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The following standard symbols are used in Statistics Canada publications:

.	not available for any reference period
..	not available for a specific reference period
...	not applicable
p	preliminary
r	revised
x	confidential
E	use with caution
F	too unreliable to be published

Highlights

In this issue

Labour inputs to non-profit organizations

- From 1997 to 2003, the gross domestic product of the non-profit sector grew at an annual rate of 6.4%, faster than the economy as a whole.
- The full-time equivalent distribution of labour in non-profit organizations is 36% volunteers and 64% employees and contractors.
- Of the total volunteer full-time equivalents, 77% are supplied by frequent volunteers.

Trends and seasonality in absenteeism

- The weekly number of employees missing work because of an illness or disability increased from 431,000 in 1997 to 758,000 in 2006—from 3.8% to 5.4% of total employees.
- Full-week absences increased by about one-third, but part-week absences more than doubled between 1997 and 2006.
- Illness-related absences peak in the winter months (December to February). Most of the peak is due to part-week absences.

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- The estimated number of teleworkers climbed from just over 600,000 in 1991 to 1.4 million in 2000.
- Since 2000, telework has seen virtually no growth, except among older employees and those with lower levels of education.

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Labour inputs to non-profit organizations

Leroy Stone and Hasheem Nouroz

Non-profit institutions (NPIs) constitute a significant and growing segment of the Canadian economy. From 1997 to 2003, the gross domestic product of the non-profit sector grew at an annual rate of 6.4%, faster than the economy as a whole (Hamdad et al. 2006). In 2003, the sector accounted for 7% of GDP, and more than 160,000 non-profit and voluntary organizations provided employment for about two million persons (Hall et al. 2004). Close to 20% of non-government employees worked for NPIs in that year, according to the Workplace and Employee Survey.

But the importance of NPIs extends beyond their share of GDP or their contribution to job creation. Non-profit organizations assume a wide variety of forms and deliver goods and services in many areas of society. This article classifies NPIs into 12 groups: arts and culture; sports and recreation; education and research; health and hospitals; social services; environment; housing and development; law and advocacy; grant-making, fundraising and voluntarism promotion; international; religion; and professional associations.[1]

In the face of major challenges in the field of human resources management and planning, leaders of NPIs need to be well informed about the composition of their human resources. For example, an aging of the labour force and a slowdown in the pace of labour force growth are leading to increased competition for good workers among organizations—NPIs included. And this in an era when operational financing is becoming more difficult (Hall et al. 2003).

So far, analysts have tended to quantify human-resource inputs merely in terms of the numbers of volunteers, employees and contractors. Unfortunately, simply adding the numbers for these three classes is rarely useful. Even among employees, adding the number of full-time and part-time employees has very limited usefulness for analysis and planning. Moreover, some employees work in two or more establishments, and thus risk being double-counted. This problem seems to be even worse with volunteers.

Instead of counting workers, it is better to use a unit of measurement such as hours of work per week, collected for every type of labour. The National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations (NSNVO) of 2003 has gone a long way toward providing hours-of-work information for multiple kinds of labour inputs to NPIs. However, its handling of hours of work varies among the sources of labour. As a result, assumptions are required to integrate its hours-of-work data. These assumptions emerged from the Labour Inputs to Non-Profit Organizations Project, which aims to develop a procedure for

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Key concepts

Both the volume and composition of the labour inputs to NPIs are important. 'Composition of labour inputs' means the percentages of different types of labour. Seven types have been identified for this study: full-time employees, part-time employees, full-time contractors, part-time contractors, board members, frequent (more than twice a year) volunteers, and infrequent (only once or twice a year) volunteers.

To compute this percentage distribution, a standard unit of measure—the full-time equivalent (FTE) is used. The FTE is based on an arbitrary but widely accepted convention: a full-time employee working for one week represents one FTE, which is often considered to represent 40 hours of work. (This number is assumed to be the usual average weekly hours for full-time employees.) No other class of worker has an FTE value greater than 1, and the other classes' typical FTEs (also called 'standard labour units') are expressed as fractions of 1. For example, a typical part-time employee usually working an average of 20 hours would have an FTE of 0.5. To prepare the estimates in this paper, typical FTEs were established for each of the seven kinds of labour. (For further details see Nouroz and Stone 2007, Appendix A.)

comprehensive estimation of the use of human resources by non-profit organizations (see Nouroz and Stone 2007 for technical details).

This article provides some of the project's results concerning the composition of labour inputs to NPIs (see *Key concepts*). The project represents a key, even if small step toward filling a major information gap. According to a Conference Board vice-president: "The 21st century will belong to human resources and to organizational capabilities, leading management guru Dave Ulrich assured The Conference Board of Canada. And the Board agrees." (Benimadhu 2006).

Labour inputs in various organizations

For-profit and non-profit sectors are alike in one notable respect: Close to 40% of organizations are very small—over 60% of establishments have less than 10 employees (Table 1). However, more non-profit organizations have 50 or more employees (11% versus 5%).

Consequently, employees in the non-profit sector are more likely to work in large establishments. According to the Workplace and Employee Survey, 82% work in establishments of 50 or more employees, compared with only 46% in the for-profit sector. In the NSNVO, with a different universe and different questions, the corresponding percentage is 78%.[2] This reflects the pre-eminence of educational and health institutions in the total volume of paid labour supplied to NPIs. However, even when these institutions are excluded, NPI employees still tend to have a greater concentration in large establishments than do business employees.

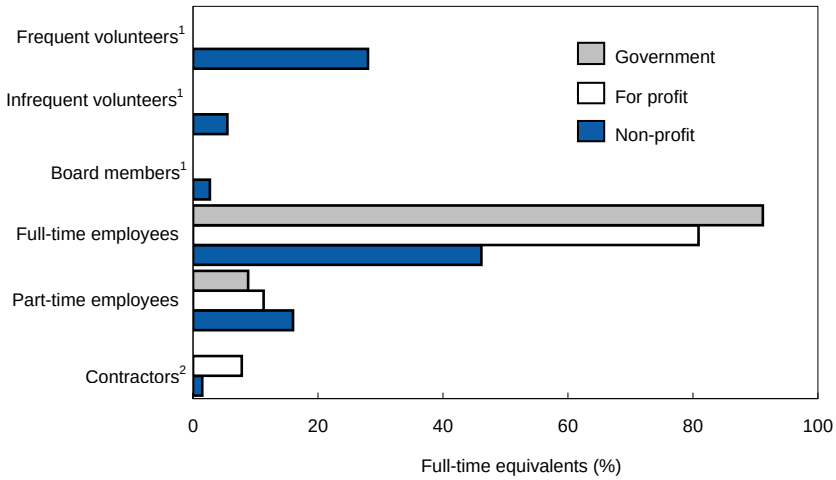
A distinctive feature of non-profit organizations is that they rely heavily on volunteers—the percentages of volunteers in government and business organizations are probably much smaller[3] (Chart A). Moreover, recruiting and retaining volunteers has become a major challenge and source of worry for a large proportion of NPI leaders. Most reported declines in the availability of volunteers, and many were concerned about their over-dependence on a small core of volunteers (Hall 2003). And many of these volunteers work for more than one organization, helping to deliver programs, fundraising, campaigning or serving as board members.

