not in Labor Force</u>	<u>No Husband</u>
Pre-school (under 6)	55	51	50
Age 6-15	66	55	68
Over 16/parent under 55	74	63	77

Source: Statistics Canada. The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) #71-001.

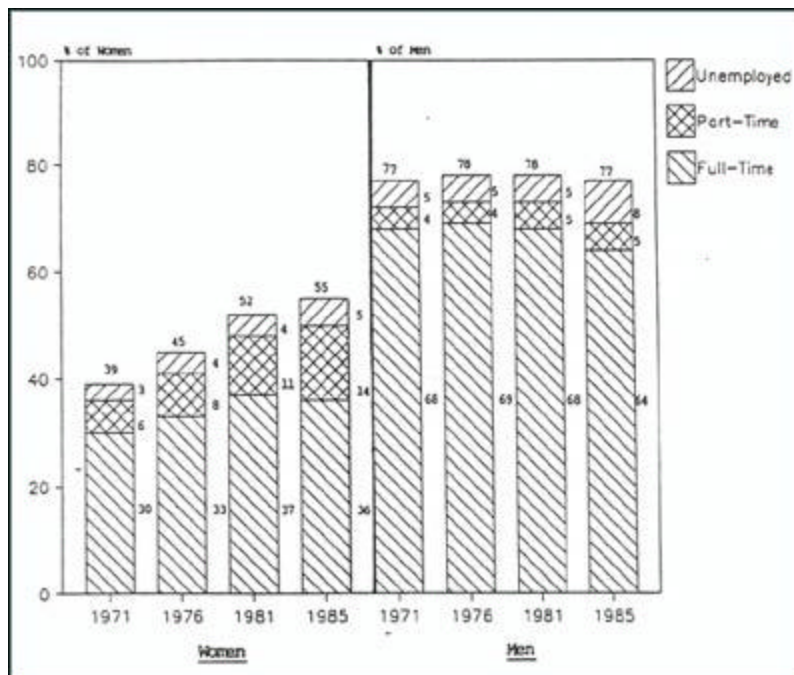
FIGURE 15 indicates a unique aspect of women's labor force participation: the increase in part-time work. Note that:

- While women's participation in the labor force has increased from 45% in 1976 to 55% in 1985, their participation in full-time employment has increased by only three percentage points (from 33% in 1976 to 36% in 1985). A much greater increase has occurred in part-time employment (up six percentage points from 8% in 1976 to 14% in 1985).

Given the prevalence of part-time employment for women, it is disturbing to note how few part-time workers are compensated at the same rate as full-time workers or are provided with adequate benefits. Lower wages and lack of benefits severely disadvantage women both while they are working and at retirement, when they will have correspondingly lower pensions on which to live. Unless this cycle is broken, today's poorly compensated women will comprise the majority of people who will live in poverty in their later years.

FIGURE 15

% of Women and Men 15+ in the Labor Force:
Engaged in Full or Part-Time Work or Unemployed 1971 - 1985



* Based on a sample of 52,800 households.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force, 1971, 1976, 1981, 1985

TABLE 18 and FIGURES 16 and 17 provide information about the reasons for the increase in women's part-time work.

TABLE 18 examines whether women now combine part-time work with part or full-time education and whether there has been a change in this practice from 1971 to 1981. It shows that working women in 1981 were a little more likely to combine work with part-time studies than in 1971. However, the large increase in part-time work cannot be accounted for entirely by increases in school attendance. There appears to be one group of women who attend school part-time, and a different group who work part-time.

TABLE 18

**CHANGE IN RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PART-TIME WORK AND
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF THOSE 15+
1971 - 1985**

% of Group in Each School Attendance Status

	Worked Full-Time		Worked Part-Time		Did Not Work	
	<u>1971</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1981</u>
	%	%	%	%	%	%
<u>School Attendance</u>						
<u>Women</u> (Total)	100	100	100	100	100	100
Full time	6	6	20	20	14	12
Part time	6	10	4	6	2	2
Not in school	88	84	76	74	85	86
<u>Men</u> (Total)	100	100	100	100	100	100
Full time	7	5	47	40	34	26
Part time	6	7	4	4	1	1
Not in school	87	88	49	56	65	73

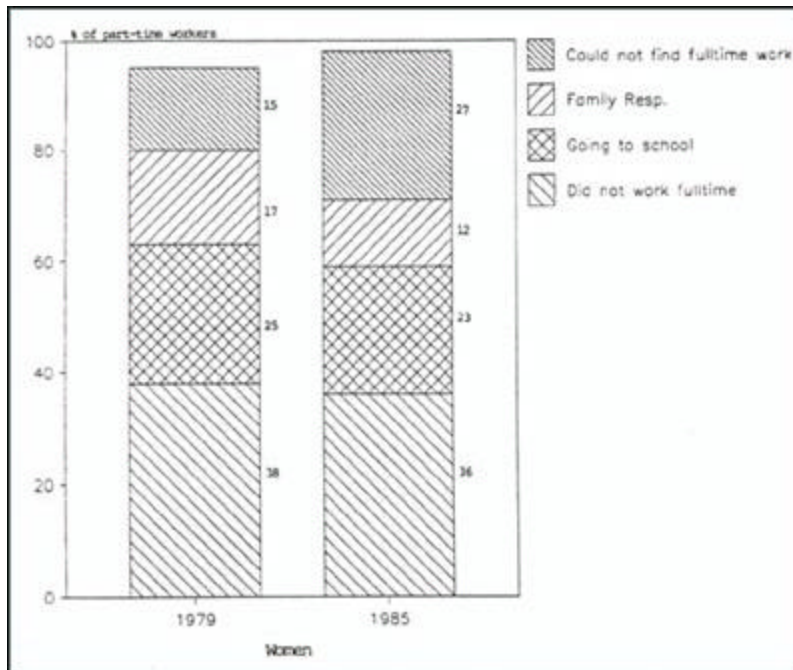
* Source: Census of Canada, 1971, 1981.

The reasons that women gave for working part-time in 1979 and 1985 are summarized in FIGURE 16 and elaborated for women in various age groups in FIGURE 17. Note especially:

- **Women in 1985 were more likely than they were in 1979 to be working part-time because they are unable to find full-time work (15% gave this answer in 1979, 27% in 1985).**
- Even though women with young children are now more likely to be in the workforce, they are less likely than they were in the past to cite "family responsibilities" as the reason that they work part-time (17% in 1979, 12% in 1985). However, it is important to note that, in 1985, only 1% of men name family responsibilities as their reason for working part-time.
- Age, of course, affects why women work part-time: women who are 15-24 years old are more likely than older women to cite "school attendance" as the reason; women age 25-54 are more likely than others to mention "family responsibilities" or the inability to find full-time work; older women (55+) are more likely than younger women to say they do not want to work full-time.

FIGURE 16

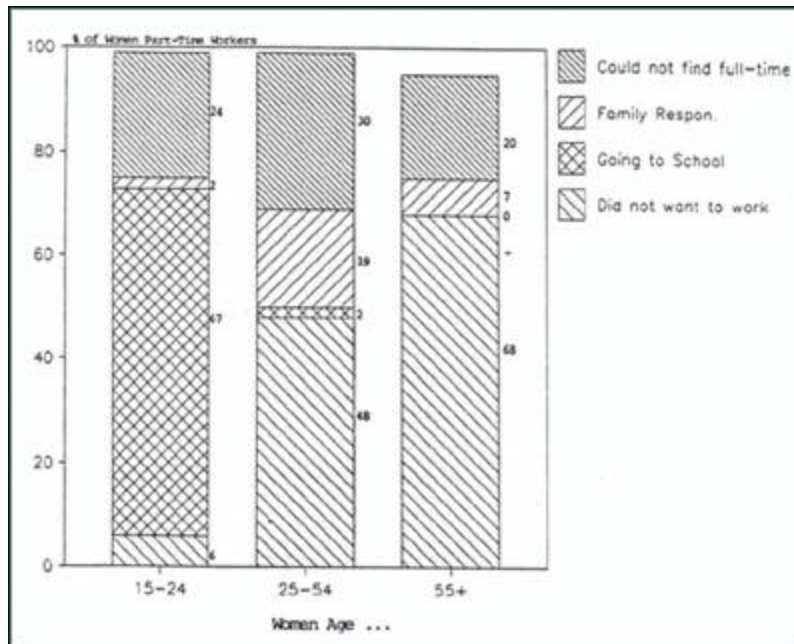
Changes in Reasons Given by Women for Part-Time Work 1979 - 1985



Source: The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) #71-001

FIGURE 17

Reasons for Women in Different age Groups Doing Part-Time Work 1985



Source: The Labor force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001

TABLE 19 and FIGURES 18-20 following provide details on women's employment and unemployment.

The TABLE shows that the highest unemployment rate is found among young women (age 15-24 years). Since younger women are more likely to be in the labor force than older women (see TABLE 16), this is a disturbing finding.

TABLE 19 also shows that:

- Young women (age 15-24) are less likely to be unemployed than young men.
- Young women's unemployment has increased faster than that of older women (4 and 6 percentage points increase among those who are 15-20 and 20-24 years old respectively as compared to 3 and 2 percentage points among women in the 35-44 and 45+ age categories). This is consistent with the pattern of men's unemployment.

Unemployment among young people is thought* to be a by-product of the continuing economic stalemate in Canada, with employers cutting costs by reducing new hiring's, and employees more reluctant to leave their jobs at a time of high unemployment.

While this problem is not exclusive to women, the fact that a large percentage of new entrants to the labor force will be women, means that its effect may fall disproportionately on them.

* Armstrong, Labor Pains, 1985.

TABLE 19

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY AGE AND GENDER
1975 - 1985

% of each group in the labor force that is not employed

	Women		Men	
	<u>1975</u>	<u>1985</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1985</u>
	%	%	%	%
Total:	8	11	6	11
15-19	14	18	15	22
20-24	9	15	10	21
25-34	8	12	5	13
35-44	6	9	4	9
45+	6	8	4	9

* Statistics Canada. The Labor Force, February 1975 and 1985. Based on a sample of 52,800 households.

Unemployment rate is calculated as the % of those who are in the labor force (i.e., employed or unemployed but actively seeking work) who are unemployed. This figure does not include those who may have given up looking due to the scarcity of available jobs.

