Spotlight on Canadians: Results from the General Social Survey

Telework, time use, and well-being: Evidence from the 2022 Time Use Survey

by Dana Wray

Release date: June 5, 2024

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Acknowledgements

Highlights

- This study uses time diary data to compare three groups of workers: non-teleworkers (did not telework last week and worked on-site on the diary day); on-site teleworkers (teleworked last week but worked on-site on the diary day); and work-from-home (WFH) teleworkers (teleworked last week and worked at home on the diary day).

- As teleworkers who worked from home on the diary day did not have a commute to work, they were able to reallocate more than an hour per day, on average, to other activities.

- There is no difference in paid work time among all three categories of workers, after accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics.

- Both men and women did more unpaid housework – such as preparing meals, laundry, or cleaning – when they teleworked from home.

- Parents who teleworked at home spent about over an hour more caring for their children, compared to on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers. This care time included when they actively cared for children as their main activity and when they were co-present with children.

- When working from home, teleworkers slept between 19 to 23 minutes more, compared to on-site and non-teleworkers, respectively. They also spent more time eating, but less time on personal care activities such as getting dressed and personal hygiene.

- Teleworkers at home spent about half an hour more in leisure, on average. They spent more time in both passive leisure activities (such as TV-watching) and active leisure activities (such as exercising).

- Satisfaction with work-life balance was higher for teleworkers who worked from home on the diary day.

- Those who worked on-site, but teleworked last week, were more likely to report higher levels of time pressure and strain compared to non-teleworkers and WFH teleworkers. This time pressure included cutting back on sleep or feeling constantly under stress.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic led to a substantial shift in work arrangements, particularly a rapid rise in working from home. The percentage of Canadians working most of their hours from home rose from 7% in May 2016 to about 24% in July 2022 and then slightly down to 21% in July 2023 (Statistics Canada, 2024a). Although the situation around telework is still changing, many more Canadians appear to be working from home than in the past – whether exclusively or in hybrid arrangements (Statistics Canada, 2024b).

The feasibility of teleworking varies substantially. Past research in Canada shows that women, prime working-age individuals (from 25 to 54 years old), more educated groups, higher-earning households, and certain racialized groups have a higher propensity to work from home (Mehdi & Morissette, 2021b; Clarke & Hardy, 2022; Statistics Canada, 2024a). Working from home is also more common for those who work full-time as well as in certain regions, especially in larger cities. In general, this pattern is primarily related to the occupation workers hold, as the prevalence of working in office jobs varies substantially across this dimension.

Recent studies in Canada have investigated numerous aspects of teleworking, including the feasibility of teleworking (Statistics Canada, 2024a), decreases in commuting time and shifts in commute type (Savage & Turcotte, 2020; Morisette et al., 2021), implications for job security (Mehdi & Morissette, 2021b) and wages (Mehdi & Morissette, 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022), and language use at work (Cornelissen, 2024).

However, despite this growing body of knowledge on telework, we know little about how working from home may have changed people's day-to-day lives. In theory, how teleworking might shape time use and well-being can be paradoxical (Charalampous et al., 2019; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020; Chung, 2022; Kim et al., 2019). On the one hand, teleworking may allow workers to reallocate commute time toward preferred activities and balance the competing demands of work and personal life, leading to enhanced well-being. On the other hand, telework may lead to longer work hours or may exacerbate gender inequality in unpaid housework and care. Working from home can also blur the boundaries between work and home life, leading to increased strain and role conflict for employees.

Recent evidence on teleworking before and after the pandemic shows that the daily lives of teleworkers seem to be different. In studies using time use data from the United States from both before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, teleworking at home is associated with a number of changes in time use (e.g., Frazis, 2022; Lyttelton et al., 2022, 2023; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022). As commute time decreases, workers reallocate their time toward leisure, unpaid housework, and care and sleep, while often spending less time in paid work and personal care. However, there is no up-to-date evidence on time use and telework in Canada, as previous research from Statistics Canada on this topic dates from over 14 years ago (Turcotte, 2010).

This study fills this information gap and uses new data from the 2022 Time Use Survey, conducted in Canada from July 2022 to July 2023, to explore time use and work arrangements after the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic. In this study, two research questions are asked: First, how is teleworking from home associated with how people use their time? Second, how are aspects of well-being – such as work-life balance and time pressure – associated with teleworking from home?

Measuring telework and time use

To better understand how time use may be associated with teleworking, this study leverages two different sources of data from the 2022 Time Use Survey. First, in this survey, teleworking is defined as employees[1] spending any time working from home, a co-working space, or elsewhere, while using telecommunications tools (e.g., laptop, phone, tablet),[2] in the week preceding the survey. Second, the time use diary is used to identify the location of paid work on the "diary day" or designated reference day (see Data for more information). This determines whether teleworkers worked at home or on-site on the day they reported their time use. **Telework status** is thus compared across three categories: non-teleworkers (did not telework last week and worked on-site on the diary day), on-site teleworkers (teleworked last week but worked on-site on the diary day), and work-from-home (WFH) teleworkers (teleworked last week and worked at home on the diary day).[3]

The central aim of this study is to uncover whether teleworking at home is associated with different patterns of time use. As previous research shows (e.g., Statistics Canada, 2024a), employees with the ability to telework differ in meaningful ways from those who do not telework in terms of their socioeconomic characteristics (also see Appendix Table A.1). As such, this study uses regression models to try to account for these socioeconomic differences and isolate the relationship between telework and time use or well-being (Appendix Table A.3).

If there are no differences between groups remaining after controlling for these factors, this would suggest that the relationship can be largely explained by differences in sociodemographic or job characteristics. However, if differences *do* remain after the models, this suggests that the observed differences in characteristics cannot fully explain time use or well-being patterns, and instead that it may be related to telework status.

This study primarily presents the adjusted daily minutes predicted by regression models that control for socioeconomic confounders.[4] This estimate represents the predicted daily minutes for a given time use outcome when holding all else constant – that is, as if all three groups of workers did not differ in terms of sociodemographic or job characteristics. For more details about the measures and methods used in this article, see Data, measures, and methods.

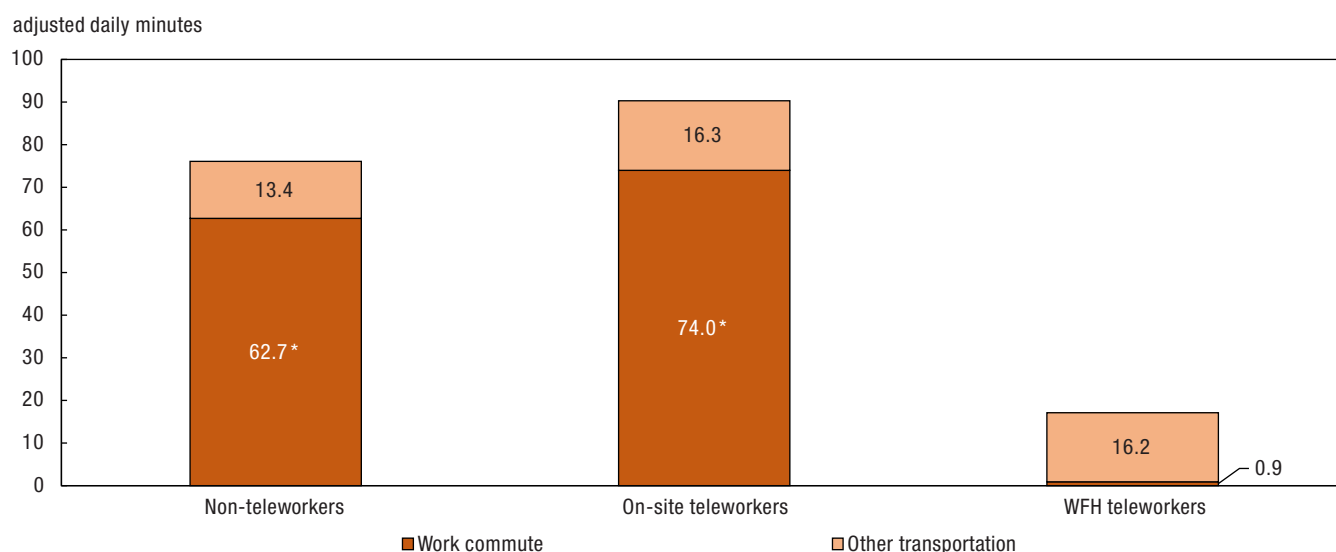## Teleworking at home saved an hour or more per day on commuting

The most prominent difference in time use between those who work on-site and those who telework is commute time, as the ability to work from home reduces or eliminates the need to commute (Morissette et al., 2021; Mehdi & Morissette, 2024).

Indeed, non-teleworkers were predicted to commute for just over an hour (63 minutes) and on-site teleworkers for about 74 minutes (Chart 1), once all else was held constant.

Teleworkers who worked at home, therefore, redistributed over an hour to other activities during the diary day. Apart from their work commute, however, there was no statistically significant difference on average in transportation for other, non-work activities between the groups of teleworkers (Chart 1).

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1. Self-employed individuals are excluded. The definition of teleworking in this article is not limited to those who said they "usually" worked from home in the last week (50% of hours or more), unlike some previous studies (e.g., Statistics Canada, 2024a). For the period examined, the percentages of employees who reported working some, most, or all of their hours in the reference week are similar in the Labour Force Survey and the Time Use Survey.
2. This question was adapted from recommendations from the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2020), and is distinguished from other concepts such as remote work or working from home. Other surveys and studies may vary in their definitions of telework, including current questions on the Labour Force Survey which asks about the usual place of work (e.g., Morissette et al., 2023).
3. As the survey only collects data for one diary day from each respondent, it is not possible to observe teleworkers over multiple days at the office and at home. For more information on the Time Use Survey (Statistics Canada, 2024c), see Data section.
4. The unadjusted mean differences for time use outcomes are presented in Appendix Table A.2. As the unadjusted and adjusted estimates are similar for almost all outcomes, this study focuses instead on the adjusted predicted minutes to examine the association between telework and time use – net of compositional differences.