Table 1 Employees and organizations by size-class of organization and sector

		Employees in organization				
	Total	1-4	5-9	10-19	20-49	50 or more
	'000			%		
Employees						
For profit	9,704	7.3	11.9	14.6	20.0	46.2
Not for profit (NPI)	2,417	2.1	3.8	4.4	7.4	82.2
Employers						
For profit	667	43.2	26.7	16.0	9.6	4.5
Not for profit (NPI)	57	40.4	24.6	14.0	10.5	10.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Workplace and Employee Survey, 2003

Chart A The non-profit sector relies heavily on frequent volunteers



1 Data for board members and volunteers in business and government are not available in the sources.
2 Data for government contractors are not available in the source (Labour Force Survey).
Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey; National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations; Workplace and Employee Survey, 2003

NPIs also seem to rely much more on part-time employees. Thus, among the three sectors, NPIs are least reliant on full-time employees. And, NPIs use contractors much less than business. The data source for government does not allow measurement of its reliance on contractors, but the percentage is also probably much less than 1%. The full-time equivalent (FTE) distribution of labour in NPIs is 36% volunteers and 64% employees and contractors (Table 2). In the business sector, volunteers are probably less than 1% of the workforce.

Labour inputs to the non-profit sector

The use of different forms of labour input among NPIs is influenced by the type of organization (based on major field of activity and outputs), geographic location, and size and age of the organization, among other factors. Full-time employees are the most common labour input for the non-profit sector as a whole (46% of total FTEs), followed by frequent volunteers at 28% (Table 3). The FTE contribution from part-time employees amounts to 16%. The contributions of board members and infrequent volunteers are similar (around 5%), while contractors add just 1%.[4]

FTEs arising from frequent volunteers vastly outnumber those attributable to infrequent ones. Of the total volunteer FTEs, 77% are attributable to frequent volunteers. The shares for infrequent volunteers and board members are 15% and 8% respectively.

Of the total FTEs from employees and contractors, the contribution of full-time employees is of preeminent importance, as expected. Full-time employees contribute 72% of the FTEs arising from paid employees. Part-time employees make a much larger contribution than contractors.

Labour input in quasi-governmental and core non-profit organizations

Within the non-profit sector, a major division exists between organizations that deliver health and educational services largely funded by taxes and borrowing, and organizations more heavily reliant on revenues from non-government sources. Sales are the largest revenue source for the latter group of NPIs (Nouroz and Stone 2007, Table 1). (The literature refers to these two classes as 'quasi-governmental' and 'core' NPI organizations.)

The labour profiles of core non-profit and quasi-governmental organizations are distinct (Chart B). Core non-profits rely much more on volunteers. Just less than half of their aggregate FTEs arise from volunteers. In contrast, quasi-governmental organizations derive around one-sixth of aggregate FTEs from volunteers and over 80% from employees. The greater reliance of core NPIs on volunteers also applies to FTEs contributed by board members—about 4% of total FTEs in core NPIs versus 1% in quasi-governmental NPIs.

Another aspect of the greater use of volunteers by core NPIs is their heavy reliance on frequent volunteers. Almost 40% of their total FTEs are attributable to frequent volunteers, more than twice that for quasi-governmental NPIs. In core NPIs, close to 10% of total FTEs arise from infrequent volunteers, compared with well below 5% among their quasi-governmental

Table 2 Aggregate FTEs supplied to non-profit organizations

	Organizations	Volunteers	Paid labour
		%	
Total	**12,682**	**36**	**64**
Quasi-governmental	1,484	15	85
Education and research	779	26	74
Health and hospitals	705	10	90
Core NPI	11,198	48	52
Arts and culture	1,369	38	62
Environment	471	70	30
Grant-making, fundraising and voluntarism promotion	1,427	77	23
Housing and development	658	8	92
International	150	65	35
Law and advocacy	411	58	42
Professional associations	963	32	68
Religion	1,527	53	47
Social services	1,783	40	60
Sports and recreation	2,439	73	27

Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations, 2003

Table 3 FTEs by type of labour input for non-profit organizations

	Volunteers			Employees		Contractors	
	Frequent	Infrequent	Board members	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
				%			
Total	**28**	**5**	**3**	**46**	**16**	**1**	**0**
Quasi-governmental	13	2	1	59	25	1	0
Education and research	22	2	1	49	24	2	0
Health and hospitals	8	2	1	64	25	1	0
Core NPI	36	8	4	39	11	2	0
Arts and culture	25	8	5	39	13	9	1
Environment	50	17	4	25	3	1	0
Grant-making, fundraising and voluntarism promotion	53	18	6	17	5	1	0
Housing and development	4	1	2	87	4	1	0
International	53	8	4	29	3	2	0
Law and advocacy	42	10	7	32	7	2	0
Professional associations	25	4	3	39	28	1	0
Religion	41	6	6	37	9	1	0
Social services	29	9	2	44	15	2	0
Sports and recreation	61	8	4	18	8	1	0

Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations, 2003; estimates developed by authors

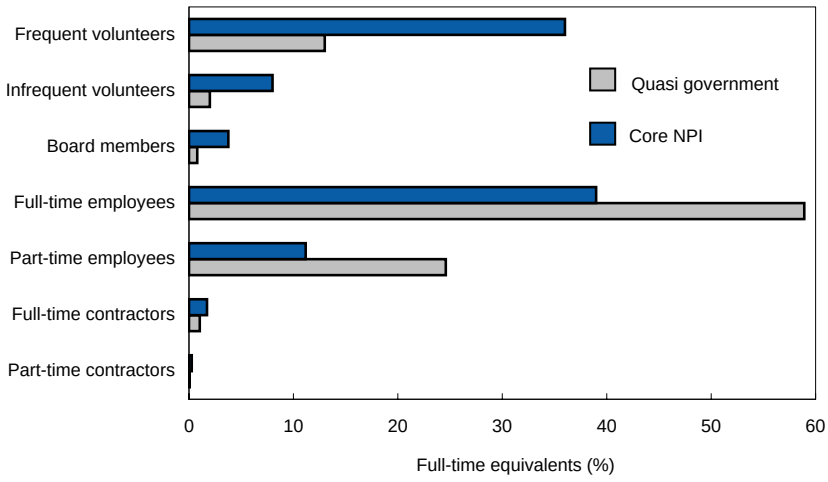
counterparts. The ratio of infrequent to frequent volunteers is also greater for core NPIs.

The greater reliance of quasi-governmental NPIs on employees is true for both full-time and part-time employees—accounting for 59% and 25% of FTEs respectively. In contrast, among core NPIs, the corresponding shares are 39% and 11%. In both kinds of NPI organizations, full-time contractors contribute at most 2% of total FTEs.

Variations within the two classes of NPIs

Among quasi-governmental health organizations and hospitals, the ratio of employees to volunteers is much higher than in education and

Chart B Quasi-governmental non-profit organizations are much more reliant on paid employees



Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations, 2003

research (Chart C). The ratio of full- to part-time employees is also higher. In consequence, education and research rely more on frequent volunteers.

The greatest reliance on frequent volunteers is found in the sports and recreation group. This is closely followed by international, fundraising and voluntarism promotion, environment, religion, and law and advocacy. Distinctly lower reliance is found in the remaining four groups of core NPIs.