FIGURES 18, 19 and 20 indicate the effect of education on trends in employment and

unemployment in Canada from 1965 to 1985. Note that:

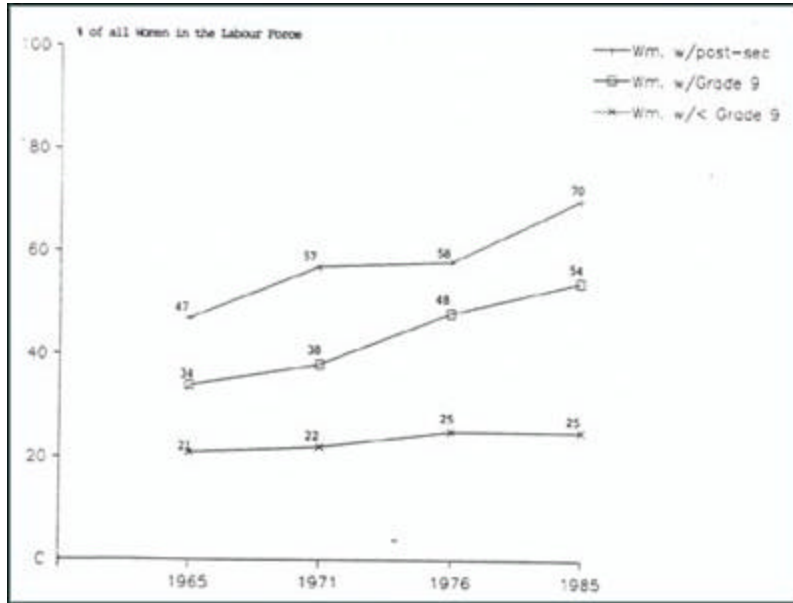
- Labor force participation has increased by 23 percentage points (from 47% to 70%) among people who have some post-secondary education, by 20 percentage points (from 34% to 54%) among those with some high school education but by only 4 percentage points (from 21% to 25%) among those who have less than a Grade 9 education (FIGURE 18) .
- During the 1965 to 1985 time period, unemployment increased from 6% to 16% for those with less than Grade 9 education, from 4% to 13% for those with Grade 9-13 education, but from near 0 to 8% among those with higher than Grade 13 educational attainment (FIGURE 19).
- The net effect of these trends on women is that women with less than Grade 9 education are no more likely to be employed now than they were in 1965 (21% in each case [FIGURE 20]). It appears that poorly educated women and men have fewer and fewer opportunities to find employment.

Although women with less than Grade 9 education now constitute an older sample than did comparably educated women in 1965, the overall workforce participation of older women in total has increased (TABLES 15 and 16). Thus, their age only partially accounts for their rate of unemployment. It is likely that participation increases occurred for better educated older women, while women with less education continued to find it as difficult to get a job in the 1980's as they did in the 1960's.

- Further, employment opportunities are declining even for those who have completed some or all of their high school education. Growth in the rate of employment has been almost at a standstill since 1976 (i.e., 43% of those with Grade 9-13 education were employed in 1976 and 46% of this group were employed in 1985 (FIGURE 20).
- The only women whose rate of employment continued to increase throughout the Decade were those with post-secondary education.

FIGURE 18

**Changes in the Labor Force Participation Rate* of
Women with Different Educational Backgrounds 1965 - 1985**



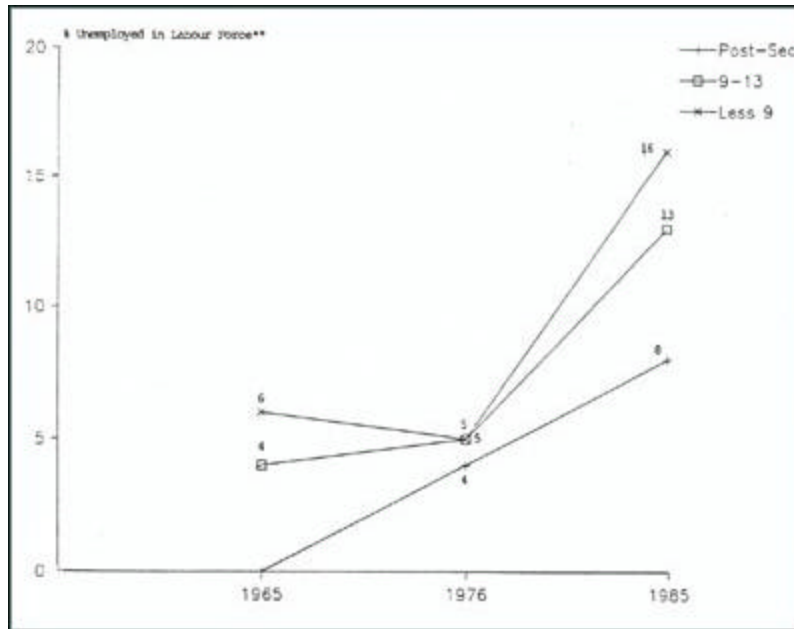
Source: Statistics Canada Characteristics of Women in the labor Force, 1985, and the labor Force Survey (Monthly) # 71-00 1

*** Labor Force Participation Rate refers to the % of all Canadian women who are working or who are looking for work (receiving UIC) .**

Note that persons who are unemployed for more than 1 year do not receive UIC and are not, therefore, counted as "in the workforce" or as "unemployed". Thus, this FIGURE under-estimates unemployment as "unemployed". Thus, this FIGURE under-estimates unemployment in Canada considerably by ignoring the chronically unemployed.

FIGURE 19

**Changes in the Unemployment Rate of Women With
Different Educational Backgrounds 1965 - 1985**



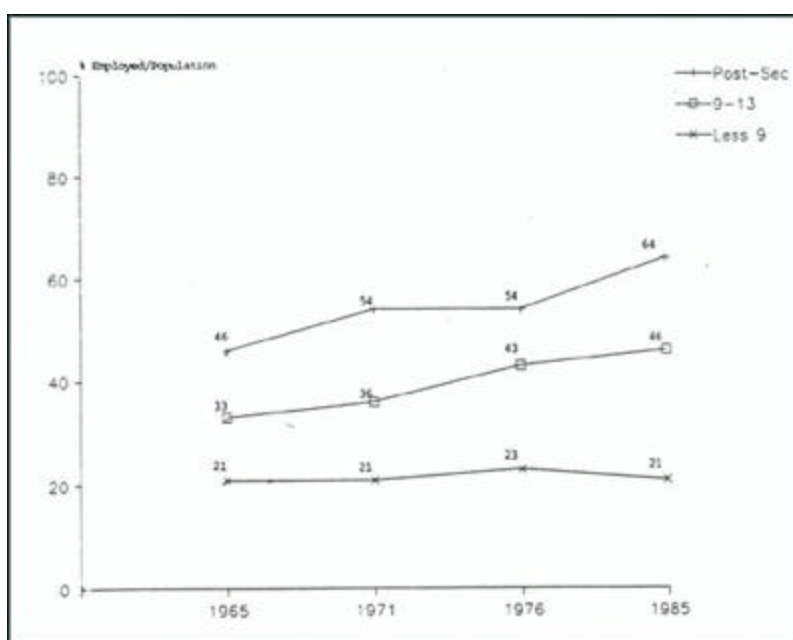
* Less than 1%

Source: Statistics Canada, Characteristics of Women in the labor Force, 1985 and the Labor Force Survey (Monthly), Cat. #71-001

**** Labor Force Participation Rate refers to the % of all Canadian women who are working or who are looking for work (receiving UIC) .**

FIGURE 20

Changes in the Employment/ Population Rate of Women
With Different Educational Backgrounds 1965 - 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Characteristics of Women in the Labor Force, 1985 and the Labor Force Survey, (Monthly), #71-001

TABLES 20 and 21 indicate changes in the labor force participation and unemployment of women across the provinces. Note that:

- Participation has grown fastest in Saskatchewan and Alberta (an increase of 12 percentage points in Saskatchewan, 11 percentage points in Alberta). However, Alberta, they area of highest female participation, also has one of the fastest growing unemployment rates (5.2% of the female labor force was unemployed in 1975; 10.9% in 1985).
- Labor force participation in 1985 remains lowest in the Atlantic provinces, especially in Newfoundland (41%), although these areas have also seen a growth in women's participation.
- Other areas with large increases in unemployment include Nova Scotia (from

8.7% in 1975 to 14.4% in 1985) and British Columbia (from 9.4% in 1975 to 15.2% in 1985). While Newfoundland unemployment figures are not available for 1975, this province has by far the highest unemployment rate for women (21.7%) in 1985. Further, this official unemployment rate underestimates actual unemployment by not including those who have been unemployed for more than a year.

TABLE 20

**CHANGES IN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AMONG WOMEN 15+
ACROSS PROVINCES
1975 - 1985**

Women in labor Force as a % of Women 15+ by Region

	<u>1975</u>	<u>1985</u>
Canada	44	52
Newfoundland	31	41
Prince Edward Island	42	49
Nova Scotia	39	46
New Brunswick	38	43
Quebec	40	48
Ontario	48	56
Manitoba	43	54
Saskatchewan	40	52
Alberta	49	60
British Columbia	45	53

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001.

TABLE 21

**CHANGES IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG
WOMEN 15+ ACROSS PROVINCES
1975 - 1985**

Unemployed Women as a % of Women in the Labor Force by Region

	<u>1975</u>	<u>1985</u>
Canada	8.1	11.3
Newfoundland	*	21.7
Prince Edward Island	*	*
Nova Scotia	8.7	14.4
New Brunswick	11.5	14.9
Quebec	9.1	12.0
Ontario	7.8	9.4
Manitoba	*	8.6
Saskatchewan	*	8.2
Alberta	5.2	10.9
British Columbia	9.4	15.2

* Small base, data unavailable.

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001.

TABLE 22 shows the 1981 labor force participation and unemployment among women from various ethnic and language backgrounds. Note that:

- Among Native women, labor force participation was especially low (37%).
- The unemployment rate among Native women in the labor force was high (17%).
- Native people are also overrepresented among those with low educational attainment (see TABLE 6) making them vulnerable, as a group, to a low rate of employment and a high rate of unemployment.
- Although to a lesser extent, the unemployment rate among francophone women (12%) is also high.

TABLE 22

DEMOGRAPHICS OF LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN 15+			
1981			
<u>Ethnic Origin</u>		<u>Labor Force Participation Rate Within Each Sub-Group</u>	<u>Unemployment Rate Within Each Sub-Group</u>
British	%	51	7.7
French	%	48	12.4
Other European	%	53	5.8
Asian	%	61	7.0
Native	%	37	17.4
 <u>Language</u>			
English	%	53	7.2
French	%	42	14.6
Neither English Nor French	%	31	9.1

* **Source: Census of Canada, 1981.**

4.3 - Occupational Distribution

Before examining women's occupational distribution, it is important to understand the rapid change that has taken place in the type of work available to Canadian women and men.

FIGURE 21 shows the proportion of the labor force (women and men) engaged in each of three broad industrial sectors:

Primary Industries - including agriculture, forestry, fishing and mining.

Secondary Industries - including all manufacturing and construction.

Tertiary Industries - including transportation and communications, utilities, trade, finance and service (community and business service, government service, recreation service, personal service, public administration and defence).

Note that:

- Prior to 1941, each of these three sectors represented about a third of the labor force. First the primary and then the secondary industrial sectors began to employ a declining proportion of the labor force. Rather than continuing to provide the same high level of employment, these industrial sectors now rely increasingly on automation.

The result has been that a greater and greater proportion of the workforce is engaged in the tertiary sector.

- The growth of the tertiary sector has been matched by women's increased participation in the workforce. This parallel growth has had at least two important implications:
 1. Women have entered clerical and service occupations, not due solely to socialization, but at least in part to the greater availability of these jobs.
 2. The increased participation of women has not directly displaced men in the workforce. Rather, men's job losses can be attributed to automation in the primary and secondary industries, while women's job gains have been due to expansion in the tertiary sector. This may well account for the current absence of "backlash" against women workers as occurred at the end of World War II .
- Declining employment is now beginning to reach the tertiary sector. As office and service sector automation become more prevalent (e.g., self-serve gasoline, automated banking, food preparation and service, etc.), it is predicted* that unemployment will accelerate in the tertiary sector as well.