Chart 1
Adjusted predicted daily minutes in transportation, by telework status, 2022

adjusted daily minutes

Legend: ■ Work commute ▢ Other transportation

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (WFH teleworkers)
Note: "WFH" = work-from-home. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models for each time use category, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list). Confidence intervals are presented in Appendix Table A.6. For more details on the activities included in the primary time use activities, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Non-teleworkers commuted about 11 minutes less than on-site teleworkers – those who teleworked last week but worked on-site – once accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics (Chart 1). This may be because, on average, on-site teleworkers were located slightly farther away from their office or worksite than non-teleworkers (7 kilometers more) (results not shown here). On-site teleworkers were also less likely to commute in a private vehicle (76%) than non-teleworkers (82%), on average, and more likely to commute in other ways such as public transit or active transportation (results not shown here).

Both men and women who teleworked at home did more unpaid housework

Unpaid housework is one of the primary areas of time use that may be affected by teleworking at home compared to working on-site at an office or workplace. Those who work from home may be able to reallocate saved time on their commute toward housework. Teleworkers may also be able to complete tasks such as cleaning, laundry, or cooking during the paid workday when at home. Previous findings using time use data from the United States generally show that teleworkers at home do more housework (Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022, 2023; Lyttelton et al., 2022, 2023; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022).

Working from home was associated with about 16 minutes more in unpaid housework compared to non-teleworkers (Chart 2), once controlling for differences in sociodemographic and job characteristics. This represents a relative difference of about 21% more time in housework on paid workdays for WFH teleworkers (82 predicted minutes) and non-teleworkers (66 predicted minutes).

Given that unpaid housework is a highly gendered activity – with women persistently doing more than men (Moyser & Burlock, 2018) – we might expect that the relationship between teleworking at home and housework may differ for men and women. Some studies contend that men who work from home may be exposed more to the needs of the household, resulting in increased housework (Shafer et al., 2020), whereas others suggest that teleworking could exacerbate women's unequal responsibility for these tasks (Chung, 2022).

Chart 2
Adjusted predicted daily minutes in unpaid housework, by telework status and gender, 2022

adjusted daily minutes
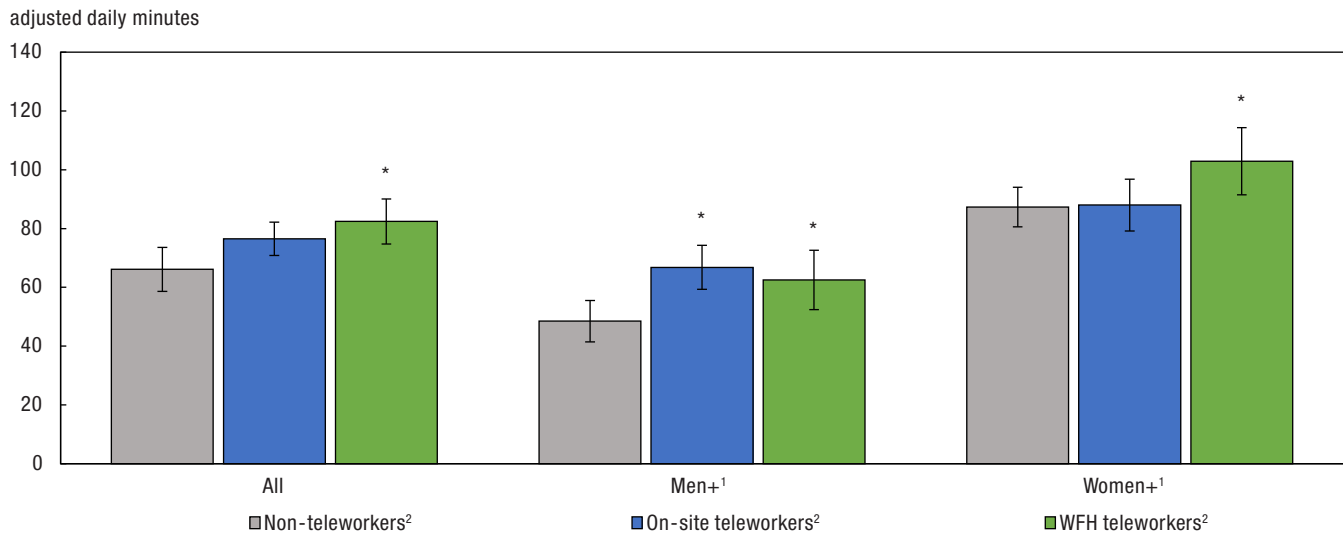
* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (non-teleworkers)
1. Given that the non-binary population is small, data aggregation to a two-category gender variable is sometimes necessary to protect the confidentiality of responses. In these cases, individuals in the category "non-binary persons" are distributed into the other two gender categories and are denoted by the "+" symbol.
2. Significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (men+), for women+.
Note: "WFH" = work-from-home. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models by gender, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list). For more details on the activities included in the category of housework, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

The results showed that both men and women do more housework when working from home, compared to non-teleworkers (14 and 16 minutes more, respectively), once controlling for other factors (Chart 2). However, regardless of telework status, women still do more unpaid housework than men. This contrasts with some previous studies in the United States, which found that the gender gap in housework actually widened for teleworkers (Lyttelton et al., 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022).

Finally, teleworkers who worked on-site on the diary day were not different in terms of unpaid housework time compared to teleworkers who worked at home. However, this is because there is concealed variation between men and women on-site teleworkers. When all other factors are held constant, men who teleworked in the last week spent the same amount of time in housework – regardless of whether they worked at home or on-site – whereas non-teleworking men spent less. In contrast, women who worked on-site – whether or not they teleworked in the last week – spent the same amount of time in housework compared to those who teleworked from home.[5]

Parents who teleworked at home spent more time caring for children

Teleworking is often touted as a tool to help parents reconcile competing work and family demands, given their responsibility for caring for children (Chung & van der Lippe, 2020; Wray, 2021). In recent studies on telework using time use data in the U.S., the gender gap in time with children narrows (Lyttelton et al., 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022, 2023). In particular, teleworking is linked to increased time with children for fathers (Carlson et al., 2021; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Wray, 2021).

Indeed, teleworking at home was associated with more time in childcare activities for parents – those with at least one household child under 18 years old. Parents who teleworked from home spent 35 minutes more on childcare activities than non-teleworkers and 23 minutes more than on-site teleworkers, once accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics (Table 1).

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5. Despite these different patterns for men and women, there was no statistically significant difference between the gender gaps for the three groups of workers (tested using an interaction between gender and telework status for the outcome of housework time, in models not shown here). As a result, the finding that women do more unpaid housework of men, regardless of telework status, holds here.

This difference in childcare time was primarily driven by fathers. Fathers who teleworked from home spent over half an hour more in childcare than non-teleworkers and 22 minutes more than on-site teleworkers, when all else was held constant (Table 1). The difference for mothers in childcare time was not statistically significant once controlling for all characteristics, however.[6]

Table 1
Adjusted predicted daily minutes for parents in total time with children (co-present time and childcare time), by telework status and gender, 2022

	Total time[1]			Co-present time[1]			Childcare time[1]		
	Pred. daily min.[2]	95% confidence intervals		Pred. daily min.[2]	95% confidence intervals		Pred. daily min.[2]	95% confidence intervals	
		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound
Panel A: All parents									
Non-teleworkers	223.6*	205.0	242.2	150.6*	133.7	167.5	73.0*	62.6	83.4
On-site teleworkers	221.4*	189.3	253.5	136.4*	108.8	164.0	85.0*	72.4	97.6
WFH teleworkers	299.6	267.4	331.8	192.0	165.5	218.6	107.6	91.4	123.8
Panel B: Fathers									
Non-teleworkers	200.9[E]*	179.8	222.0	139.7[E]*	128.5	150.9	61.2[E]*	53.1	69.3
On-site teleworkers	197.9[E]*	161.9	233.9	122.8[E]*	101.0	144.6	75.1[E]*	63.9	86.3
WFH teleworkers	272.0[E]	220.0	324.0	175.0[E]	146.7	203.3	96.9[E]	81.0	112.8
Panel C: Mothers									
Non-teleworkers	252.7[E]*	233.0	272.4	162.9[E]*	145.3	180.5	89.8[E]	79.3	100.3
On-site teleworkers	244.4[E]*	206.9	281.9	146.3[E]*	118.0	174.6	98.1[E]	79.4	116.9
WFH teleworkers	323.5[E]	286.8	360.2	215.4[E]	184.3	246.5	108.1[E]	89.8	126.4

[E] use with caution

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

1. Total time is the sum of co-present time and childcare time. Co-present time is the sum of time reported as "with" a household child of any age, not including time in sleep, personal care, or childcare activities. Childcare time is the sum of time reported in childcare as a primary activity, not including travel, regardless of whether children were present.

2. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models for each time use category, with the variable of interest on telework status, and controlling for variables related to diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Data, measures, and methods section).

Notes: "Pred. daily min." = predicted daily minutes. "WFH teleworkers" = teleworkers who worked from home. For more details on the activities included in the primary time use activities, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Time spent in childcare as a primary activity, however, can underestimate the amount or types of time spent interacting with children (especially older children) as well as time where parents are supervising children (Folbre & Yoon, 2007; Wray et al., 2021). Indeed, previous research on telework more consistently finds large increases in secondary childcare, supervisory care, or time with children (Frazis, 2022; Lyttelton et al., 2023; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Wray, 2021).