The greatest reliance on infrequent volunteers is found in the fundraising and voluntarism promotion, and environment groups—over 15% of aggregate FTEs. The least reliance is found among housing, religion and professional associations.

Core NPIs can also be compared in terms of the degree of balance between the major sources of labour inputs. Social service has the closest to equal weight for infrequent volunteers, frequent volunteers, full-time employees, and part-time employees in its total FTEs. Next are professional associations, and arts and culture. Professional associations are also notable in having the greatest reliance on part-time employees.

The proportion of FTEs accounted for by board members varies widely among the NPIs. At the top of the ranking are religion; law and advocacy; arts and culture; and fundraising and voluntarism promotion. At the bottom are social services, housing and development, professional associations, environment, international, and sports and recreation.

Summary

Non-profit organizations have a greater-than-average reliance on part-time employees, and especially on volunteers. They rely more on part-time employees than either government or business, and they use contractors much less than does business. However, full-time employees and frequent volunteers are the most common labour inputs for the non-profit sector as a whole—the heavy reliance on full-time employees arises largely from health and educational organizations (the quasi-governmental subsector).

The greatest reliance on frequent volunteers is in sports and recreation; international; fundraising and voluntarism promotion; and environment. At the other extreme, housing and development relies very little on volunteers of any kind.

Infrequent volunteers are much more likely to be found in core NPIs than in the quasi-governmental ones. The highest percentages for infrequent volunteers are in the fundraising and voluntarism promotion, and the environment groups.

The social services group had the closest approach to equal weight among infrequent volunteers, frequent volunteers, full-time employees and part-time employees. Professional associations and arts and culture followed, but were well behind.

Boards of directors can be expected to contribute very small shares of total FTEs to organizations, but the percentage varies widely among core NPIs. At the top are religion; law and advocacy; fundraising and voluntarism promotion; and arts and culture.

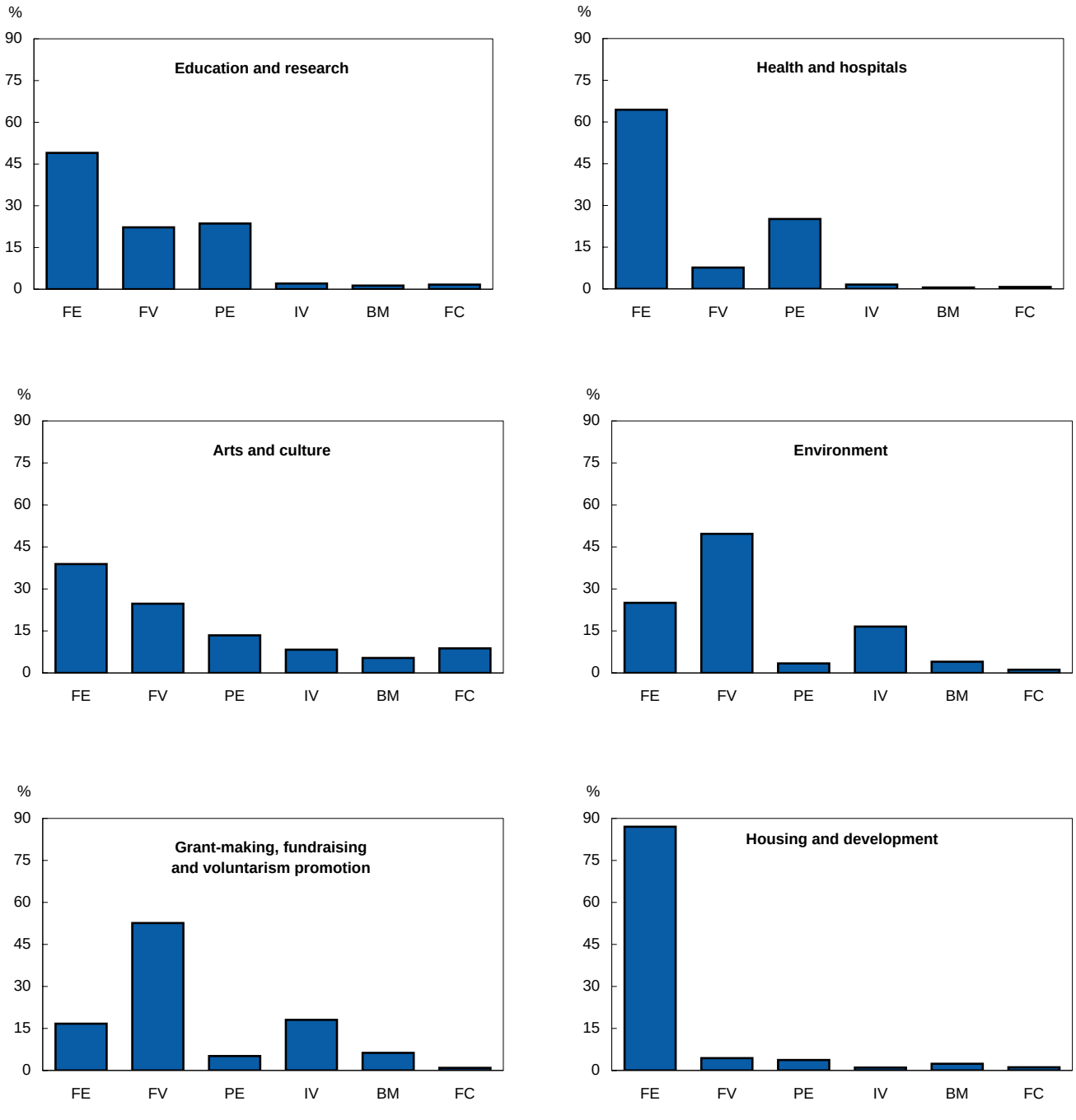
External changes, such as decreased funding for hiring paid staff, fewer volunteers in general, or shortages of certain kinds of volunteers are among the factors that have preoccupied NPI leaders (Hall et al. 2003; McMullen and Schellenberg 2003). An immediate concern in the presence of such changes is to monitor their consequences for the overall structure (or profile) of the labour supply to help pinpoint key vulnerabilities and review possible adjustments.

Its profile of labour inputs may be a key aspect of an organization's resilience and adaptability (McMullen and Brisbois 2003). While the size and stability of revenues are critical, the mix of human resources available to the organization (even after taking size and funding into account) is also important.

Despite the many advantages of largeness, size and adaptability may not be meaningfully correlated (very large size may inhibit adaptability). At more modest sizes, the exposure of paid staff or volunteers to a variety of other kinds of co-workers may be a powerful factor in promoting adaptability—thus the need to analyze the linkages between organizational adaptability and resilience and the composition of total human resources.