If women remain in tertiary sector jobs, they will be hardest hit by far. However, with declining employment in other areas, it is not clear that women should be encouraged to seek work in the declining secondary industries (usually referred to as "non-traditional" jobs). Instead, this study recommends that every effort be made to ensure that women make informed career choices and that they train for the broadest possible range of jobs. This includes training women for both the new, high technology jobs that are replacing today's clerical occupations and for jobs that are "traditional" but which, with implementation of pay equity laws, need not pay "women's wages".

* See, for example, Armstrong, P. Labor Pains, 1985 Menzies, H. Women and The Chip, 1982.

FIGURE 21

Percentage of Canadian Workforce Engaged in Each Area of the Workforce, 1931 - 1985



Source: Connelly, P. Last Hired, First Fired, 1978 and Statistics Canada, The Labor Force (Monthly), Cat. #71-001

FIGURE 22 shows women's representation in the major occupational categories as defined by Statistics Canada:

- Blue Collar - all primary and secondary industries (farming, mining), processing raw materials (including food), fabricating materials into consumable goods (textiles, chemicals, metal, clay) repairing, construction and crafts (tool and die making).
- Managerial and Administrative - including public and private sector management, but not including supervisory levels (Tertiary).
- Services - food, beverage preparation, personal care, child care, cleaning, laundering (Tertiary).
- Clerical - cashiers, tellers, bookkeepers, office machine operators, material recording, stenographers, secretaries, librarians, clerks, electronic data processing

equipment operators (Tertiary).

- Professional - sciences, engineering, teaching, medicine and health, law, social sciences (Tertiary).
- Sales - (Tertiary).

Women are occupying an increasing proportion of all job categories. Note particularly:

- Growth in the percentage of women in the Managerial and Administrative category during the Decade (from 18% in 1975 to 33% in 1985) has been dramatic. This is especially important since it was one of the World Plan of Action goals for the Decade.

Since growth in the Managerial and Administrative areas has been more rapid than other areas, women have had more opportunity to increase their representation in management/ administrative jobs.

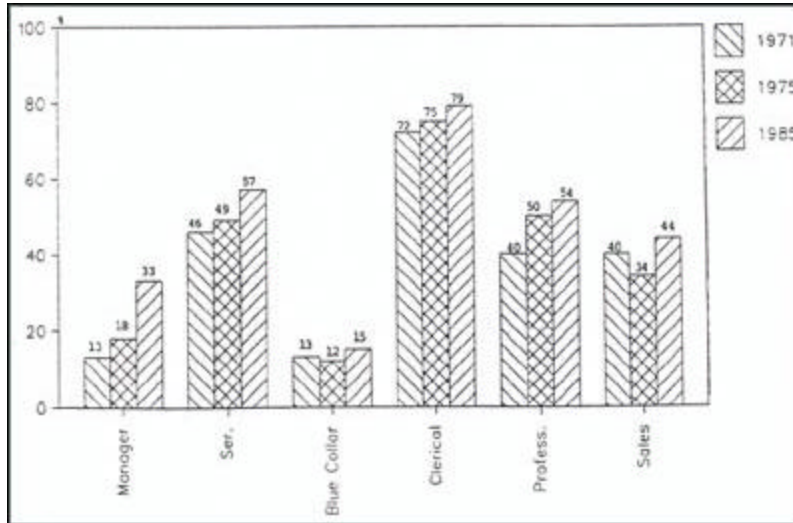
- Women's share of blue collar jobs has increased only marginally and remains lower than in any other category. This is an equally important finding since an increase in the representation of women in non-traditional jobs was also a key goal of the World Plan of Action.

However, even this low participation rate is more optimistic than it seems because women who work in blue collar Jobs are mainly concentrated in a few sub-categories involving processing and fabricating food and textiles.

Women's share of blue collar jobs may have increased slowly because the decline in all primary and secondary industries has resulted in little opportunity for men or women in these areas, as the next FIGURES show.

FIGURE 22

Women as a % of Each Occupational Category 1971, 1975 & 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, The Labor Force (Monthly), Cat. #71-001

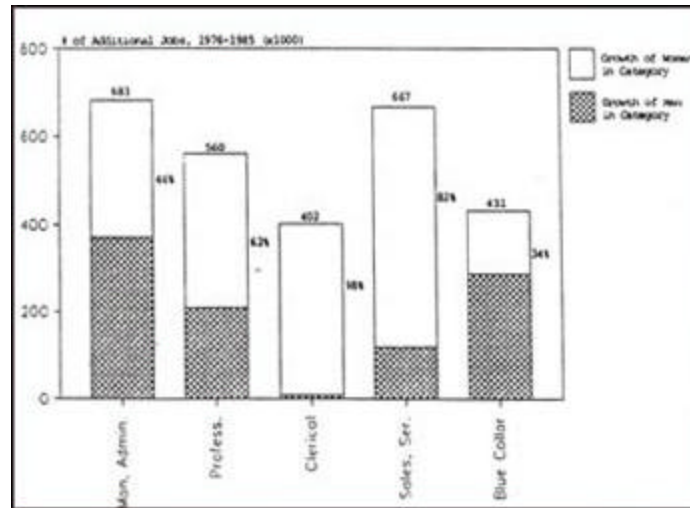
FIGURES 23 and 24 highlight the growth of women's participation within occupations over the Decade. FIGURE 23 shows the number of additional women and men employed in selected categories while FIGURE 24 compares women's share of the growth of the categories to their share of the category in 1975. Where women's share of the growth is higher than their 1975 share, this indicates an increasing share of the occupational category.

From FIGURE 23 note:

- The largest growth of Jobs has occurred in the Managerial/Administrative and Sales and Service occupations. Lowest growth has been in Blue Collar and Clerical Areas. Since women account for 98% of the growth in the Clerical area, this was one of the highest areas of growth for them.

FIGURE 23

Growth in numbers of women and men employed in various occupational categories, 1976 - 1985



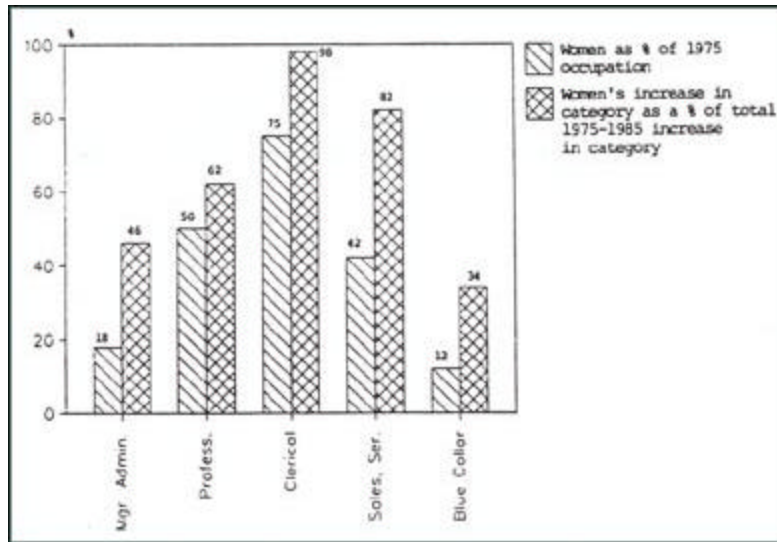
Source: Derived from Statistics Canada, The Labor Force (Monthly), Cat. #71-001

FIGURE 24 indicates:

- Women have been gaining a disproportionate share of new jobs in all areas because they are entering the workforce in much higher numbers than men.
- Women's share of new jobs is particularly striking in the Managerial/Administrative area (women represented 18% of incumbents in 1975; 46% of the growth) and in the Blue Collar area (women represented 12% of incumbents in 1975; 34% of the growth).

FIGURE 24

**Where Women Have Been Finding Jobs:
Women's Share of the 1975 - 1985 Increase in Various Occupations**



% of total workforce growth 25 % 20 % 14 % 21 % 16 %

Source: Derived from Statistics Canada, The Labor Force (Monthly) Cat. #71-001

TABLES 23 to 25 list the occupations in which women and men are employed (TABLE 23), the occupations in which part-time work is most prevalent (TABLE 24), and the distribution of unemployment across occupations (TABLE 25).

Note from these TABLES that:

- Women continued to be as concentrated in relatively few occupations in 1985 as they were in 1975 (e.g., in 1975 and in 1985, 72% of employed women were concentrated in just three occupational categories: Professional/artistic [mainly the teaching and health professions], Clerical, and Service). In contrast, men are distributed more evenly across all occupations.
- Part-time work has grown in all areas which employ substantial numbers of women. A total of 44% of the women employed in Service occupations and 40%

of women in Sales are part-time workers. These are, of course, the occupational sectors which employ the highest concentration of part-time workers.

- Unemployment among women has increased in all occupations. In 1985, the highest rates of unemployment for women were in three occupational categories:
 - Service
 - Primary Industry
 - Secondary Industry.

Unemployment in Primary and Secondary industries is likely the result of a general slowing in these sectors (noted earlier), since unemployment is high among men in these areas as well.

- While Service, Sales, and Clerical areas have seen some growth over the Decade, the high unemployment in the Service sector and, to a lesser extent, in the Sales and Clerical areas, are apparently the result of an even larger influx of women into these areas.

These findings bring into question the belief that if women were distributed across all occupations, their rate of unemployment would be reduced.

TABLES 23-25 suggest that if such distribution occurred, it may simply move women from unemployment in the Service sector to unemployment within Primary and Secondary Industries.

In summary, the TABLES reveal the existence of two problems overlaid on one another:

1. Unemployment is high and is expected to increase. especially in unskilled jobs (Service, Primary and Secondary Industries).
2. Less well-educated women (like all women) are segregated into narrow occupational areas within these shrinking areas of opportunity.

As has been noted for many years by futurists*, it is not clear that there will be work for everyone in the future. In order to cope with this trend toward higher rates of unemployment, large-scale re-structuring of the economy (which has not yet begun) is essential. Without this, serious economic hardship lies ahead for both women and men.

* And most recently by Armstrong, P. Labor Pains. 1985.

TABLE 23

WHERE WOMEN AND MEN ARE FINDING WORK
1975 - 1985

	% of Employed Women		% of Employed Men	
	<u>In each Job Category</u>		<u>In each Job Category</u>	
	<u>1975</u> %	<u>1985</u> %	<u>1975</u> %	<u>1985</u> %
Managerial	3	9	8	15
Professional, artistic	19	21	12	14
Clerical	36	34	7	7
Sales	10	9	12	9
Service (incl. transport)	17	17	16	17
Primary Industry	3	1	9	4
Secondary Industry	8	8	36	34

*** Source: Women in the Labor Force: Facts and Figures. 1976 Edition. Part 1: Labor Force Participation.**

Statistics Canada, The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001.

TABLE 24

**RATE OF PART-TIME WORK FOR WOMEN AND
MEN IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS**
1975 - 1985

Part-time Workers as % of All Employed in Category

	Women		Men	
	<u>1975</u> %	<u>1985</u> %	<u>1975</u> %	<u>1985</u> %
	Managerial	6	20	-
Professional, artistic	17	21	-	*
Clerical	16	25	-	11
Sales	35	40	-	15

Service (incl. transport)	27	44	-	17
Primary Industry	34	30	-	7
Secondary Industry	6	8	-	5

* Data not available.

Source: Statistics Canada. The Labor Force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001.