Parents who teleworked from home on the paid work diary day spent more co-present time – that is, time where children were present outside of childcare as a primary activity. WFH teleworker parents spent about 41 minutes more co-present time compared to non-teleworkers and 56 minutes more compared to on-site teleworkers, holding all other factors constant (Table 1).[7] As a whole, then, WFH teleworkers are expected to spend nearly one hour more caring for children – whether co-present with children or actively engaging in childcare – on paid work diary days than non-teleworker or on-site teleworker parents, once accounting for all other factors (Table 1).[8]

As both fathers and mothers who teleworked from home spent more time with children than the other groups of parents, adjusting for all factors, the gender gap in total time with children does not change based on telework status. At the same time, looking at the total time with children, rather than just time in childcare as a primary activity, illuminates some gendered differences in the types of care time. For example, mothers who teleworked at home spent about an hour more in co-present time with children, compared to non-teleworkers (Table 1), all else held equal. However, fathers who teleworked from home spent more time in both childcare and co-present time compared to non-teleworker fathers, all else held equal (Table 1).

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6. The adjusted difference in childcare time between WFH teleworking mothers appears moderate – 18 minutes compared to non-teleworkers and 10 minutes compared to on-site teleworkers. However, the statistical tests of the regression models show that we cannot be confident that this is a real difference associated with the variable of interest (telework) rather than the result of random chance. This is likely partly due to the small sample sizes of parents by gender and by telework status.

7. The difference between co-present time for on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers is not statistically significant, however.

8. Due to the small sample size of this sub-group (parents with at least one household child under 18, who worked on the diary day, and who were eligible for one of the telework categories), it is not possible to break down in what types of activities this co-present time took place. For example, research from the U.S. using time use data suggests that some of the increased co-present time with children may be during paid work time (Lyttelton et al., 2022, 2023; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022).

No differences in paid work time by telework status once accounting for job characteristics

The evidence on how teleworking may be associated with paid work hours varies. Past research looking at self-reported or average work hours often finds that teleworking can lead to longer hours and overtime, as boundaries become blurred between work and home (Chung, 2022). Yet, recent time use research on teleworkers in the United States, both pre- and post-pandemic, finds that teleworkers spend less time in paid work on diary days when working from home (Frazis, 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022). However, even if the time spent in paid work time may be different, these studies do not measure productivity. Indeed, other research from earlier in the pandemic shows that most Canadians workers generally reported being at least as productive, if not more productive, when working at home (Mehdi & Morisette, 2021a).

Chart 3
Adjusted differences in daily minutes of paid work time, by telework status, 2022
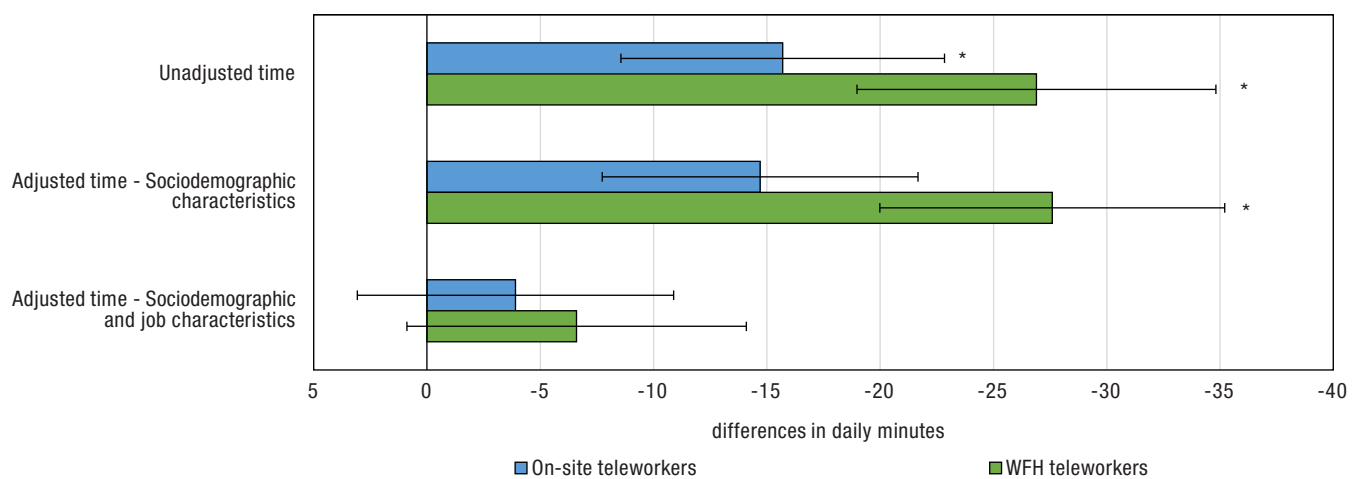
* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (non-teleworkers)
Note: "WFH" = work-from-home. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The estimates presented here are the regression coefficients (in daily minutes) for telework status, with the reference category as non-teleworkers. The "unadjusted" difference is the mean difference (see also Appendix Table A.2). The "adjusted – sociodemographic characteristics" difference is estimated using an OLS linear regression model that controls for diary and sociodemographic characteristics. The "adjusted – sociodemographic and job characteristics" difference is estimated using an OLS linear regression model that controls for diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics. See the Data, measures, and methods section for more details. For more details on the activities included in the category of paid work, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Chart 3 shows the difference in paid work time on the diary day for WFH teleworkers and on-site teleworkers compared to non-teleworkers (reference category). According to unadjusted mean differences in paid work time, WFH teleworkers work significantly less than non-teleworkers (a 27-minute difference) as do on-site teleworkers (a 16-minute difference) (Chart 3). Controlling for sociodemographic factors does not seem to explain any of this difference (Chart 3).

However, it is likely that these differences in paid work time are due to observed differences in job characteristics. For example, teleworkers are more likely to work in office jobs in select industries (Statistics Canada, 2024a) and are more likely to have flexible schedules (such as regular hours and the ability to vary the start and end times of work) (Appendix Table A.1).

Indeed, once controlling for differences in sociodemographic and job characteristics, there is no longer any statistically significant difference in paid work time (Chart 3). As a result, WFH teleworkers are not expected to work any more or less than on-site teleworkers or non-teleworkers once all else is held constant.

Multitasking during paid work time

During the COVID-19 pandemic, popular discourse on teleworking from home mostly focused on the (often negative) perception that teleworkers may be multitasking their paid work with other tasks. Multitasking – doing tasks simultaneously or alternating between them rapidly – is portrayed as a time-management strategy that allows individuals, especially mothers, to squeeze in the multiple demands of work and personal life (Offer & Schneider, 2011). But does the data on multitasking and time use support the popular image of the teleworker doing a load of laundry in between meetings, answering emails on the treadmill, or keeping an eye on their children while working?

To understand differences in multitasking, data on simultaneous activities from the 2022 TUS time diary is used (Appendix Table A.5). Respondents are asked "Were you doing anything else at the same time?" for all activities except essential sleep. Participation in multitasking activities (i.e., reporting the simultaneous activity at all during paid work time) is reported rather than the duration in daily minutes due to measurement limitations.[9] Due to sample size restrictions, the analysis below groups together workers based on their work location on the diary day. Those who did paid work "at the workplace" include both non-teleworkers and on-site teleworkers (those who teleworked last week), and those that did work "at home" include WFH teleworkers.

Teleworkers who worked at home were more likely to multitask during their paid work time, compared to those who worked on-site at the workplace on the diary day. The probability of multitasking during paid work time was 56% for those who worked at home compared to 45% for those who worked at a workplace, when all sociodemographic and job characteristics were held constant. Women also remained more likely than men to multitask during paid work time, so the gender gap remained regardless of whether they worked at the workplace or at home (results not shown).

Chart 4
Predicted probability of selected simultaneous activities during paid work time, by work location on the diary day, 2022
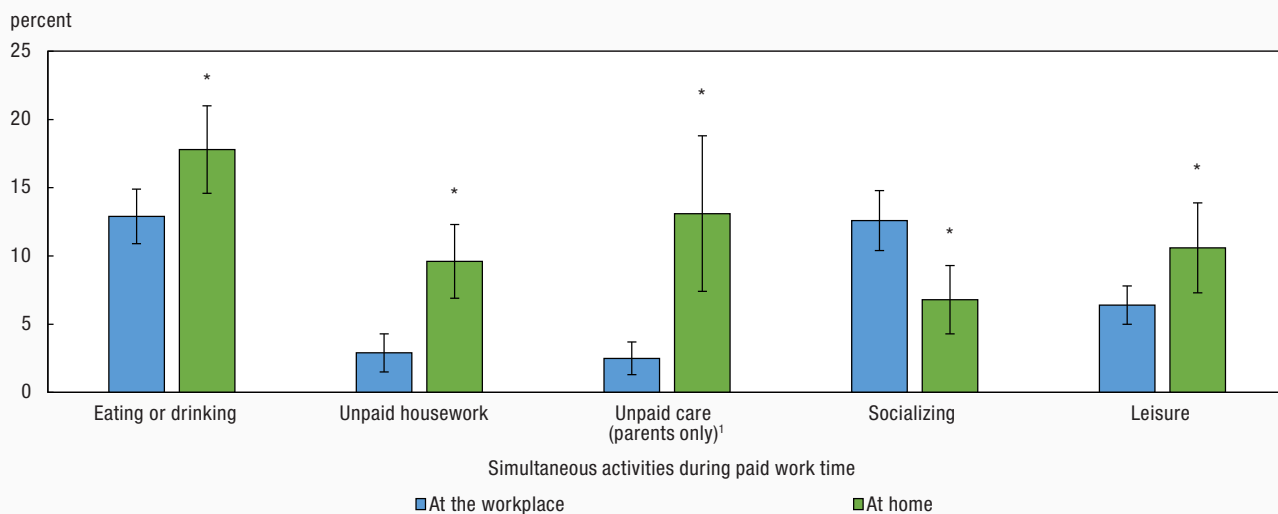
* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (at the workplace)
1. The predicted probability for unpaid care activities during paid work is presented only for parents, i.e., those with at least one household child under the age of 18 years old, similar to other analyses for care in this study.
Notes: Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The predicted probabilities presented above are estimated using separate logistic regression models for each simultaneous activity category, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list). For more details on the activities included in the simultaneous time use categories, see Appendix Table A.5.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

9. To estimate the approximate duration of the simultaneous activities, the 2022 TUS asks a follow-up question on how long the respondent spent doing this simultaneous activity, with the response categories: "almost no time," "about half the time as the specific [main] activity," and "the same amount of time as the specific [main] activity." This study does not look at these measures.

