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■ Employment among
the disabled

■ Shifting pensions



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...	not applicable
0	true zero or a value rounded to zero
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P	preliminary
r	revised
x	suppressed to meet the confidentiality requirements of the <i>Statistics Act</i>
E	use with caution
F	too unreliable to be published

Highlights

In this issue

■ Employment among the disabled

- Persons with a disability often work fewer hours than those with no disability. This gap widens as the number of years of disability increases. During a 6-year period, the gap can amount to as much as 1.6 years of 'lost' work time.
- The effects of a disability last beyond the disability period for many affected persons. Their activity rate is lower not only during the reported years of disability, but also during years with no reported disability.
- Disability is often associated with lower earnings, and this is more so when the disability period is longer. Men and women with a disability for 6 years had earnings gaps of up to 20% compared with persons with no disability.
- The risk of low income is also higher for persons with a disability, especially during longer disability periods. Men affected for six years are eight times more likely to have low income than those without a disability, while women are four times more likely.

■ Shifting pensions

- Between 1991 and 2006, defined contribution (DC) plan membership almost doubled, increasing by 93%. During the same period, defined benefit (DB) plans lost 4% of their members.
- Membership fluctuations were greater in the private sector, where DB plans lost 279,000 members between 1991 and 2006 and DC plans gained 382,000. Changes were nearly nonexistent in the public sector.
- About 78% of the 192,000 members lost by DB plans were the result of plan conversions, the vast majority of which benefited hybrid or mixed plans. DC plan growth came mostly from an increase in active plan membership.
- Neither industrial structure changes nor factors used in a logistic regression could explain the considerable increase in DC plans. In fact, according to an Oaxaca decomposition, these factors should have stimulated DB plan growth.

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Employment among the disabled

Diane Galarneau and Marian Radulescu

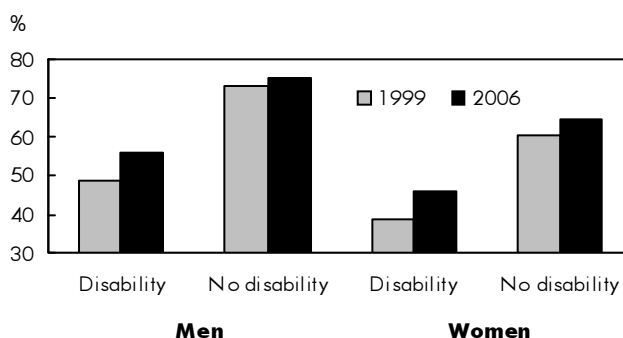
When considering persons with a disability, the assumption often is that they are affected by their disability throughout their life. And yet, among those reporting a disability at some point between 1999 and 2004, only 13% were affected all six years. Thus, a sizeable proportion appear to have a temporary limitation. Disability may also be experienced in phases or episodes, with movement in and out of states of disability of varying severity over time. These phases or episodes likely have major effects on the ability of such persons to participate continuously in the labour market and their ability to meet their needs and those of their family.

Persons with disabilities face different barriers to participation in the labour force, even though maintaining an attachment is often crucial for them. Doing so enables them to meet everyday needs and build self-esteem, and gives a sense of belonging to the community. These days, with an aging population and a possible labour shortage, society can ill afford to forgo any contributions. Furthermore, the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms* and the *Canadian Human Rights Act* protect and ensure access to the labour market for persons with activity limitations by guaranteeing equality and by prohibiting discrimination based on physical or mental disability (Human Resources and Social Development Canada 2006).

Most surveys that deal with disability provide little information on the dynamics of affected persons' participation in the labour market. The Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) fills this gap with its longitudinal component and, since 1999, the question on disability addressing functional and societal limitations, in line with surveys that usually deal with this phenomenon (see *Data source and definitions*).

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Chart A Persons with disabilities appear to have benefited from recent employment growth



Note: The employment rate increase from 1999 to 2006 was significant at 0.05 threshold or better for persons with and without a disability.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

This article compares the labour market participation of people with and without a disability using SLID. With its six-year observation period, SLID provides the years people report limitations and how their participation in the labour force is affected as the number increases. It is also possible to examine labour force participation during the years of disability as well as during the years without disability. Because persons with a disability are more likely to have low employment income (Chung 2004), their earnings and social benefits are also examined.

Participating less in the labour market because of disability

In 2006, persons age 20 to 64 with a disability were on average older and less educated, and more likely to have fair or poor health and live alone. Women with a

Data source and definitions

This study is based on longitudinal and cross-sectional data from the **Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics** (SLID). The longitudinal component used the panel covering the years 1999 to 2004, because it was the first panel to include the new question on disability, and it focused on core working-age persons from 20 to 59 in 1999 or from 25 to 64 in 2004. The cross-sectional part focused on persons age 20 to 64 in 2006.

In the Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS)—as in most Statistics Canada surveys on the subject, including the census, the Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS) and SLID since 1999—the definition of disability uses the bio-psychosocial framework from the World Health Organization (WHO) in which disability is defined in a broad sense and covers all limitations. Disability is “the result of complex interactions between a health problem or functional limitation and the social, political, cultural, economic, and physical environment. These, in combination with personal factors such as age, gender, and level of education, can result in a disadvantage—that is, a disability. Disability is [therefore] not defined merely as being the direct result of a health problem or any physical or mental limitation” (Human Resources and Social Development Canada 2006).

Starting with the 1999 reference year, SLID uses the filter questions on disability from the 2001 and 2006 Censuses to identify people with a disability. These questions ask about any difficulty in hearing, seeing, communicating, walking, climbing stairs, bending, learning or doing similar activities, or a physical condition, mental condition or health problem that reduces the amount or kind of activity that the person can do at home, in leisure activities, at work, or at school. In this article, the disability rate includes all these reasons. Although ‘persons with a disability,’ ‘persons with an activity limitation’ and ‘handicapped persons’ may reflect different realities, the three are used interchangeably in the text.

A major limitation of SLID is the lack of information on the type, duration and severity of a disability. Sizeable differences are observed in the participation rates of persons with one or more disabilities, depending on the type of disability and its severity (Williams 2006 and Statistics Canada 2007) (Table 1).

Thus, for some of the 1.5 million persons with a single year of disability between 1999 and 2004, this might be the result of a minor accident that disabled them for a few weeks, with no lasting consequence other than an unpleasant memory. Alternatively, it might be one episode in a recurring sequence that affects them to varying degrees, depending on the year.

The severity of a disability has more impact on labour market participation than does the type of disability (Hum and Simpson 1996). Despite the lack of information about severity, the number of years of observed disability provides certain indications. As the disability period lengthens, the profile of the affected persons shifts farther from those with no disabilities and their participation in the labour market tends to be lower. Thus, duration seems to *partially* reflect the degree of disability. This is a partial measure of severity since people can have a permanent disability and be only

slightly affected in their labour market participation. Disability duration, as measured from its onset, was also explored as a possible proxy for severity. However, this variable has a relatively high number of missing values—approximately one-fifth—in an already relatively small sample and it behaves similarly to the observed duration. The advantage of observed duration is that it permits the inclusion of the entire sample. Health status can also capture the degree of disability. However, when it is added to the regressions, it removes the explanatory power of the disability variables because health status tends to deteriorate with increasing years of disability. Hence, the number of years of observed disability was used.