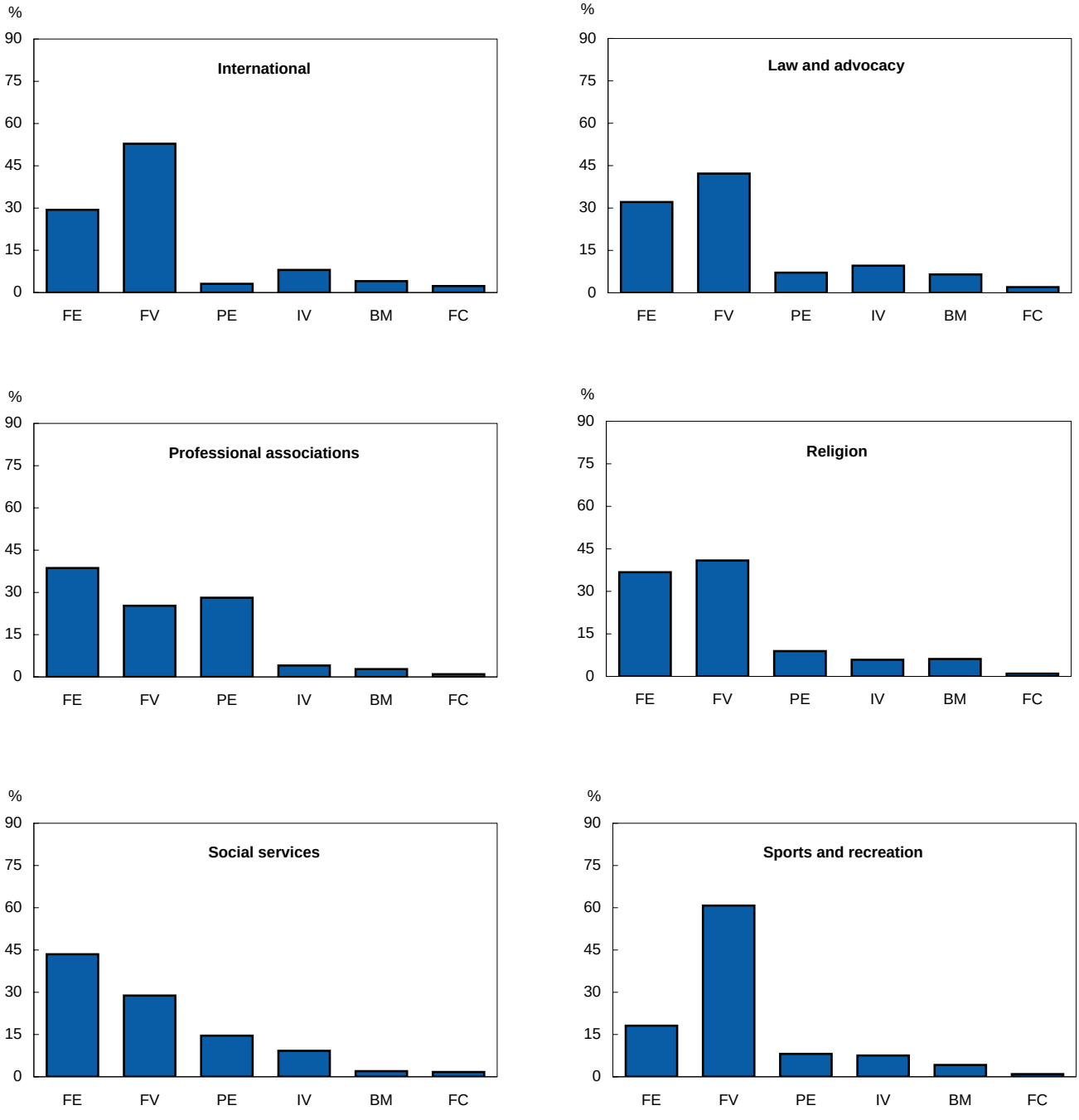
A large segment of the workforce wants part-time employment—and this may become more prevalent as baby boomers phasing into retirement seek to remain connected to the labour market to some degree. This development would provide an opportunity for NPIs to strengthen their performance through greater reliance on paid part-time employees

Chart C The use of human resources (based on FTEs) varies considerably among non-profit organizations



FE Full-time employees
FV Frequent volunteers
PE Part-time employees
IV Infrequent volunteers
BM Board members
FC Full-time contractors

Chart C The use of human resources (based on FTEs) varies considerably among non-profit organizations (concluded)



Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organizations, 2003

with much labour-market experience, assuming the necessary financing is available. However, they will be competing with businesses that also seek to use part-timers more intensively. In getting ready to meet this competition, NPI leaders would do well to pay increased attention to analyzing the composition of their human-resource inputs.

Perspectives

Notes

1 This is based on the International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations, as modified by Hall et al. 2004.

2 It is important to keep in mind that the reference here is to paid workers. A very different picture emerges when the volunteer workforce is taken into account.

3 The sources used for this paper provide no information about volunteers in businesses and government. The number of volunteers in these sectors may exceed 100,000 in one year; however the relative size of their labour input to government and to businesses would need to be measured in terms of a standard unit such as the FTE.

4 Frequent volunteers contribute their time more than twice a year; infrequent volunteers only once or twice a year. These volunteers have been termed 'systematic' and 'occasional' respectively by Brunnetti and Moreschi (2000). In the NSNVO, board members are separated from other kinds of volunteers, and this separation is maintained here.

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Trends and seasonality in absenteeism

Ernest B. Akyeampong

Employee absences from work because of an illness or disability are of constant interest. These absences can be for either part or all of a week (see *Data sources and definitions*).[1] Past studies have examined in detail trends and differences among various work groups with respect to overall illness-related work absences—full- and part-week combined. (Akyeampong 1988, 1992, 1995, 1999).[2] Until now, no work has been done on the two separately, even though part-week absences are more likely to be unannounced and so may be relatively more disruptive to managers for planning and production purposes, and to co-workers. This note examines not only separate trends for the two types of absences, but also their seasonality over the decade 1997 to 2006—namely, since the latest Labour Force Survey redesign.

Rising trend in part-week absences during past decade

The weekly number of employees failing to report for work because of an illness or disability has increased steadily over the past 10 years—from 431,000 in 1997 to 758,000 in 2006. Controlling for employment growth does not change the picture (Table and Chart A); the incidence rose consistently, climbing from 3.8% in 1997 to 5.4% in 2006. Contributing factors include the aging of the workforce and improvements in sick-leave entitlements.[3]

The trend for each type of illness-related absence has been generally upward, but much more pronounced for part-week absences. For example, while the number of employees reporting a full-week absence rose by almost one-third (from 199,000 in 1997 to 262,000 in 2006), part-week absences more than doubled (from 232,000 to 496,000). Similarly, the incidence

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Data source and definitions

The **Labour Force Survey** collects information each month on labour market activity during the survey reference week from the civilian, non-institutionalized population 15 years of age and over. The territories are excluded from the national total, as are persons living on Indian reserves. The survey samples approximately 53,000 households, with each remaining in the sample for six consecutive months.

Among other things, the Labour Force Survey asks respondents if they were absent from work during the reference week, and if so the reason for the absence. If they reported an absence because of their own illness or disability, they are further asked the hours they missed as a result. The full-week and part-week absence designations are assigned by comparing usual weekly hours with hours lost as a result of the illness or disability.

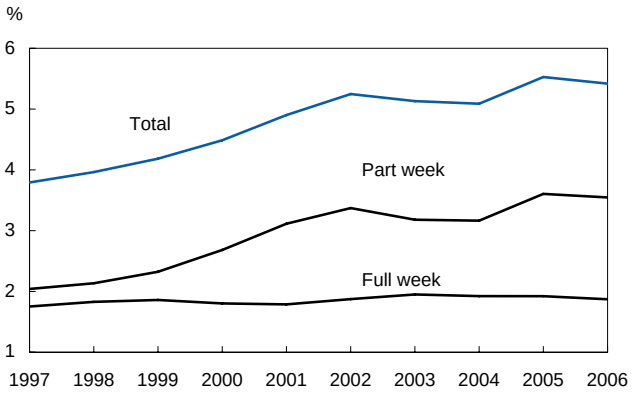
To simplify the analysis, seasonality in this note is based on the four seasons, rather than each month—Winter (December to February), Spring (March to May), Summer (June to August), and Fall (September to November). The seasonal index was constructed with the annual average data being 1.00.