Some of the multitasking during paid work is expected and normal for both on-site work and work at home. For example, the most common activity to multitask was eating or drinking. Those who teleworked at home were 5 percentage points more likely that those who worked at the workplace to eat or drink during paid work, once accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics (Chart 4). They were also more likely to do leisure activities simultaneously while working, such as reading, watching TV, or listening to music. In contrast, those who worked at the workplace were about 6 percentage points more likely to socialize – whether in-person or virtually – during paid work than those who worked at home (Chart 4), when all else was held equal.

Beyond common tasks such as eating or listening to music, one aspect of multitasking that is often linked to working from home is the ability to combine paid work and unpaid housework and care at home. Studies have shown that those who worked from home were more likely to multitask their job tasks and home or family tasks than those who worked at a workplace (Schieman & Young, 2015).

Indeed, this study also found that teleworking from home was associated with a higher likelihood of doing unpaid housework or care responsibilities simultaneously during paid work. Teleworkers at home were 7 percentage points more likely than those who worked at the workplace to do unpaid housework simultaneously with paid work, when all other characteristics are held equal (10% vs. 3%).

For parents specifically, those who worked at home were 10 percentage points more likely to multitask unpaid care during their paid work, controlling for all other factors. Holding all else constant, the predicted probability for doing unpaid care and paid work simultaneously was 13% for parents.

Working at home was associated with more time sleeping and eating, but less time doing personal care

Past research on time use and teleworking suggests that the time saved on commuting may be reallocated toward self-care activities that could enhance work-life balance and well-being, such as more sleep and time in meals (Frazis, 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022).

Interestingly, working from home was associated with less time in personal care activities, such as personal hygiene, grooming, or getting dressed (Appendix Table A.4). Teleworkers from home spent 24 minutes less in personal care than non-teleworkers and 17 minutes less than on-site teleworkers, once accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics. Past studies have speculated that this may be due to lower pressure on those working from home to spend time on these personal care activities, compared to those who must be on-site at an office or workplace (Frazis, 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022).

Working from home was also associated with more time spent in meals (or eating and drinking). On average, teleworkers who worked at home on the diary day reported about 9 minutes more time eating than non-teleworkers and 14 minutes more than on-site teleworkers, holding all else constant (Chart 5). There was no statistically significant difference between on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers.

Chart 5
Adjusted predicted daily minutes in personal care and meals, by telework status, 2022
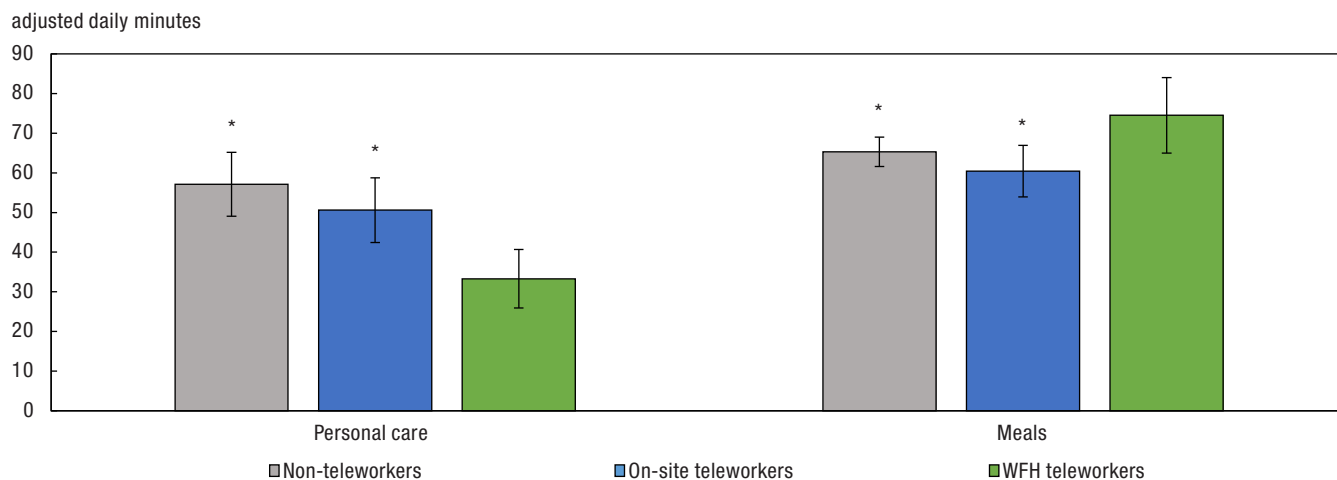
* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (WFH teleworkers)
Note: "WFH" = work-from-home. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models for each time use category, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list). For more details on the activities included in the categories of personal care and meals, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Finally, teleworkers who worked from home slept for about 23 minutes more compared to non-teleworkers and 19 minutes more than on-site teleworkers, once accounting for different sociodemographic and job characteristics (Appendix Table A.3). Although not examined in this study, US research suggests that this increase in sleep may also be due to waking hours shifting on days working from home, leading to later wake-up times (Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022).

More time in both passive and active leisure for teleworkers who worked at home

Teleworking from home may also facilitate more free time, which studies often link to time gained from not needing to commute. Past research shows that working at home is linked to more time in passive leisure, such as watching TV or using the computer (Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Frazis, 2022). The evidence on active leisure – such as exercising or playing sports – is less clear.

Overall, teleworking from home was associated with more leisure time compared to when working on-site. Teleworkers at home on the diary day spent about half an hour more in leisure activities, compared to both on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers, holding all else equal (Chart 6). This greater amount of time in leisure was observed for passive leisure activities – such as reading, watching TV, or computer use – as well as active leisure activities – such as physically active activities like organized or recreational sports, exercise, or outdoor activities; or other active activities like hobbies, art, or playing games (see Appendix Table A.4).

Chart 6
Adjusted predicted daily minutes in active and passive leisure, by telework status, 2022

adjusted daily minutes

	Active leisure	Passive leisure
Non-teleworkers	18.1 *	86.7 *
On-site teleworkers	19.1 *	88.6 *
WFH teleworkers	28.6	109.4

■ Active leisure   ■ Passive leisure

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (WFH teleworkers)
Note: "WFH" = work-from-home. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models for each time use category, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list). Confidence intervals are presented in Appendix Table A.6. For more details on the activities included in the category of leisure, see Appendix Table A.4.
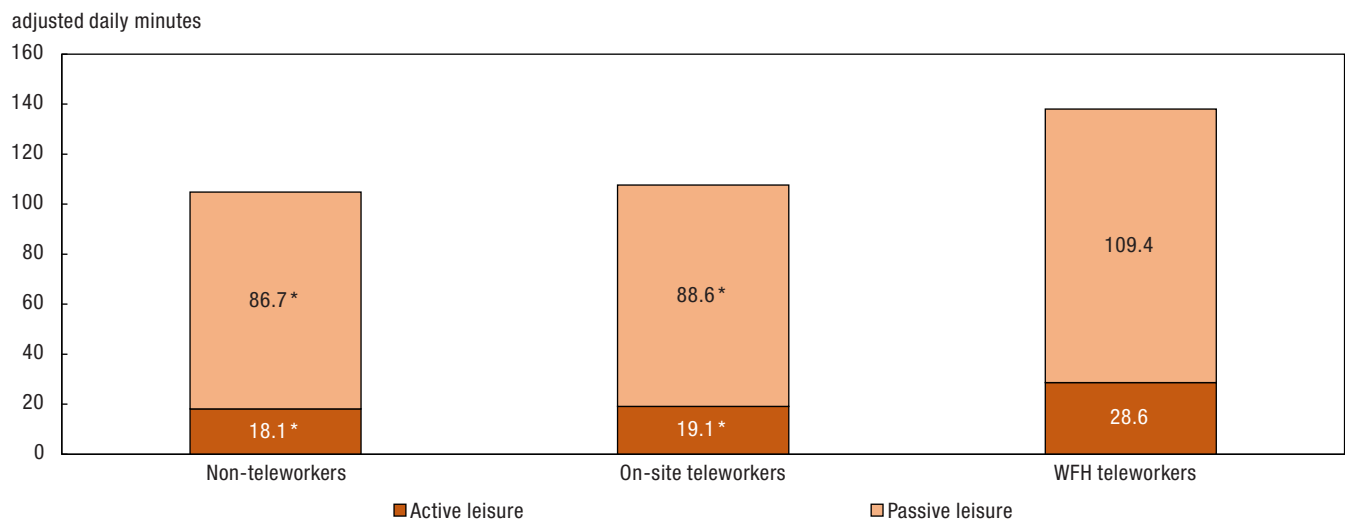**Source:** Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Holding all other characteristics constant, WFH teleworkers are predicted to spend just under two hours (110 minutes) in passive leisure activities, whereas non-teleworkers and on-site teleworkers are predicted to spend about 1.5 hours (Chart 6). This is about 23 minutes more than non-teleworkers and 21 minutes more than on-site teleworkers, all else held constant. Most of this difference in passive leisure was due to TV-watching, specifically (Appendix Table A.3).