The episodic nature of disability has attracted increasing attention because of its many possible effects on labour market participation and earnings (Cranswick 1999, and Holland, Whitehead, Clayton and Drever 2008). Capturing this dimension by distinguishing continuous periods of disability during the six-year period from non-continuous periods was therefore also tried. However this distinction is possible only for periods of disability lasting two to five years given that six-year periods are by definition continuous, and one-year periods are non-continuous. Yet, this distinction was incomplete because SLID does not capture entries and exits within any single year. In addition, very little difference was observed in participation rate, hours worked, low-income rate or health status whether the periods were continuous or not. Thus the continuous/non-continuous nature of the disability period was not used.

Table 1 Activity rate by severity and type of disability

	Disability			
	Total	Mild	Mod- erate	Severe or very severe
	%			
Type of disability	56.2	70.1	59.6	41.8
Agility	49.5	63.3	58.8	40.4
Learning	46.0	64.2	55.9	38.8
Other	73.9	74.4	68.2 ^E	0.0
Communication	34.9	55.2	47.0	31.4
Developmental disability	30.9	37.9 ^E	35.6 ^E	28.9
Pain	55.7	71.9	62.0	43.6
Memory	37.6	57.8 ^E	64.4	33.1
Mobility	49.3	62.8	57.5	40.6
Hearing	57.5	74.6	71.3	38.8
Emotional or psychological problems	42.9	60.7	58.6	36.8
Vision	47.6	66.5	59.7	39.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation Survey, 2006.

disability were also slightly more likely than other women to be their household's main income recipient (Table 2).

Persons with a disability also have a weaker attachment to the labour force, since they are, of course, not all able to work. According to the 2006 Participation and Activity Limitation Survey, 42% of persons between 15 and 64 years of age reporting a disability were unable to work. Despite that weaker attachment, they appeared to benefit from the employment growth of recent years (Chart A). From 1999 to 2006, the proportion of men with a disability employed throughout the year grew more (from 48% to 56%) than the proportion of men without a disability (73% to 75%). For women with a disability, the increase (39% to 46%) was slightly more than for women not reporting a disability (61% to 65%).¹

Men with a disability worked fewer annual hours in 2006 than those who reported no disability (Table 3). The difference was equivalent to 15 weeks of work (in full-time equivalents, and including those who did not work). The smaller number of hours might be attributable to personal characteristics, often associated with a weaker attachment to the labour force, such as more advanced age, lower education level and often having fair or poor health. After controlling for personal characteristics (see *Methodology*), the difference in hours remained substantial—equivalent to 13 weeks full time. For women, the difference was 12 weeks before controls and 11 weeks after. Hence, much of the weaker attachment of these persons to the labour force can be attributed to activity limitation.

Table 2 Characteristics of persons having declared one or several activity limitations

	Men		Women	
	No disability	Disability	No disability	Disability
Total	6,346	1,880	6,334	2,127
			'000	
			%	
Age				
20 to 24 years	11	6*	11	5*
25 to 34 years	24	14*	24	12*
35 to 44 years	26	20*	26	21*
45 to 54 years	24	30*	24	31*
55 to 64 years	15	30*	16	30*
Family type				
Single	18	25*	12	20*
Married, no children	21	25*	24	25
Married, with children	49	37*	49	34*
Single parent	2	1	6	8*
Other	10	12*	9	14*
Education				
No high school diploma	12	21*	10	19*
High school diploma	13	14	15	17
Postsecondary education	49	46	49	45
University degree	23	14*	23	14*
Urban region	82	77*	81	81
Rural region	18	23*	19	19
Atlantic provinces	7	9*	8	8
Quebec	26	22*	26	22*
Ontario	37	41*	37	44*
Manitoba	3	4	3	3
Saskatchewan	3	3	3	3
Alberta	11	9	11	8*
British Columbia	13	12	13	12
Recent immigrant	10	7*	12	8*
Not a recent immigrant	90	93*	89	92*
Aboriginal	3	5*	4	6*
Non-Aboriginal	97	95*	96	94*
Visible minority	85	88*	84	87*
Not a visible minority	15	12*	16	13*
Good to excellent health	97	65*	97	60*
Fair or bad health	3	35*	3	40*
Major income recipient	58	57*	32	39*
Not the major income recipient	42	43*	68	61*

* Significant difference for persons with no disability at 0.05 threshold or better
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 2006.

Table 3 Annual average hours gap between persons with and without a disability

	Men		Women	
	Gross hours	Adjusted hours ¹	Gross hours	Adjusted hours ¹
No disability	1,808.7	1,284.1	1,206.1	993.3
Disability	1,203.3*	750.2*	733.7*	556.1*
Gap in annual hours	-605.4	-533.9	-472.4	-437.2
Gap in weekly full-time equivalent	-14.8	-13.1	-11.6	-10.7

* Significant difference for persons with no disability at 0.05 threshold or better

1. Adjusted gap calculated using a Tobit model on 2006 annual hours.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 2006.

The prolongation of the disability period accentuates profile differences

Among individuals between 20 and 59 years of age in 1999, 41% reported having a disability at some point between 1999 and 2004. In fact, 15% of the total reported a disability during a single year, whereas only 5% reported a disability in all six years. The remaining 21% reported between two and five years of disability. Even though SLID provides little information as to whether the disability is permanent or temporary or on the degree of disability, an examination of the characteristics of the persons affected by disability brings out clear differences between persons affected for short periods and those affected for longer periods (see *Data source and definitions*).

Persons affected for a single year exhibited slight differences compared with persons reporting no limitation: they were a little older and a little less educated, and their health more often ranged between

fair and poor (15% compared with 2% of persons without disabilities) (Table 4).

These differences tended to be exacerbated as the number of years of disability increased. Thus, compared with persons without disabilities, those with a disability all six years were more likely to be female, be between 55 and 64 years of age (40% versus only 15% of persons without a disability), not have a high school diploma (31% versus 11%), not be married or in a common-law union (46% versus 22%), not have children (65% versus 41%), and be in fair or poor health (63% versus 2%). Also, visible minorities were slightly less likely to report a disability. Some differences are seen by region of residence; for example, persons with a disability are more likely to reside in the Atlantic provinces.²

Effects felt beyond disability period

The participation rate is useful when looking at disability because of obstacles that disabled persons

may encounter. Participation rates include not only employed persons, but also those available for work (Statistics Canada 2007). Persons with one or more disabilities generally have a weaker attachment to the labour force. This is even more so when the disability period is longer. During disability years, the annual average participation rate (see *Methodology*) of affected men age 20 to 59 in 1999 varied between 88% and 44%, depending on whether they reported one or six years of disability. These rates compared with 90% for those with no disability during the six years. For women, rates varied between 73% and 35% depending on the years of disability, compared with 76% for those reporting no disability (Chart B).

The participation rates of persons reporting a disability may also be lower for year with no reported disability. For example, when men had four years of disability, their average participation rate during the other two years was 75%, which is significantly lower than for men without a disability (90%). A similar gap was observed for men reporting five years of disability; their participation rate during their one year without a disability was 73%. Large gaps were also observed for women, starting at three years of disability. For them, the participation rate during years of disability differed very little from that observed during years without a disability—66% and 68% when they reported three years of disability, and 54% and 55% when they reported five. However, these rates were significantly different from those of women who reported no limitation (76%).