Table Employees absent from work each week due to own illness or disability

	Total		Full week		Part week	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
1997	430.7	3.8	199.0	1.8	231.8	2.0
1998	461.4	4.0	212.9	1.8	248.5	2.1
1999	501.0	4.2	222.7	1.9	278.3	2.3
2000	555.9	4.5	223.5	1.8	332.4	2.7
2001	620.9	4.9	226.4	1.8	394.5	3.1
2002	681.9	5.2	243.6	1.9	438.3	3.4
2003	680.9	5.1	258.9	2.0	422.1	3.2
2004	686.5	5.1	259.5	1.9	427.0	3.2
2005	754.8	5.5	262.5	1.9	492.3	3.6
2006	757.9	5.4	261.8	1.9	496.1	3.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

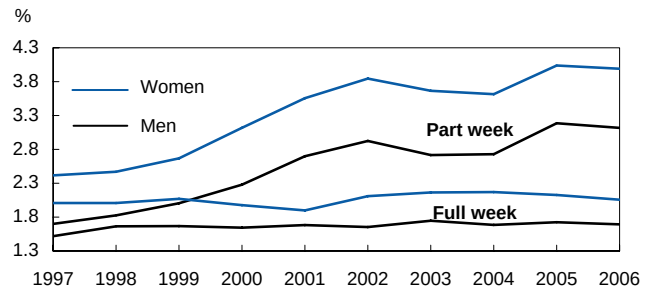
Chart A Part-week absences increased by about half; full-week, virtually flat



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

of full-week absences rose marginally from 1.8% to 1.9% between 1997 and 2006, while that of part-week absences jumped from 2.0% to 3.5%. Simply stated, part-week absences have been the major driving force for the increase in overall work absences due to illness or disability during the past decade. Throughout the period, women showed a higher incidence of both full- and part-week illness-related absences than men (Chart B). For both women and men, though, the incidence of full-week absences remained little changed over the period, while that of part-week absences rose rapidly.

Chart B Whether full or part week, women's absence rates are higher



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

Seasonality a factor in part-week absences

Perhaps not unexpectedly, illness-related absences are highly seasonal, reaching a peak during the winter months (December to February) and a trough during the summer (June to August) (Chart C). The high incidence in winter is likely related to the prevalence of communicable diseases at that time, especially colds and influenza. The low incidence during the summer may be partly because many employees take their vacation during these months. Because of survey design, those who fall ill during vacation will likely report 'vacation' rather than 'sickness or disability' as the main reason for being away from work.

Compared with the annual average, part-week absences are roughly 30% more prevalent in the winter months and almost 20% less so during the summer months. Seasonality is much less evident in full-week absences.

Hours lost per absence remains steady

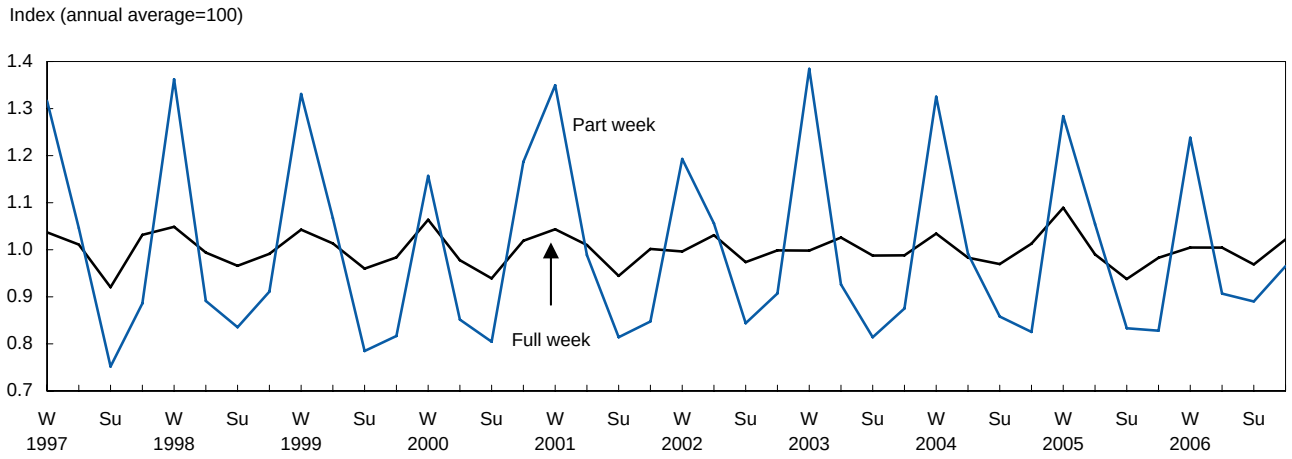
Hours lost for full-week illness absences by definition reflect average usual hours worked—about 37 between 1997 and 2006. Similarly, time lost for part-week absences has been concentrated around 11 hours (roughly a day and a half).

Summary

The number and proportion of employees absent from work for all or part of a week due to own illness or disability have risen over the past 10 years. The growth has been much greater for part-week absences. The number of employees absent for a full week rose from 199,000 in 1997 to 262,000 in 2006, and the incidence grew slightly from 1.8% to 1.9%. The corresponding increases for part-week absences were from 232,000 to 496,000, and from 2.0% to 3.5%.

Both men and women shared in the rising incidence, with rates for both full-week and part-week absences being higher for women. Reasons for the growing trends in both number and incidence include the aging of the workforce and improvements in sick-leave entitlements for employees. While full-week absences have shown minimal seasonal patterns, the same cannot be said for part-week absences. Compared with the annual average, part-week illness absences are roughly 30% more common in the winter months and 20% less so in the summer months.

Chart C Illness-related absences tend to be at their peak during winter (W) months and at their trough in summer (Su) months



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

Notes

1 Whether an illness-related absence is designated as full- or part-week is dictated by the Labour Force Survey design. The survey results are based on labour market activity during a reference week, usually the week containing the 15th day of the month. As well, absences are snapshots within the reference week and do not necessarily mean completed spells of absence. Such information can only be obtained from a longitudinal survey such as the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

2 In these previous studies, the focus of interest was absenteeism, and hence, in accordance with international practices, part-time employees, who normally have low absence rates, were excluded from the analyses. In this note however, the universe includes both full-time and part-time workers.

3 Studies have found that illness-related work absences increase with age (Statistics Canada 2007).

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Working at home: An update

Ernest B. Akyeampong

Various Statistics Canada surveys have suggested strong growth in the number and proportion of employees doing some or all of their regularly scheduled work at home during the 1990s.[1] The estimated number (and incidence) of teleworkers rose from just a little over 600,000 (6%) in 1991 to 1 million (9%) in 1995, and to 1.4 million (10%) in 2000. With continuing growth in employment, growing computer use both at home and at work, advancements in information and telecommunications technology, and lobbying by telework advocacy groups, one would have expected the trend to continue into the 2000s.[2] Instead, virtually no increase has been seen. This note uses the 2000 and 2005 General Social Survey (see *Data source)* to examine changes in telework by sex, age, education, occupation, industry, and marital status. The focus is on employees because the self-employed have relatively more freedom with respect to workplace location. However, the decision to allow a telework arrangement rests on negotiations between employee and employer (see *Main reason for working at home*).