TABLE 25

**RATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT FOR WOMEN AND
MEN IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS
1975 - 1985**

% Unemployed* in the Labor Force

	Women		Men	
	<u>1975</u> %	<u>1985</u> %	<u>1975**</u>	<u>1985</u> %
Managerial	4	6		4
Professional artistic	4	4		4
Clerical	6	9		10
Sales	6	10		9
Service (incl. transport)	9	14		14
Primary Industry	6	14		16
Secondary Industry	14	17		16

* See Definitions section; number unemployed minus number in the labor force.

** Data not available.

Source: Characteristics of Women in the labor Force, 1976 Edition

Statistics Canada, The labor Force Survey (Monthly) Cat. #71-001.

TABLE 26 highlights some serious concerns about the increased use of technology: namely. that women's clerical occupations will be eroded, and that the technological jobs which replace them will be filled by men.*

While the "automated office" is a relatively new phenomenon, some hints of the possible effect on women can be ascertained from comparing Clerical occupations in the Census years of 1971 and 1981.

* See, for example, Menzies, H. Women and The Chip. 1982.

- As would be expected, the fastest growing sub-category in the Clerical area is that of Electronic Data-Processing Equipment Operators, a category which almost tripled in size from 1971 to 1981.
- Women have not yet lost jobs because of this change in the Clerical sector. Rather, they gained an increasing share (88% in 1981 compared to 73% in 1971) of the expanding Data Processing area. However, as Menzies suggests, it may well be that these jobs are more monotonous and involve more routine work than the non-electronic jobs they replaced.

Although it is not yet apparent that technology in the Clerical area is resulting in loss of women's jobs, this will be a trend that bears watching, especially when 1986 Census data become available.

TABLE 26

CHANGES IN WOMEN'S SHARE OF FASTEST GROWING CLERICAL OCCUPATIONS
1971 - 1981

	Growth* of Occupation from 1971 to 1981 %	Women as a % of Occupation	
		1971 %	1981 %
<u>Office Machines (Net)</u>	+90%	73	88
Supervisors	+104%	35	56
Office machines operators	-32%	79	75
Electronic data-processing equipment operators	+182	74	80
<u>Bookkeeping (Net)</u>	+107%	75	85
Supervisors	+157%	48	72
Cashier, Tellers	+118%	93	93
Finance Clerks	+111%	78	87
Bookkeepers	+101%	68	82
<u>Stenographic (Net)</u>	+43%		

Source: Census of Canada, 1971 and 1981.

* Growth is calculated as Total employed in 1981 minus 1971 as a percentage of 1971 employed.

4.4 - Earnings And Income

While women and men have various personal reasons for seeking employment, the one common motivator is to earn an income.

In Canada's workforce, the "value" of work is measured by the size of income. By this standard, men's work has been valued more highly than women's work; full-time work valued more highly than part-time work; and work performed by highly educated people valued more highly than work done by less well-educated people.

Thus, the final, and perhaps the most basic measure of women's gains in education, training and employment is whether they receive equal payment for their labor.

The undervaluing of women's work has been manifest in a number of ways:

- In the past, women did not have equal access to the paid workforce.
- Until recently, it was legal to pay women less than men for doing the same or substantially similar work.
- Women continue to be paid less for work that is dissimilar to men's in kind, but similar in terms of the skill, experience, responsibility and working conditions involved.
- Since part-time workers usually receive less hourly pay and fewer or no benefits than full-time workers and since more women than men work part-time, the continuing increase in women's part-time employment further disadvantages them in the workforce.

In this section of the study, the changes in women's income over the Decade time period is examined from a number of perspectives:

- Changes in the earnings of full-time, full-year women and men workers.
- Changes in the earnings of all employed women and men.
- Changes in the value of women's work (i.e., changes in the payment of work

mainly done by women as compared to that of work mainly done by men).

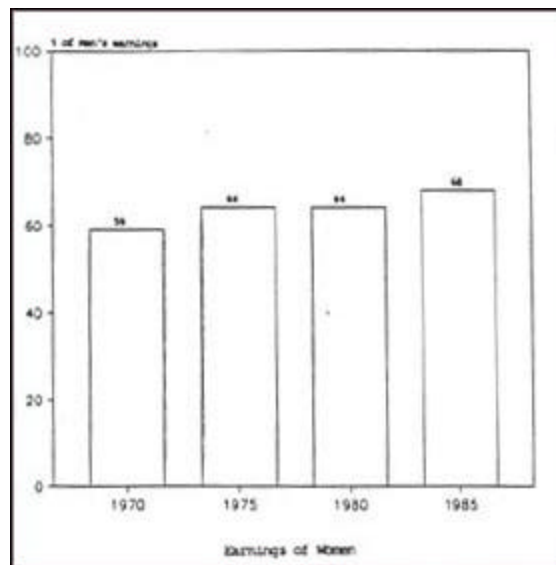
- Incidence of "low income" among women and men.

FIGURE 25 illustrates that the income of women has continued to increase, albeit slowly, relative to that of men:

- **Women's earnings were 59% of men's in 1970; 68% of men's earnings in 1985.**

FIGURE 25

Changes in Average Annual Earnings of Women Full-Time Workers Age 15+ Compared to Men Full-Time Workers, 1970 - 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, 1971 and 1981 and Income Distributions by Size in Canada, Cat. # 13-207

FIGURE 26 indicates that, for full-time work, women's earnings have increased relative to men's across most education levels, from 1971 to 1982; (i.e., no systematic difference is apparent based on education level).

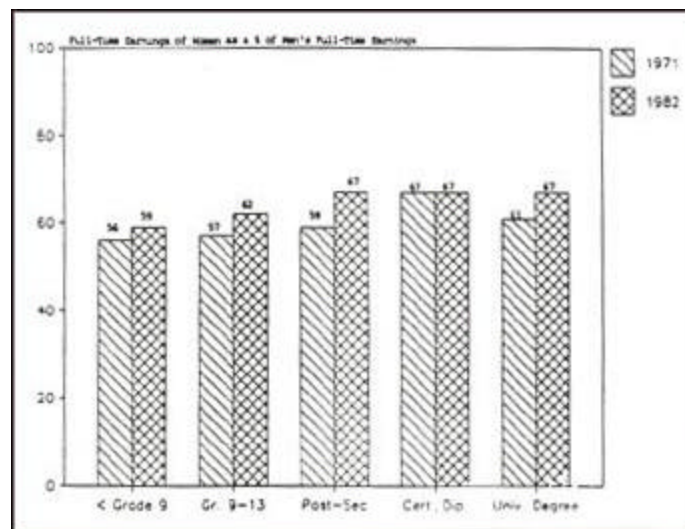
Boulet and Lavallee* have recently analyzed the sources of this continuing income gap

and attribute it to four basic causes which are examined next:

1. There are very few women in the highest income groups.
2. Women tend to work fewer hours per year than men (i.e., more part-time workers are women than men).
3. Women are concentrated in narrow, traditionally defined "women's" jobs.
4. Women are not yet paid equally for work of equal value.

FIGURE 26

Relative Average Earnings of Full-Time Women Workers
with Various Levels of Education 1971 - 1982



Source: Statistics Canada, *Women in Canada*, 1985

* Boulet, J. and Lavallee, L. The Changing Economic Status of Women, 1984.

TABLE 27 illustrates the 1980 earning power of women of various ages and different educational backgrounds (income of all full-time, full-year workers) relative to the average men's salary.

Although comparable data are not available for other years, it is important to note that:

- **In 1980, only women in the age 45+ group who have attended university earned more than the "average male" worker (i.e., the amount earned by men 25+ with no university education).**
- While poorly educated men (i.e., men 25+ with less than Grade 9 education) earned 81% of the average male wage, only women with university education earned a similar amount.
- While FIGURE 26 indicates that education has little effect on the size of the earnings gap, TABLE 27 suggests that age does have a strong effect, across all education levels.

Young women (age 15 - 24) earn only slightly less than young men at each education level; women age 25-44 earn about two-thirds of what their male counterparts earn; women age 45-64 earn about half.

Since these data do not represent the same women at various ages, the interpretation of these findings is fairly complex. It is likely that older women, as compared to younger women, have lower salaries relative to their male counterparts for a number of interacting reasons. These are elaborated by Boulet and Lavallee:

- Older women are more likely than younger women to be re-entrants to the labor force. Thus, older women may earn less than older men, in part because they have fewer years of service, than men, and related to this, because these women do not occupy as many senior positions as men.
- Older women are more likely than younger women to be employed in traditionally women's occupations - occupations which pay less than comparable men's occupations.
- This discussion, which speculates on possible reasons for the difference in the size of the wage gap between younger versus older women and between women and men, should in no way be taken to minimize the fact that, when all of these factors have been taken into account, women are simply paid less than men for comparably valuable work.

It has been customary to attribute a large proportion of the wage differential between women and men to gender. Boulet and Lavallee indicate that, when their four factors are taken into account, only a small percentage of the wage gap can be attributed to gender.

While this seems to be a sign of progress, it is essential to point out that the reasons they cite (e.g., fewer hours worked, confinement to a narrow range of jobs, etc.), are themselves related to gender.

TABLE 27

**EFFECT OF AGE AND EDUCATION ON THE EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN
RELATIVE TO THE AVERAGE INCOME OF MEN**
(FULL-TIME, FULL-YEAR WORKERS IN 1980)

% of average male income earned by each group

	Less than Grade 9 %	Grade 9-13 %	Post-secondary non-university, %	University courses or degree %
WOMEN				
Total:	47	57	68	98
<u>Age</u>				
15 - 24	37	48	54	65
25 - 44	47	60	70	97
45 - 64	49	61	73	117
MEN				
Total:	79	91	102	145
<u>Age</u>				
15 - 24	53	63	70	75
25 - 44	81	93	102	134
45 - 64	81	104	112	184

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census.

FIGURES 27 to 29 illustrate how increasing participation in part-time work further disadvantages women. The fact that it is harder for women to find full-time work exacerbates the disadvantage.

While comparable income information is difficult the following comparisons have been made:

1. Increase in yearly income from full- and part- time work from 1976 to 1982 (FIGURE 27).
2. Average hourly pay rates for full- and part- time employment of women and men in 1981 and 1984 (FIGURE 28).
3. Income of all employed women 15+ compared to that of men from 1970 to 1984 (FIGURE 29).