Table 4 Personal characteristics by number of disability years¹

	Years with disability				
	0	1	2 or 3	4 or 5	6
Total	6,107	1,529	1,322 '000 %	836	567
Sex					
Men	50	48	48	50	44*
Women	50	52	52	50	56*
Age					
25 to 34 years	22	16*	13*	10*	7* ^E
35 to 44 years	34	30*	25*	21*	17*
45 to 54 years	28	33*	33*	33	36*
55 to 64 years	15	21*	29*	36*	40*
Health status					
Excellent	35	16*	10*	6*	3*
Very good	43	37*	29*	22*	10*
Good	20	32*	38*	36*	24*
Fair	2	11*	18*	26*	33*
Poor	0	3*	6*	10*	30*
Education					
No high school diploma	11	15*	17*	23*	31*
High school diploma	17	16	19*	18	19
Postsecondary education	47	49	49	44	40*
University degree	25	19*	14*	13*	8* ^E
Family type					
Single	12	10	14	17*	27*
Married, no children	34	36	40*	44*	39
Married, with children	44	41	32*	22*	15*
Single parent	3	5 ^E	5 ^E	5 ^E	5 ^E
Other	7	9	9	12*	14*
Children					
None	41	39	49*	55*	65*
1	20	20	22	19	15*
2	27	26	20*	17*	11*
3	9	12*	7	7 ^E	6* ^E
4 or more	3	3 ^E	2 ^E	2 ^E	F
Atlantic provinces	9	9	7	10	12*
Quebec	27	25	24	24	22
Ontario	35	33	35	34	35
Manitoba and Saskatchewan	7	8	7	7	8
Alberta	10	12*	10	11	13
British Columbia	13	13	18*	13	10 ^E
Urban region	78	77	81	77	78
Rural region	22	23	19	23	22
Visible minority	9	9	8	6* ^E	4* ^E
Not a visible minority	91	91	92	94*	96*
Recent immigrant	16	16	16	15	14
Not a recent immigrant	84	84	84	85	87
Aboriginal	2	3 ^E	3 ^E	3 ^E	4* ^E
Non-Aboriginal	97	96	95	96	95*

* Significant difference for persons with no disability at 0.05 threshold or better

1. Reference year is 2004 for most variables. Health status is an average for years with a disability. For persons without a disability, average health status for the six observation years was used.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

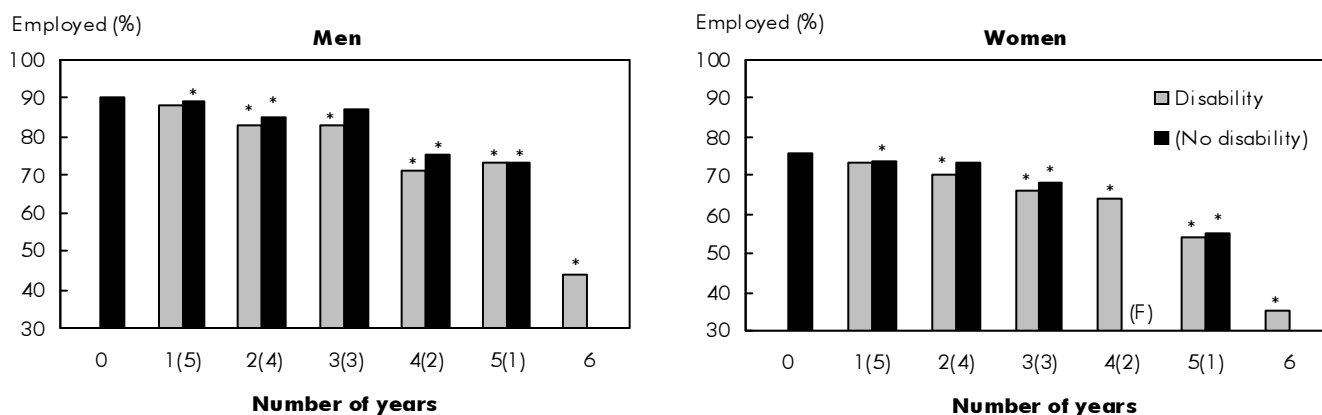
People employed during periods of disability (i.e. those with a positive number of hours—see *Methodology*) often work fewer hours per year. The more years of disability, the wider the gap in relation to the population without disability. Approximately 55% of men and 39% of women without a disability worked the equivalent of a full-time schedule all year, compared with 21% and 14% of those with 6 years of disability (Chart C). This lesser propensity of persons with disabilities to have a full-year, full-time schedule was also generally observed during years with no reported disability.

Gap in hours non-existent for shorter disability periods

Using longitudinal data, it is possible to examine whether the gap in work hours persists regardless of years of disability.

The hours worked during the six years of observation by persons with or without disabilities (including zero hours) were cumulated and adjusted to control for the different characteristics of persons reporting zero to six years of disability (see *Methodology*). Even before adjustments, the difference between persons reporting a disability during only one year and those reporting no disability was not significant. However, the post-adjustment gap remained significant starting at two to three years of disability (Table 5). For persons affected for the six years, the adjusted gap in hours was appreciable, amounting to 1.6 years. The distinction between short and longer periods of disability reveals gaps in hours worked that had been masked in the cross-sectional data.

Chart B Activity rate for people reporting a disability is also lower during years without a disability



These adjusted gaps do not take differences in labour market characteristics into account, since persons with no hours have no employment characteristics. Limiting the analysis to persons having positive hours

between 1999 and 2004 provides very similar results. Controlling for employment characteristics reduces this gap to 0.9 years, and the difference remains significant.

Chart C The proportion of people with a disability and working full time, all year is also smaller during years without a disability

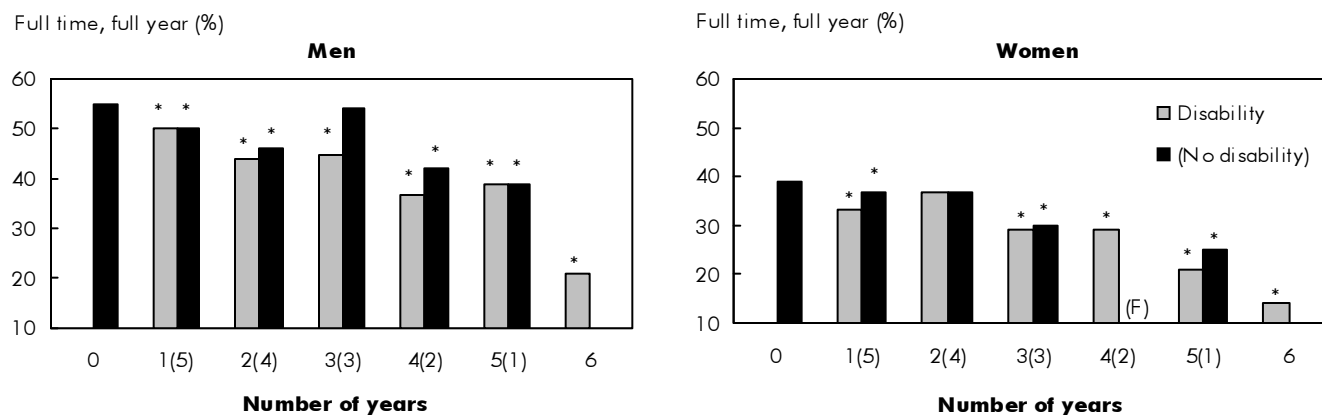


Table 5 Difference in hours accumulated over six years between persons with and those without a disability