Stall in telework numbers and incidence

The number and incidence of teleworkers appear to have levelled off in recent years—actually dipping from 1,426,000 (10.2%) in 2000 to 1,322,000 (9.8%) in 2005 (Table). The stall is surprising in light of past trends (see *Possible impediments to telework growth*).

With few exceptions, the fall-off in telework popularity between 2000 and 2005 was pervasive. It occurred for male and female employees alike, irrespective of marital status. However, employees aged 55 and over recorded a rise in incidence over the period, as did those without a high school diploma, and those with some college or university education but no diploma or degree.

Data source

The information in this update is from the 2000 and 2005 **General Social Survey.** In 2000, a representative sample of 25,000 non-institutional respondents aged 15 and over in all provinces were surveyed about their use of computers and the Internet. Data were collected over 12 months from January to December 2000. In 2005, 20,000 respondents used a 24-hour diary to record the time they spent on various activities.

In most major industries, the incidence remained little changed or declined slightly. Notable declines occurred in business, building and other support, and in public administration.[3] In both 2000 and 2005, employees in professional, scientific and technical services, and in educational services recorded the highest incidence of telework—roughly one-quarter. Manufacturing had one of the lowest rates (about 6% in 2005).

The incidence in most of the major occupational groups also remained about the same or declined slightly. Just as in 2000, employees in social sciences and education had the highest incidence in 2005 (29%). Sales and service occupations registered a low incidence (6%).

Main reason for working at home

When employees in 2005 were asked the main reason for working at home, approximately a quarter said it was a requirement of the job; one-fifth said conditions were better at home; one-sixth said the arrangement helped save money; and one-twelfth said it helped them in caring for children and other family members and in meeting personal obligations.

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Table People working from home, by selected characteristics

	Employees				Self-employed			
	2000		2005		2000		2005	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Both sexes	**1,426**	**10.2**	**1,322**	**9.8**	**1,369**	**49.5**	**1,554**	**54.6**
Men	782	10.5	744	10.5	826	45.9	949	51.1
Women	644	9.8	578	9.1	544	56.2	605	61.3
Age								
15 to 24	137	4.6	120	4.9	60	42.3	44[E]	30.3[E]
25 to 54	1,174	11.9	1,025	10.8	1,046	50.0	1,141	56.5
55 and over	114	9.8	177	11.7	263	49.3	368	54.2
Education								
Some high school or less	86	3.9	78	4.8	166	37.9	125	37.2
High school diploma	147	5.5	121	5.2	202	42.1	174	43.8
Some postsecondary	189	7.9	191	8.7	204	52.6	232	56.3
Diploma or certificate	347	9.3	254	6.8	368	53.3	478	59.2
Bachelor's degree or more	655	22.6	674	18.9	426	56.3	540	61.9
Marital status								
Married, common-law	1,009	12.1	968	11.7	1,065	50.7	1,212	55.3
Separated, divorced, widowed	99	9.8	108	9.9	119	56.1	130	56.3
Single (never married)	304	7.0	247	6.1	159	39.8	212	50.1
Industry								
Agriculture	F	F	26[E]	24.1[E]	166	65.0	151	66.5
Forestry, fishing, mining, oil and gas	28	9.6	34[E]	12.3[E]	27	35.5	19[E]	45.2[E]
Utilities	F	F	16[E]	12.7[E]	F	F	F	F
Construction	44	7.0	39[E]	5.8[E]	114	41.6	136	42.8
Manufacturing	164	7.4	99	5.8	70	47.2	61	44.9
Trade	149	7.1	162	7.8	141	43.1	156	49.7
Transportation and warehousing	50	8.2	41[E]	6.5[E]	36	22.8	32[E]	26.7[E]
Finance, insurance, real estate and leasing	107	14.0	90	11.3	105	61.9	164	67.8
Professional, scientific and technical	155	22.9	174	21.9	244	68.7	285	66.4
Business, building and other support	44	11.0	19[E]	4.5[E]	68	37.4	70	40.5
Educational services	242	23.4	239	23.2	33	53.7	44	63.8
Health care and social assistance	107	8.6	125	8.7	127	63.2	137	57.3
Information, culture and recreation	90	12.9	92	13.7	87	64.2	120	69.4
Accommodation and food services	36	3.6	22[E]	2.4[E]	35	36.1	36[E]	41.4[E]
Other services	62	12.9	69	13.4	77	35.1	94	46.5
Public administration	95	10.5	66[E]	7.5[E]	F	F	F	F
Occupation								
Management	229	25.4	196	19.8	222	43.6	155	40.7
Business, finance and administrative	301	11.7	234	9.2	191	64.7	272	72.3
Natural and applied sciences	175	18.4	150	14.6	99	64.5	101	57.1
Health	28	4.5	35[E]	4.5[E]	40	39.2	55	42.3
Social science, education	271	26.4	305	28.5	76	70.0	83	58.9
Art, culture, recreation and sport	52	16.5	60[E]	16.1[E]	134	65.4	184	70.2
Sales and service	220	6.1	211	6.2	246	48.7	337	55.4
Trades, transport and equipment operators	74	4.0	64[E]	3.7[E]	110	29.7	127	34.3
Unique to primary industry	20	5.4	35[E]	13.2[E]	182	54.4	169	61.9
Unique to processing, manufacturing and utilities	35	2.9	23[E]	2.6[E]	32	38.8	36[E]	54.5[E]

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey

Possible impediments to telework growth

Several things could account for the stall in telework growth. An obvious possibility is that continuing re-evaluation of the advantages and disadvantages of telework may have lowered its attractiveness for both employees and employers (see *The pros and cons of working at home*). For example, growth in employer-assisted day-care programs (including on-site day-care centres) and improved transportation networks may have helped reduce the need to work at home. Also, the growing need for greater information security, especially after 9/11, as well as for closer communication among workers may make telework less desirable for employers. Another possibility is continuing advancements in information technology. The use of laptops, BlackBerries and mobile phones, and the growing proliferation of communication centres may facilitate work from many other places, such as cars, airports, railway and bus terminals, and satellite offices.

Pros and cons of working at home

Working at home has both advantages and disadvantages. For the employee, this arrangement allows more flexibility to schedule activities; makes it easier to balance work and personal or family demands; reduces expenses for transportation, clothing and food; and cuts commuting time. On the negative side, working at home may reduce one's social circle, stifle career advancement, or even increase workload.

For the employer, a work-from-home arrangement may increase employee productivity, reduce expenses for work space, improve recruitment and retention of employees, and reduce absenteeism. Among the most commonly cited disadvantages are problems related to co-ordination and communication, lack of control over quality of work, and problems associated with information security.

Teleworkers put in relatively few hours at home

The majority of teleworkers put in just a few hours of work (10 or less) at home each week, but the proportion doing so in 2005 was higher than in 2000 (71% versus 65%). In both years, only 3% of teleworkers put in over 40 hours. The average in 2005 was 17 hours.