Together, these FIGURES indicate:

- Yearly income from part-time work, especially among women, increased faster from 1976 to 1983 than income from full-time work. If this trend had continued, part-time workers would, eventually have been paid as much as full-time workers (FIGURE 27).
- However, between 1981 and 1984 in terms of hourly wages, these trends seem to be reversed. Men's full-time wages increased marginally faster than women's full-time wages, although women's part-time wages increased while men's part-time wages decreased. Women's full-time wages increased slightly faster than women's part-time wages. Over time, this can only serve to widen the wage gap between men and women and between part-time and full-time work (FIGURE 28).
- The net result of women working part-time and for a lower wage than is paid for full-time employment, is that the actual yearly income of employed women has made little gain on men's comparative yearly income (e.g., women earned 49% of men's income in 1970, 55% in 1984, see FIGURE 29).
- In addition, women who work part-time have less bargaining power than full-time workers. For example, in 1981, 35% of full-time female workers were unionized compared to 15% of part-time female workers.
- Finally a number of other characteristics of part-time work as it is practiced in Canada today, create further, indirect economic disadvantages for part-time workers:
 - 37% of part-time workers are ineligible for unemployment insurance because they work less than the 15 hours per week required**
 - part-time workers are much less likely to receive benefits, which are estimated to constitute 25% of the average compensation of full-time workers*

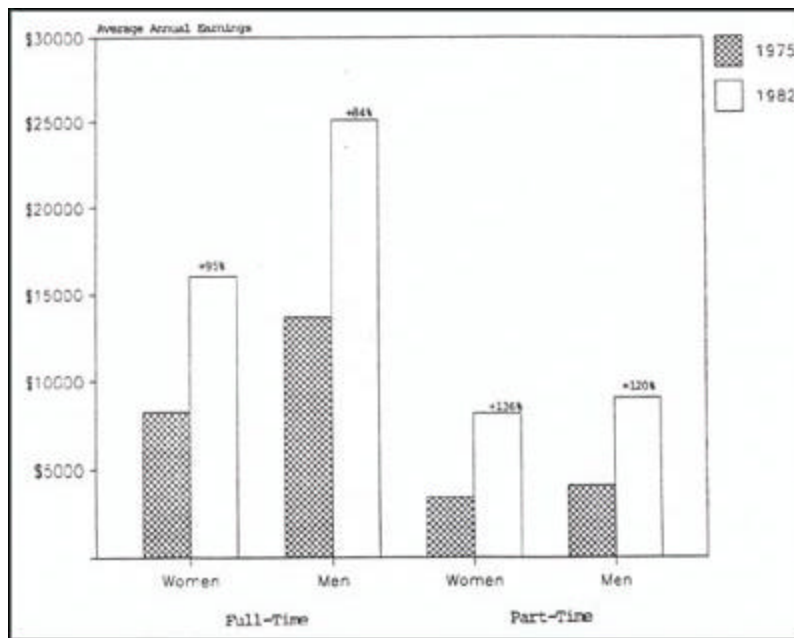
- since part-time workers are only half as likely as full-time workers to be covered under company pension plans, part-time workers must also look forward to economic disadvantage throughout their retirement years.

* Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women As Things Stand, 1983.

** White. J. Women and Part-Time Work, 1983.

FIGURE 27

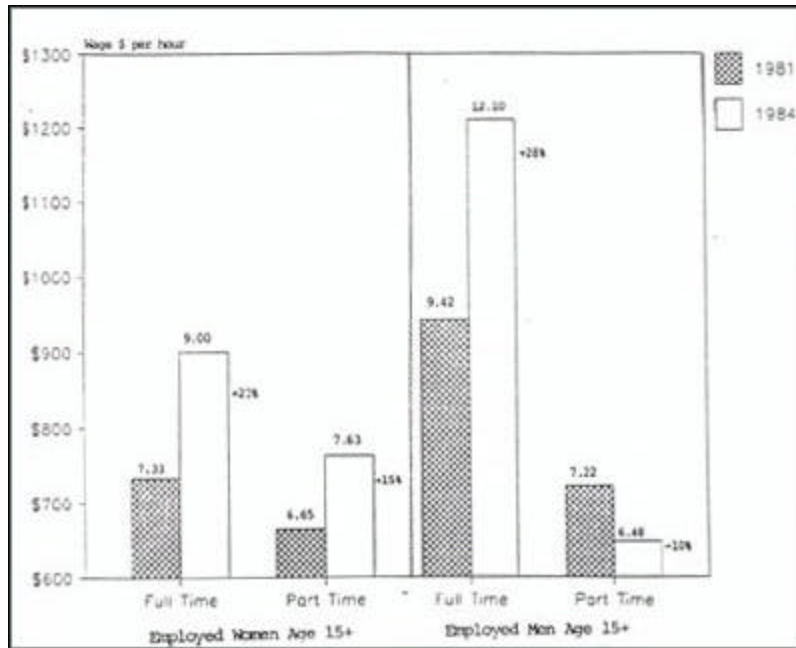
Increases in Full-Time and Part-Time Income 1976 - 1982



Source: Calculated from Earnings of Men and Women, Statistics Canada, Cat. # 13 - 577

FIGURE 28

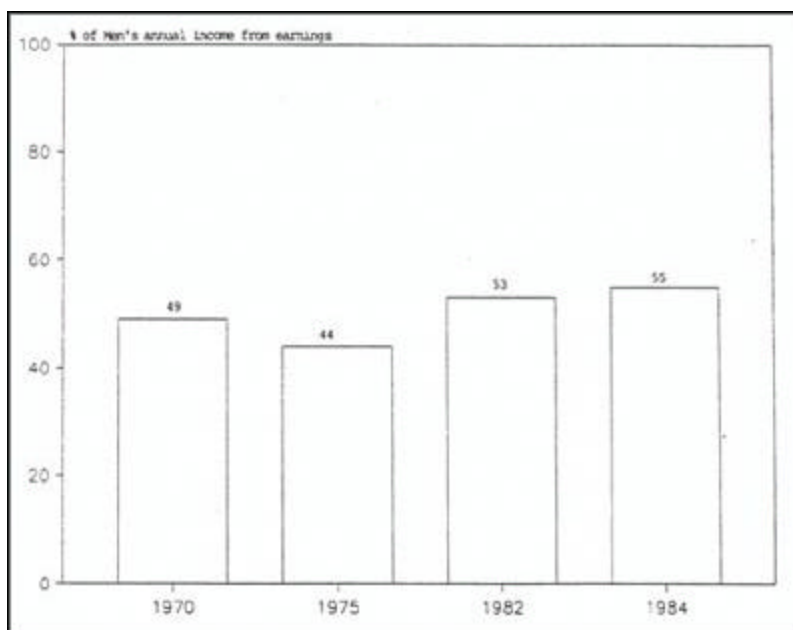
Change in Average Hourly Rates of pay for Part-Time and Full-Time Workers, Women and Men Age 15+ 1981 - 1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Income Distributions by Size (Annual) Cat. #13-207

FIGURE 29

Average Annual Income From Earnings* of Working Women 15+ Compared to Working Men 15+ 1970 - 1984



* Both full-time and part-time

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Characteristics of Women in The Labor Force, Selected Data, May, 1985 and Income Distribution by Size in Canada (Annual) Cat. #13-207*

TABLE 28 shows the changes that occurred, from 1970 to 1980, in the earnings of women full-time workers relative to that of men, in various occupations. The TABLE also indicates the earnings, in 1980, of women relative to men within the single educational attainment level most common for each occupation.

Note especially:

- Women in 1980 still earned less than men in every occupational category.
- Women earned more, relative to men, in 1980 than in 1970 in every occupational category.
- The largest gains from 1970-1980 were in the Medicine/Health (34% to 49% of

men's wage), Sales (46% to 57% of men's wage), and Managerial/Administrative occupations (51% to 60% of men's wage).

- The wage gap still remaining between women's and men's earnings in 1980 is not accounted for by education, since a comparison of women's and men's income at the same education level (right hand column) results in almost no change in the size of the gap, except in two areas:
 - Teaching, where, overall, women make 77% of men's wage, but university educated women make 82% of the wage of their male counterparts.
 - Machining, where women make 62% of men's wage, but among those with a trade certificate, women make 70% of men's wage. This latter finding may be related, in part, to higher unionization among workers with trade certificates than among workers without certificates.

TABLE 28

**RELATIVE EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME WORKING WOMEN VS MEN
IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS
1970-1980**

	<u>Female Earnings as a % of Male Earnings</u>		
	<u>1970</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1980*</u> Control for Education
	%	%	%
All occupations	59	54	53
Managerial (University degree)	51	50	70
Natural Sciences (University degree)	64	70	70
Teaching (University degree)	70	77	82
Medicine/Health (University degree)	34	49	47
Clerical (High School certificate)	55	72	72
Sales (High School, no certificate)	46	57	54
Service (Non-University certificate or diploma)	50	55	56
Processing (High School, no certificate)	57	52	54
Machining (Non-University trade diploma)	58	62	70
Fabricating (Non-University trade diploma)	51	57	55
Construction (Non-University trade diploma)	70	75	76
Transportation (High School, no certificate)	62	68	-

* Earnings for women and men at the education level attained by the largest group of employees in that occupation; the level indicated in brackets beside each occupation.

Source: Censuses of Canada; 1971, 1981.

TABLE 29 provides another perspective on the earnings of women relative to men. In this TABLE, relative earnings are shown in several sub-categories within two selected occupational categories where women's wages are particularly low. In each case, the earnings of women and men within each sub-category are expressed as a percentage of men's earnings across the entire category.

Of particular interest are the comparisons of the sub-categories in which women are traditionally employed (e.g., foods, textiles) with those in which men are more typically employed. As has been well documented, the female dominated sub-categories tend to be less well paid than the male-dominated sub-categories. As women gain equal employment status with men the value of their jobs should increase to equal that of men's jobs within a single Category.

From 1970 to 1980, however, the value of women's work has slightly declined relative to that of men within at least some of the sub-categories.

- Women's earnings, relative to men's increased more from 1970 to 1980 in occupations where there are fewer women than in ones where they are better represented.
- In the various Processing areas where the numbers of women are larger, men's earnings relative to the average men's wage in the Category, fell between 1970 and 1980 (e.g., in processing chemicals and textiles).
- In fabricating and repairing areas, women's earnings increased somewhat in all areas (overall, from 51% of men's wage in 1970 to 57% of men's wage in 1980).
- In the same areas, men's earnings dropped in the two areas where women are employed in substantial numbers (i.e., textiles and rubber/plastic) to the level of earnings for other fabricating jobs.

TABLE 29

CHANGES IN "VALUE" OF WOMEN'S WORK
1970 - 1980

Earnings Relative to Average Men's Earnings in Category

	% Women in Category		Women		Men	
	<u>1970</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1980</u>
	%	%	%	%	%	%
OCCUPATION						
<u>PROCESSING</u>	13	14	57	62	100	100
Sub-Categories:						
Mineral Ore	*	4	-	81	110	112
Metal	3	4	60	69	107	105
Pulp and paper	2	4	69	79	115	117
Wood	4	6	68	73	90	101
Clay	9	12	66	65	100	102
Chemicals	12	13	60	64	114	110
Food	17	19	56	59	91	89
Textiles	36	39	51	53	81	77
<u>FABRICATING REPAIRING</u>	20	18	51	57	100	100
Sub - Categories:						
Mechanics	1	1	72	78	102	104
Wood	6	9	54	56	82	80
Electrical	23	19	60	65	106	104
Rubber, plastic	18	21	53	59	96	91
Textiles	65	69	47	52	81	77

Note: Not all sub-categories are shown for each major occupational category.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1971 and 1981 Censuses of Canada.

4.5 - Income And Poverty

FIGURE 30 and TABLES 30 and 31 illustrate that the end result of women's unequal access to education, training, and employment is low income.