	Zero hours included				Zero hours excluded			
	Gross difference		Adjusted difference ¹		Gross difference		Adjusted difference ²	
	hours	years ³	hours	years ³	hours	years ³	hours	years ³
Men								
Years of disability								
1	74	0.0	-58	0.0	75	0.0	64	0.0
2 or 3	-992	-0.5*	-865	-0.4*	-993	-0.5*	-482	-0.2*
4 or 5	-1,595	-0.8*	-1,338	-0.7*	-1,598	-0.8*	-869	-0.4*
6	-3,293	-1.7*	-3,168	-1.6*	-3,305	-1.7*	-1,758	-0.9*
Women								
Years of disability								
1	-193	-0.1	-267	-0.1	-192	-0.1	-20	0.0
2 or 3	-679	-0.3*	-855	-0.4*	-689	-0.4*	-377	-0.2*
4 or 5	-1,184	-0.6*	-1,510	-0.8*	-1,190	-0.6*	-868	-0.4*
6	-2,751	-1.4*	-3,233	-1.6*	-2,839	-1.4*	-1,751	-0.9*

* Significant difference for persons with no disability at 0.05 threshold or better

1. Calculated using a Tobit model on hours accumulated over the six-year observation period.

2. Calculated using a linear regression model on cumulative positive hours.

3. Shows equivalent in number of full-time years.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

Methodology

For people with no activity limitations, **labour force status** is a weighted average over six years. For those with limitations, average activity rates are calculated for years with and without disability. Active indicates that an individual was employed or unemployed throughout the year, inactive indicates being unemployed and not looking for work throughout the year, and other indicates periods of activity and inactivity during the year. The differences were significant at the 5% threshold or better, which was based on Bootstrap weights. A similar approach was used to estimate the **proportion working full time throughout the year**. A person working full time throughout the year must have worked the equivalent of an average of 1750 to 2199 hours per year.

The estimates of adjusted hours of work come from a Tobit regression model, which is well suited to data sets containing a number of non-participants in a given activity, as is the case here because of persons who did not work a single hour during the observation period. The technique simultaneously takes the probability of working and the duration of the work time into consideration. The model begins by evaluating the probability of working using a binary variable, taking the value 1 if the number of hours is positive and 0 otherwise; it then evaluates, in linear fashion, the effect of the different independent variables on hours worked. Separate models were estimated for men and women. The independent variables were: having or not having a limitation, age, education, family type, province, region (urban or rural), being the major income recipient of the economic family, visible minority status,

belonging to an Aboriginal group, and recent immigrant status. In the longitudinal part, the years of observed disability were also taken into consideration, which partly catches the degree of disability. Each model had four binary variables indicating the length of observed disability (one, two or three, four or five, or six years) in addition to demographic characteristics.

The regressions on the earnings gap were estimated with an ordinary least squares model. Separate models were used for men and women. The dependent variable was the logarithm of 2004 hourly earnings, and the demographic variables were the same as in the hourly model. A second model included—in addition to demographic variables—labour market characteristics such as workplace size, industry, occupational skill level, seniority and unionization. Other models distinguished between disabilities that limited individuals at work or school from other disabilities. However, years of disability and type of disability could not be used simultaneously because of their high correlation. Only people with positive earnings were used for the estimates.

The regressions estimating the probability of low income covered all individuals with and without hours of work and took only demographic variables into consideration. The dependent variable was a binary variable with the value 1 if the person's household income after taxes was below the low income cut-off as defined in SLID, and 0 otherwise.

The analysis was conducted using Stata 10, which lends itself to the use of Bootstrap weights.

Table 6 Work-interruption rate¹ by years of disability and sex

	Years with disability						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Men				'000			
Number of jobs	3,445	815	431	250	203	175	125
				%			
Interruptions	17	19	20	16	20	19	20
Women				'000			
Number of jobs	3,052	792	362	255	182	142	152
				%			
Interruptions	18	21*	19	24*	20	22	24

* Significant difference for persons with no disability at 0.05 threshold or better

1. Termination rate for all of one person's jobs.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

causing decreased performance, can result in reduced pay and fewer promotions (Harrison and Martocchio 1998, and Yelin and Trupin 2003).

Both for persons with limitations and those without, the reasons most often cited were job-related, that is, a layoff, the end of a contract or seasonal job, a dismissal, a strike or a company relocation. These job-related reasons accounted for between 43% and 53% of the reasons cited for work interruptions by men and between 35% and 40% of the reasons cited by women.

Comparable work-interruption rates

Among those in the labour force, both men and women affected by a disability were no more likely than those not affected to experience work interruptions between 1999 and 2004 (Table 6).³ However disabled persons were more likely to opt for reduced hours or non-participation.

Generally, regardless of having a disability, the reasons given for work interruptions were comparable. Only interruptions for health reasons were slightly more frequent for persons with a disability. Health reasons were cited for work interruption of respectively 6% and 8% of these men and women (no control for years of disability), compared with 0% and 1% for those without disabilities. A recent study (Marshall 2006) showed that persons with a disability were up to 2.4 times more likely to take extended sick leave, and hence were more likely to experience lower pay. Other research has also shown that absenteeism, in addition to

Table 7 2004 earnings differential between persons with a disability and those without a disability, by disability years

	Average hourly earnings	Difference		Adjusted difference	
		Gross		Model 1	Model 2
	\$			%	
Men					
Disability years					
0	25.08
1	24.19	-4	-4	-1	-1
2 or 3	21.72	-13*	-10*	-6*	-6*
4 or 5	21.49	-14*	-8*	-5*	-5*
6	19.97	-20*	-19*	-11*	-11*
Activity limitations					
None	25.08
At work or at school	21.04	-16*	-12*	-7*	-7*
Elsewhere	24.75	-1	-1	0	0
Women					
Disability years					
0	19.21
1	18.94	-1	-1	0	0
2 or 3	17.77	-7*	-7*	-4	-4
4 or 5	17.04	-11*	-11*	-8*	-8*
6	14.80	-23*	-17*	-10*	-10*
Activity limitations					
None	19.21
At work or at school	16.99	-12*	-10*	-6*	-6*
Elsewhere	19.47	1	-2	-1	-1

* Significant difference for 0 disability years at 0.05 threshold or better

Note: See *Methodology* for a model description.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

A significant earnings gap for long periods of disability

Persons affected by disability generally see their average hourly earnings lag behind those not affected, and the gap increases with the number of years of disability.⁴ In 2004, this gap ranged from nearly zero for those with one year of disability to 20% and 23% for men and women respectively who reported six years of disability (Table 7).

Since persons with disabilities may have characteristics that might explain their lower earnings, earnings were adjusted to neutralize the effect of these characteristics. When differences in demographic characteristics were taken into account, the earnings gap declined (model 1) but remained significant, ranging between 1% and 19%, depending on the number of years of disability. The addition of labour market characteristics (model 2) reduced the gap, but it remained significant for men starting at two to three years of disability, and for women starting at four to five years.

SLID does not give any indication of the type of disability, but it is possible to distinguish between disabilities that limit people at work or school and those that limit them in other activities. When men are limited at work, their earnings fall by 16%. After adjustments for demographic characteristics, the drop

remained significant at 12%. Among women, the drop was 12% before and 10% after adjustments. The inclusion of labour market characteristics reduced the drops to 7% and 6% respectively. People with disabilities that limited them other than at work did not have an earnings gap even before adjustments compared with people who were not limited. Being limited at work was a more pronounced disadvantage.