In addition, when working from home, teleworkers spent about 10 to 11 minutes more daily in active leisure activities when all else was held equal (Chart 6) compared to non-teleworkers and on-site teleworkers, respectively. Although the actual number of minutes allocated to active leisure activities was smaller, the relative increase in average time was larger (a 58% difference for active leisure compared to a 26% difference for passive leisure for WFH teleworkers versus non-teleworkers).

Teleworkers who worked from home were more satisfied with their work-life balance

Although telework is often positioned as a tool for work-life balance, the relationship between the flexibility of working from home and well-being is in fact a "paradox" (Chung, 2022). On the one hand, telework can be a desirable job attribute – particularly those in jobs where telework is feasible. In this light, telework is framed as allowing workers to juggle demands of work and family or personal life, reduce long commutes and financial costs, and perhaps allocate time use differently in general, as described above.

On the other hand, working from home can lead to eroded boundaries – both physical and mental – between work and life, leading to increased role conflict or strain, especially with information and communication technologies (ICTs) that allow workers to be always reachable. Part of this is attributable to time use: working at home may lead to an encroachment of paid work into family life, or it can also expand the expectation and burden of unpaid housework and care, especially on women. How telework may be associated with work-life balance and time pressure, then, is complex (Charalampous et al., 2019; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020; Chung, 2022; Kim et al., 2019).

Chart 7
Predicted probabilities of satisfaction with work-life balance, by telework status, 2022
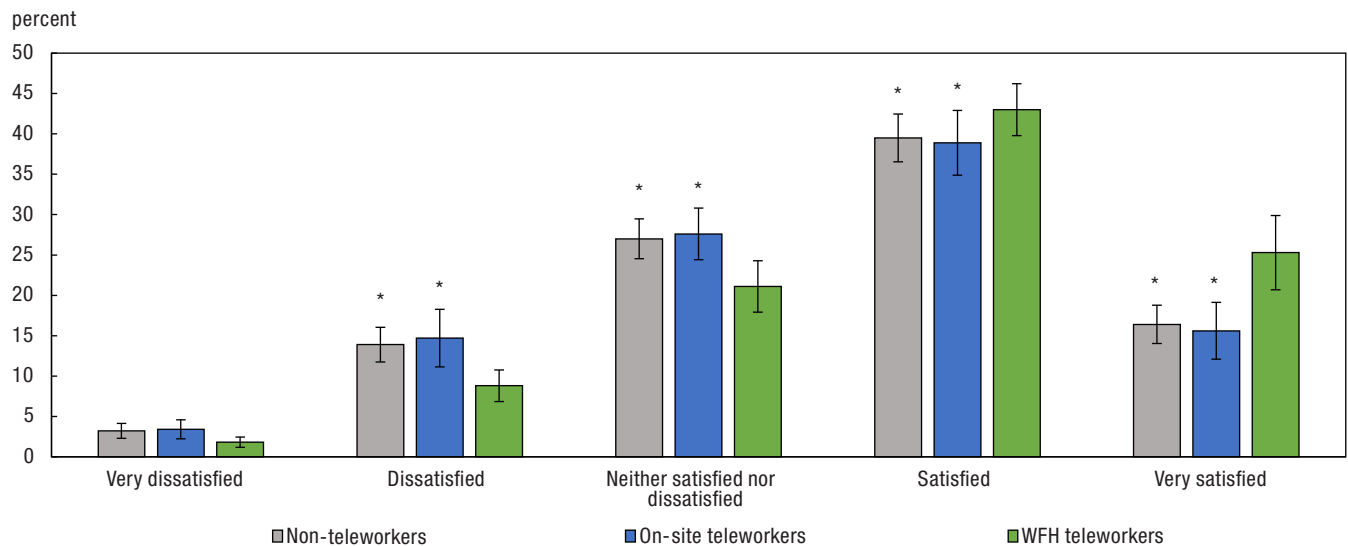
* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (WFH teleworkers)
Notes: "WFH" = work-from-home. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The predicted probabilities presented above are estimated using an ordered logistic regression model with the outcome of satisfaction with work-life balance, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list).
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

On average, teleworkers who worked from home on the diary day reported being more satisfied with their work-life balance compared to both on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers (results for mean differences not shown here). Once adjusting for sociodemographic and job factors that may also be associated with work-life balance, this relationship remained largely the same. WFH teleworkers were 12 percentage points more likely than non-teleworkers and 14 points more likely than on-site teleworkers to be satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance, holding all else constant (Chart 7). This was primarily driven by the greater likelihood, when all else was held equal, of WFH teleworkers to be "very satisfied" and the lesser likelihood of being "dissatisfied", compared to other groups of workers (Chart 7).

On-site teleworkers report higher levels of time pressure overall compared to both WFH teleworkers and non-teleworkers

An additional measure of well-being related to telework and time use is how teleworkers and non-teleworkers may differently experience time pressure. If working from home allows teleworkers to reallocate their commute time or better manage work and home demands, it is expected that levels of time pressure would be lower. In contrast, if working from home is associated with blurring between work and family roles as well as the pressure to multitask, it is possible there would be no difference – or even higher levels of time pressure.

Chart 8
Predicted probabilities of selected dimensions of time pressure, by telework status, 2022

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from reference category (on-site teleworkers)
Notes: "WFH" = work-from-home. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. The predicted probabilities presented above are estimated using separate logistic regression models for each measure of time pressure, holding all covariates constant (see the Methods section for more details about the analytic strategy). Models control for all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Measures section for a complete list).
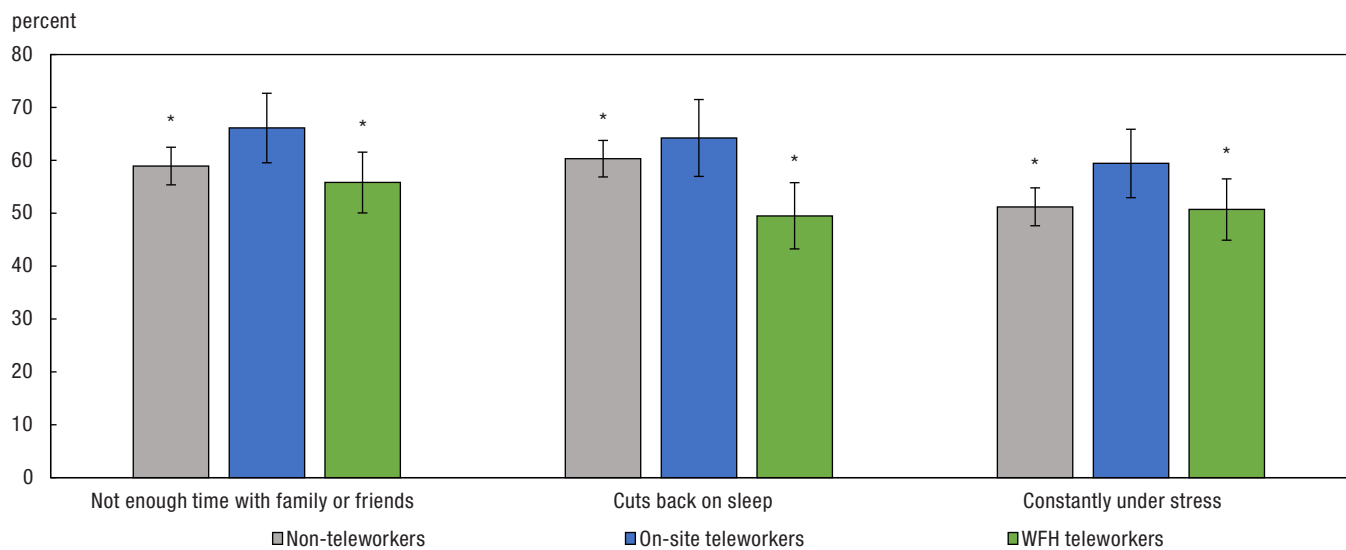**Source:** Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Interestingly, on-site teleworkers were most likely to feel time pressure across various dimensions than both WFH teleworkers and non-teleworkers. For example, once accounting for sociodemographic and job characteristics, on-site teleworkers were 10 percentage points more likely than WFH teleworkers and 7 percentage points more likely than non-teleworkers to be worried that they did not spend enough time with their family and friends (Chart 8).

On-site teleworkers were also 8 percentage points more likely to report constantly being under stress trying to accomplish more than they could handle compared to both non-teleworkers and WFH teleworkers, once controlling for all other factors. In addition, both on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers were more likely than WFH teleworkers to report cutting back on sleep when they needed more time. Holding all else constant, on-site teleworkers were estimated to be 15 percentage points more likely than WFH teleworkers and 4 percentage points more likely than non-teleworkers to say they cut back on sleep.

The reasons for this difference in perceptions of time pressure for on-site teleworkers is not fully explained in this study. Research on the impacts of hybrid work is an emerging area of evidence (e.g., Bloom et al., 2023; Fan & Moen, 2023), especially as fewer employees work fully remotely compared to the beginning of the pandemic during lockdown restrictions. Future research is needed to investigate these 'on-site' teleworkers – who may be more likely to have hybrid schedules – including how the type of work they do may account for differing perceptions of time.

Conclusion

After a sharp increase in telework during the COVID-19 pandemic, many workers continued to work partly or exclusively from home in 2022 and 2023 (e.g., Statistics Canada, 2024a). Teleworking from home has the potential to shift the daily activities of workers and possibly enhance well-being, but it may also blur boundaries between work and home, leading to longer work hours, inequalities in work and care responsibilities, and decreased well-being (e.g., Chung & van der Lippe, 2020).

Using new data from the 2022 Time Use Survey, this study finds that teleworking is associated with how Canadian employees spend their days across a number of different dimensions of time use. These different patterns can be seen even after accounting for differences between teleworkers and non-teleworkers in terms of sociodemographic characteristics or the types of jobs held.