Summary

Contrary to expectation, the strong growth in telework during the 1990s was not sustained in the 2000s. Indeed, the number of employees doing some or all of their regularly scheduled work at home stalled at 1.3 to 1.4 million. The overall incidence remained unchanged at about 10%. The reasons for the stall, which was widespread, are unclear. It could have been partly caused by employees and employers re-evaluating the advantages, disadvantages and effectiveness of this type of work arrangement. In addition, continuing developments in information and telecommunications technology now permit many employees to work effectively from many places other than home.

Notes

1 Estimates of the number of people working at home date back to the 1971 Census. Since then, the Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA), the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, the General Social Survey (GSS), and the Workplace and Employee Survey have all collected data on the subject. However, these surveys differ in question wording, reference period, and sample design. Indeed, for some surveys, such as the census, the questions were not identical in all years. As a result, no consistent time series exist, making it impossible to be precise on trends over the past three decades. Nevertheless, the SWA 1991 and 1995, and the GSS 2000 and 2005 are fairly comparable (see Akyeampong and Nadwodny 2001 for questions and estimates from the various surveys).

2 Among the better-known telework advocacy groups are the Canadian Telework Association, a non-profit, telework-promoting organization, and Innovations Canada, a telework and flexible-work consulting organization.

3 The decline of telework in public administration is particularly puzzling, since the federal Treasury Board actively supported this type of work arrangement in a policy statement dated December 6, 1999.

Reference

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May 2007

PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

Gambling

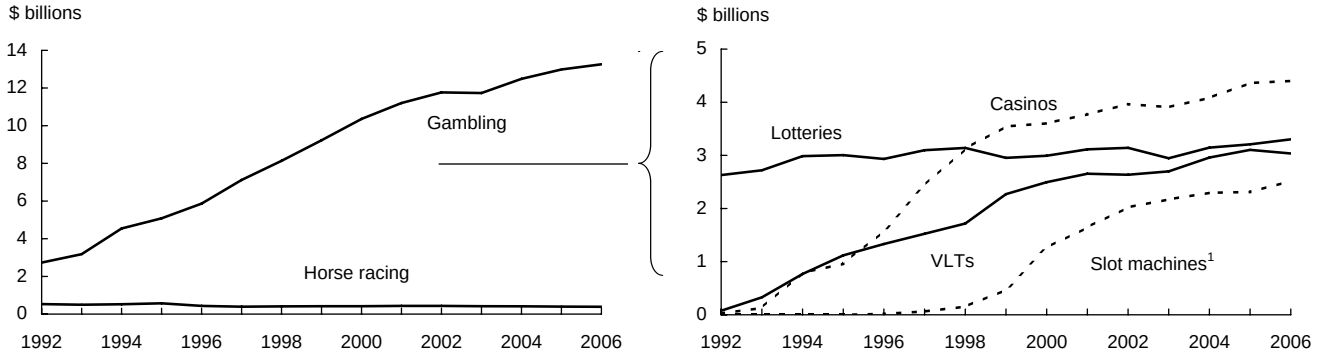
- Net revenue from government-run lotteries, video lottery terminals (VLTs), and casinos rose from $2.7 billion in 1992 to 13.3 billion in 2006.[1]
- Net revenue from pari-mutuel betting (horse racing) dropped from $532 million to $387 million over the same period (1992 to 2006).
- In 2006, lotteries accounted for 25% of all net non-charity gambling revenue, casinos 33%, VLTs 23%, and slot machines not in casinos 19%.
- Average gambling revenue per person 18 and over in 2005 ranged from $111 in the three territories to $750 in Alberta, with a national average of $513.[2]
- Compared with workers in non-gambling industries, those in gambling were more likely to be women (54% versus 47%), paid by the hour (79% versus 65%), and paid less ($18 hourly versus $20) and receiving tips at their job (30% versus 7%).
- Employment in the gambling industry rose from 11,000 in 1992 to 40,000 in 2006.
- One in seven women and men living alone reported spending money on casinos, slot machines or VLTs; however, the men spent more than three times as much as the women—$1,396 compared with $434.[3]
- Gambling participation and expenditure rates increased with household income. For example, 57% of households with incomes of less than $20,000 gambled in 2005 and spent an average of $491, while equivalent figures for those with incomes of $80,000 or more were 75% and $618.

For further information on any of these data, contact Katherine Marshall, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division. She can be reached at 613-951-6890 or katherine.marshall@statcan.ca.

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

Net revenue from government-run gambling has increased steadily



1 Refers to ones found outside government-run casinos.
Source: National Accounts

Gambling revenues and profits

	Gambling revenue[1]		Gambling profit[2]		Share of total revenue[3]		Revenue per capita (18+)[4]	
	1992	2005	1992	2005	1992	2005	1992	2005
	$ millions (current)				%		$	
Canada	**2,734**	**12,984**	**1,680**	**7,101**	**1.9**	**5.5**	**128**	**513**
Newfoundland and Labrador	80	205	42	109	2.3	5.2	189	496
Prince Edward Island	20	37	7	15	2.7	3.4	209	344
Nova Scotia	125	362	72	169	2.8	5.4	180	485
New Brunswick	117	211	49	117	2.7	3.5	209	351
Quebec	693	2,961	472	1,618	1.8	4.9	128	489
Ontario	853	4,745	529	2,016	1.9	6.0	106	485
Manitoba	153	556	105	318	2.5	5.9	186	623
Saskatchewan	62	490	39	311	1.1	5.6	86	653
Alberta	225	1,882	125	1,513	1.6	6.3	118	750
British Columbia	403	1,528	239	909	2.2	5.1	153	450
Yukon, Northwest Territories and Nunavut	5	8	1	6	0.3	0.3	82	111

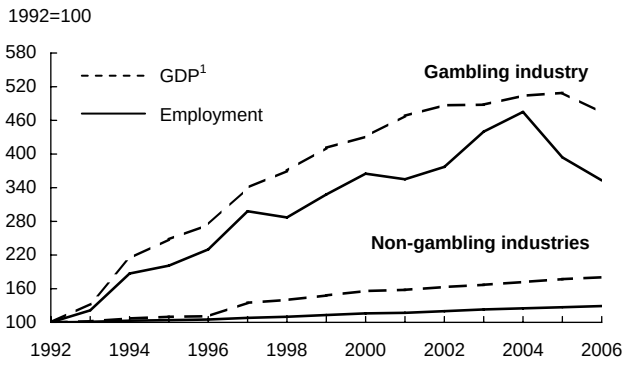
1 Total revenue from wagers on government-controlled lotteries, casinos and VLTs, minus prizes and winnings.
2 Net income of provincal governments from total gambling revenue, less operating and other expenses (see *Data sources and definitions*).
3 The 2005 share of total revenue calculation is based on 2005 gambling revenue and 2004 total provincial revenue. The 2005 provincial revenue will be available autumn 2007.
4 Persons 18 and over were selected as this is the legal age of gambling in most provinces.
Sources: National Accounts, Public Institutions (Financial management statistics) and post-censal population estimates.