In general, few differences were seen between the disabled and the non-disabled in terms of union membership and pension or health insurance coverage. However, among women disabled for all six years, some differences appeared for disability and dental coverage (Table 8).⁵

Persons with a disability more at risk of low income

A person may have low earnings but live in a household that is not low-income because of the earnings and incomes of other household members. Low-income rates were examined for all persons, regardless of their labour force status. Labour force participation has a major effect on the likelihood of low income (Kapsalis and Tourigny 2007). Persons with a disability therefore have an additional risk factor, since their disability reduces their propensity to participate in the labour force.

Table 8 Characteristics of main job for the employed in 2004 by disability years

	Years with disability									
	Men					Women				
	0	1	2 or 3	4 or 5	6	0	1	2 or 3	4 or 5	6
Employed	2,466	546	450	240	76	2,269	569	454	227	99
Benefits	%									
Union or collective agreement	35	39	39	40	49*	33	41*	34	37	25 ^E
Employer life insurance or disability plan	72	65*	67	67	70	61	62	54*	54	40* ^E
Employer health insurance plan	76	70*	73	70	76	64	70*	62	57	52
Employer dental plan	71	68	67	67	66	58	62	54	57	43*
Pension plan	55	55	53	50	49	49	46	45	45	40 ^E

* Significant difference for 0 disability years at 0.05 threshold or better

Note: Data are from the longitudinal panel from 1999 to 2004. Considering the minor annual variation during this period, the selected variables correspond to the last year, 2004.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

Even after taking differences in demographic characteristics into consideration, persons with disabilities were generally at greater risk of having low income, and this probability generally increased with the number of years of disability. Men disabled for two to five years had twice as high a risk, and those disabled for six years had eight times the risk of men without a disability (Chart D). Women disabled for six years were at four times a higher risk than non-disabled women. Women who had been disabled for less than six years showed slight differences from the non-disabled. Among those limited at work or at school, men were almost at four times a higher risk of low income, and the risk for women was twice as high. People with limitations in activities other than at work did not show significant gaps compared with those without limitations. According to a recent study, people who were limited at work were not only at greater risk of having low income, but also of *persistent* low income, and their lower attachment to the labour market had the strongest impact on their persistent low income (Kapsalis and Tourigny 2007).

Conclusion

The use of longitudinal data on disability sheds new light on the entire subject of activity limitations. A first finding is that a disability can be temporary or

episodic, meaning that people are not necessarily affected by disability continuously. From 1999 to 2004, only 13% of people who indicated a disability reported being affected by it during all six years.

The longer the disability period, the more likely the persons affected are to have less education, to be women, to be older and to live alone. These characteristics are often associated with lower participation in the labour force. Persons with a disability indeed work fewer hours per year. This gap persists even after demographic characteristics are taken into consideration. Over a six-year period, the difference in the number of work hours between persons with and those without a disability can amount to 1.6 years of 'lost' work time. Following controls for labour market characteristics, the gap is still significant and amounts to almost one year.

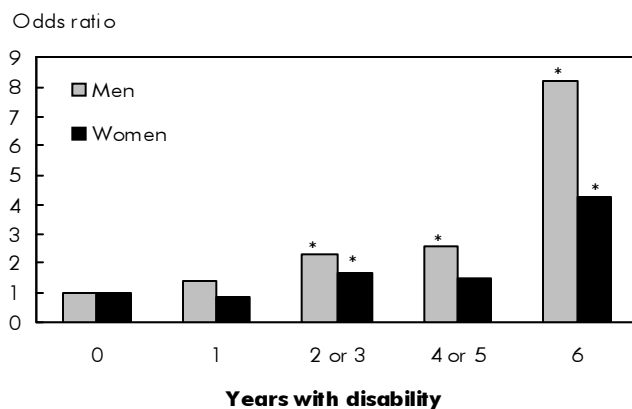
For many persons with disabilities, the effects of disability extend beyond the period of the disability. The participation rate and the annual work hours of persons with disabilities are lower not only during the years of disability, but also during other years.

For both men and women, work-interruption rates are similar to those for their counterparts without disabilities. However, persons with disabilities are more likely to stop working because of health problems. Job-related reasons (layoff, end of a temporary job, end of a contract, etc.) accounted for most work interruptions, for both persons with and those without limitations.

The review of working conditions shows significant differences between people with and without a disability. These differences are very sensitive to the years of disability, and persist even after taking differences in demographic characteristics into consideration. Thus, when compared with people without disabilities, men and women disabled for six years report earnings differences of up to almost 20%. In general, few differences are seen in terms of social benefits.

Labour market activity has a significant impact on the probability of low income. Given that people with disabilities have a lower propensity for being active in the labour market, their risk of being in low income is higher. This low-income risk is relatively higher among men: those disabled for four to five years have twice the risk, and those disabled for six years are eight times at greater risk than men without disabilities. Among women, the risk is four times greater when they have been disabled for six years, but there is little difference

Chart D Men with a disability are at a relatively higher risk of low income



* Significant difference for 0 disability years at 0.05 threshold or better

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, 1999 to 2004.

in terms of the risk of low income for women with and those without disabilities for periods of less than six years.

Longitudinal data reveal gaps in terms of working hours, earnings and low income between people with and without disabilities that are masked in cross-sectional data. They also underline the importance of measuring the severity of the disability better in order to fully understand its impact.

Perspectives

Notes

1. Similar results were reported in Uriarte-Landa and Spector 2008.
2. These differences are significant at the threshold of 5% or better. Disability rates were also higher in PALS for some Atlantic provinces (Statistics Canada 2008).
3. Refers to all jobs held per year. The rate is calculated on the basis of the total number of jobs held each year between 1999 and 2004.
4. The gap in average hourly earnings is calculated for persons with earnings during the 2004 reference year.
5. Some studies have tried to determine to what extent the availability of a disability pension can increase the probability of disability claims among workers. The results are generally non con.

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Shifting pensions

Philippe Gougeon

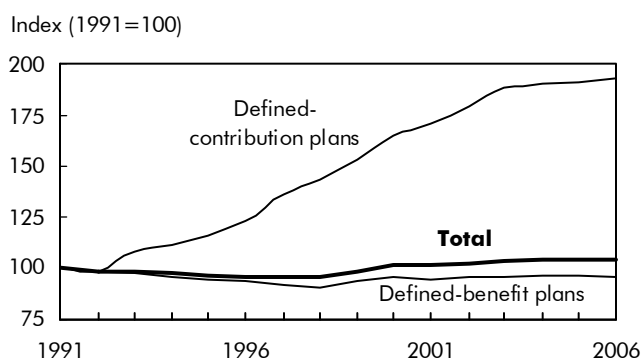
In planning for retirement, Canadians rely on a system that has three components: public plans (the universal Old Age Security, the Guaranteed Income Supplement and the Canada/Quebec Pension Plans for paid workers); employer-sponsored plans (registered pension plans [RPPs], deferred profit-sharing plans and group registered retirement savings plans [group RRSPs]); and personal savings—including registered retirement savings plans (RRSPs). From 1992 to 2006, the importance of private pension plans (self-sponsored or employer-sponsored) in the composition of the average retirement income of Canadians 65 and over grew from 23% to 32% of their total income.¹ Fluctuations in the world economic situation can affect income from private pension plans, depending on their characteristics. With the prevailing situation in Canada and many other countries since fall 2008, the financial situation of current and future retirees could be affected depending on the type of plan and investment.

Registered pension plans comprise defined-benefit (DB), money-purchase or defined-contribution (DC) and hybrid/mixed (H/M) plans.² These plans covered 30%, 6% and 1%, respectively, of employees in 2006.³ Over the last 30 years, a gradual transition away from DB plans (see *Data source and definitions*) has taken place in several countries, especially in the United Kingdom and the United States (Broadbent et al. 2006), and to some extent in Canada.