Notably, teleworkers who worked from home on the diary day saved more than an hour per day in commuting to and from paid work, compared to non-teleworkers and on-site teleworkers. Instead, WFH teleworkers spent more time sleeping and eating, doing active and passive leisure activities, and doing unpaid housework, once controlling for socioeconomic factors. In addition, parents who teleworked at home spent more time co-present with and actively caring for their children, all else equal. Further, there are no differences in paid work time, once accounting for the different types of jobs held by teleworkers and non-teleworkers. Those who worked at home were more likely to report any multitasking during their paid work activities, such as eating or doing unpaid work or care as a simultaneous activity, but were less likely to socialize simultaneously during work time.

Furthermore, teleworking at home is associated with higher work-life balance and lower levels of time pressure. For example, WFH teleworkers have higher predicted levels of satisfaction with their work-life balance on average compared to on-site teleworkers and non-teleworkers, once controlling for differences in sociodemographic and job characteristics.

Surprisingly, on-site teleworkers – who teleworked the week before the diary day, but worked on-site on the diary day – were more likely to have higher levels of time pressure than both non-teleworkers and WFH teleworkers. Accounting for differences in sociodemographic and job characteristics does not explain this association. The reasons for this difference are unclear. Perhaps the slightly longer commute time observed for on-site teleworkers may contribute to time pressure. Or, it is possible that on-site teleworkers are more likely to have hybrid schedules, and that the lack of stability in alternating between work and home may contribute to increased time pressure (e.g., see discussion in Fan & Moen, 2023). Future research should investigate more on the impacts of various hybrid work schedules on time strain and other measures of well-being.

There are several limitations of this study that should be noted. First, the 2022 TUS cannot fully distinguish the frequency of working from home, nor precisely identify hybrid and fully remote workers, due to the types of questions asked and to the reference to the "last week" in the survey. Second, as the sample size of teleworkers on diary days involving paid work is limited, further exploration of heterogeneity between different groups of teleworkers (e.g., by gender, age, racialized group, disability status, etc.) is not possible. Third, as diaries in the 2022 TUS are only collected from one respondent per household, it is not possible to explore whether the time use of others in the household are affected.

Fourth, this study does not examine the timing of the different activities. It is possible that WFH teleworkers shift time saved on commuting to other activities – such as sleep or childcare, as other research shows (e.g., Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022). When at home, teleworkers might also be able to do tasks like housework or exercise in between paid work or on breaks. Yet at the same time, paid work time is not different for WFH teleworkers. The blurred boundaries of teleworking may mean that paid work encroaches on home life (Chung & van der Lippe, 2020). For example, work may be more fragmented (Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022) – such as outside of 'core hours', in the early morning or later in the evening – than when working on-site. Finally, it is important to note that the analyses on simultaneous activities do not estimate for how long the multitasking lasted; future research is needed.

Overall, this study contributes to our knowledge of how the shifting reality of teleworking may impact the lives of Canadians. This study is the first using time use data in Canada to study telework since the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings presented here align broadly with similar patterns found in recent research from other countries such as the U.S. (Frazis, 2022; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022; Restrepo & Zeballos, 2022). In all, once accounting for differences in the discrepant likelihood of teleworking for different groups and types of jobs, teleworking at home appears to be linked to different patterns of time in daily life.

Data, measures, and methods

Data

The 2022 Time Use Survey (TUS) is a cross-sectional survey with a target population consisting of non-institutionalized persons and non-residents of First Nations reserves, aged 15 and over, living in the 10 provinces. Data collection took place between July 2022 and July 2023. Responses were gathered by self-administered electronic questionnaires and computer-assisted telephone interviews (CATI). The response rate of the survey was 31% and the full sample was 12,336 respondents.

The TUS collects a 24-hour diary that retrospectively collects all activities done by a respondent starting at 4 a.m. on a designated reference day (the "diary day") and ending at 4 a.m. the next day. Activities had a minimum duration of 5 minutes. For each activity, information was collected on what the respondent was doing ("primary activity"), the duration in minutes, what else the respondent was doing ("simultaneous activity"), where it took place, and who else was present during the activity.

Sample

This study compares teleworkers to non-teleworkers using two separate measures from the 2022 Time Use Survey (see Measuring telework and time use for more details). First, in the survey questionnaire, questions about teleworking were asked to respondents whose main activity in the last week was working at a paid job[10] and who were employees (not self-employed). Teleworkers are those who reported teleworking from home, a co-working space, or another location in the last week.[11] Second, following recent studies on telework and time use data (e.g., Frazis, 2022; Lyttelton et al. 2022, 2023; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022), the location of paid work[12] on the diary day is identified from the time use diary.

Telework status is thus defined as three categories: 1) non-teleworkers, or those who did not report any teleworking in the last week and who did paid work at their workplace (or travelled on business) on the diary day;[13] 2) "on-site" teleworkers, who teleworked in the last week but who did paid work on-site[14] on the diary day; and 3) work-from-home ("WFH") teleworkers, who teleworked in the last week and did paid work at home[15] on the diary day.

Measures

This study examines several selected categories of **time use as a primary activity**, including: sleep, personal care, meals, paid work, housework, leisure (including active and passive activities), and transportation (including commuting to work and other transportation) (see Appendix Table A.4). Only time use categories that varied by telework status are presented. For parents, time with children is captured using three measures: childcare time (childcare as a primary activity), co-present time (when parents reported a household child of any age was present during activities other than sleep, personal care, or childcare), and total time (the sum of co-present time and childcare time).

This study also explores selected categories of **simultaneous activities** to measure **multitasking**, including: eating, unpaid housework, unpaid care, socializing, and leisure (see Appendix Table A.5 for details). As the 2022 TUS does not collect the exact amount of time in simultaneous activities, only **participation** in these activities is analyzed.

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10. Employees who were on vacation from their job in the past week, on parental leave, or those who said they did not work last week in teleworking questions and had no paid work on the diary day, were all asked teleworking questions but were excluded in this study.

11. Because this question did not explicitly exclude those who regularly worked at an office but took work home, only those who teleworked for at least one regular working day (measured using the respondent's own usual weekly working hours and the usual number of days worked per week) were included as teleworkers.

12. The sample is restricted to those who did at least 2 hours of paid work (other than commuting) on the diary day. Although thresholds vary across papers (e.g., Pabilonia & Vernon [2022] look only at weekdays), a threshold is used to capture days that are primarily structured around paid work and to attempt to avoid days where teleworkers may simply be working overtime at home (Lyttelton et al., 2022, 2023).

13. We exclude respondents who reported no telework in the past week on the survey question but who reported time in paid work at home on the diary day. Because the survey question asks about last week, whereas the diary day reports yesterday or within 48 hours, it is not possible to adequately discern whether these are teleworkers or not.

14. A small number of those who teleworked in the last week reported working both at home and in the office on the diary day. Most, however, reported more hours at the office, suggesting they may have taken work home. As robustness checks testing various ways of classifying these respondents showed no differences, we choose to code them as on-site workers.

15. A small number of those who teleworked in the last week reported working from a location other than home or the office on the diary day. Due to the risk of error in coding "other" work locations in the diary day, we exclude these respondents and focus only on those who worked at home.

In addition, a number of variables are used in regression models (see Methods, below) to adjust for relevant differences in characteristics between groups that may be related to both the propensity to telework as well as time use patterns. First, **diary characteristics** include if the diary was collected in the summer, on a weekend, on an 'atypical' day, and the mode of collection (telephone interview and electronic questionnaire). Second, **sociodemographic characteristics** include gender,[16] age, presence of a spouse or partner in the household, parental status (i.e., having at least one own household child under 18 years old), educational attainment, racialized vs. non-racialized group, immigrant status, disability status,[17] rural area, and region of Canada. For analyses specifically focusing on parents, the age of the youngest child was also included. Third, **job characteristics** included having a regular schedule, having the flexibility to vary start and end times, usual paid work hours at all jobs, holding a single versus multiple jobs in the past 12 months, occupation (National Occupation Classification two-digit codes),[18] and industry sector (North American Industry Classification System four-digit codes). Further details on the measurement of these variables, as well as the distribution of these characteristics in the analytic sample used in this study, are presented in Appendix Table A.1.

Methods

This study uses multivariate regression analyses to examine the associations between telework and time use, as well as telework and well-being. These models are used to control for compositional effects (e.g., differences in socioeconomic characteristics and job types) between groups, to attempt to isolate the link between telework status and time use – the primary research question of this study. As such, this study presents primarily these adjusted differences. Unadjusted mean differences for time use outcomes are presented in Appendix Table A.2 for reference.

Ordinary least squares (OLS) linear regression models[19] were estimated separately for each time use category; where applicable, models were estimated separately by gender. Ordered logistic regression models were estimated for the outcome of work-life balance (Chart 7). Logistic regression models were estimated separately for each individual measure of time pressure (Chart 8). All models were estimated by sequentially adding in three blocks of variables: 1) diary characteristics, 2) sociodemographic characteristics, and 3) job characteristics (see Measures for details). The coefficients for the independent variable of interest, telework status, are summarized in Appendix Table A.3.

Models with all three blocks of variables were then used to predict adjusted estimates of the dependent variable, holding all control variables at mean values of the whole sample of all eligible workers.[20] For time use outcomes, these adjusted estimates should be interpreted as predicted daily minutes for a WFH teleworker, on-site teleworker, or non-teleworker holding all other characteristics constant – that is, if these three groups of workers did not vary in terms of sociodemographic and job characteristics. In the study, this is often referred to as "accounting for," "adjusting for," "holding constant," or "all else equal."