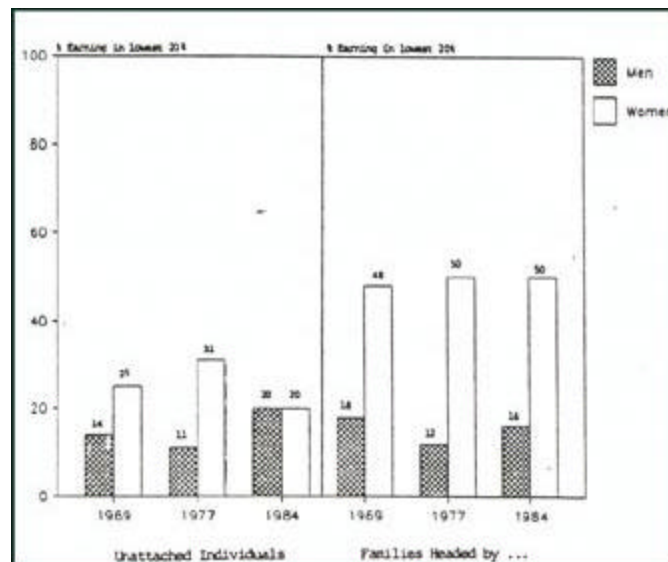
FIGURE 30 describes the composition of the 20% of families in Canada that have the lowest incomes and the 20% of unattached individuals in Canada who have the lowest incomes.

The FIGURE shows:

- In the past, women were overrepresented among the 20% poorest unattached individuals (i.e., in 1977, this group comprised 31% of all unattached women and 11% of unattached men). However, in 1984, men and women were represented equally among this group.
- Family poverty, however, is largely a female problem, a situation that has not improved over the Decade. The poorest 20% of Canadian families consist of 16% of all male-headed families (12% in 1977) and 50% of all female-headed families in both 1977 and 1984.

FIGURE 30

Female/Male Composition of the Lowest 20% Income Groups of unattached Individuals and Families Age 15-64, 1969 - 1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Women in Canada, 1984

TABLES 30 and 31 describe those families designated as "low income" by Statistics Canada (see Definition section).

Note from these TABLES:

- The more education the head of the household has, the less likely the household is to be in the low income group.
- Low income households are also likely to be headed by women, and to be from Newfoundland or New Brunswick. Note also that the largest increases from 1980 to 1984 in the presence of low income households occurs in the West.

TABLE 30

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND
INCIDENCE OF "LOW INCOME" IN PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS
(1980 INCOME STATUS)**

<u>Education Level of Head of Household</u>		<u>Households With Low Income in Each Education Group</u>
Less than Grade 9	%	19
Grade 9 - 13	%	16
Trade Certificate or Diploma	%	10
Some university	%	9
University degree	%	5

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

TABLE 31

**CHANGES IN DEMOGRAPHICS OF "LOW INCOME"
AMONG ECONOMIC FAMILIES IN PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS
(1977 - 1984 INCOME STATUS)**

<u>Province</u>		Percentage of Low Income* <u>in each Sub-Group</u>		
		<u>1977</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1984</u>
Newfoundland	%	17	19	23
P. E. I.	%	13	14	12
Nova Scotia	%	13	14	16
New Brunswick	%	15	16	19
Quebec	%	14	16	17
Ontario	%	10	11	12
Manitoba	%	13	14	15
Saskatchewan	%	14	13	17
Alberta	%	11	11	16
British Columbia	%	10	10	16
<u>City Size</u>				
500,000 +	%	12	14	15
100,000 - 499,999	%	10	14	16
30,000 - 99,999	%	12	13	14
Under 30,000	%	12	11	14
Rural	%	13	12	15
<u>Family Composition</u>				
Husband-Wife only	%		9	
Husband-Wife with children	%		12	
Male-headed family	%	8	16	11
Female-headed family	%	44	40	44

*Source: Statistics Canada. *Income Distributions by Size in Canada, #13-207.*

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Education and Training

1. Women's participation in education improved and their level of educational attainment increased between 1976 and 1985. This is an important improvement since rates of employment and unemployment are closely linked to level of education.
 - Women's overall education level is very close to that of men.
 - Women's share of enrollment in universities is approaching that of men.
 - In 1983/84, women's share of undergraduate enrollment was 52%. Growth has now slowed, as might be expected since women comprise half of the population.
 - There has been continuous growth in women's share of enrollment in graduate studies (from 29% in 1975/76 to 40% in 1983/84).

Women's participation in non-traditional fields of study continued to increase during the Decade. In spite of advances, it is still low in some areas, especially at the graduate level.

- At the undergraduate level:
 - In Sciences, from 33% in 1975/1976 to 39% in 1983/1984
 - In Medicine, from 27% in 1975/1976 to 41% in 1983/1984
 - In Law, from 26% in 1975/1976 to 45% in 1983/1984
 - In Commerce, from 21% in 1975/1976 to 44% in 1983/1984.
- In graduate studies, women's share of enrollment in traditionally male-dominated disciplines also increased:
 - In Agriculture and Biological Sciences, from 27% in 1975/1976 to 36% in 1983/1984
 - In Health and Medicine, from 28% in 1975/1976 to 39% in 1983/1984.

Women's current level of participation still remains unacceptably low in such areas as:

- Engineering and Applied Science: under-graduate, from 5% in 1975/1976 to 11% in 1983/1984; graduate, from 4% in 1975/1976 to 10% in 1983/1984.
- In graduate level Math and Physical Sciences from 14% in 1975/1976 to 19% in 1983/1984.

2. An important development in women's university enrollment has been the increase

in the area of part-time education:

- Availability of part-time study seems to be concentrated in the subject areas where women predominate. However, as more women enter a discipline, more part-time options are created in that discipline, apparently as a response to some women's preference, or need, for study on a part-time basis.
3. Further evidence that women in general are becoming better educated is that fewer women leave school before Grade 9:
- Illiteracy, (less than a Grade 9 education) declined among women, from 24% to 20% between 1976 and 1985.
 - By 1981, fewer than 10% of women age 24-35 had less than a Grade 9 education.
 - Illiteracy declined substantially in rural areas and among Francophones:
 - Illiteracy among rural women declined by 7 percentage points, from 31% in 1976 to 24% in 1981, compared to a decline among urban women of 5 percentage points, from 24% in 1976 to 19% in 1981.
 - Illiteracy among Francophones declined by 15 percentage points, from 43% in 1971 to 28% in 1981 and among Anglophones by 2 percentage points, from 24% in 1971 to 22% in 1981.
4. While women generally are becoming better educated, certain sub-groups continue to lag in educational attainment as they have in the past:
- A substantial number of older women remain illiterate. In 1981, 18% of 35-44 year old women, 30% of 45-54 year old women and 37% of 55-64 year old women had less than a Grade 9 education.

Further, older women who solely support their children are even less likely than other older women to have more than a Grade 9 education.

- Rates of illiteracy remain high among those whose mother tongue is a Native language (75% in 1971; 59% in 1981), and among those who live in Quebec (35% in 1976; 28% in 1981), and in Newfoundland (35% in 1976; 29% in 1981).
- In addition, the rate of illiteracy remains high among young as well as older female sole support parents (28% in 1981, as compared to 21% for the general female population age 18-64 years). This is a significant problem because the number of female heads of families is increasing and their need to earn an adequate income is urgent.

These sub-groups of women continue to require access to Adult Basic Education.

5. An adequate study of functional literacy and numeracy over time could not be conducted for this study because of the lack of appropriate longitudinal measures.
6. Women's overall participation in various Community College courses increased during the Decade for women. However, they continue to be enrolled, in large part, in traditional areas.

- Women's enrollment in Business increased from 50% in 1974/1975 to 60% in 1983/1984, with substantial growth in Management and Administration (from 44% in 1977/1978 to 50% in 1983/1984) and in Financial Management (from 47% in 1977/1978 to 56% in 1983/1984).
- Women's enrollment in Natural Sciences increased from 16% in 1974/1975 to 27% in 1983/1984 but did not increase in the Applied Sciences or Engineering courses where women's participation in 1983/84 remained lower than 10%.

7. Nationally funded training has largely ignored the needs of women:

- Women's share of nationally funded training has been declining slowly over the past several years:

- women's share of Institutional Training decreased from 32% in 1977/1978 to 27% in 1983/1984.

- women's share of Industrial Training decreased from 28% in 1977/1978 to 24% in 1983/1984.

This compares poorly with women's share of the population, (51%), workforce participation (42%) and share of unemployment (40%).

- In addition, the decline in women's share of Industrial Training under the National Training Act together with a decline in the total number of spaces funded has resulted in **a decrease of female trainees from almost 20,000 in 1977/1978 to only 8200 in 1983/1984.**
- The one small improvement in training under the National Training Act has been the increase in the amount of part-time training offered (in 1977/1978, 22% of the training spaces were part-time; in 1983/1984, 29% of these spaces were part-time). However, women may still require more part-time training opportunities. For example, 44% of women university under-graduates are now part-time students, indicating a need, at least among these women, for part-time studies.

8. It appears that the issue of women's unemployment has been a much lower priority for government than men's unemployment:

- Under the National Training Act, training was concentrated (68% of Industrial and 72.5% of Skill and Apprenticeship trainees in 1983/1984) in such secondary industry areas as fabricating, processing, machinery, crafts, etc.,* although these job sectors had the lowest growth rates in the 1976-1985 time period. These were areas of high unemployment for both men and women, with 16% of the male and 17% of the female labor force in these industries being unemployed.
- Conversely, there continue to be very few trainees in the clerical area (6% of Institutional trainees and 14% of Industrial were training for clerical jobs in 1983/1984).

The government favored training in secondary industry over the Decade time period even though:

- the clerical area showed as high a growth rate as secondary industry
 - the rate of unemployment in the clerical area was lower than in secondary industry.
 - The only significant difference between the two areas is that the largest number* of unemployed women is found in the clerical area while the largest number of unemployed men is found in secondary industry.
 - National Training Act trainees continue to include few older women and men.
9. Women take more Adult Education courses than men do overall, but fewer of these courses are job-related than the courses taken by men. This holds true even among those women who are in the workforce.

Women who are not presently in the workforce are the largest consumers of personal development courses.

10. The new Canadian Jobs Strategy, with its emphasis on employer rather than government-funded training, is unlikely to serve women's needs any better than did the National Training Program since it appears that, traditionally, employers have been much more willing to pay for training their male employees than for training female employees.

Note that unemployment rate can be low while the actual number of those unemployed is high because so many individuals (employed and unemployed) are found in this job area.

* Source: Employment and Immigration Annual Statistical Bulletin, 1983/1984

Employment and Income

1. Women's participation in the labor force (either employed or unemployed but seeking work) continued to accelerate during the Decade. However, since this has been a trend since the 1950's, it is doubtful that the growth which took place between 1976-1985 can be attributed to special efforts made as a result of Decade goals.
2. A new and critically important development during the Decade was the increased likelihood of women remaining in the workforce during their child-bearing years:
 - The proportion of women in the workforce who have children between 0-3 years old increased by 81%, from 31% to 56%, during the Decade. This finding is a clear indication of women's commitment to labor force participation.

As a result, women's need for child-care increased over the Decade, but its Availability remained far below the level of need.

3. While labor force participation of women showed a steady increase, the area of largest growth was in part-time work. Higher school enrollment, at least over the 1971-1981 time period, accounted for only a small proportion of the increase in part-time employment.

Nor was this increase in part-time work due to the fact that a larger proportion of working women had family responsibilities.

A key reason for women's greater reliance on part-time work is that women who want to work full-time are finding it increasingly difficult to gain full-time employment.

4. As with access to education, certain sub-groups of women do not appear to have derived much benefit from Decade activities in gaining employment.