A change in the prevalence of these plans would imply a modification in the distribution of risk between employers and employees, which could have an impact on the standard of living of future Canadian retirees, whose numbers are growing rapidly.

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Chart A The number of defined-contribution plan participants almost doubled between 1991 and 2006



Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

For employees, DB plans provide some security because benefits are predefined, and the investment risk rests mainly with employers. However, transfers of benefits are more complicated with a job change.⁴ For employers, DB plans carry financial obligations to maintain solvency and conduct the actuarial valuations required by pension authorities.

On the other hand, the investment risk with DC plans is assumed mainly by contributing members because their retirement benefits are entirely dependent on contributions and plan performance. This characteristic is an advantage in periods of economic growth, as at the end of the 1990s and in the mid-2000s, but it may prove less advantageous in a more uncertain context like the one since the fall of 2008. Such plans, however, have the advantage of being more easily portable to a new employer.

Data source and definitions

The **Pension Plans in Canada Survey** is an annual census of all registered pension plans in Canada. RPPs are retirement benefit programs that employers or unions establish for employees. The plans are registered with the Canada Revenue Agency for tax purposes, and, in most cases, with a provincial or federal jurisdiction. Plans are registered in the jurisdiction with the most active members.

New plan/plan opening: A plan opened between 1991 and 2006 and still open in 2006 was considered new. The opening date refers to the date on which the employer implemented the plan. Such a plan could be created following an amalgamation of companies or collective bargaining.

Registered pension plan (RPP): A plan the employer establishes to provide a pension to retiring employees. Regular employer contributions finance retirement benefits, and, in many cases, so do employee contributions and investment income resulting from these contributions. The two major types are defined benefit and defined contribution.

Defined benefit plan (DB plan): An RPP under which benefits correspond to a set amount or are determined with a formula providing a pension unit for each year of service. Employees may or may not be required to contribute. The employer pays the balance required to finance plan benefits. The law requires that an actuarial valuation be conducted at least once every three years in order to determine the contributions required to guarantee plan solvency. Best-average earnings plans were the most frequent in 2006.

Defined contribution plan (DC plan): An RPP in which the value of accumulated contributions is applied upon employee retirement to provide pension income. Employees may or may not be required to contribute. As opposed to DB plans, the amount of contributions is known, but the amount of benefits is only known when employees retire.

Employee benefits depend on investment profits and pension accrual rate. Profit-sharing plans are included in this category, but what differentiates them is that company profitability affects employer contributions.

Hybrid/mixed plans (H/M plans): Hybrid plans provide the better of a defined-benefit and a defined-contribution option. Mixed plans provide income from both defined-benefit and defined-contribution portions. These two have been grouped because each has a DB and a DC component, albeit combined in different manners. Furthermore, in both cases, some risk is shared between the employer and employees.

Defined benefit/defined contribution plan (DB/DC plan): A plan in which some employees are covered by a DB plan and others are covered by a DC plan. This can apply to different categories of employees, and/or current employees get one of two types of plans, and new employees, the other.

Plan size: **small** (3 to 99 active members); **medium** (100 to 999 active members); **large** (1,000 to 9,999 active members); **very large** (10,000 or more active members).

Public-sector plan: The main employer is a municipal, provincial or federal government, a crown corporation, or any other organization considered public.

Private-sector plan: The main employer is an incorporated or unincorporated business (company or sole owner), a cooperative, a professional association or labour union, or a religious, charitable or non-profit organization.

Closed/terminated plan: A plan closed between 1991 and 2006. Reasons for termination include replacement by a new plan, merger with another plan, bankruptcy, no participants, disapproval by the Canada Revenue Agency, company dissolution, financial or administrative considerations, conversion to RRSP, and legal non-compliance. Plans that have re-opened are excluded from this category.

Defined contribution increases, defined benefit stagnates

In 2006, DB plans covered 81% of workers participating in a registered pension plan, while DC plans covered 16%. From 1991 to 2006, the number of DC plan participants almost doubled, from 466,000 to 899,000 (Chart A). Although DB plans still cover most RPP members (4.6 million members in 2006), they lost 192,000 members over the same period, primarily between 1991 and 1997 (Table 1). And while the number of women covered by DB plans has increased, that growth has been weak.

The decrease in DB plan membership is even more significant considering that employment increased 29% over the same period. In 1991, 41% of Canadian employees were covered by a DB plan. Fifteen years later, that proportion was down to 30%.

For DC plans, the proportional increase in members outstripped overall employment growth so their coverage rate rose from 4% to 6%.⁵

Private-sector defined benefit decreasing

In Canada, DB plans still cover most private-sector pension plan participants, but they have lost membership in recent years (Table 2). In 2006, they covered 73% of private-sector plan members compared with 86% in 1991, representing a decrease of 279,000 members. At the same time, the number of private-sector employees increased by 34%. Therefore, despite the growth in employment, they still lost 12% of their members.

DC plan membership in the private sector nearly doubled over the same period, increasing the coverage rate from 14% to 27% (Chart B).

Table 1 Pension plan membership

	1991	2006	Change
	'000		%
Both sexes			
Employees	11,672	15,043	29
Pension coverage	5,239	5,480	5
DB plan	4,773	4,581	-4
DC plan	466	899	93
Coverage rate (%)	45	36	-19
DB plan	41	30	-26
DC plan	4	6	50
Men			
Employees	6,327	7,889	25
Pension coverage	3,076	2,810	-9
DB plan	2,790	2,276	-18
DC plan	286	534	87
Coverage rate (%)	49	36	-27
DB plan	44	29	-35
DC plan	5	7	50
Women			
Employees	5,345	7,154	34
Pension coverage	2,163	2,670	23
DB plan	1,984	2,305	16
DC plan	180	365	103
Coverage rate (%)	40	37	-8
DB plan	37	32	-13
DC plan	3	5	52

Note: Plans with fewer than three members, inactive plans and hybrid/mixed plans were withdrawn from the sample. Coverage rates exclude members from the territories since they are not part of the Labour Force Survey.

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

Table 2 Pension plan coverage by sector

	1991	2006
	'000	
Public sector		
Employees	2,855.3	3,261.6
DB plan members	2,463.7	2,550.8
DC plan members	80.9	132.1
Private sector		
Employees	8,814.6	11,781.4
DB plan members	2,309.7	2,030.5
DC plan members	384.9	766.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

However, the situation is very different in the public sector. DC plan membership has certainly increased, but they remain a small minority in this sector.

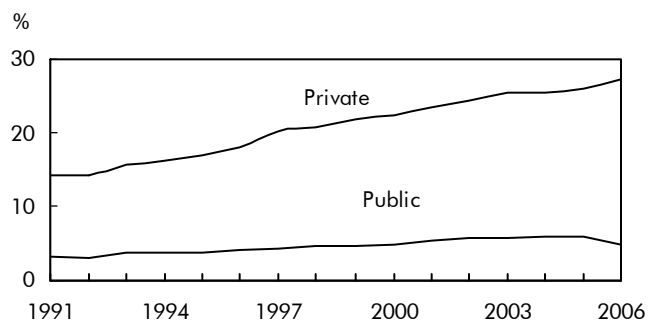
Whether private or public sector, DB or DC, the fluctuations have been similar for both men and women. Furthermore, for both men and women, DC plan coverage has changed almost exclusively in the private sector.