This study focuses on presenting the adjusted predicted outcomes for two primary reasons. First, this facilitates the presentation and interpretation of results from numerous separate models. Second, the primary focus of this study is concerned with the association between telework status and time use or well-being, net of compositional effects. Presenting the predicted minutes also follows previous research on this topic using time use data (e.g., Lyttelton et al., 2022, 2023; Pabilonia & Vernon, 2022, 2023).

All estimates in this study used population weights and bootstrap weights from the TUS 2022. Following best practices at Statistics Canada, the sampling error of the estimate is reported through its 95% confidence interval (Statistics Canada, 2024c). This can be interpreted as such: if the survey was repeated many times, then 95% of the time (or 19 times out of 20), the interval would cover the true population value.

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16. Given that the non-binary population is small, data aggregation to a two-category gender variable is sometimes necessary to protect the confidentiality of responses. In these cases, individuals in the category "non-binary persons" are distributed into the other two gender categories and are denoted by the "+" symbol.
17. Persons with disabilities were identified using the short version of the Disability Screening Questions (DSQ), which was included in the 2022 TUS.
18. For occupational category, this study uses the Variant of the National Occupational Classification (NOC) 2021 Version 1.0 with Aggregates for Analysis of Labour force – a recommended standard. For more information, see: Notice of release of a new Variant of the National Occupational Classification (NOC) 2021 Version 1.0 with Aggregates for Analysis of Labour force.
19. Evidence suggests that ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models are preferred in analyzing time use, as they produce less biased estimates than Tobit models (Stewart, 2013).
20. The predicted daily minutes can also be referred to as "conditional means." Note that, for OLS linear regression models for time use outcomes, the predicted daily minutes does not vary regardless of whether using the mean values of characteristics for the entire sample or using the observed values and averaging the prediction (Cameron & Trivedi, 2022; Williams, 2012). Thus, this study refers to the predicted values as being computed holding other variables constant.

Appendix

Appendix Table A.1
Sociodemographic and job characteristics of the sample, by telework status, 2022

	Non-teleworkers			On-site teleworkers			WFH teleworkers		
		95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals	
	Percent	lower bound	upper bound	Percent	lower bound	upper bound	Percent	lower bound	upper bound
Gender[1]									
Men+	54.6	51.1	58.1	49.0	42.1	56.0	55.5	50.4	60.6
Women+	45.4	41.9	48.9	51.0	44.0	57.9	44.5	39.4	49.6
Educational attainment									
High school diploma or less	31.7	28.1	35.6	6.9	4.1	11.3	6.2	4.5	8.4
College or trades	36.2	33.0	39.5	27.6	21.5	34.6	25.5	21.5	29.8
University	30.3	27.3	33.5	64.2	57.1	70.7	66.2	61.4	70.7
Disability status									
At least one disability[2]	39.6	36.3	43.1	45.8	39.0	52.8	39.6	34.9	44.5
No disabilities	60.4	56.9	63.7	54.2	47.2	61.0	60.4	55.5	65.1
Parental status									
Own household child(ren) under 18	30.5	27.6	33.6	37.6	31.5	44.1	33.1	28.7	37.9
No children under 18	69.5	66.4	72.4	62.4	55.9	68.5	66.9	62.1	71.3
Partnership status									
Spouse or common-law partner in the household	59.1	55.3	62.7	66.0	58.3	72.9	64.5	58.9	69.6
No partner in the household	40.9	37.3	44.7	34.0	27.1	41.7	35.5	30.4	41.1
Age group									
18 to 24 years	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
25 to 34 years	23.6	20.5	26.9	23.9	18.3	30.7	29.0	24.0	34.6
35 to 44 years	21.7	19.4	24.3	27.9	22.9	33.5	23.4	19.8	27.3
45 to 54 years	21.5	19.1	24.1	22.2	17.9	27.1	24.2	20.4	28.5
55 to 64 years	16.5	14.4	18.9	12.7	9.6	16.6	14.5	11.8	17.7
65 years or older	3.1	2.3	4.0	1.3	0.7	2.4	3.9	2.4	6.2
Racialized groups[3]									
Racialized group	33.6	30.1	37.4	38.1	31.0	45.8	37.2	32.1	42.7
Non-racialized group, not Indigenous	64.2	60.4	67.7	60.2	52.6	67.3	59.3	53.8	64.5
Indigenous identity									
First Nations, Métis, or Inuk (Inuit)	2.6 E	1.8	3.9	2.6 E	1.4	4.7	1.3 E	0.6	2.5
Not Indigenous	95.6	94.2	96.8	96.1	93.6	97.6	95.9	92.9	97.7
Immigrant status									
Born in Canada	64.1	60.5	67.6	60.4	53.1	67.3	61.3	56.0	66.3
Recent immigrant (10 years or less)	11.6	9.1	14.6	10.8	6.1	18.5	12.9	9.2	17.9
Non-recent immigrants (more than 10 years)	22.4	19.6	25.5	27.4	21.7	34.1	23.1	19.2	27.4
Region									
Eastern provinces	8.2	6.8	9.8	4.3	2.8	6.6	5.1	3.7	7.1
Quebec	22.0	19.3	25.0	24.2	19.2	30.0	23.1	19.4	27.3
Ontario	34.1	30.5	37.8	45.6	38.5	52.8	46.4	41.2	51.7
Western provinces	23.9	21.0	27.1	14.0	10.9	17.7	12.1	9.2	15.8
British Columbia	11.8	10.0	13.9	11.9	8.1	17.2	13.3	10.3	16.9
Type of area of residence									
Rural	12.2	10.5	14.1	7.4	5.0	10.9	8.9	6.8	11.7
Other type of area of residence[4]	87.8	85.9	89.5	92.6	89.1	95.0	91.1	88.3	93.2
Usual weekly work hours[5]									
Full-time (30 hours or more)	89.9	87.3	92.1	97.2	95.2	98.3	94.1	90.2	96.5
Part-time (Less than 30 hours)	8.8	6.7	11.4	2.1	1.2	3.7	3.8	2.0	7.0
Number of jobs in previous week									
Single job-holder	89.3	86.9	91.3	84.2	76.6	89.6	91.3	87.4	94.0
Multiple job-holder	9.8	7.9	12.2	14.3	9.0	21.9	7.1	4.7	10.5

Appendix Table A.1
Sociodemographic and job characteristics of the sample, by telework status, 2022

	Non-teleworkers			On-site teleworkers			WFH teleworkers		
		95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals	
	Percent	lower bound	upper bound	Percent	lower bound	upper bound	Percent	lower bound	upper bound
Workdays in average week									
Less than 5 days	14.9	12.5	17.7	2.8	1.8	4.5	3.5	2.4	5.0
5 days	70.9	67.6	73.9	78.8	72.0	84.3	86.9	83.1	89.9
More than 5 days	13.1	11.0	15.5	17.6	12.3	24.6	7.9	5.6	11.1
Schedule type									
Regular schedule	70.3	66.7	73.6	88.1	83.2	91.7	88.5	84.1	91.9
Irregular schedule	28.9	25.6	32.5	11.0	7.4	15.8	9.9	6.9	14.0
Flexible schedule									
Yes	21.6	19.0	24.5	58.0	50.7	64.9	65.7	60.8	70.3
No	77.6	74.6	80.2	40.7	33.7	48.0	32.7	28.2	37.4

E use with caution

F too unreliable to be published

1. Given that the non-binary population is small, data aggregation to a two-category gender variable is sometimes necessary to protect the confidentiality of responses. In these cases, individuals in the category "non-binary persons" are distributed into the other two gender categories and are denoted by the "+" symbol.

2. A person is defined as having a disability if he or she has one or more of the following types of disability: seeing, hearing, mobility, flexibility, dexterity, pain-related, learning, developmental, memory, mental health-related, or unknown.

3. Data on 'racialized groups' is measured with the 'visible minority' variable. The 'non-racialized group' is measured with the category 'Not a visible minority' of the variable, excluding Indigenous respondents. For the purpose of this study, Indigenous respondents are not part of the racialized group, nor the non-racialized group. 'Visible minority' refers to whether or not a person belongs to one of the visible minority groups defined by the *Employment Equity Act*. The *Employment Equity Act* defines visible minority as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour." The visible minority population consists mainly of the following groups: South Asian, Chinese, Black, Filipino, Latin American, Arab, Southeast Asian, West Asian, Korean and Japanese.

4. Other type of area of residence includes: core, fringe, population centre outside census metropolitan areas (CMAs) or census agglomerations (CAs), or secondary core.

5. Usual work hours is included as a continuous variable in models but is presented here as a binary variable of full-time versus part-time.

Notes: "WFH teleworkers" = teleworkers who worked from home. The responses "Not stated" and "Don't know" are included in the calculation of percentages but are not presented unless they represent at least 5% of responses. As a result, percentages may not add up to 100%.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Appendix Table A.2
Unadjusted mean daily minutes in selected time use activities, by telework status, 2022

	Non-teleworkers			On-site teleworkers			WFH teleworkers		
		95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals			95% confidence intervals	
Primary activity[2]	Daily minutes[1]	lower bound	upper bound	Daily minutes[1]	lower bound	upper bound	Daily minutes[1]	lower bound	upper bound
Sleep	482.0*	472.0	492.0	482.3*	468.8	495.8	503.4	490.5	516.3
Personal care	54.3*	48.4	60.2	54.7*	48.2	61.2	37.7	33.2	42.2
Meals	63.7*	60.2	67.2	59.9*	53.8	66.0	75.4	65.8	85.0
Paid work[3]	504.4*	495.0	513.8	488.8	478.6	499.0	477.5	465.3	489.7
Housework	66.4*	57.0	75.8	75.6	68.9	82.3	87.1	75.3	98.9
Total time with children[4]	216.0*	197.8	234.2	228*	196.1	259.9	310.2	280.4	340.0
Childcare	73.7*	62.3	85.1	83.5*	66.6	100.4	110.4	90.2	130.6
Co-present time	142.3*	127.2	157.4	144.6*	119.3	169.9	199.8	169.6	230.0
Leisure	103.8*	95.2	112.4	102.4*	89.3	115.5	140.5	127.0	154.0
Active leisure	15.9*	13.0	18.9	20.9*	14.1	27.7	32.4	25.5	39.3
Passive leisure	87.9*	80.1	95.7	81.5*	70.6	92.4	108.1	95.5	120.7
TV-watching	60.7*	54.0	67.4	59.0*	49.6	68.4	76.6	67.6	85.6
Transportation[5]	74.0*	70.1	77.9	94.2*	86.6	101.8	17.4	14.1	20.7
Commute	60.9*	57.2	64.6	76.9*	69.6	84.2	1.2 E	0.4	2.0
Other transportation	13.0	11.0	15.0	17.3	13.2	21.4	16.3	13.0	19.6

E use with caution

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

1. Daily minutes represent unadjusted means for descriptive purpose only. Only adjusted predicted daily minutes are presented in-text, and Appendix Table A.3 presents the adjusted differences based on OLS linear regression models. See the Data, measures, and methods section for more details.