The rate of employment remained low and the unemployment rate remained high among women with the lowest educational attainment (e.g., young women, older re-entry women, Native women, and Francophone women).

5. There has been some increase over the Decade in women's representation in a broader range of occupations:
 - A large increase in women's representation occurred in management and administrative occupations, a designation which refers to middle and senior management positions, but not to supervisory ones.

The growth seen in women's representation among managers parallels their increased numbers in post-secondary education, a further indication that the largest

improvement in women's status occurred among the most well-educated women.

- Little growth occurred in women's representation in blue collar/skilled trade jobs, at least partly because job growth in this sector of the economy remained slow. However, this finding further confirms the lack of progress made by less well-educated women in bettering their status.
- Continuing occupational segregation appears to have had the greatest negative impact in Service occupations (e.g., food preparation, child-care, personal care, cleaning, laundering, etc.). As women, especially those with little education, continue to choose from a narrow range of jobs, this sector has been overwhelmed with workers.

Even though substantial growth has occurred in the Service area over the Decade, the rate of unemployment has risen (from 9% in 1975 to 14% in 1985) as has the proportion of part-time workers among the employed in this area (from 27% in 1975 to 44% in 1985). Here again, the impact is on less-educated women.

6. Technological changes did not have a substantial negative impact on the number of women in the Clerical area in the past Decade:

- The Clerical area has continued to grow through the 1976-1985 time period. As more and more women entered the workforce, this sector has become more exclusively female (women represented 75% of clerical workers in 1975, 79% in 1985).

However, the content of Clerical jobs may well have changed. As data become available, the concern that some Clerical jobs are being "de-skilled" will have to be determined.

7. Representation in unions had increased to 35% by 1981 among women who work full-time but remained at a low 15% (1981) among women who work part-time.*

8. The earnings of women, though marginally closer to those of men in 1985 than they were in 1975, are still very much lower than the earnings of men:

- In 1975, women earned 64% of what men earned, when both worked full time. By 1985, this had increased only to 68%.
- The fact that the wage disparity has narrowed only slightly is true for women with all levels of education except for those who have a post-secondary certificate or diploma.
- As of 1980, only university educated women in the 45-54 year age range earned more than the average male worker.

9. Since many more women than men are part-time workers, the disparity in yearly earnings between women and men is even greater when all workers are considered. By this calculation, women workers earned 44% of the yearly earnings of men in 1975 and 55% of men's yearly earnings in 1985.
10. The value of part-time work compared to full-time work is gradually increasing, but is still well below that of full-time work.
 - During the 1975-1984 time period, the earnings of women who work part-time increased relatively more than the earnings of male part-time workers or the full-time earnings of either men or women.
 - The small amount of data available* indicate that few part-time jobs offer pro-rated benefits.
11. The monetary value of traditional "women's" work (relative to the work traditionally done by men in the same general occupational category) does not appear to have increased from 1970 to 1980.
12. Low family income level is, of course, highly related to whether the income earner is male or female. However, this effect is exacerbated by low levels of education.
13. The low income level of female-headed families shows no sign of declining. Half of all female-headed families have incomes in the lowest 20% of family incomes. However, since there are more female-headed families than there were at the beginning of the Decade, the dimensions of this problem are increasing.

* White, J. Women and Part-Time Work (1983).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As this study has shown, some women have made considerable progress in the last ten years in the areas of education, training and employment. However, a great deal must still be done, particularly for educationally disadvantaged women, before a women achieve equality of access and opportunity in these three areas.

In addition, it must be noted that the gains women have made are not necessarily the result of Decade initiatives but are a continuation of trends begun well before International Women's Year. Indeed, it may have been that the increases women had already made in education and employment were part of the impetus that ultimately led to the Decade for Women.

In this final section, overall Conclusions about the Decade are discussed and a number of

areas where changes must be made before women achieve equality with men are outlined.

EDUCATION

Canadian women have made measurable progress over the Decade in attaining levels of education much closer to that of men.

- Half of all community college and university under-graduates are now women.
- More than 40% of graduate students are women.
- For university trained women, significant increases have occurred in the number of women in virtually all non-traditional areas. However, even this progress has not resulted in large numbers of women in certain areas such as Engineering (10% women), where pay is high and where work will be available in the years ahead.

Education systems have been very slow in responding to the life circumstances and family responsibilities of women generally. In particular little process has been made in accommodating such special needs groups as Native and racial minority women and women with disabilities.

- The only major adaptation made by the education system to women's special needs has been an increase in part-time university education. Over 40% of women under-graduates now take advantage of this option.

It is possible that universities have increased the availability of part-time studies for purely economic reasons rather than as an attempt to provide easier access to women. That is, as the number of 15-24 year old in the population declines, there is a need to increase the enrollment of "mature" students, many of whom need the option of part-time study.

To date, availability of part-time study has been heavily concentrated in the disciplines which are traditional for women. Success in recruiting greater numbers of women to the non-traditional disciplines will require the provision of increased access to part-time study in these fields as well.

Such a systemic response would acknowledge that many women, particularly those over 25, must often combine both work and family responsibilities with their pursuit of higher education. Given that child-care shortages are acute, that many women students are single parents and that even those women who are married are responsible for the greatest share of household and child-related tasks, part-time study is an essential aspect of facilitating women's access to post-secondary education.

While longitudinal information is not available regarding other adaptations of the education system to women (e.g., child-care, transportation, distance education), it is clear that these options have not become an integral part of the system, as they must if women are to have equal access to educational opportunities.

The education system continues to reinforce stereotypes of women that effectively limit the career choices of female students.

- To date, the publicly funded school system appears to be making only the slightest gestures toward encouraging girls and teen-age women to consider a career, to consider a range of careers or to continue with Maths and Science courses throughout their school years.*

Although the majority of female students are beginning to realize that they will work outside the home for at least some part of their lives, they do not yet perceive the need to train for job sectors in which employment will be available in the future. Thus, they remain under-represented in the courses which lead to the majority of such jobs.

One way to encourage girls to prepare themselves for a broad range of jobs is to provide them with role models of women in a variety of occupations, including senior positions in the school system. Thus, a further goal for the decade ahead is to increase the representation of women in educational administration and in the faculties where they are currently under-represented (i.e., Maths, Sciences and Technologies).

Another critical area to consider in educating women for job sectors in which employment will be available is to ensure that girls and women learn how to use computer technology. The present restriction of computers to the Maths area in schools (where female enrollment is low) is indicative of a growing trend towards male domination of the computer study field:

- A 1982 survey** of Secondary School course enrollment in Ontario revealed that young women comprise about half of the data processing course enrollments, but only one quarter to one third of "Mathematics: Computer Science" courses. Integrating female students into Math and Computer Science courses and integrating computers across the entire curriculum is urgently needed if this trend is to be halted.

Recent research* indicates that, at this time, girls, teen-age women and adult women believe that computer skills are not the domain of either sex. This study also shows that a large majority of respondents of all ages prefer work with computers to all other jobs they consider to be "non-traditional". It would be ironic if the education system, which is committed to increasing the career options of female students, becomes instead the transmitter of the notion that jobs involving computer technology are more appropriate for men than for women.

* Science Council" of Canada. The Science Education of Women in Canada. A Statement of Concern, 1982.

** Ontario Ministry of Education. Report on the Survey of Secondary Course Enrollment by Sex. Ontario Management Systems Branch, 1982.

* Marketing Non-Traditional Jobs to Girls and Women, Avebury Research & Consulting Limited. Employment and Immigration Canada, 1985.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATION

1. Continue to encourage girls and women to attain the highest possible level of education.
2. Continue to encourage girls and women to consider all subjects as suitable for study.
3. Increase the availability of part-time education, especially in disciplines where women remain under-represented.
4. Ensure that essential supports for women are provided (e.g., grants, loans, subsidies for travel, childcare).
5. Identify further ways of providing support for women who are returning to the workforce (especially single parents) and who need to upgrade their education through such programs as:
 - Adult Basic Education
 - Job Readiness Programs
 - distance education
 - life/work experience credits
 - travel and child-care costs
 - UIC or equivalent during and upon completing courses of study.
6. Direct more attention and financial resources to the education of Native and racial minority women. The focus must be on motivating them to remain in school and on making it possible for them to have access to appropriate educational upgrading.
7. Facilitate women's and girls' access to a broader range of occupations.
8. Integrate computers into curricula other than Maths in order to help girls and teenage women recognize that computer learning can be considered a "language" skill, an area in which they believe they are proficient.

This measure will not only help allay apprehension about learning Maths but will also expand the career choices of female students.
9. Encourage girls and women to view work with computers as being unrelated to gender.
10. Provide role models in non-traditional areas by increasing the representation of

women in educational administration and in the faculties, such as Science and Maths, where they are currently under-represented.

TRAINING

Lack of Government commitment to the achievement of Decade goals training is particularly apparent since the Government funds, and thus controls, so much of the training that is provided in Canada.

Since the establishment of the National Training Act, there has been a noticeable decrease in the already meager share of training spaces available to women.

- The majority of women continue to train for traditionally female occupations, men for traditionally male occupations*.

This occurred in spite of the Skills Development Leave Task Force Report** that concludes: " Of people added to the workforce in the next ten years, over two thirds are expected to be adult women."

- The expected influx of women into the labor force will necessitate the provision of increased opportunity for training. Thus, in the decade ahead it will be essential to reverse the decline in women's access to training.

At present, the programs under the National Training Act have been replaced by the Canadian Jobs Strategy (CJS), a policy and set of programs which are likely to have even more of a negative impact on women's training opportunities. The focus of the Canadian Jobs Strategy is to "privatize" the responsibility for job-related training and to provide funding incentives to employers for training employees in employer-relevant areas.

Although targets are set for training particular groups under the various aspects of the CJS (e.g., youth, re-entry, long-term unemployed, etc.), controls to monitor the amount and type of training women receive have not been put in place. Employers are primarily concerned about meeting the present skills needs of their corporations. Thus, without government controls, they are unlikely to set priorities for training women for non-traditional jobs or for job sectors that have a future, if those jobs have no direct corporate relevance.

Given that women have never received their fair share of government funding for training, particularly for jobs in non-traditional areas, these trends toward privatization are indeed disturbing. For some time, considerable discussion had occurred between the government and women's advocacy groups about the issue of expanding women's training for non-traditional jobs. This discussion centered on what proportion of women within an occupation would be sufficient to designate a category as "non-traditional". As a result, the proportion was raised and a larger number of jobs were added to the "non-traditional"

category. This decision could have had a beneficial effect on women's employment opportunities. since government funding to train women in relevant skills would have been expanded. Now that responsibility for training women has largely been left to employers, it is unlikely that women will receive even the limited opportunity for non-traditional training that had been made available to them under the National Training Act.

In addition, there is no particular reason to believe that employers will ever spend as much on training women for a occupation as they spend on men. Data collected within the 1976-1985 timeframe*** reveals that employers, in fact. were more likely to invest their training dollars in male employees. This was especially true in the areas that had been identified as being important to women's on-going job opportunities (i.e., skilled trades).

During the Decade, the only real initiative to train women for a broader range of job options came from the Federal Government, but even that training was becoming less available to women over the ten-year time period. Now that the Government has decided to privatize training, it is almost certain that women's opportunity to train for more diverse occupations will be reduced even further.

* Boothby, D. Women Re-entering the Labor Force and Training Programs, 1986.