These trends are somewhat similar to those in the United States, where private-sector DC plan membership, which had previously been lower than DB plan membership, is now nearly double. In 1975, 26% of private-sector pension plan members were in DC plans. In 2005, the proportion was 64% (U.S. Depart-

Other employer-sponsored pension plans

Hybrid/mixed plans are a middle ground between DB and DC plans. H/M plans have characteristics of both, providing the security of DBs and the advantages of DCs. Since 2000, the number of people covered by such plans has nearly tripled. Before that, their number had been relatively stable. Nevertheless, given their relatively low weight (barely 1% of employees), they are not considered in this article. The recent increase in their membership may augur an increase in their future importance in Canada. In the United States, membership in such plans has been increasing for several years (Clark and Schieber 2000, and Coronado and Copeland 2003).

In 2001, group registered retirement savings plans (group RRSPs)⁶ covered approximately 1.6 million employees (Morissette and Zhang 2004). Although they are very similar to DC plans, group RRSPs have more members. Together, DC plans and group RRSPs covered more than 2 million employees (17%) in 2001, almost half the DB membership. According to a recent study, these two plans now cover 50% of private-sector employees (Baldwin 2008). In the United States, 401(k) plans are similar to group RRSPs in several ways (Frenken 1996). However, because group RRSPs are not part of the database used for this analysis, they cannot be included in the definition of DC plans.

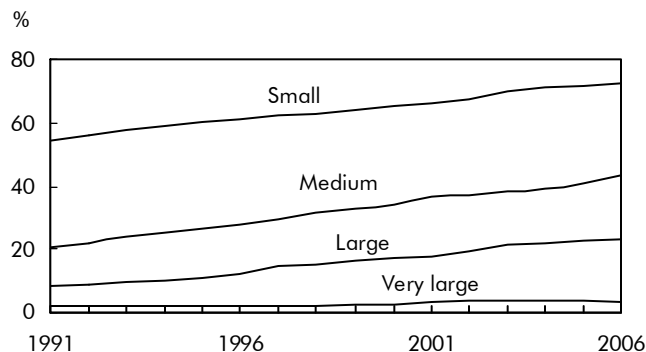
Chart B Private sector the main source of change in DC plan coverage

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

Table 3 Pension coverage by plan size

	1991		2006	
	'000	%	'000	%
Small plans	269.3	100.0	219.3	100.0
Defined benefit	122.9	45.6	60.4	27.5
Defined contribution	146.4	54.4	158.9	72.5
Medium plans	794.9	100.0	818.9	100.0
Defined benefit	630.4	79.3	461.5	56.4
Defined contribution	164.5	20.7	357.4	43.6
Large plans	1,186.6	100.0	1,259.6	100.0
Defined benefit	1,092.1	92.0	968.3	76.9
Defined contribution	94.5	8.0	291.3	23.1
Very large plans	2,988.4	100.0	3,182.5	100.0
Defined benefit	2,928.0	98.0	3,091.2	97.1
Defined contribution	60.4	2.0	91.3	2.9

Note: See *Data source and definitions* for description of plan sizes.
Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

Chart C Defined-contribution plans of all sizes gained ground

Note: See *Data source and definitions* for description of plan sizes.
Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

ment of Labor 2008). As in several other countries, the public sector has seen very little movement toward such plans (Broadbent et al. 2006).

DC plan size on the increase

In 2006, as in 1991, DC plans were more common among small employers. During the period from 1991 to 2006, however, they gained ground in all size groups (Table 3). On the other hand, DB plan membership dropped, sometimes significantly, in all size groups except very large ones, the great majority of which remain DB plans.

The growth of DC plans among plans of almost all sizes has been constant over time (Chart C). However, very large plans experienced a slight setback, mainly between 2001 and 2006.

Sources of change

The trends observed in membership may be attributable to three factors: plan conversions (DB to DC, for example), plan openings and closures, and variation in the number of members in active plans.

Conversion to other types of plans explains 78% of the 192.1 thousand loss of DB plan members (Table 4). Most then joined hybrid/mixed plans. Such conversions may mean that employers are trying to provide workers with pension plans providing the advantages of two plan types while offsetting their disadvantages (Clark and Schieber 2000). Despite the significant addition of members, H/M plans cover few employees. In 2006, they had just 152,000 members, or approximately one-sixth that of DC plans.

Table 4 Sources of change in plan membership

	Defined benefit		Defined contribution	
	'000	%	'000	%
Membership variation	-192.1	100.0	433.2	100.0
Plan conversions	-149.4	77.8	56.4	13.0
Plan openings and closures	-14.2	7.4	98.7	22.8
Change in membership	-28.5	14.9	278.1	64.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey, 1991 to 2006.

Plan openings and closures explain less than 10% of lost DB plan membership, while the variation in active plan membership accounts for 15%. Plan openings and closures may be related because of indirect plan conversions or a fusion of two or more plans.⁷

Of the additional 433,000 DC plan members, 64% came from increased membership in active plans. Openings and closures accounted for 23% of the growth in DC plans, mainly in the private sector. Plan conversions accounted for 13% of the increased membership. In total, 90% of all membership movement between 1991 and 2006 took place in the private sector.

Growth of DC plans in all industries

In 1991, DB plans covered most members in all industries. Fifteen years later, the number of DC plans had increased in all industries and even included most employees in some, particularly in mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction, and in wholesale trade (Table 5).

Table 5 Pension plan membership by industry

	1991		2006	
	DB plan	DC plan	DB plan	DC plan
Industry	91.1	8.9	%	
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	55.1	44.9	44.4	55.6
Mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction	82.6	17.4	45.8	54.2
Utilities	99.4	0.6	94.3	5.7
Construction	90.5	9.5	85.9	14.1
Manufacturing	90.5	9.5	76.5	23.5
Wholesale trade	71.7	28.3	48.9	51.1
Retail trade	79.2	20.8	75.4	24.6
Transportation and warehousing	89.0	11.0	81.5	18.5
Information, culture, arts, entertainment and recreation	93.8	6.2	57.5	42.5
Finance and insurance, administrative and professional services, real estate	87.3	12.7	77.4	22.6
Educational services, health care and social assistance	93.8	6.2	89.4	10.6
Accommodation and food services	81.4	18.6	70.8	29.2
Other services	71.5	28.5	34.9	65.1
Public administration	96.9	3.1	95.9	4.1

Note: Excluded are plans with fewer than three members, inactive plans and plans other than DB and DC.

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

Methodology

The years 1991 to 2006 were used, and plans with fewer than three members were excluded because they are more similar to individual plans. Hybrid/mixed plans were excluded due to their small membership. DB/DC plans (under 80,000 members in 2006) were also dropped, because the information provided does not make it possible to distinguish the DB and DC parts of the plans. Lastly, non-active plans were excluded, except when discussing plan closures.

To determine the number of plans opened and closed during the study period, and particularly the number of members affected at the time of closure, files from 2006 with plan opening and closure dates were used. Closed plans remain in the database. For open plans, those started between 1991 and 2006, as well as their characteristics for 2006, were used.

To find the number of members affected by a plan conversion, files from two consecutive years were compared by plan number to see if the type of plan changed from one year to the next.

Since plans may change types more than once, they could be re-counted in other periods. However, there was a risk of underestimating the number of members affected by conversions, because sometimes employers closed an existing plan and opened a new plan when they wanted to make that type of transition. Furthermore, for several years, plan identification numbers were not consistent throughout Canada. Therefore, it may be that some still-existent plans could not be monitored from one year to the next. The scope of those underestimations could not be evaluated, but, due to their nature, they are unlikely to affect the observed trend.