Characteristics of workers

	Gambling		Non-gambling	
	1992	2006	1992	2006
			'000	
Total employed	**11**	**40**	**12,720**	**16,444**
			%	
Sex				
Men	35	46	55	53
Women	65	54	45	47
Age				
15 to 34	57	40	45	37
35 and over	43	60	55	63
Education				
High school or less	66	50	57	42
Postsecondary certificate or diploma	21	36	27	35
University degree	13	14	16	23
Work status				
Full-time	60	84	81	82
Part-time	40	16	19	18
Provinces				
Atlantic provinces	8	4	7	7
Quebec	F	13	24	23
Ontario	28	46	39	39
Prairie provinces	30	19	17	18
British Columbia	25	19	13	13
Class of worker				
Employee	99	99	85	85
Self-employed	F	F	15	15

Source: Labour Force Survey

Gambling outpaced other industries



1 The price, at basic prices, of the goods and services produced. The GDP figures for the gambling industry refer strictly to wagering activities, such as lottery ticket sales, VLT receipt sales, and bets at casinos. Other economic spinoffs, such as hotel and restaurant business, security services, or building and equipment maintenance are not included.

Sources: Labour Force Survey; National Accounts

Characteristics of jobs

	Gambling		Non-gambling	
	1997	2006	1997	2006
			'000	
Employees[1]	**33**	**40**	**11,323**	**13,947**
			%	
Unionized[2]	29	26	34	32
Non-unionized	71	74	66	68
Permanent job	91	92	89	87
Temporary job	9	8	11	13
Usually receive tips	27	30	7	7
No tips	73	70	93	93
Paid by the hour	80	79	61	65
Not paid hourly	20	21	39	35
Average hourly earnings[3]			$	
Men: full-time	13.51	20.37	17.83	22.44
Women: full-time	13.04	17.40	14.79	19.20

1 More detailed questions on employees were introduced with the 1997 revision of the Labour Force Survey.
2 Includes persons who are not union members, but whose jobs are covered by collective agreements.
3 Includes tips and commissions.
Source: Labour Force Survey

Household expenditures on gambling activities

	At least one gambling activity		Government lotteries		Other lotteries/raffles, etc.		Casinos, slot machines and VLTs		Bingos	
	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%
All households										
2000	492	74	245	64	84	31	546	21	743	9
2001	513	72	257	62	98	30	554	20	815	9
2002	570	73	263	63	129	30	679	21	905	8
2003	506	74	243	66	96	29	670	19	799	8
2004	514	71	265	61	101	28	664	19	805	6
2005	549	69	254	61	142	27	720	18	963	6
One-person households[1]	534	61	218	51	256	19	842	14	829	6
Men	763	61	297	54	573	17	1,396	14	487	3
18 to 44	771	59	208	51	147	15	1,848	17	733	1
45 to 64	881	66	317	61	1,155	20	1,154	13	238	2
65 and over	512	58	446	48	124	15	275	10	563	7
Women	369	61	155	49	64	20	434	14	906	8
18 to 44	322	61	109	50	53	27	259	14	2,263	4
45 to 64	316	65	151	54	62	20	562	12	599	8
65 and over	435	58	187	45	76	16	466	15	769	11
All households										
Newfoundland and Labrador	487	68	268	59	87	35	544	8	751	13
Prince Edward Island	513	71	266	53	93	45	415	13	1,223	10
Nova Scotia	620	74	278	62	85	41	1,164	16	691	10
New Brunswick	451	70	256	62	70	37	327	11	1,001	10
Quebec	428	73	243	68	253	15	559	13	553	6
Ontario	603	68	266	59	128	27	654	21	1,298	6
Manitoba	676	69	266	54	71	34	990	22	833	10
Saskatchewan	517	73	230	58	100	48	693	24	457	6
Alberta	576	66	225	53	150	38	817	18	1,114	6
British Columbia	608	68	258	60	146	26	964	19	968	4
Income after tax										
Less than $20,000	491	57	190	47	77	12	840	11	899	10
$20,000 to $39,999	539	66	244	58	228	20	673	15	1,044	7
$40,000 to $59,999	527	73	262	65	111	29	576	19	1,314	6
$60,000 to $79,999	555	74	285	65	104	34	738	20	783	6
$80,000 and over	618	75	270	65	148	39	836	24	578	5

1 Using one-person households allows examination of individual characteristics. Persons 18 and over were selected as this is the legal age for gambling in most provinces.

Note: Expenditures are per spending household. Unless otherwise indicated, figures are for 2005.

Source: Survey of Household Spending

Data sources and definitions

Labour Force Survey: a monthly household survey that collects information on labour market activity, including detailed occupational and industrial classifications, from all persons 15 years and over.

National Accounts: The quarterly Income and Expenditure Accounts (IEA) is one of several programs constituting the System of National Accounts. The IEA produces detailed annual and quarterly income and expenditure accounts for all sectors of the Canadian economy, namely households, businesses, governments and non-residents.

Survey of Household Spending (SHS): an annual survey that began in 1997 and replaced the Family Expenditure Survey and the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey. The SHS collects data on expenditures, income, household facilities and equipment, and other characteristics of families and individuals living in private households.

Gambling industries: This industry group covers establishments primarily engaged in operating gambling facilities, such as casinos, bingo halls and video gaming terminals; or providing gambling services, such as lotteries and off-track betting. It excludes horse race tracks and hotels, bars and restaurants that have casinos or gambling machines on the premises.

Gambling profit: net income from provincial and territorial government-run lotteries, casinos and VLTs, after prizes and winnings, operating expenses (including wages and salaries), payments to the federal government and other overhead costs are deducted.

Gambling revenue: all money wagered on provincial and territorial government-run lotteries, casinos and VLTs, less prizes and winnings. Gambling revenue generated by and for charities and on Indian reserves is excluded.

Government casino: a government-regulated commercial casino. Permits, licences and regulations for casinos, both charity and government, vary by province. Government casinos, now permitted in several provinces, also vary by the degree of public and private involvement in their operations and management. Some government casinos are run entirely as Crown corporations, while others contract some operations—for example, maintenance, management or services—to the private sector.

Video lottery terminal (VLT)**:** a coin-operated, free-standing, electronic game of chance. Winnings are paid out through receipts that are turned in for cash, as opposed to cash payments from slot machines. Such terminals are regulated by provincial lottery corporations.

Household expenditure on all gambling activities by income groups, 2005

	Average expenditure			Gaming as % of total income	
	All households	Reporting households	Percentage reporting	All households	Reporting households
	$	$	%	%	%
Income after tax	**380**	**549**	**69**	**0.6**	**0.8**
Less than $20,000	277	491	57	2.0	3.6
$20,000 to $39,999	358	539	66	1.2	1.8
$40,000 to $59,999	383	527	73	0.8	1.1
$60,000 to $79,999	412	555	74	0.6	0.8
$80,000 and over	465	618	75	0.4	0.5

Source: Survey of Household Spending

Notes

1 Refers to total money wagered on non-charity lotteries, casinos and VLTs, minus prizes and winnings.

2 Survey of Household Spending (SHS) and National Accounts rankings of provincial expenditures differ, in part because the SHS includes both charity and non-charity gambling activity.

3 The expenditure figures are not adjusted for any winnings. As well, households consistently under-report the amount of money they spend on gambling. Comparisons with Lottery Corporation figures, for example, have shown that households under-report their government lottery purchases by more than 50%.