2. Only the selected time use outcomes discussed in the study are presented here. See Appendix Table A.4 for more details on activity categories.

3. The sample is restricted to those who did at least 2 hours of paid work (other than commuting) on the diary day.

4. Estimates presented here for activities related to care for children include only parents (respondents who had at least one household child under 18 years old). Total time is the sum of co-present time and childcare time. Co-present time is the sum of time reported as "with" a household child of any age, not including time in sleep, personal care, or childcare activities. Childcare time is the sum of time reported in childcare as a primary activity, not including travel, regardless of whether children were present.

5. Transportation activities are not included in any other primary activity (see Appendix Table A.4).

Note: "WFH teleworkers" = teleworkers who worked from home.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Appendix Table A.3
Ordinary-least–squares linear regression models for time use outcomes, coefficients for telework status, 2022

	Non-teleworkers			On-site teleworkers		
	Regression coefficient[1]	95% confidence intervals		Regression coefficient[1]	95% confidence intervals	
		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound
Primary activity[2]	daily minutes					
Sleep	-23.4*	-37.4	-9.4	-19.4*	-34.2	-4.6
Personal care	23.8***	10.9	36.6	17.2***	8.6	25.8
Meals	-9.3*	-15.5	-3.1	-13.7*	-15.9	-2.7
Paid work[3]	6.6	-8.1	21.3	2.7	-12.9	18.4
Housework	-16.3**	-25.1	-7.5	-4.2	-15.7	7.3
Total time with children[4]	-76.0*	-100.7	-51.3	-78.2*	-103.3	-53.1
Childcare	-34.6*	-47.8	-21.4	-22.6*	-35.5	-9.7
Co-present time	-41.4*	-62.7	-20.1	-55.6*	-77.1	-34.1
Leisure	-33.4**	-52.3	-14.6	-30.3**	-47.9	-12.7
Active leisure	-10.7*	-18.1	-3.3	-9.6*	-17.1	-2.1
Passive leisure	-22.7*	-36.5	-8.9	-20.7*	-33.0	-8.4
TV-watching	-19.2*	-32.4	-5.9	-14.1*	-27.1	-1.0
Transportation[5]	61.3**	54.9	67.7	75.5**	68.0	83.1
Commute	64.1**	59.0	69.2	75.4**	68.6	82.4
Other transportation	-2.8	-7.0	1.3	0.1	-5.2	5.3

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

** significantly different (p < 0.01) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

*** significantly different (p < 0.001) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

1. Regression coefficients are for the variable "telework status", with the reference group of WFH teleworkers. The coefficients displayed indicate the difference in daily minutes from the reference group, holding all other variables constant. These coefficients are taken from OLS linear regression models separately estimated for each outcome (15 in total), with all diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics included. See the Data, measures, and methods section for more information.

2. Only the selected time use outcomes discussed in the study are presented here. See Appendix Table A.4 for more details on activity categories.

3. The sample of teleworkers in this study is limited to those who worked at least 2 hours of paid work on the diary day.

4. Estimates presented here for activities related to care for children include only parents (respondents who had at least one household child under 18 years old). Total time (the sum of co-present time and childcare time) is presented above each bar. Co-present time is the sum of time reported as "with" a household child of any age, not including time in sleep, personal care, or childcare activities. Childcare time is the sum of time reported in childcare as a primary activity, not including travel, regardless of whether children were present.

5. Transportation activities are not included in any other primary activity (see Appendix Table A.4).

Notes: "WFH teleworkers" = teleworkers who worked from home.
Source: Statistics Canada, 2022 Time Use Survey.

Appendix Table A.4
Selected categories of time use as a primary activity, 2022 Time Use Survey

Category	Primary activities[1]
Sleep	Essential sleep; sleeplessness or insomnia; naps, laying down, resting, or relaxing; sick in bed, prescribed bed rest, convalescence, or rehabilitative rest; or sleep, n.e.c.
Personal care	Personal care; self-administered medical care; receiving personal care from another household member; and personal care; n.e.c.
Meals	Eating (meals, snacks); drinking other than with meals or snacks; break or lunch related to paid work activities; break or lunch related to studying or learning; eating or drinking, n.e.c.
Paid work	Paid work; paid training; waiting or idle time related to paid work; selling of goods or services for pay or profit in household enterprises or self-employment; other income-generating activities; looking for work; paid work, n.e.c.
Housework	Preparing or serving food; food cleanup, dish washing; preserving foods; unpacking groceries; indoor house cleaning, tidying, care of house plants; taking out garbage or unpacking goods; laundry, mending, shoe care; organizing, planning, paying bills, managing mail; pet care; sewing clothes; interior DIY improvement, maintenance; installation or repair of household goods; packing or unpacking of luggage, vehicle, for a trip; packing or unpacking for a move of the household; outdoor cleaning; exterior DIY improvement, maintenance; DIY construction; vehicle maintenance; firewood; gardening, planting, raising animals for household use; household tasks, n.e.c.
Childcare	For child(ren) (<15): personal care, getting ready for school, emotional help, medical care; reading, playing, talking; homework, educational help, reprimanding; accompanying to or from places or appointments. For teenager(s) (15-17): personal care, getting ready for school, playing, emotional support, talking, medical care; helping with homework, educational help, reprimanding; accompanying to or from places or appointments. Caring for household members 17 years of age or younger, n.e.c.
Active leisure	Leisure or outdoor activities (e.g., fishing, hunting, camping, etc.); exercising (e.g., walking, running, exercise class, etc.); organized recreational sports; competitive sports; outdoor non-competitive sports (e.g., hike, bike, swim, etc.); other sports (e.g., bowling, table tennis, etc.); arts, hobbies, or playing games; reading (online or paper).
Passive leisure	Watching television shows, movies or videos online or tv broadcast; listening to music, radio or podcasts online or radio broadcasts; use of technology; mass media activities, n.e.c.
Transportation[2]	All travel for any purposes.

1. Primary activities, or the respondent's main activity, were reported in response to the question, "What were you doing?" Respondents could also report one simultaneous activity (see Appendix Table A.5). Selected activities exclude the following time use categories not examined in this study: shopping; adult care; education; informal volunteering for other households or the community, organization-based volunteering, or other unpaid work; civic or religious activities or community social events; cultural activities; socializing; free and waiting time; or other and unknown activities.

2. Transportation activities are not included in other categories.

Notes: N.E.C. = not elsewhere classified. Time use activity categories are adapted from the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics (ICATUS) 2016 (Statistics Canada, 2024c).

Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Appendix Table A.5
Descriptions of selected categories of simultaneous activities, 2022 Time Use Survey

Category	Simultaneous activities[1]
Eating	Eating or drinking
Unpaid housework	Preparing meals; Housework; Organizing, planning, or paying bills; Pet care
Unpaid care or help to children or adults	Parenting; Care or assistance to others
Socializing	Socializing or communicating – in person (e.g., talking, visiting); Socializing or communicating – using any type of technology (e.g., phone, email, social media, video call, texts)
Leisure	Reading; Watching television shows, movies, or videos; Listening to music or radio; Hobbies

1 Simultaneous activities were reported in response to the question, "What else were you doing at the same time?" (Statistics Canada, 2024c). "At the same time" was defined in the survey as doing another activity while performing the main activity (see Appendix Table A.4), without interrupting it. Only 16 options for activities were provided. Only the simultaneous activity categories discussed in this study are presented above. Excluded categories include "other" activities and general computer use.

Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

Appendix Table A.6
Supplemental information on predicted daily minutes and confidence intervals for Chart 1 and Chart 6

	Non-teleworkers	95% confidence intervals		On-site teleworkers	95% confidence intervals		WFH teleworkers	95% confidence intervals	
		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound
				predicted daily minutes					
Panel A: Supplemental information for Chart 1									
Work commute	62.7*	59.2	66.2	74.0	67.2	80.9	0.9	0.3	1.5
Other transportation	13.4	11.5	15.3	16.3	12.2	20.3	16.2	12.8	19.6
Panel B: Supplemental information for Chart 6									
Active leisure	18.1*	14.6	21.6	19.1*	13.4	24.8	28.6	21.9	35.3
Passive leisure	86.6*	79.0	94.2	88.6*	78.8	98.4	109.4	95.9	122.9

* significantly different (p < 0.05) from the reference category (WFH teleworkers)

Notes: "WFH teleworkers" = teleworkers who worked from home. The adjusted predicted daily minutes presented above are estimated using separate OLS linear regression models for each time use category, with the variable of interest on telework status, and controlling for variables related to diary, sociodemographic, and job characteristics (see the Data, measures, and methods section). For more details on the activities included in the primary time use activities, see Appendix Table A.4.
Source: Statistics Canada, Time Use Survey, 2022.

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