** Skills Development Leave Task Force Report, Employment and Immigration Canada, 1984.

**** Devereaux, M. One in Every Five, Statistics Canada, 1985.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TRAINING

1. Reverse present Federal Government policy concerning privatization of funding for training and increase women's share of training spaces, especially in those job areas (traditional and non-traditional) where jobs will be available in the future.
2. Make training programs responsive to labor force needs so that women and men are trained for job sectors in which there are present and on-going job opportunities.
3. Gear training programs for women to fit women's needs. This includes providing the support services noted in the Recommendations for Education:
 - Adult Basic Education
 - Job Readiness Programs
 - travel and child-care costs
 - UIC or equivalent during and upon completing training programs.

In addition, specific programs like INTO should continue to be provided.

4. Ensure that men's unemployment does not constitute the sole criterion for establishing and funding training programs.
5. Increase the availability of part-time training options.
6. Ensure that the following sub-groups of women are provided with training options that meet their special needs:
 - older women returning to the workforce
 - single parents who are female
 - women with low level of educational attainment
 - Native and racial/ethnic minority women
 - women with disabilities.
7. Increase government funding for training and distribute it by at least the relative proportion of women and men in the labor force, especially since private sector employers are more likely to fund training for men than for women.
8. Strictly monitor the amount and type of training provided to women for which employers receive incentive funding.

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

Canadian women made considerable progress over the Decade in attaining a rate of workforce participation which is closer to that of men.

- Women comprise a steadily increasing proportion of the workforce (now 43%). As in the area of education, the gains women have made in increased workforce participation are a continuation of trends that began more than twenty years before the Decade for women.
- Increasingly, women are remaining in the workforce throughout their lives.
- Women appear to have taken the appropriate steps (i.e., increased education and years of service) to qualify themselves for promotion to top-paying jobs in management, administration and the professions.
- Women's representation improved substantially in management and administrative jobs. Again, progress has been greatest for the best-educated/best qualified women, while the position of more disadvantaged women remained unchanged throughout the Decade.

It should also be noted that, although women's representation among managers has increased, they still do not appear in any significant numbers within the most

senior corporate levels.

For example, a recent survey of Ontario Secondary School Teachers (an update of a survey of the same group conducted in 1975), indicated that while more women teachers are being encouraged to become (and have prepared themselves to become) Vice-Principals, Principals and Superintendents, significant and measurable progress for women teachers has occurred mainly in those geographical areas where Affirmative Action policies and procedures have been in place for some time.*

* OSSTF Status of Women Report, Avebury Research and Consulting Limited, 1985.

Women have made much less progress in increasing their participation in non-traditional employment. This lack of progress contributes, in part, to intense competition among women for jobs in traditional female job sectors and to the low pay associated with these jobs.

Over the Decade, women's range of occupational choice increased only slightly and many of the non-traditional areas which had been considered as excellent options for working women had, instead, begun to decline. In addition, futurists predict that there will be a negative impact on the traditional women's sectors of the workforce as office automation becomes more prevalent.

Since it appears that unemployment in traditionally labor-intensive job areas (heavy industry and clerical) will increase for women and men in the years ahead. it is essential that women's representation across the broadest possible range of occupations be increased. Thus, the issue of expanding women's career choices must finally be adequately addressed.

Neither governments nor private sector employers have provided women with equal access to recruitment and advancement or equality in compensation.

Employment equity which would improve the employment status of all women (as it has improved the status of American visible minority men) is still not being given adequate attention. Although the failure of voluntary Affirmative Action Programs has been amply documented over the past ten years, governments remain reluctant to initiate legislation:

- In the absence of systematic and large-scale implementation of corporate employment equity programs, as Judge Abella* has noted and Boulet and Lavallee** have documented, few women are being promoted to highly paid senior management positions.

* Abella, Hon. R. Commission on Equality, Supply and Services Canada, 1985.

** Boulet. J. A., Lavallee. L. The Changing Economic Status of Women. Economic

Council of Canada, Ministry of Supply and Services, Ottawa, 1984.

- Few public or private sector employers have responded to employed women's needs for such accommodations as affordable, on-site child-care or paid parental leave.

Moreover, the wage gap between women and men has narrowed only slightly, from 64% to 68%. over the Decade timeframe. This disparity continues for a number of reasons:

- Many of the jobs traditionally performed by women are underpaid relative to comparable jobs performed by men.
- Although pay equity legislation is closer to being realized in some Canadian jurisdictions than it was in 1976, progress is extremely slow. Even when all Canadian jurisdictions implement pay equity, it is estimated that wages will improve for only 5% to 10% of working women.
- Growing numbers of women are forced to work part-time because full-time employment is becoming less available. These part-time workers not only receive a lower rate of pay, but are further disadvantaged by a virtual absence of benefits: "The fact that fringe benefits have grown at a much faster rate than direct pay means that the total wage position of women in relation to that of men has not remained more or less stable as is widely assumed, but has instead been deteriorating from year to year over the last few decades."*

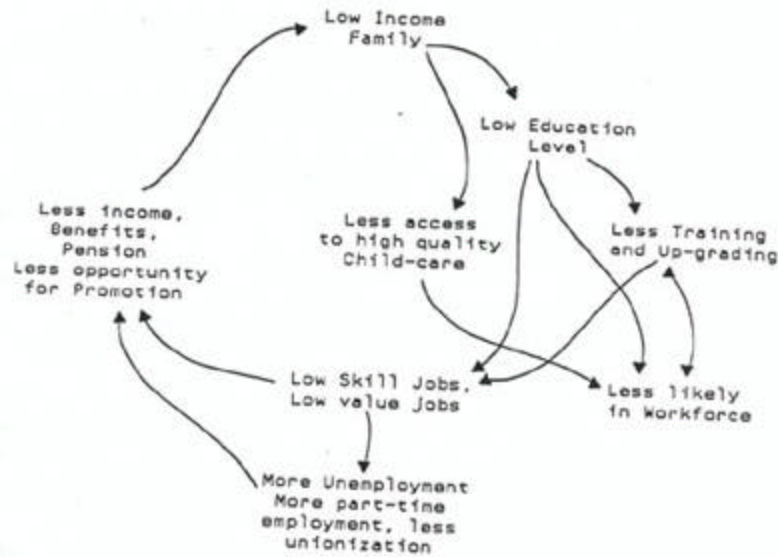
Until both employment equity and pay equity laws are implemented and monitored for compliance in all Canadian jurisdictions, it is difficult to see how further improvements in women's employment status will occur.

* Dulude. L. Towards Equality. Proceedings of a Colloquium on the Economic Status of Women in the Labor Market. November, 1984.

The most striking example. of inadequate Federal Government response to the special needs of women has been the lack of improvement in the employment status of two particular groups of women: women with low educational attainment and women who solely support their children.

- The majority of women who are educationally disadvantaged also have little or no access to financial resources. The Decade has seen virtually no change in the level of employment of this group. Although more women with low education are seeking work. more are finding themselves unemployed or employed in part-time work in the poorly paid Service sector.

The fact that their lack of education leaves them unqualified for jobs that pay an adequate wage means that they often raise their children in poverty. In this way, an interacting cycle of educational and economic disadvantage is both maintained and perpetuated. This cycle is illustrated in the following diagram:*



* Analysis derived from Lin Buckland. Education and Training: Equal Opportunities or Barriers to Employment In Abella, Hon. R. Commission on Equality. Supply and Services Canada, 1985.

Facilitating increased participation of educationally disadvantaged women in the workforce requires a willingness on the part of the three levels of government to provide adequate financial support in the form of travel allowances, access to distance education, child-care subsidies and/or on-site child-care and financial assistance for their living expenses while they are in school.

As evidenced by training financed under the National Training Act, the Government was (and continues to be) unwilling to make payments sufficient to cover actual costs. Nor did educational institutions accommodate these women's special needs.

Educationally disadvantaged women may also need Adult Basic Education and "school readiness" training (similar to "job readiness" training) to increase their confidence and assertiveness. To date, Government assistance in these areas has been small and poorly advertised.

Lack of adequate Government assistance in the areas of education, training and employment is especially evident when the plight of sole support female heads of households is examined. As was the case in 1975, half of these women continue to have family incomes among the lowest 20% of Canadian families.

Since this sub-group of women, on average, is less well-educated than women generally, they share many disadvantages with women who have low educational attainment (described above). In addition, sole support women are the most negatively affected by the pay disparity between women and men because they must support their children on the inadequate wages associated with women's traditional work. As a result, this group of

women serves as a kind of "bellweather" for the status of allwomen.

The outcome of women's unequal access to education, training and employment is that the current level of poverty among sole support mothers will continue and grow in the next generation. Women, who now must support themselves and their families on their inadequate wages, will also be required to live on the inadequate pensions which are the outcome of these wage and benefits structures.

A second group that can expect to live in poverty in the coming decades is older women. As Canada's elderly population becomes larger and women continue to live longer than men, the size of this group is increasing. These women are most likely to have earned less than men over their lifetime (i.e., they worked for women's wages, many would have worked part-time and received no benefits or they did not work for wages).

The plight of these sole support women (young mother and older women) requires urgent government intervention.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

1. Implement employment equity legislation in all Canadian jurisdictions and in the private sector. Ensure that employment equity programs are based on numerical goals and timetables.
2. Strengthen the contract compliance clauses of all such legislation (including the present Employment Equity Act) to ensure that private sector corporations conform to the law.
3. Strictly enforce pay equity legislation at the federal and provincial level to ensure that the different work performed by women and men is equally valued.
4. Equalize compensation (benefits and salary) on a prorated basis and equalize conditions of employment for full- and part-time work.
5. Integrate such Human Resources support systems as job bridging and job enrichment programs into in-house employment equity programs.
6. Provide necessary workplace support services (e.g., child-care options, parental leave, etc.) to women and men.
7. Implement the strategies recommended for Education and Training for re-entry women, older and younger women, women with low educational attainment, Native and other minority women and women with disabilities to ensure that these doubly disadvantaged women have equal access to opportunity in the workforce.

As noted in the Background section of this report, the participants at the End of Decade Conference and Forum'85 acknowledged that the goals of the Decade had not been

achieved. In consequence, they ratified the Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000 to ensure that the efforts begun during the Decade would continue. Canadian women, noting federal commitment to Decade goals, had good reason to view the ten-year timeframe as a "Decade of Promise".

This report has documented how few of these promises have been kept and how far women still have to go before they will achieve equality with men. It is essential, therefore, that women continue to lobby all levels of government for the the legislative and financial support that is needed to make the promise of equality a reality.

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The Canadian Congress for Learning Opportunities for Women (CCLOW) is a national, voluntary organization which promotes feminist education and the empowerment of women. CCLOW has identified specific objectives as its contribution to the struggle of Canadian women for equality on all levels of our lives. These objectives are:

- to promote feminist principles in education and training by supporting all kinds of learning opportunities
- to advocate for the redress of the inequities blocking women's access to and experience of learning
- to publicize women's issues related to women's learning
- to network and show solidarity with individuals and groups on issues related to learning opportunities for women
- to conduct research, develop models and resource materials on women's learning issues
- to encourage and develop women's education through local, provincial/territorial and national activities.

Further information on CCLOW's programs and activities can be obtained by contacting CCLOW, 47 Main Street, Toronto, Ontario, M4E 2V6 or by calling (416) 699-1909.