NAICS two-digit codes were not used in the database before 1998. Standard Industrial Classification codes (SIC-1970) were used to identify industry. A conversion table was used to convert SIC-1970 codes to NAICS two-digit codes. Some industries had to be grouped together in order to ensure that 1991 to 1993 data, initially coded in accordance with SIC-70, were consistent with those coded under NAICS from 2004 to 2006.

Industry changes do not explain DC increase

In part, a change in labour market structure may have created the increased prevalence of DC plans (Ippolito 1995, Gustman and Steinmeier 1992, and Aaronson and Coronado 2005). For example, if workers are now more likely to be part of a given industry and the employees in that industry are historically more often covered by DC plans, the greater overall prevalence of such plans could be partially attributable to the growth of that industry.

Two logistic regressions were estimated to understand to what degree changes in the industrial structure, plan size, and distribution of participants by sex and province between 1991 and 2006 explain the increased prevalence of DC plans (see *Logistic regression*). The first focused on the period from 1991 to 1993, and the second, 2004 to 2006. Even after taking all factors into account, the probability that a plan would be defined contribution was more than 2.5 times greater in the later period (Table 6). This trend therefore seems strong and does not seem to depend on changes in the industrial structure, paralleling previous results (Ippolito 1995).

An Oaxaca decomposition also confirmed the low contribution of these factors to the higher prevalence of DC plans. In fact, such changes should have contributed to a slight increase in DB coverage.

Conclusion

A change in the prevalence of defined-contribution pension plans may have a significant impact on employers and workers. Between

Table 6 Logistic regression coefficients for probability of defined-contribution plan

	1991 to 1993		2004 to 2006	
	Coef- ficient	Proba- bility	Coef- ficient	Proba- bility
Defined-contribution plan	-1.998*	%	-0.811*	%
Members (ref. 400 to 499)				
3 to 49	2.373*	59.3	1.695*	70.8
50 to 99	1.267*	32.5	1.198*	59.5
100 to 199	0.857*	24.2	0.747*	48.4
200 to 299	0.488*	18.1	0.413*	40.2
300 to 399	0.205	14.3	0.234	36.0
500 to 749	-0.177	10.2	-0.358*	23.7
750 to 999	-0.265	9.4	-0.403*	22.9
1,000 to 2,499	-0.729*	6.1	-0.653*	18.8
2,500 to 4,999	-1.779*	2.2	-0.814*	16.5
5,000 to 9,999	-1.178*	4.0	-1.651*	7.9
10,000 or more	-2.132*	1.6	-2.387*	3.9
Control jurisdiction (ref. Ontario)				
Newfoundland	0.326*	15.8	0.233	35.9
Prince Edward Island	1.148*	29.9	0.551	43.5
Nova Scotia	0.655*	20.7	0.464*	41.4
New Brunswick	0.578*	19.5	0.402*	39.9
Quebec	-0.035	11.6	-0.714*	17.9
Manitoba	0.666*	20.9	0.592*	44.5
Saskatchewan	0.709*	21.6	0.525*	42.9
Alberta	0.641*	20.5	0.752*	48.5
British Columbia	0.868*	24.4	0.419*	40.3
Other jurisdictions ¹	0.102	13.0	0.075	32.4
Industry sector (ref. private)				
Public	-0.335*	8.8	-0.476*	21.6
Women in plan (ref. 40% to 59%)				
0% to 19%	-0.370*	8.6	-0.384*	23.2
20% to 39%	-0.090	11.3	-0.114	28.4
60% to 79%	0.020	12.2	0.235*	36.0
80% to 100%	0.364*	16.3	0.466*	41.5
Industry (ref. manufacturing)				
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	0.773*	22.7	0.503*	42.4
Mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction	-0.060	11.3	0.215	35.5
Utilities	-0.555	7.2	-0.544*	20.5
Construction	1.154*	30.1	0.994*	54.6
Wholesale trade	0.639*	20.4	0.628*	45.4
Retail trade	1.461*	36.9	1.277*	61.5
Transportation and warehousing	0.764*	22.6	0.381*	39.4
Information, culture, arts, entertainment and recreation	0.644*	20.5	0.302*	37.6
Finance and insurance, administrative and professional services, real estate	0.430*	17.3	0.379*	39.4
Educational services, health care and social assistance	1.370*	34.8	1.164*	58.7
Accommodation and food services	0.719*	21.8	0.477*	41.7
Other services	0.542*	18.9	0.173	34.6
Public administration	1.336*	34.0	1.155*	58.5

* significant difference from reference group (ref.) at the 0.05 level or better

1. Federal, Quebec/federal, not registered by proper pension authority.

Source: Statistics Canada, Pension Plans in Canada Survey.

Logistic regression

A logistic model was chosen based on a study using a similar methodology (Ippolito 1995). The logistic regression models the probability of plans being defined contribution based on certain characteristics. The equation used was

$$DC = \alpha + \beta_1 T_g + \beta_2 J_i + \beta_3 Public + \beta_4 S_j + \beta_5 I_i.$$

DC is a binary dependent variable equal to 1 when a plan is a DC plan and 0 when it is a DB plan.⁸ T_g is a vector of binary variables for plan size according to membership. J_i is a vector of binary variables representing each of the jurisdictions in which plans can be registered. *Public* is a binary variable equal to 1 for a public-sector plan and 0 for the private sector. S_j represents the proportion of women pension plan members, and I_i is a binary variable repre-

senting different industries. Industries were identified according to North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) two-digit codes.⁹ The high number of size variables allows the best consideration of the effect of members and their numbers on the probability of a plan being defined contribution.

The regression was carried out on a group of plans over three consecutive years in the beginning (1991 to 1993) and at the end (2004 to 2006) of the study period. Those years were selected to verify whether the probability of plans being defined contribution had changed.

Information on unionization, as Ippolito had in 1995, was not available.

1991 and 2006, DC plan membership nearly doubled, greatly increasing their prevalence, to the detriment of DB plans. Furthermore, the increase in prevalence of DC plans was relatively steady through the study period, and a significant portion of the decrease in DB plan membership came from conversions to defined-contribution or hybrid/mixed plans. Although DC plans have some undeniable advantages for employees, their increased prevalence suggests a transfer of risk from employers to workers since 1991.

The increased prevalence of DC plans is reflected in nearly all plan sizes but almost exclusively in the private sector. A regression analysis indicates that industry changes, for example, did not appear to play a role. In fact, the changing labour market structure should have encouraged the growth, albeit slight, of DB plans. Instead, the increased prevalence of DC plans appears to come from a basic change in private-sector employer practices.

Perspectives

Notes

1. These data are from the Longitudinal Administrative Database (LAD).
2. See *Other employer-sponsored pension plans*.
3. Members from the Canadian territories were withdrawn from these coverage rates since they are not part of the Labour Force Survey. Plans with fewer than three members and inactive plans were withdrawn from the sample.
4. For more details on the effects of employment change on retirement income, see Blake 2003.

5. This trend is even more pronounced when group RRSPs are taken into account. They are not part of the database used here and cannot be taken into consideration.
6. See Morissette and Zhang 2004 for a presentation of RPP and GRRSP characteristics.
7. See *Methodology* for reasons that may lead to plan closure.
8. H/M plans were excluded from the sample.
9. See *Methodology*.

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